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represents an emblematical Figure of Geography *seated by the Basis of* Britannia *& recording in regular order,* A New Geographical tory & Description *of* Europe, Asia, Africa & America, *who are here introduced on the occasion by* Neptune, *as emblematical representatives of* World, *bringing the various produce & curiosities of their respective Countries.—* New Britannia *is* Mercury, *charged with the delivery of* w Discoveries *in* various parts *of the* Globe, *which point out the assistance the* Author *has had from the late* celebrated Navigators *& ingenious* vellers.—*The other emblems of* Trade & Commerce, *Ships &c all denote the several Departments of this* Entire New & Complete System of Geography.

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However, amidſt the Variety of Publications on this Subject, which have made their Appearance from Time to Time, it has been matter of great Aſtoniſhment to many, that not one has been written on a New, Cheap, and Improved Plan of general Information, containing all the recent *Diſcoveries*, and which may be ſuitable to ſuch as wiſh to gain a perfect Knowledge of *Men* and *Things* in every Part of *Europe*, *Aſia*, *Africa*, and *America*. This has been, moſt certainly, a general Complaint throughout this Country; but, without pointing out the Errors and Abſurdities of other Writers, we now offer to the Public

A NEW, COMPLETE, AUTHENTIC, AND UNIVERSAL SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY,

Being a Complete Modern HISTORY and DESCRIPTION of the WHOLE WORLD, upon ſuch an improved and extenſive Plan, as has been long wiſhed for.

Our Readers will have no Reaſon to complain that they have been caught by an inviting Title Page, or that they received leſs than they promiſed themſelves, from the Peruſal of our Propoſals. We acknowledge that we have promiſed much, but we likewiſe confidently aſſert that our Performances will not be found inadequate to our Propoſals.—The moſt ample Fortune of the richeſt Man, and the longeſt Life of the moſt laborious Traveller, attended with all that Succeſs which his moſt ſanguine Expectations could hope for, would be inſufficient to make him acquainted with the twentieth Part of what will be found in this Uſeful and Entertaining Work, which is calculated for general Inſtruction and Amuſement.

The

The Public will at once perceive, that this Work could not poſſibly be completed in leſs than Eighty Numbers, conſidering the neceſſary Copiouſneſs of the Whole; and to have extended it further would have been entirely unneceſſary, and only making a Job for the Printer, and others concerned in the external Execution of it; as, beſides the Conſideration of the extraordinary large and elegant Size in which the Work is printed, we have carefully omitted the tedious Errors of other Writers, particularly long and injudicious poetical Quotations from Authors, who never were allowed by People of any Diſcernment, to have aimed at Authenticity in their fancied local Deſcriptions. So that this work is not only the Cheapeſt of the Kind, but alſo the moſt Complete and Elegant in every reſpect whatever. We ſhall, therefore, ſubmit the Whole to the Patronage and Protection of the unprejudiced and diſcerning Public, who will, no doubt, generouſly give the Preference according to Merit.

That Turn for Reading which now ſo univerſally prevails throughout theſe Kingdoms, is certainly very Laudable, and cannot but be attended with very great Advantages. It is impoſſible that vacant Hours can be better filled up, than in the Peruſal of well-choſen Books; and a very little Reflection will ſhew, that next to the Sacred Scriptures, nothing can have a greater Claim to our particular Notice, than the Work which we now offer to the Public.

We ſhall begin with a New Hiſtory and Deſcription of ASIA, that Quarter of the Globe, which on many Accounts demands our earlieſt Regard.

AFRICA will make the Second Part of our Work; and, attending to the regular Order of Things, we ſhall next come to

The EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, whoſe Inhabitants, becoming more bold in the Spirit of Enterprize, than thoſe of the other two Parts of the Globe, diſcovered the fourth grand Diviſion of the World, namely,

AMERICA; with a more complete Hiſtory and Deſcription (including the preſent, as well as antient State) of which than is to be found in any ſimilar Performance; we ſhall conclude this New Syſtem of Geography—a Work, founded on the moſt reſpectable Authorities, comprizing all the late Diſcoveries made in every Part of the Globe, by the moſt celebrated Navigators, and ingenious Travellers, and arranged with the greateſt Accuracy and Care, being the Reſult of unwearied Aſſiduity and Study, for ſeveral Years.

GEORGE HENRY MILLAR.

*** *It is unneceſſary to remark that (unlike thoſe who abſurdly introduce Accounts in a detatched and heterogeneous way) we ſhall endeavour to be perfectly conſiſtent in obſerving ſyſtematic Order, and give the Hiſtory and Deſcription of* New Holland, Botany Bay, Norfolk Iſland, &c. *where the Convicts are now ſettled, together with all the other New Diſcoveries in the Particular Parts of our Work to which they properly and ſyſtematically belong.*

P. S. The COPPER-PLATES, MAPS, CHARTS, &c. in *other Works* of this Nature having been a *Diſgrace* inſtead of an *Embelliſhment*, we have totally obviated that *Imperfection*, by employing the moſt able and *renowned Artiſts* in the Kingdom; whereby they will juſtly correſpond with the *Dignity* and *Elegance* of the Work they are intended to *embelliſh*. The PUBLISHER therefore flatters himſelf, that the impartial Examiner will, upon a proper Inſpection, juſtly acknowledge this to be the *Beſt* and *moſt Complete* SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY ever yet offered to the Public.

PUBLISHED ACCORDING TO ACT OF PARLIAMENT

N. B. The New, Complete, and Eaſy INTRODUCTION to GEOGRAPHY and ASTRONOMY; comprehending an uſeful and entertaining Explanation of the Principles and Terms of both Sciences, their Relation to each other, the Figure, Motion, &c. of the Earth, Planets, &c. Latitude, Longitude, Uſe of the Globes, Maps, and Compaſs; the Nature of Heat, Air, Meteors, Wind, &c. conſtant and variable, and other Particulars: Together with a Complete GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX to Places, *will be given at the* CONCLUSION *of the* WORK.

*** A Complete LIST of the SUBSCRIBERS will alſo be printed and delivered gratis with the laſt Number of the Work.

☞ In conſequence of our printing this Work on Types of a particular conſtruction, and unuſual in Publications of the kind hitherto publiſhed, we are enabled to compriſe conſiderably more Matter on the Subject than others give, who have unneceſſarily extended their expenſive performances to 90 or 100 Numbers for ſiniſter Motives—ſo that our Claim to CHEAPNESS, as well as SUPERIORITY in other reſpects, muſt appear evident to every Reader.

THE

A NEW, COMPLETE, AND EASY INTRODUCTION TO GEOGRAPHY AND ASTRONOMY.

THE term GEOGRAPHY, being derived from the Greek, ſignifies a deſcription of the world. By the world we mean the terraqueous globe which we inhabit, and which is uſually termed the terreſtrial globe.

The term Geography is uſed to denote the deſcription of the whole world; Hydrography implies a deſcription of water; Chorography ſignifies the deſcription of a country, or province; and Topography means the deſcription of a particular diſtrict, city, town, village, or place.

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS.—The principal terms uſed in Geography, reſpecting the deſcription of land and water, are as follow: 1. A Continent; a large portion of earth, comprizing ſeveral countries, which are not ſeparated by the ſea. 2. An Iſland; a portion of earth entirely ſurrounded by water. 3. A Peninſula; a quantity of land, joined to the continent by a ſmall neck, and every where elſe ſurrounded by water. 4. An Iſthmus; that neck which connects the peninſula to the main land. 5. A Promontory or Cape; a high point of land, which ſtretches into the ſea. 6. An Ocean; an immenſe collection of water, ſurrounding a great part of the continent. 7. A Sea; a ſmaller collection of water, or an inferior ocean. 8. A Gulf; a part of the ſea almoſt ſurrounded by land, except at one ſmall part, where it joins the main ſea. 9. A Bay; in general leſs than a gulf, and has a wider entrance. 10. A Creek is leſs than a bay, and may be deemed a ſmall inlet of water, running a little way into the land. 11. A Road is a place on the coaſt where there is a good anchorage. 12. A Streight, or Strait, is a narrow paſſage of water, which joins two ſeas, two gulfs, a ſea and a gulf, &c. 13. A Lake is a collection of waters, ſurrounded by land. 14. A River is a ſtream of water, which derives its ſource from ſome inland ſpring, meanders through the country, and empties itſelf either into the ocean, the ſea, or ſome other river or lake.

Concerning the ARTIFICIAL SPHERE, *or* GLOBE.] The Sphere is an artificial machine, conſiſting of many circles, invented by the ſagacity of mathematicians, to explain the doctrine of the globe, or orrery, and to illuſtrate the motions of the earth, planets, &c. A circle is divided into three hundred and ſixty equal parts, which we call degrees; each degree into ſixty more equal parts, called minutes. The plane of a circle means that ſurface on which it is drawn; and if the ſurface be ſuppoſed of an infinite extent from the centre, it is ſtill called the plane of that circle. But circles are ſaid to be in different planes, when the ſurfaces on which they are made incline to, or interſect each other. The axis is that line which we conceive to paſs through the middle of the earth, and on which the whole maſs turns round, repreſented in the artificial globe by a wire. The two extremities of the axis are called the poles of the equator; and if the axis be imagined to reach the ſtars, one point is called the arctic, and the other the antarctic, or the north and ſouth poles of the world.

The principal great circles are the following, *viz.* 1. The Equator, which is a great circle, going from eaſt to weſt, parting the globe into the north and ſouth hemiſpheres. It is named the Equator or Equinoctial Line, becauſe when the ſun arrives there the nights and days are equal. It is alſo divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, reckoned eaſtward from the firſt meridian. 2. The Horizon is that great circle which parts the upper hemiſphere from the lower, or the viſible from the inviſible hemiſphere. So much of the earth as we comprehend in our view, in a circular manner when we ſtand on a plain, is called the Senſible Horizon. The Rational Horizon is to ſuppoſe the eye at the centre of the earth, viewing the whole celeſtial hemiſphere upwards, which is repreſented by a broad wooden circle encompaſſing the globe, on which are deſcribed ſeveral other circles. The Meridian is a great circle, dividing the globe into the eaſt and weſt hemiſpheres: it lies directly north and ſouth, paſſing through the poles of the equator. The Meridian is changeable, being properly that part of the heavens where the ſun is at noon; ſo that every place on the earth has a different Meridian, if we move eaſt or weſt; but paſſing north or ſouth, it remains the ſame.

The globe hangs in a braſs circle, on which is placed another ſmall braſs one, called the horary circle; this is divided into twenty-four equal parts, and deſcribes the hours of day and night: which, in turning of the globe, are pointed out by an index fitted to the pole. This is to ſhew the riſing and ſetting of the ſun, moon and ſtars, or the time of the day in all parts of the earth. The degrees of latitude are marked on any Meridian line, but always on the two outermoſt in maps. There are two Meridians, called Colures, the Solſtice Colure, and the Equinox Colure, which being alſo great circles, cut the ſphere into four equal parts. By theſe the ſeaſons are diſtinguiſhed. The Ecliptic is a great oblique circle, cutting the equator at angles of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes. It deſcribes the annual courſe of the earth north and ſouth.

The characters and names of the ſigns are, Aries ♈, Taurus ♉, Gemini ♊, Cancer ♋, Leo ♌, Virgo ♍, Libra ♎, Scorpio ♏, Sagittarius ♐, Capricorn ♑, Aquarius ♒, and Piſces ♓. There are two more great circles, called Verticle, or Azimuth circles. Theſe are perpendicular to the horizon, and paſs through the zenith and nadir.

There are four leſſer circles. The two Tropics are thoſe of Cancer and Capricorn. The two remaining circles are ſtill ſmaller, called the Arctic, or Polar Circles. Theſe circles, like the two Tropics, have double lines.

The Cardinal Points are the four quarters of the world; eaſt, weſt, north and ſouth. The collateral points are the principal diviſions and ſubdiviſions of the four chief; in all thirty-two.

The earth being divided into five parts, by the two Tropics and the two Pole circles, thoſe five parts are named Zones: two Temperate, two Frigid, and the Torrid Zone. The North Temperate Zone includes all the land between the Tropic of Cancer and the North Pole Circle; and the South Temperate Zone includes all between the Tropic of Capricorn and the South Pole Circle. The two Frigid Zones contain all the land from the two Polar Circles to the very Poles. The Torrid Zone includes all the land between the two Tropics, the Equator being in the middle. The whole is thoroughly inhabited. The Temperate Zones contain in latitude each forty-three degrees two minutes, being the ſpace between each Tropic and the Pole Circle. The Frigid Zones contain each forty-three degrees fifty-eight minutes, and the Torrid Zone, in like manner, contains forty-ſix degrees fifty-eight minutes latitude.

SHADOWS.] The antients alſo named the inhabitants of the earth, according to which way the ſhadows of their bodies were caſt by the noon-tide ſun. Periſcii are thoſe beyond the Polar Circles, whoſe bodily ſhadows turn round every twenty-four hours. Heteroſcii are thoſe people in the Temperate Zones, whoſe noon ſhadows ever fall one way; the North Temperate Zone throwing it north, and the South Temperate Zone throwing it ſouth. Amphiſcii are thoſe who live in the Torrid or Middle Zone. Their noon ſhadows fall different ways at different ſeaſons.

SITUATIONS.] 1. The Perieci are thoſe who live in the ſame parallel, have the ſame latitude and ſeaſons, and the ſame pole elevated, but have oppoſite meridians, and conſequently oppoſite days and nights. 2. The Antieci are thoſe people who have the ſame meridian, but oppoſite parallels, equidiſtant from the Equator, though on contrary ſides. 3. Antipodes are ſuch, whoſe parallel and meridian are both oppoſite.

LATITUDE *and* LONGITUDE.] The exact ſituation of cities and places, where the inhabitants of the earth reſide, is more particularly called their Latitude and Longitude. Latitude is the diſtance of any place from each ſide the Equator to either of the Poles; which diſtance being but ninety degrees each, no latitude can exceed that number. Longitude is the diſtance of a place from the firſt, or ſome other meridian. To prevent confuſion, our modern geographers, and delineators of maps, make the metropolis of their own nation the firſt real meridian; and in this caſe longitude is two-fold; being from London either weſt or eaſt, as at ſea it is computed from ſome known port or head-land. The longitude of any place from London being known, the difference in the hour of the day is alſo known. For as the ſun performs his diurnal circuit in twenty-four hours, he gains in each hour fifteen degrees, being a twenty-fourth part of three hundred and ſixty, or one degree in four minutes. So that at any place fifteen degrees eaſt of us, noon is an hour ſooner with them, as it is an hour later with thoſe who live fifteen degrees weſt of us.

Though all degrees of latitude are equal in length, yet degrees of longitude vary in every new parallel of latitude: for all the meridian lines meeting and interſecting each other at the Poles, the degrees of longitude do naturally diminiſh as they proceed either way from the Equator.

Of the SOLAR SYSTEM.] In order to explain the diſpoſition of the ſeveral parts of the univerſe, and to demonſtrate the nature of the heavenly motions with reſpect to each other, and to the earth, it is neceſſary to underſtand the ſyſtem of the world. The only true ſyſtem is called the Solar Syſtem, invented by Copernicus, a Pruſſian.

The Solar Syſtem conſiſts of the ſun in the centre, and the planets and comets moving about it. The planets are vaſt bodies, which to us appear like ſtars; not that they have any light in themſelves, but ſhine merely by reflecting the light of the ſun. The planets are either primary or ſecondary. The primary planets are ſix in number, viz. Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn. Theſe are called Primary Planets, becauſe they move round the ſun; and the other planets are called Secondary, becauſe they move round the Primary Planets. The Secondary Planets are ten in number, and go under the general name of Moons: of theſe one moves round the Earth, four round Jupiter, and five round Saturn.

COMETS.] It is univerſally agreed, that Comets are immenſe ſpherical bodies, revolving about the ſun in elliptical orbits. Their periodical times are equally conſtant, certain and regular, as thoſe of the planets; but the bodies themſelves are abundantly more denſe, as they paſs through greater extremes of heat and cold without any ſenſible diminution.

The SUN.] This immenſe body, ſituated in the centre of the univerſe, is the fountain of light, the ſource of the ſeaſons, the cauſe of the viciſſitudes of day and night, the parent of vegetation, and the friend of man. It is a prodigious maſs of intenſe heat, and amazing illumination; in fine, when we view the ſun, we behold a globe of liquid fire, whoſe diameter is equal to one hundred diameters of the earth, the thickneſs being ſeven hundred ninety-three thouſand miles. Its ſurface is ten thouſand times larger than the earth, and its ſolidity one million greater; that is, the ſurface is the ſquare of the thickneſs, and the ſolidity its cube. The ſun moves round his own axis.

MERCURY.] This planet is about two thirds of the earth's magnitude, being two thouſand ſeven hundred miles in diameter. His diſtance from the earth is eighty-eight millions of miles, and from the ſun thirty-two millions of miles. His revolution round the ſun is made in a little more than eighty-eight days, with the velocity of one hundred thouſand miles in an hour, which is almoſt as ſwift again as the earth travels; for

we only go fifty-six thousand miles in the same space. The heat of the sun in this planet is something more than seven times greater than the heat of the hottest part of the earth in the most sultry summer, which is sufficient to make water boil.

VENUS.] This planet appears to the eye to be the brightest of all the planets, and from its superior lustre it cannot be mistaken for any of them. The distance of Venus from the sun is sixty millions of miles; her revolution round the sun is performed in a little more than two hundred and twenty-four days, and her motion in an hour is seventy thousand miles.

Of the EARTH.] The Earth, which is of a round or spherical form, makes its revolution round the sun in three hundred sixty-five days, five hours and forty-nine minutes, which revolution makes what we term a year. The Earth is near eighty thousand miles in diameter, and distant from the sun about eighty-one millions of miles. The line which this planet describes in its annual motion is called the Ecliptic, through which it proceeds from west to east, according to the signs of the Zodiac; and it is this motion which causes the different seasons of spring, summer, autumn and winter, and of the various lengths of days and nights in those seasons. In passing through the Ecliptic, the earth always keeps its axis in a situation parallel to itself, and equally inclined to the plane of the Ecliptic, which is twenty-three degrees and an half. The rotation of the Earth round its axis makes it day in those parts which are turned towards the sun, and night in those parts which are turned from the sun.

MARS.] This is the least of all the planets, Mercury excepted, has less lustre than any other star, and appears of a dusky red hue. Mars is considerably less than the Earth, its diameter being four thousand four hundred miles. His distance from the sun is one hundred twenty-three millions of miles, and he revolves about that central luminary in six hundred eighty-seven days, proceeding at the rate of forty-five thousand miles in an hour.

JUPITER.] This is the largest of all the planets, but being very remote from the sun, would scarce enjoy any light, had not the great Author of nature provided it with four moons, or satellites, which revolve round it in different orbits. The diameter of Jupiter is upwards of eighty thousand miles, and the mass of matter it contains two hundred twenty times greater than our Earth. The distance from the sun is four hundred twenty-four millions of miles; he revolves round his own axis in nine hours and fifty-six minutes, round the sun in eleven years and ten months, and proceeds at the rate of twenty-four thousand miles an hour.

SATURN.] This is the most distant planet in the whole system, being seven hundred seventy-nine millions of miles from the sun. He is thirty years in performing his revolution, and yet moves at the rate of eighteen thousand miles an hour. He is sixty-one thousand miles in diameter, contains ninety-four times as much matter as the Earth, but his density is not more than a seventh part of the matter which composes our planet. Saturn has five stations, which revolve round him in different orbs. But the most singular circumstance relative to this planet is his ring. This is a vast body of earth, of the thickness of near eight hundred miles, which surrounds Saturn in the form of a circle, at the distance of twenty-one thousand miles from its surface.

SECONDARY PLANETS.] These, as we have already observed, are ten in number, viz. five belonging to Saturn, four to Jupiter, and one to our Earth. The Moon which lights our earth, contains about the fortieth part of the quantity, or mass of matter, which composes the planet we reside upon. It is near two thousand two hundred miles in diameter, two hundred and forty thousand miles distant from us, and its surface is about fourteen millions of square miles. The Moon is the quickest in its motion of all the planets, making its revolution in twenty-seven days, seven hours and three quarters. The light which this planet affords us at night is not the only benefit we receive from it, for it governs the waters, and occasions the tides, which are extremely beneficial to mankind in general.

FIXED STARS.] The difference, with regard to vision, between the fixed stars and planets is, that the latter have a more placid lustre than the former. The fixed stars have the source of light within themselves, being suns; but the planets are composed of opake matter, and have no light but what they receive from the sun, or their own satellites. Hence, though the fixed stars are at an immense distance, their brightness exceeds that of the planets, and they are to be distinguished by their twinkling, though Venus and Mercury both twinkle, but not in so great a degree as the fixed stars. Beyond the atmosphere of our system the heavens are filled with a fluid much more rarified than our air; and here the fixed stars are placed at different, but immense distances from us, and very great distances from each other.

The CLIMATES.] There are twenty-four Climates on each side the equator; and under the equator the longest day is no more than twelve hours; and in proportion as we advance towards the Polar Circles, the days increase in every climate half an hour; and at the Polar Circles, the longest day is twenty-four hours. To know what climate any city, town, or village is in, observe the longest day, from which deduct twelve, and multiply the remainder by two, when the product will be the number of the climate.—Example: The longest day in London is sixteen hours; from this deduct twelve, there will then remain four; multiply the remainder by two; the product is the climate of London, eight.

The COMPASS.] There are four Cardinal points in the Compass, viz. east, west, north, and south. Between these four grand points many intermediate points are formed; but these, for the purposes of Geography and Navigation, are confined to thirty-two. As all these respect the position of places, we find by them how empires, kingdoms, cities, provinces, districts, &c. are situated with regard to each other; that is, whether they lie northerly, southerly, easterly, or westerly, or agreeable to any of the inferior or intermediate points. The invention of the mariner's compass has been, perhaps, of as great and general utility as any discovery that ever benefited mankind, as by its means the wants of one country are accommodated with the superfluities of another; the welfare of individuals, situated at a great distance, becomes interesting to each other; and the inhabitants of the whole universe are linked together in one great society, by a mutual intercourse.

To find the number of miles in a degree of latitude in other nations, in proportion to ours of sixty-nine.] Statute British miles, sixty-nine; Italian miles, each four hundred and seventy-five Rhinland perch, [according to Varenius] sixty; common Turkish miles ditto, sixty; Spanish miles, seventeen; marine leagues of France, [are the same] twenty; German leagues, fifteen; Low Dutch travelling hours, twenty; great leagues of Poland and Denmark, fifteen; Swedish miles, twelve; Hungarian miles, ten; verts of Muscovy, eighty; Persian, Arabian, and Egyptian parasanga, twenty; Chinese lis, two hundred and fifty. The French measure is to ours as fifteen to sixteen. Therefore four thousand nine hundred and fifty Paris feet are equal to five thousand two hundred and eighty British, being our statute mile.

Concerning MAPS.] In all Maps the north is at the top, the south at bottom; the east on the right, and the west on the left: or, if it be otherwise, it is always expressed either by words on each side, or by a mariner's compass, wherein the mark of a fleur-de-lys always denotes the north. Maps are laid down and proportioned to a certain scale, which is always taken from the degrees of latitude, which is always marked on the east and west side of the map. The degrees of longitude are always marked on the north and south side of the map. A degree of latitude is always of the same breadth: wherefore the distance of two places seated directly north and south, is immediately known by knowing the different latitudes. But a degree of longitude is of different extent. The latitude and longitude of a place being known, you may find it immediately in the map, by drawing a line, or thread, cross the map both ways; and the place stands where the two lines cut one another.

As the earth is a globe, a map of the whole earth must necessarily consist of two parts, both sides of the globe not being visible at once. Accordingly, in a universal map, the right hand circle shews the Old World, or Europe, Asia, and Africa; and the left hand circle shews the New World, or America. Upon the general map are marked the circles correspondent to those in the sphere, namely, the equinoctial line, the two tropics, and the two polar circles, all which cross the map from east to west; and the first meridians surrounding the two hemispheres from north to south, the parallels lying from north to south at ten degrees distance; and the meridians at the same distance from west to east, are also marked upon general maps. Particular maps, being parts of this, retain the meridians and parallels belonging to that particular mark; which are made smaller or larger, as the paper on which it is drawn will admit; and the distance of places mentioned in it are always exactly proportioned to the breadth of the parallels. So that let a map be ever so small, the distance of places is exactly shewn, if measured according to the degrees of latitude in that particular map. In both general and particular maps, the thick shadowing denotes the sea-coast. Rivers are marked by large shadowed serpentine lines; roads by double lines; divisions of countries by dotted lines; larger for provinces, and smaller for subdivisions; and divisions of nations are often shewn by chain lines. Forests are represented by trees; mountains by rising shadows; sands by dotted beds; marshes by shadowed beds; lakes by shadowed coasts.

The names of provinces are written in larger capitals; and smaller divisions, in smaller capitals; great cities in round Roman characters; smaller towns in Italic. The exact situation of a town is shewn by a little round o, but larger places have the addition of a church for a market-town, if the size of a map will admit. A city is noted by a church with houses about it, as much as the scale will allow. Particular qualifications of cities are distinguished by marks, as a bishopric has a cross, or sometimes a mitre over it.—An archbishopric has a double cross over it.—A university has a flag, or sometimes a Caduceus.—An abbey is shewn by a crook, or pastoral staff.—A fortress by angles like bastions.—A castle, by a little flag.—A gentleman's seat, by a house only.—Other marks are affected by particular engravers, which they explain in the margin of the map.

A distinct view of the EARTH.] The Earth, properly so called, is a heap of various bodies; for therein are discovered sand, clay, mould of various colours, several sorts of stones, many salts, sulphur, bitumen, minerals, and metals, without number.

Independent of the perpetual variety of the seasons, heat and cold, rain and wind, we may observe, that earthquakes and running waters are always making a wonderful change in that part of the earth which is next the surface: and if we take in the daily mutations of innumerable animals and plants, which are fed by the fruits and moisture of the earth, and after a short time putrify, and return to earth again, we shall have reason to believe, that this surface on which we tread, especially in countries that have been long inhabited, is, for the most part, composed of the bodies of men and beasts, or rather of a matter which is every day putting on new forms. And by such perpetual variations of matter, there must needs happen an increase of dry earth, and a decay of moisture; for it does not appear, that the parts of fluid bodies, which have been once blended with solids, and have been so impregnated with salts as to lose their fluidity, do ever retrieve it again. This is evident in plants and animals, which grow bigger so long as they receive spirit and nourishment from liquors, but afterwards turn to corruption. Moreover, there must needs be a vast change made in the earth by means of the many fires which prey upon it within, and sometimes burst forth, and desolate the circumjacent countries.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS.

PROB. 1. *The latitude of any place being given, to rectify the Globe for that place.*] Let it be required to rectify the globe for the latitude of London, fifty-one degrees thirty-two minutes north; and Madrid forty degrees ten minutes north, proceed thus: Turn the pole on which the dial plate is fixed towards the verge of the horizon, slipping or moving the globe backwards or forwards in the notches of the horizon, till the horizon cuts the brazen meridian in fifty-two degrees thirty-two minutes, (viz. a little more than fifty-one and a half); so is the globe rectified for the latitude of London; that is, the north pole will then be elevated fifty-one degrees thirty-two minutes above the horizon; and London

being brought to the meridian itself, will then be the zenith, or right up, and at equal distance from all parts of the horizon. Depress the pole till the horizon cuts the brazen meridian at forty degrees ten minutes, and you have then the position of the inhabitants at Madrid; and turning the globe till Madrid comes to the meridian, you will find it in the zenith, or top of the globe, under forty degrees ten minutes. Note, If it were required to rectify the globe for south latitude, then you must elevate the south pole to the given latitude, instead of the north pole; but the next problem will better explain this.

PROB. 2. *The latitude and longitude of any place given, to find the same.*] You are first to observe whether the longitude be reckoned from London, or from the first meridian; for on some globes the first meridian begins twenty-three degrees, on others twenty degrees, and on Senex's globes eighteen degrees west of London; but if once you know where the first Meridian is on the globe, it is very easy to know the difference from the meridian of London.

PROB. 3. *The latitude of any place given, to tell all those places that have the same latitude.*] DEFINITION: All those places that have the same latitude have the days and nights of the same length, at the same length, at the same time of the year. *Rule.* Bring the given place, or places, to the meridian (suppose London fifty-one degrees thirty-two minutes, and Madrid forty degrees ten minutes north); then turn the globe, and all those places that pass under forty degrees ten minutes have the same latitude as Madrid, which you will find to be Pekin nearly for one, and many other places.

PROB. 4. *To tell the difference of the latitude of places.*] Here are two variations, or rules:—First, If the latitudes be both north or both south, then subtract the less from the greater latitude, and the remainder is the difference or answer. Thus between London and Madrid is twelve degrees thirty-two minutes, the first being fifty degrees thirty-two minutes, and the other forty degrees. And between Candy and Stockholm is fifty-two degrees thirty minutes, for Stockholm is about fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes north, and Candy seven degrees thirty minutes north. Secondly, If one lies on the north, and the other on the south-side of the equator, (that is to say, if one be north and the other south latitude) then add them all together, and their sum is the difference of the latitude required.—Thus, Copenhagen is fifty-five degrees forty minutes north, and the island of Madagascar is nineteen degrees thirty minutes south: these added together make seventy-five degrees ten minutes, the difference of longitude required in the problem.

PROB. 5. *The longitude of any place given from any meridian, to tell those places, having the same longitude.*] This is done after the same manner as the other; only here the answer will be on the equator, as others were on the meridian. I would know what places have the same longitude as London, and the same longitude as Moscow? The rule is, bring London to the meridian, then all those places on the globe (from the north pole to the south part of the horizon) that lie under the edge of the meridian, have the same longitude as London: thus Fort Nassau, and Fort Mina, in Guiney, have the same, or very nearly the same longitude as London. And Muscow, in Moscovia, has very nearly the same longitude as Aleppo, in Syria: also Scandaroon, Antioch, and Tripoli, in Syria, have the same longitude, viz. thirty-seven degrees thirty minutes from London.

PROB. 6. *To tell the difference of longitude of places.*] Rule. Here are two variations. First, if the places lie both east, or both west, of the first meridian, or where you reckon the longitude from, viz. if they both be east, or both be west longitude, then subtract one from the other, you have the difference. Thus I find Jerusalem has thirty-six degrees fifteen minutes east longitude from London, and Pekin one hundred and ten degrees fifty-two minutes east longitude; therefore subtract thirty-six degrees fifteen minutes from one hundred and ten degrees fifty-two minutes, and there remains seventy-four degrees thirty-seven minutes difference of longitude east or west; that is, Pekin is seventy-four degrees, thirty-seven minutes east longitude of Jerusalem, or Jerusalem is seventy-four degrees thirty-seven minutes west longitude of Pekin. Secondly, If one place be east, and the other west longitude of the first meridian, (suppose London, or any other meridian) then add their longitudes together, and the sum is the difference of longitude required.

PROB. 7. *The day of the month given to find the sun's place in the ecliptic.*] Rule. The day of the month being given, look on the inner calendar on the new globes, and you have the sign, and the degree of that sign that the sun is in for that day, according to the new style. If it be upon old globes, look on the outer calendar, you have the sign, and degree of the sign. N. B. You may further observe, that the calendar used throughout Europe is the calendar for new style, viz. new style is always known from the other, because it has the saints days, and several other things inscribed on the horizon.

PROB. 8. *The sun's place given to find the day of the month.*] This is only the reverse of the former problem; for having the sun's place given, seek it in the circle among the signs, then against that degree in the calendar, new style; you have the day of the month required. Example. I would know what time of the year the sun is in one degree of Gemini; as also when he enters Aries, Cancer, Libra, and Capricorn. Proceed according to the rule, and you will find the day to be May 21, June 21, September 22, and December 21, as in the last.

PROB. 9. *The latitude and day of the month given, to find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and rectify the globes for use.*] Rule. Find the sun's place on the horizon by problem the seventh; and having noted what degree he is in, look upon the ecliptic on the globe, and find the same sign and degree as you did on the horizon; then bring this degree of the ecliptic very carefully to the graduate edge of the brazen meridian, and holding the globe steady, turn the index exactly to the upper twelve (which represents twelve at noon) and thus is the globe rectified for that day, and the degree of the ecliptic that lies under the equator represents the sun's place at noon, or twelve o'clock that day. Note, The astronomer's day is reckoned from, or begins at, twelve o'clock; and if you fix the quadrant of altitude to the latitude in the zenith, the globe will be completely rectified.

PROB. 10. *To tell the declination of the sun on any day of the year.*] Rule. Having found the sun's place in the ecliptic for the given day, bring it to the brazen meridian, and observe what degree of the meridian it lies under, and whether it be on the north or on the south side of the equator, for that is the declination accordingly. Thus, on April 21, the sun has eleven degrees thirty minutes north declination, and on May 21, he has twenty degrees thirty minutes declination, but on October 27, he has twelve degrees thirty minutes south declination.

PROB. 11. *The latitude and day of the month given, to tell the sun's meridian altitude, viz. his height at noon.*] Rule. Bring the sun's place to the meridian, and observe what degree of the meridian the sun's place is under: for those degrees on the meridian that are intercepted, or lie between the south verge of the horizon and the degree, which is over the sun's place on the meridian, (counted on the meridian) is the sun's meridian altitude required. Thus I find his meridian altitude at London, May the 21st, to be fifty-nine degrees, but on November the fifth, he has but twenty-three degrees thirty minutes altitude.

PROB. 12. *The latitude and day of the month given, to tell the sun's altitude at any time.*] Example. On May the 21st, at nine in the morning, and at five in the afternoon, at London, I would know the sun's altitude, or height? Rule. Rectify the globe for the latitude, and bring the sun's place (one degree gemini) to the meridian, and the index to the upper twelve on the dial-plate; then screw the quadrant of altitude on the zenith, viz. the left edge of the nut must be fixed on the meridian, at fifty-one degrees thirty minutes, then turn the globe till the index points to the hour, viz. nine in the morning: this done, fix the globe by thrusting a quill between it and the horizon: lastly, turn the quadrant about till the graduated or figured edge touch the sun's place, (viz. one degree gemini) and the degrees on the quadrant, counted from the horizon upwards on the quadrant, is his height at that time, viz. forty-three degrees thirty minutes. Then turn the globe till the index points at five in the afternoon; and also turn the quadrant on the west side (without unscrewing it) till it touches the sun's place, and you have about twenty-four degrees on the quadrant, his altitude at that time. N. B. At North cape, (north latitude, seventy-two degrees at nine in the morning) May the 21st, he will not be but about thirty-two degrees high.

PROB. 13. *The latitude given, to tell the rising and setting of the sun, and length of the day and night, at any time of the year in any place.*] Rule. Rectify the globe, (viz. elevate it for the latitude; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and index to the upper twelve): then turn it till the sun's place comes even with, or lies right against the inner verge, on the east side of the horizon, then the index will shew you the time of the sun's rising; turn it to the west-side, or verge of the horizon, and the index will shew you the setting. Or thus: having got the hour the sun rises, count how many it wants of twelve, for so many hours will it set after. Thus, if the index points to four in the morning at rising, it will of course be at eight at night, &c. Proceed thus, and you will find the sun, on May the 26th, at London, to rise about four in the morning, and sets at eight at night. Now double what he wants of twelve at rising, viz. eight hours, and it gives the length of that day at London, viz. 16 hours.

PROB. 14. *To tell the sun's right ascension.*] Bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and note what degree of the equator is cut by the meridian, for that is his right ascension required. I would know the sun's right ascension on March the 21st, June the 21st, September the 22d, and December the 21st? I find the sun's place for these different days, and bring it to the meridian; I find the meridian cuts the equator in (0), in (90), in (180), and in (270 degrees) his right ascension requires. Note. When the sun enters Aries, March the 21st, he has no right ascension, because it is counted from, or begins at Aries; therefore, on March the 20th, he must have his greatest right ascension, viz. three hundred and fifty-nine degrees.

PROB. 15. *To find the sun's oblique ascension and descension at the time, and in any latitude.*] Rule. Rectify the globe for the latitude, and bring the sun's place down to the eastern verge of the horizon; then observe what degree the horizon cuts the equator in, for that is the oblique ascension required. Thus on March the 21st, June the 21st, September the 22d, and December the 21st, viz. when the sun enters Aries, Cancer, Libra, and Capricorn, you will find his oblique ascension at London to be (0), (56), (180), and (304). And on the same days his oblique descension will be (0), (123,) (180), and (237) and a half.

PROB. 16. *The latitude and day of the month given, to tell the sun's ascensional difference, viz. how much he rises, or sets, before and after six; and consequently to tell the length of the days, suppose there were no index to the globe.*] Rule. By the last problem find the sun's right, and oblique ascension; then subtract the oblique from the right ascension, or the contrary, and the remainder is the ascensional difference required; which divide by fifteen, the degrees of the equator that pass through the meridian of one hour, (or seven and a half for half an hour) gives the answer in time, that the sun rises and sets before and after six. Thus, on May 26, I find the sun six degrees of Gemini, and his right ascension is sixty-four degrees, and on the same day his oblique ascension is thirty-four degrees; now thirty-four degrees from sixty-four degrees there remains thirty degrees, his ascensional difference; which divide by fifteen gives two hours, the time that he rises before, or sets after six.

PROB. 17. *The latitude and day of the month given, to tell the sun's Amplitude, viz. his distance from the east and west points of the compass he rises and sets upon.*] Rule. The globe being rectified, bring the sun's place to the eastern verge of the horizon, (which shews his rising) then the degree upon the innermost circle of the horizon, counted from the true east point to the place where the sun's place lies against on the horizon, shews you the sun's amplitude. Proceed according to the rule, you will find the sun's amplitude at London, (May 21,) at rising, to be about thirty-four degrees from the east to the north, and at setting thirty-four degrees from the west to the north; and the point he rises upon is north-east

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by east, and he sets north-west by west; but on November the 5th he has about twenty-five degrees and a half amplitude from the east to the south; and at setting twenty-five degrees and a half from the west to the south. The point he rises upon is east-south-east, and the point he sets upon is west-south-west.

PROB. 18. *The latitude and day given, to tell the sun's azimuth, viz. his distance from the east and west, or from the north and south points, at any time.*] Rule. Rectify the globe in general, then turn the globe till the index points to the given hour: this being done, turn the quadrant till it touches the sun's place for the given day; and then the quadrant will cut the horizon in the Azimuth required, from the east or west points, or from the north or south points; for you may reckon from either; only then name it properly, and accordingly. Thus, on August the 17th, at nine in the morning, the sun will have about thirty degrees azimuth from the east to the south, or which is the same, sixty degrees from south to the east; for sixty degrees and thirty degrees make ninety degrees, the whole quarter from east to south.

PROB. 19. *The latitude, day, and hour given, to tell the sun's almicanter.*] Definition; Almicanters are circles of altitude, that run parallel to the horizon, whose poles are the zenith and nadir; so that you may imagine as many circles of altitude, viz. almicanters, as you please. Rule. The almicanter is found the same as the altitude of the sun at any time, therefore I refer you back to Prob. 13.

PROB. 20. *The latitude and length of the day given to tell what other day of the year will be of the same length.*] Rule. Having found the sun's place for the given day, bring it to the meridian, and observe well its declination, then turn the globe till some other degree of the ecliptic comes under the same degree of declination under the meridian; this being done, see what day of the month answers to the sun's place then under the meridian, for that is the day required, which you may easily prove. Thus you will find July 13 and August 20 of the same length as May 26 and April 27.

PROB. 21. *The latitude and day given to tell the beginning, ending, and consequently the length, or continuance of twilight.*] Definition. Twilight is that faint light which begins immediately after the sun sets in the evening, till he is eighteen degrees below the horizon, and it begins in the morning, when the sun comes within eighteen degrees of the horizon on the east side, and ends when he rises: therefore it is plain that twilight is not only longer when days increase in length, but it is also much stronger.

PROB. 22. *The hour given where you are to tell what hour it is in any other part of the world.*] Rule. Bring the given place to the meridian, and set the index at the given hour, then turn the globe till the other place, or places, come under the meridian, and the index will point to the real time required. Example. When it is two o'clock in the afternoon at London, I would know the time at Jerusalem, and at Port Royal in Jamaica. Proceed according to the rule, and you will find that when it is two in the afternoon at London, it is twenty-five minutes past four at Jerusalem, and but fifty-two minutes past eight in the morning at Port Royal.

PROB. 23. *The day of the month given to tell those inhabitants that will have the sun in their zenith, or over their heads, on that day.*] This cannot happen to any other inhabitants but those in the torrid Zone; that is, to all such as have not twenty-three degrees and an half of latitude either north or south. Rule. Bring the sun's place to the meridian, and observe exactly his declination for that day, then turn the globe any way, and observe what places pass under that degree of declination on the meridian; for all such will have the sun right over their heads some time or other on that day.

PROB. 24. *The day and hour given in any place to tell those inhabitants, or that place, to which the sun is then vertical, viz. in the zenith.*] Rule. Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and turn the index to the given hour; this done, turn the globe till the index points to the upper twelve, or noon; then look under the degree of declination on the globe of that day, for that is the very spot, or place to which the sun is then vertical. Example. On May 13, at eight minutes past five in the afternoon at London, I would know what place has the sun in their zenith. Answer, Port Royal in Jamaica. Thus also you will find, when it is thirty-three minutes past six in the morning at London, on April 12 and August 28, the inhabitants of Candy, in the island of Ceylon, will have the sun nearly in their zenith.

Concerning the MAGNET *or* LOADSTONE.] The Loadstone is found in iron mines, and is much of a colour and weight with iron. However, it is not to be melted and hammered out like iron, but flies to pieces under the hammer, and turns to a calx in the fire, which shews, that its parts exceed those of iron for hardness, rigidness, and an intricate combination one with another. Its known properties are these: first, when it moves freely and without any obstacle, it points north and south, so as that part of it that stands to one pole never turns to the other. The way to give it a free motion, is to swim it in the water upon a piece of wood. Philosophers have observed, that the loadstone does not always point full north and south, but sometimes inclines to the east or west without any rule. Though a loadstone has generally two poles pointing north and south, as we said before, yet there are some irregular ones, which seem to have more poles. As one loadstone holds up another, so it does iron of greater or less weight than itself. If iron dust be strewed upon a loadstone, the particles will dispose themselves directly between the poles, and then by degrees incline to an orbicular figure, so as to lie parallel with the axis of the loadstone, unless it be one of the irregular sorts before taken notice of. The loadstone imparts its virtue to iron so effectually, that iron, touched with a loadstone, appears to have all the properties aforesaid, though not in an equal degree. The great use of this communication is experienced in the mariner's needle, by the help whereof they readily find the north and south, and all other parts of the world.

Concerning the SEA.] The Sea is that vast quantity of salt water extending from north to south, and from west to east, surrounding the dry land on every side, into which all streams discharge themselves, and out of which mighty gulfs and bays are formed, the greatest of which is the Mediterranean. The whole is called the ocean, but variously distinguished and named from the several countries by whose coasts it runs. The saltness of the sea water seems to proceed from the same cause as that of several fountains, by the boiling of which water salt is produced; for since the bottom of the sea is of such vast extent, it is reasonable to suppose that there are large mines of salt in many parts of it, which being diluted, spread throughout the sea. In order to find out the reason why the water of the sea is not augmented, let us see whether there be not a way for its daily diminution as well as increase.

Concerning WINDS.] The winds may be divided into constant and variable: the former are always, at certain times of the year, and in certain parts of the world; but the latter vary so much, that they cannot be reduced to any rule. Now since it is easier to find out the cause of one regular effect, than of many irregular, let us, in the first place, treat of constant winds. And here we must take notice, that the winds are constant and periodical only in the open seas. Now the universal ocean may most properly be divided into three parts. 1. The Atlantic and Ethiopic ocean. 2. The Indian ocean. 3. The great South Sea, or pacific ocean; and though these seas do all communicate by the south, yet as to our present purpose of the periodical winds, they are sufficiently separated by the interposition of great tracts of land; the first lying between Africa and America, the second between Africa and India, and the last between China, Japan, and the coast of America. There is in the Atlantic and Ethiopic seas between the Tropics a general easterly wind all the year, excepting that it is subject to vary and deflect some few points towards the north or south, according to the position of the place. The winds in the Indian ocean are partly general, and in the Ethiopic ocean partly periodical; that is, half the year they blow one way, and the other half near upon the opposite points; and these points, and times of shifting, are different in different parts of this ocean; the limits of each tract of sea, subject to the same change, or monsoon, as the natives call it, are certainly very hard to determine.

The variable winds are felt most by land, and in such parts of the sea as are without the limits of the constant winds to the north and south; that is, in the colder parts of the ocean, and all over its outmost bays, the principal of which are the Mediterranean and Baltic: some are common to all countries, others are more peculiar to some particular parts. Of this latter sort the most famous are the hurricanes, which chiefly infest the Caribbees, but are not anniversary, nor equally frequent. Their fury is so great, that they throw down all before them, tear up trees, overturn houses, toss ships prodigiously, and blow about things of vast weight. They are not even, but blow in gusts, which suddenly come and go; neither do they extend very wide, but are sometimes confined to a narrow compass, and at other times take a larger scope. As for their duration, it is but for a few days, and sometimes only a few hours. They are more common in America than any where, though Europe and Asia are not altogether without them.

Wind is most properly defined to be the stream, or current of the air; and where such a current is perpetual, and fixed in its course, it is necessary that it proceeds from a permanent, unintermitting cause, which we conceive to be the action of the sun beams upon the air and water, as he passes every day over the oceans, considered together with the nature of the soil, and situation of the adjoining continents: therefore, first, according to the laws of statics, the air, which is less rarefied or expanded by heat, and consequently more ponderous, must have a motion towards those parts thereof, which are more rarefied and less ponderous, to bring it to an equilibrium; and, secondly, the presence of the sun continually shifting to the westward, that part towards which the air tends, by reason of the rarefaction made by his great meridian heat, is with him carried westward, and consequently the tendency of the whole body of the lower air is that way. Thus a general easterly wind is formed, which being impressed upon all the air of a vast ocean, the parts impel one another, and so keep moving till the next return of the sun, whereby so much of the motion as was lost is again restored, and thus the westerly wind is made perpetual.

With respect to the common phænomena of winds, the dry ones are such as carry few vapours along with them, and therefore draw off the moist particles from bodies over which they pass. Thus in Holland the north and east winds, with the intermediate points, are drying, because the cold northern sea yields but few vapours, in comparison of those which come from warmer parts of the ocean; and from thence towards the east are vast tracts of land, where the heat at Midsummer is but very small. But the other winds, especially the westerly, are moist, because they issue from warm and vaporous parts. The Western Ocean seldom fails to send us rainy winds; however, this property varies according to the various situation of countries. Such winds gather clouds as blow from the quarters where the vapours arise, which, in conjunction with the vapours of our own region, fill the air. On the other side, those winds make fair weather, which bring little vapour along with them, and bear away that which hangs over us.

When the air gets loose from those broken bubbles in which it was before imprisoned, that which happens to be pent in betwixt the clouds is necessarily very much dilated by the inflammable substances, and therefore being hemmed in on every side by thick clouds, which contrary winds heap together round it, or by the falling in of one cloud upon another, does, by its expansive force, burst its passage through them with a violent explosion, and causes that crack or rumbling which we call thunder. The clap seems continued or reiterated by reason of the sound being reflected from the surface of different clouds, which causes so many repetitions or echoes.—When a flash is projected through a large extent of air, or sets fire to a train of other inflammable matter within the sphere of its action, it is what we call lightning.—If the quantity of fiery particles issuing from the bubbles of water, upon the collision of two clouds be very small, forming only a little globe of fire, which shoots out into a little train of light in the air, and strait-way disappears, this is what the common people call a falling star.

THE

ASIA,

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Longit. East from Ferro.

Longit. East from London.

NORTH ERN OCEAN

EUROPEAN RUSSIA

SIBERIA

TARTARY

EASTERN TARTARY

WESTERN TARTARY

CHINA

TIBET

GREAT TIBET

INDOSTAN

BENGAL

BAY OF BENGAL

ARABIA

PERSIA

Arabia Felix

Desert

Kolui or Sandy Desert

BLACK SEA

CASPIAN SEA

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

Sea of Japan

Yellow Sea

Gulf of Tonkin

Gulf of Siam

Gulf of Cambaya

Gulf of Persian Gulf

Red Sea

Arabian Gulf

Gulf of Aden

Str. of Babelmandel

Str. of Malacca

Str. of Sunda

Equator or Equinoctial Line

INDIAN OCEAN

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

LADRONES

MOLUCCAS

SUNDA ISLES

BORNEO

CEYLON L.

CAMBODIA

Tropic of Cancer

Tropic of Capricorn

Arctic Circle

GEOGRAPHICAL CIRCLES



SOLAR SYSTEM



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North Pole

South Pole

Equator

Arctic Circle

Tropic of Cancer

Tropic of Capricorn

Antarctic Circle

NORTH AMERICA

SOUTH AMERICA

PACIFIC OCEAN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

SOUTH SEA

SOUTHERN OCEAN

GREAT

WESTERN

EASTERN

GREENLAND

NEW ZEELAND

NEW HOLLAND

NEW SPAIN

CANADA

NEW FRANCE

NEW ENGLAND

CALIFORNIA

MEXICO

PERU

BRAZIL

PARAGUAY

TERRA FIRMA

GUIANA

AMAZONIA

CHILI

LABRADOR

HUDSONS BAY

NEW BRITAIN

NEWFOUNDLAND

ICELAND

NORTHERN TARTARY

SIBERIA

WESTERN TARTARY

EASTERN TARTARY

CHINA

INDIA

PERSIA

TIBET

ARABIA

DESART or BARBARY

NEGROLAND

GUINEA

ETHIOPIA

CONGO

INDIAN OCEAN

MADAGASCAR

NEW HOLLAND

SOUTHERN OCEAN

JAPAN

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THE NEW, COMPLETE, AUTHENTIC, AND

UNIVERSAL SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY;

BEING A COMPLETE

HISTORY and DESCRIPTION

OF

THE WHOLE WORLD.

BOOK I.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ASIA.

OBSERVATIONS CONCERNING ASIA IN GENERAL.

THOUGH it is natural for the inhabitants of that quarter of the globe in which we live, from an innate fondneſs, to give the preference to Europe, nevertheleſs Aſia is eſteemed to be, in all reſpects, the moſt conſiderable part of the world, and is entitled to the firſt rank, on account of its many ſingular advantages above the reſt. We ſhall inſtance a few particulars; in Aſia, the Creator of the Univerſe planted the delightful garden of Eden, wherein he placed the firſt parents of mankind, from whom the whole race of human beings deſcended. Aſia, whoſe countries are firſt enlightened by the riſing ſun, became the nurſery of the world after the general deluge, and from thence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all other parts of the habitable globe. In Aſia, God made choice of that fertile ſpot Canaan, wherein he placed his favourite and antient people the Jews. Here, alſo, the great and ſtupendous work of our redemption, was accompliſhed by his divine Son: and from hence his diſciples and followers diffuſed the light of his glorious goſpel amongſt the ſurrounding nations. Here, likewiſe, were founded the firſt chriſtian churches; the firſt councils were held; the firſt biſhopricks erected, and the chriſtian faith miraculouſly founded, promulgated, and watered with the blood of a glorious army of martyrs. In ſhort, in Aſia the firſt edifices were reared, the firſt cities built, and the firſt kingdoms and monarchies founded, at a time when the other parts of the world were the haunts of wild beaſts, or but very thinly, if at all inhabited.

Beſides the above-mentioned advantages, Aſia ſurpaſſes the other parts of the world in the extent of its territory, the richneſs of its ſoil, the ſerenity of its air, the delicious flavour of its fruits, the ſalutary quality of its drugs, and the fragrancy and balſamic nature of its plants, ſpices, gums, &c. the value, beauty, variety, and quantity of its gems; fineneſs of its ſilks, cottons, &c. the richneſs of its metals, beſides various other excellencies: all which peculiar advantages, rendered it ſo charming and delightful an abode, that it was for a long ſeries of years the reſidence and ſeat of the greateſt monarchies in the world. But ſince the Turks, who are enemies to all politeneſs and the fine arts, have poſſeſſed a conſiderable part of it, much of its ancient ſplendor has been entirely loſt; the moſt fruitful and delightful ſpot in all Aſia, reſembles a wild, uncultivated deſart, and ſince that time, is only remarkable for the rich commodities it affords, but is ſtill viſited and reſorted to by merchants of other nations, on that account. Such parts of this country as have eſcaped the barbariſm of the Turks, are ſtill in a flouriſhing ſtate, notwithſtanding the inhabitants are juſtly cenſured for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury: ſo that this advantage may be rather aſcribed to the richneſs of the ſoil, than to the induſtry of the inhabitants.

Hiſtorians, in general, impute the effeminacy of the natives of this country, chiefly to the warmth of the climate, heightened by cuſtom and education; conſequently it is leſs prevalent, the nearer they are ſituated to the north; hence the ſouthern countries do not produce ſuch robuſt natives as the northern ones; from whence it is inferred, that thoſe Aſiatics who live nearly in our latitude, are, in this reſpect, not much inferior to us; and that the northern Turks and Tartars, particularly, are very ſtrong and courageous. We muſt, however, obſerve, that they who live in the more ſouthern regions of Aſia, experience the deficiency of robuſtneſs in their bodies, to be in a great meaſure ſupplied to them by the vivacity of their mind, and their ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt expert mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

We will not pretend to determine, whether the reflection which is commonly caſt on all the Aſiatic nations, that they are naturally ſordid admirers of monarchy, be altogether juſt; ſince their princes have always kept them in ſuch abject ſlavery and ſubjection, that they never had the leaſt opportunity of diſplaying their love of liberty, which we may ſuppoſe to be as congenial with them, as with the reſt of mankind. It muſt, however, be confeſſed, that many of thoſe people, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any nation to live under any other than a deſpotic government (which is the only one eſtabliſhed throughout that vaſt country) or how that people could ſubſiſt under a republican one.

A ſtupid kind of religion now prevails in Aſia, a great part of it being over-run with Mahometaniſm, particularly Turky, Arabia, part of India, and Tartary; they profeſs the ſame in Perſia, and the empire of the great Mogul, but are of the ſect of Hali, which, in ſome reſpects, differs from that of the Turks, though both of them acknowledge Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the alcoran for their divine rule of faith and practice. In China, Japan, Siam, &c. they are, for the moſt part, heathens and idolaters; have ſtrange notions of the Deity, or rather of their deities, and uſe the moſt extravagant rites in their worſhip of them, as we ſhall have occaſion to ſhew hereafter; but muſt obſerve here, that their multiplicity of idols, and ſuperſtitious ceremonies attending the

worſhip of them, are only regarded by the populace, for whom they are chiefly calculated by the prieſts, who are thereby conſiderable gainers; and whatever countenance men of ſuperior talents and wiſdom may ſeem to give them in outward appearance, they are of too philoſophic a turn of mind not to deſpiſe them in their hearts. There are, beſides, ſeveral ſects of the antient Perſees, or followers of the great Zoroaſter, diſperſed all over India and Aſia, who acknowledge but one ſupreme Deity, and are ſtiled Fire-worſhippers, becauſe they pay their addreſſes to it under the ſymbol of that element. Theſe are avowed enemies to every ſpecies of idolatry, imagery, temples, &c. which they conſider as unworthy the ſupreme Being, who, they affirm, neither can, nor ought to be repreſented by images, nor confined in temples. Theſe ſects, among whom are included the brahmans or brachmins, are reckoned the moſt conſiderable, and are alſo very humane and benevolent, lead a contemplative life, feed only upon vegetables, and are ſo far from killing any living creatures for their uſe, or even noxious ones in their own defence, that they even provide hoſpitals for ſuch as are decayed through age, accident, or any other infirmity; and beſtow a peculiar degree of attention and care on domeſtic animals.

Aſia, as we before obſerved, was celebrated for being the favoured quarter of the world, where the chriſtian religion was firſt planted, from whence it ſpread with ſuch amazing rapidity and ſucceſs, that even in the apoſtolic age it had reached as far as India, if not beyond, and was almoſt univerſally received and profeſſed. But as the degeneracy of thoſe converts produced that denunciation recorded by St. John, *Rev.* ii. 5. the churches of Aſia Minor were abandoned to perſecution, and at length almoſt utterly deſtroyed by the irruption of the northern barbarians, Saracens, Tartars, and Turks; and although the pure light of the goſpel could never be totally extinguiſhed by them, but great numbers of chriſtians in different parts of Aſia continued to adhere to it; yet they have always been kept under ſuch abject ſubjection by the tyranny of the ruling powers, and are ſo to this day, that their preſent ſituation, as they have neither compaſſion nor toleration granted them, may juſtly be deemed a ſtate of miſery and oppreſſion.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between twenty-five and one hundred and forty-eight degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and between the equator and ſeventy-two degrees north latitude, excluſive of the iſlands which lie to the ſouth. It is about four thouſand ſeven hundred and forty miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about four thouſand three hundred and eighty miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the frozen ocean on the north; and is ſeparated from Africa on the weſt, by the Red Sea; and from Europe by the Levant, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, Propontis, Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobal, and from thence to the Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, and on the north by the Indian Ocean.

The moſt conſiderable monarchies or ſovereignties of Aſia, at preſent known to us, amount to forty-two; four of theſe are ſtiled entire empires; namely, Perſia, Great Mogul, China, and Japan; alſo Turky and Muſcovy, which are part of two more, whoſe moſt conſiderable ſhares are in Europe.

Aſia comprehends thirty-three kingdoms, twenty-ſix of which are on Terra Firma, and the other ſeven are inſular ones. Of the former ſort are, 1. Yemen; 2. Sartach, in Arabia; 3. Nizapor; 4. Golconda; 5. Biſnagar; 6. Calicut; 7. Cochin, in the peninſula of India, on this ſide of the Ganges; 8. Siam; 9. Camboya; 10. Ava, alias Pegu; 11. Acham; 12. Aracham; 13. Tonquin; 14. Cochinchina; 15. Jaos in the peninſula, on the other ſide the Ganges; 16. Barantola, alias Laſſa; 17. Neckbat; 18. Cogua, alias Great Thibet; 19. Nanyu; 20. Little Thibet; 21. Kalghar; 22. Corea; 23. Samareand; 24. Becha, in Great Tartary; 25. Mingrelia; 26. Imeretia, in Georgia.—The ſeven inſular ones are, 1. In the Maldivia Iſles; 2. Candi, in the iſle of Ceylon; 3. Achem; 4. Materan; 5. Borneo, in the iſlands of thoſe names in the Sound; 6. Macaſſer; and 7. Ternate, in the Molucca iſlands.

In addition to the above-mentioned ſovereignties, we may reckon three eſtabliſhed here by the Europeans, as follow; 1. Of the Spaniards, in the Philippine iſlands; 2. Of the Portugueſe, in Goa, and other coaſts of India; 3. Of the Dutch, in Batavia, Java, Ceylon, and other iſles and coaſts. Alſo the Engliſh ſettlements at Bombay, Fort St. George, &c. and the Daniſh at Malabar, the coaſts of Coromandel, &c. There are alſo ſome independent, or vagrant nations, who have no ſettled abode; the moſt conſiderable of theſe (who live in hords, independent of each other) are the tribes called Bengebres, Bedwins, and ſome others in Arabia, and the Calmuc or Kalmac in Tartary; theſe move their tents from place to place as occaſion offers, or fancy prompts them.

Notwithſtanding the great number of different tongues and dialects ſpoken in this vaſt extent and variety of nations, we can with truth affirm, that Aſia has, by far, the feweſt of any other part of the world; this is chiefly owing to the very extenſive empires compriſed in it, each of which ſtrives to introduce an uniformity of language among the ſubjects of it. The principal ones are, the Perſian, Arabic, Tartarian, Chineſe, Japaneſe, Malayan, and Malabarian. The European languages, viz. the Portugueſe, Spaniſh, Engliſh, and Dutch; the Greek and Latin among the Chriſtians, and the Hebrew among the Jews, are only uſed by thoſe foreigners who have introduced them for their own convenience, and are little known to the natives.

As Aſia extends itſelf quite from the equator to the polar circle, and even beyond, conſequently the climates muſt be ſo various that a minute detail of them, and their peculiar products, would, in this place, be tedious, and lead us into too great a length, ſince the ſoils muſt naturally vary, according to their different ſituations. We ſhall, therefore, only ſay at preſent, till we come to deſcribe each part in a more particular manner, that Aſia comprehends all the temperate, the larger half of the torrid, and great part of the frigid zone; ſo that it enjoys no leſs than twenty-four climates; yet, upon the whole, the country is rich and fruitful, and ſome parts of it exceedingly ſo, if we except ſome parts of Arabia and Tartary, and ſome of the more northern tracts.

In order to avoid as much as poſſible the ſcrupulous niceties, and, in ſome caſes, the miſtakes and errors of other geographers, we ſhall, in our diviſion of this great part of the world, conſider it with reſpect to the different dominions it is at preſent ſubject to; namely,

I. PERSIA.

II. CHINA, which is divided into north and ſouth.

III. INDIA, comprehending, 1. The peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, containing Cochinchina, Tonquin, Pegu, and Siam, the laſt of which is ſubdivided into Martaban, Siam, and Malacca. 2. The peninſula on this ſide the Ganges, containing the Decan, Golconda, Biſnagar, and Malabar.

IV. HINDOSTAN, or the empire of the Great Mogul, as it is generally, though improperly, called in Europe, the title not being aſſumed by the emperor there. In this great empire are many petty kingdoms, lately erected into free ſtates, or fallen under the juriſdiction of the Engliſh Eaſt India company.

V. GREAT TARTARY, SIBERIA, SAMOJEDIA, and ASIATIC RUSSIA.

VI. TURKY in ASIA, which is divided into eaſtern and weſtern. The eaſtern contains Diarbeck, Turcomania, and Georgia; the weſtern comprehends Arabia, Paleſtine, Syria, and Anatolia.

VII. The ASIATIC iſlands are divided into four claſſes; 1. The iſland, or empire of Japan; 2. The iſlands of the eaſtern ocean; viz. the Marian or Ladrone iſlands, Formoſa, and the Philippine iſlands; 3. Thoſe in the Indian ocean, which are the Moluccas, namely, Tydore, &c. and the Spice iſlands; viz. Banda, Amboyna, Ceram, Ternate, Timor, Gilolo, &c. Celebes, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Ceylon, the Maldivia iſlands, &c. 4. On the coaſts of Aſia, and in the Mediterranean, as Cyprus, Rhodes, Leſbos, or Mytelene, Chios or Scio, Samos, Coos, and ſome others of leſs note, with the *New Diſcoveries*.

Theſe laſt diviſions not coming into any of the former claſſes, muſt be ſpoken of in ſeparate articles.

It is not unlikely that ſome may object here, that Tartary is not under one government; that India, beyond the Ganges, is independent of the Great Mogul, as Arabia is of the Turks; and that Georgia, Mingrelia, &c. are ſubject partly to the Turks, and partly to the Perſians, and conſequently that each of theſe ſhould be divided into its reſpective parts. But, in this introductory part of our work, we think it more eligible to avoid clogging our readers' memory with too many diſtinctions, which will be more properly introduced, when we treat of each particular part. However, a clear idea of the continent, iſlands, &c. of this quarter of the globe may be obtained from the ſeveral following tables:

ASIATIC

ASIATIC TABLE.

A NEW, COMPLETE, and GENERAL TABLE of the CONTINENT of ASIA.

Asia is considered under Six Grand Divisions, viz.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.		Religions.
	Persia	1300	1100	Ispahan	2460	S. E.	Mahometans
	China	1440	1260	Pekin	4320	S. E.	Pagans
	India	2000	1000	Siam	5040	S. E.	Pagans
	Mogul Empire	2042	1400	Dehli	3720	S. E.	Mah. & Pagans
Great Tartary.	Russian	Limits not to be ascertained, being frequently changing by continual wars.		Tobolski	2160	N. E.	Christ. & Pag.
Great Tartary.	Chinese			Chynian	4480	N. E.	Pagans
Great Tartary.	Mogulean			Tibet	3780	E.	Pagans
Great Tartary.	Independant			Samarcand	2800	E.	Pagans
Turkey in Asia.	Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640	S. E.	Mahometans
Turkey in Asia.	Syria	400	200	Aleppo	1860	S. E.	Christ. & Mah.
Turkey in Asia.	Holy Land	200	180	Jerusalem	1920	S. E.	Christ. & Mah.
Turkey in Asia.	Natolia	600	320	Smyrna	1440	S. E.	Mahometans
Turkey in Asia.	Mesopotamia	600	300	Bagdat	2160	S. E.	Mahometans, with some Christians.
Turkey in Asia.	Turcomania	300	200	Erzerum	1860	S. E.	
Turkey in Asia.	Georgia	210	140	Teflis	1920	E.	

A NEW and COMPLETE TABLE of the ISLANDS, &c. in ASIA.

In the PACIFIC and INDIAN OCEANS.

Names.		Chief Towns.	Belonging to, or trade with
Japanese	Islands.	Jeddo	Dutch
Ladrone	Islands.	Guam	Spain
Formosa	Islands.	Tai-ouan-fou	China
Philippines	Islands.	Manilla	Spain
Banda	The Molucca or Spice Islands.	Lautor	Dutch
Amboyna	The Molucca or Spice Islands.	Amboyna	Ditto
Celebes	The Molucca or Spice Islands.	Macassar	Ditto
Gilolo	The Molucca or Spice Islands.	Gilolo	Ditto
Machian	The Molucca or Spice Islands.		
Motyer	The Molucca or Spice Islands.		
Ternate	The Molucca or Spice Islands.		
Tydore	The Molucca or Spice Islands.		
Borneo	Sunda Islands	Borneo, Achen, Bencoolen, Batavia, and Bantam.	Various nations; particularly the English and Dutch
Sumatra	Sunda Islands		
Java	Sunda Islands		
Andaman	Islands	Andaman	Various nations
Nicobar	Islands	Nicobar	Ditto
Ceylon	Islands	Candy	Dutch
Maldives	Islands	Caridon	Various nations
Bombay	Islands	Bombay	English
Kurile, or Kamtschatka	Islands	Nothing worthy the name of a town.	Russians
New Holland	Islands	Botany Bay	English
New Guinea & Papua	Uncolonized.	With a Variety of otherfmaller and more scattered Islands, inhabited by different Nations of the Indians, which have been lately visited by European Navigators, and will be particularly described in this Work.	
New Britain	Uncolonized.		
New Ireland	Uncolonized.		
New Hebrides	Uncolonized.		
New Caledonia	Uncolonized.		
New Zealand	Uncolonized.		
The Friendly and Society isles	Lately discovered.		

In the Levant, belonging to the TURKS.

Cyprus	Nicolia	Merchants of all nations are allowed to trade hither under the particular restrictions of the Turks.
Rhodes	Rhodes	
Lesbos or Mytelene	Castro	
Scio	Scio	
Samos	Cora	
Nicaria	No town worth naming	
Stanchio	Stanchio	

The greatest Number of these Islands lying in Clusters, we cannot in the Limits of this Table give the Length and Breadth; therefore we refer our Readers to our particular Description of each Island.

A GENERAL TABLE of SEAS, LAKES, RIVERS, &c. IN ASIA.

Seas and Lakes.	Rivers.	Mountains.	Religions.		Language.
Caspian	Euphrates	Caucasus	Antilibanus	Idolaters — Who follow the opinions of: Foe, Confucius and Brama	Arabic
Dead Sea	Tigris	Taurus	Carmel		Persian
El-Catif	Jordan	Corax	Sinai		Tartarian
Sea of Galilee	Indus	Imaus	Horeb		Chinese
Samochonites	Ganges	Coronus	Olympus		Japanese
Gennesareth, &c.	Oby	Orminius	Gilead	Mahometans — Who follow the opinions of: Mahomet Ali	Malayan
	Orchardus	Cadmus	Masias		Malabarian and Portuguese corrupted, &c. &c.
	Volga, Chefel	Ida	Singarus		
	Oxus, Arbis	Siphylus	Casius	Fire Worshippers — Who follow the opinions of: Zoroaster	
	Samadaces	Timolus	Pieria, &c.		
	Cyrus	Mesagys		Jews — Who practise the Laws of Moses.	
	Cambyses	Mimu			
	Amardus	Larmus		Christians — Who profess the Doctrines of Christ.	
	Strato	Mycale			
	Corindas	Phœnix			
	Caritas, &c.	Libanus			

Having thus preſented to the view of our readers, a ſketch of the plan we mean to purſue, in the deſcription we are about to give of the Aſiatic dominions (in doing which, we ſhall endeavour to be ſo clear and comprehenſive, that nothing material ſhall be omitted) we ſhall now proceed to give a full and complete hiſtory and deſcription of the kingdom of Perſia, a kingdom of very conſiderable importance; on which account, as well as that we may not be thought mere copyiſts, like former writers on this ſubject, we give theſe extenſive and celebrated provinces, the lead in the Aſiatic part of the work.

CHAP. I.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

PERSIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a Deſcription of the Name, Boundaries and Extent, Situation, Provinces, Air, Climate, &c. Seas, Rivers, celebrated Iſlands, and their Produce, of the Empire of PERSIA, both with Reſpect to its antient and preſent State.

IT is highly probable that Perſia derives its name either from the province of Perſis, now called Fars, or from Perſepolis, which was antiently the capital city of this province, and the ſeat of its monarchs, when Alexander the Great conquered Darius, and ſubdued the whole country. Some claſſic writers deduce its name from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae; while others take it from Paras, a horſeman, becauſe the Perſian troops ſerved on horſeback, and were famous for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Though the boundaries of this empire will be better underſtood from the deſcription of its reſpective provinces, yet ſome geographers affirm them to be as follows; viz. India, or the dominions of the Mogul, towards the eaſt; the ocean, or Perſian gulf, or Boſſora, towards the ſouth; the Turkiſh empire towards the weſt; and Circaſſia, the Caſpian ſea, and the river Oxus (which divides it from the country of the Uſbeck Tartars) towards the north. We muſt allow that this deſcription would be tolerably juſt, were the bounds of the Mogul's dominions on the eaſt, and thoſe of the Turkiſh empire on the weſt, once ſettled. As ſeveral provinces of India lie to the weſtward of Indus, and ſome of the Turkiſh provinces extend to the eaſtward of the river Tigris; conſequently thoſe writers muſt err, who make the river Indus the eaſtern boundary, and the Tigris the weſtern; to which we may alſo ſubjoin, that part of the Arabian coaſt, on the ſouth of the gulf of Boſſora, is ſubject to the king of Perſia.

The moſt ſouthern part of Perſia lying in twenty-five degrees north latitude, and the moſt northern part in forty-five degrees, it may be juſtly reckoned to be twelve hundred miles in extent, from north to ſouth; and as the weſtern part of it lies in forty-five degrees of longitude, calculating from the meridian of London, and the moſt eaſtern part in ſixty-ſeven, the length and breadth is nearly equal; and the form of the country would be almoſt ſquare, were it not for the Caſpian ſea, which divides the north-eaſt parts of Perſia from the north-weſt. They are certainly egregiouſly miſtaken, who extend it thirteen degrees beyond our moſt accurate accounts; for by that means, they make it to contain thirty-five degrees of longitude, and the length greatly to exceed the breadth.

The Perſian provinces may all be comprehended in twelve diſtricts, in the following order; Choraſan, Sableuſtan, Sigiſtan, Makeran, Kerman, Fars, Chuſiſtan, Curdeſtan, Irac-Agem, Ghilan, Adarbeitzen, and Shirvan. We ſhall ſhew the different names by which they were antiently, and are now called; and that the reader may not remain in any doubt concerning them, we ſhall take care (where other writers name two or more, in the bounds of one of theſe diſtricts) generally to mention them both.

We ſhall deſcribe the whole of this extenſive empire, in the moſt circumſtantial manner, and arrange the ſeveral provinces as follow:

I. Choraſan (in which Eſterabad or Kheman may be included, though ſome reckon them diſtinct provinces) is bounded, towards the eaſt, by part of India; on the north-weſt, by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbeck Tartary; on the ſouth by the province of Sableuſtan; on the weſt, by Ghilan and Irac-Agem; and by the Caſpian ſea on the north-weſt. The chief towns are Herad, Meſchid or Thus, Nizabour, Eſterabad, Aria, Maron, Indion, and Zarchas. This province contains part of the antient Bactria.

II. Sableuſtan, (in which Gaur and Candahor may be comprehended) is bounded, towards the north, by Choraſan; towards the eaſt, by the province of Cabul, in India; towards the ſouth, by the province of Sigiſtan; and, towards the weſt, by the province of Irac-Agem. Gazna, Buſt, Beckſabath, and Candahor, are the chief towns.

III. Sigiſtan; which is bounded, on the north, by Sableuſtan; towards the eaſt, by the province of Multan, in India; on the ſouth, by the province of Makeran; and, towards the weſt, by part of the province of Kerman. Sigiſtan, Kobin, and Maſtich, are the chief towns. This province is ſaid to be the antient Drangiana.

IV. Makeran; which is bounded on the north, by Sigiſtan; towards the eaſt, by the provinces of Buckor and Tata, in India; towards the ſouth, by the ocean; and towards the weſt, by the province of Kerman. Makeran, Paſſir, and Geſt, are its chief towns. This province is ſuppoſed to be the antient Gedroſſia.

V. Kerman; which is bounded, towards the eaſt, by the provinces of Sigiſtan and Makeran; towards the ſouth, by the ocean; towards the weſt, by the province of Fars; and, towards the north, by a deſart in the province of Irac-Agem. The chief towns are Kerman, Chabis, Salem, Tubaran, Jaſques, and Darabegerd, which was the antient Paſſagardi.

VI. Fars, or Farſiſtan; which is bounded, towards the eaſt, by Kerman; towards the ſouth, by the gulf of Perſia, called Boſſora; towards the weſt, by the province of Chuſiſtan; and towards the north, by the province of Irac-Agem. The chief towns are the following; 1. Schiras, which lies in the latitude of twenty-nine degrees, fifty minutes, about thirty miles ſouth-weſt from Perſepolis, whoſe magnificent ruins excite the admiration of travellers; but of this we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak hereafter. 2. Lar; about a hundred miles ſouthward of Schiras, Gombron, or Bander Abaſſi, in twenty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes north. 3. Ormus; which ſtands on a ſmall iſland of the ſame name, in the gulf of Perſia, oppoſite to Gombron, and about ſix miles from it. 4. Bander Congo; which alſo ſtands on the Perſian gulf, about thirty miles weſt of Gombron. It may not be improper to take notice here of a ſmall territory belonging to the kingdom of Perſia, which lies on the Arabian ſhore, on the other ſide of the gulf; the chief towns of it are Catena and Elcatif, from whence this ſea ſometimes takes the name. In the province of Fars, may be comprehended the diſtricts of Lar and Ormes.

VII. Chuſiſtan; which is bounded, on the eaſt, by the provinces of Fars and Irac-Agem; on the ſouth, by the gulf of Perſia; on the weſt, by the territory of Boſſora;

A NEW MAP of PERSIA
Divided into its PROVINCES
From the last AUTHORITIES
By T. KITCHIN Geogr.
Hydrographer to his
MAJESTY

KAAAT SHA HORDA TARTARS

SCALES.

Remains of Persia 184 to a Degree.

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80

British Statute Miles, 69½ to a Degree.

25 50 100 150 200 225

SEAS, LAKES, RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, DESERTS, PROVINCES, CITIES, TOWNS, &c.

CASPIAN SEA
PERSIAN GULF
ARABIAN SEA
DESERT ARABIA
GREAT SALT DESERT
LESSER SALT DESERT
DESERT OF KERMAN
DESERT OF LUT
DESERT OF SEISTAN
MOUNTAINS OF CAUCASUS
MOUNTAINS OF TAURUS
MOUNTAINS OF ELBURZ
MOUNTAINS OF HINDOO KOOSH
MOUNTAINS OF KOHRASAN
MOUNTAINS OF ZAGROS
MOUNTAINS OF KOHRUD
MOUNTAINS OF KOHBENAN
MOUNTAINS OF KOHSIAH
MOUNTAINS OF KOHBANAN
MOUNTAINS OF KOHSURKH

and, on the north, by the province of Curdeſtan. The chief towns are, 1. Suffer, or Schourter, ſuppoſed to be the famous Shuſhan, where Ahaſuerus made that magnificent feſtival, mentioned in ſcripture, on his marriage with Eſther. 2. Elmais; and 3. Banderick, now a ſmall town on the ſea coaſt. This province was called Suſiana by the antients.

VIII. Curdeſtan; which is bounded, on the eaſt, by Irac-Agem; on the ſouth, by Chuſiſtan; on the weſt, by Turkiſh Curdeſtan; and, on the north, by Aderbeitzen. Arnova and Courmebud are the chief towns in it. This province was the Aſſyria of the antients; the weſtern part of it belongs to Turky, and the caſtern to Perſia.

IX. Irac, or Erack-Agem; which is bounded, on the north, by Aderbeitzen and Ghilan (antiently called Hyrcania) on the eaſt, by the province of Choraſan; on the ſouth, by Chuſiſtan and Farſiſtan; and, on the weſt, by Curdeſtan. The chief towns in this province are, 1. Iſpahan, the metropolis of the kingdom, in thirty-two degrees forty minutes north latitude, and the fiftieth degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London. 2. Caſbin, or Caſwin (where the antient Arſatia ſtood) in thirty-ſix degrees odd minutes. 3. Com, ſituate in thirty-four degrees thirty minutes. 4. Sava, almoſt exactly between Caſbin and Com. 5. Hamadan, about a hundred miles north-weſt of Com. 6. Caſham, about ſeventy miles north of Iſpahan. 7. Yeſd, about one hundred and five miles to the eaſtward of Iſpahan. Irac-Agem, was the antient Parthia, and is now reckoned the principal province of the empire, being very extenſive, almoſt in the centre of the Perſian dominions, and the province where the capital city ſtands.

X. Ghilan, or Kylan, (in which Mazanderan, or Tabriſtan, may be comprehended) which is bounded, on the north, by the Hyrcanian or Caſpian ſea; on the eaſt, by the province of Choraſan, or Bactria; on the ſouth, by the province of Irac-Agem, or Parthia; and, on the weſt, by Aderbeitzen. Its chief towns are, 1. Reſcod. 2. Ghilan, ſituate in thirty-eight degrees north latitude, and two hundred miles eaſt of Tauris. 3. Mazanderan, one hundred miles further eaſt. 4. Aſherol, within two miles of the Caſpian ſea. 5. Tabriſtan; and, 6. Ferabat. This province (as we hinted above) was antiently called Hyrcania.

XI. Aderbeitzen, or Adirbajon; which is bounded, on the north, by the province of Shirvan; on the eaſt, by Ghilan and part of the Caſpian ſea; on the ſouth, by Irac-Agem and Curdeſtan; and, on the weſt, by the river Aras, or Araxis, which ſeparates it from part of Georgia. The following are its chief towns. 1. Tauris, or Tabris, ſuppoſed to be the antient Ecbatana, formerly the royal reſidence of the Median and Perſian monarchs, and eſteemed little inferior to Babylon, either for its antiquity or magnificence; it lies in thirty-eight degrees odd minutes of north latitude, and is about four hundred miles north-weſt of Iſpahan. 2. Ardevil, or Ardebil, ſtands about thirty miles eaſt of Tauris. 3. Sultania, which is ſix days journey to the ſouth-eaſt of Tauris, in thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude. This province is the ſouthern part of the antient Media.

XII. Shirvan, or Schirwan; which is bounded, on the north, by Circaſſia, and the Muſcovite dominions; on the eaſt, by the Caſpian ſea; towards the ſouth, by Aderbeitzen; and towards the weſt, by Turkiſh Armenia and Georgia. The chief towns in this province, are, 1. Derbent, or Debircan, which ſignifies an iron gate; it is a very ſtrong paſs between the mountains and the Caſpian ſea, in forty-two degrees north latitude. 2. Schamachie, which is ſituate about fifty miles to the ſouth of Derbent. 3. Baku; this town ſometimes gives name to the Caſpian ſea, and ſtands a little to the ſouthward of Schamachie. 5. Tafflis, or Cala, the capital of eaſtern Georgia; it ſtands in forty-four degrees of north latitude, and forty-eight degrees of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London. 5. Erivan, or Irvan, lies in forty degrees odd minutes, upon the river Sargi, near the borders of Armenia. 6. Gangea lies between Erivan and Schamachie. 7. Nackſivan, or Naziwan, is ſituate twenty-one leagues ſouth of Erivan. This was antiently the capital of an Armenian province, and the natives affirm, from an antient tradition, that Noah built the city, when he firſt came out of the ark: the word "Nackſivan" ſignifying a ſtation for ſhips. 8. Tarku, which is the capital of Dagiſtan. 9. Old Julpha, which is, at preſent, a heap of ruins; the Armenian inhabitants having been tranſplanted to Iſpahan, near which city they have a conſiderable town, and are become the greateſt merchants in the Perſian dominions; and as they have their agents and factors in almoſt every place throughout Europe and Aſia, they may with propriety be eſteemed the greateſt traders in the whole world.

As the kingdom of Perſia reaches from the twenty-fifth to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, the longeſt day in the ſouth is thirteen hours and an half; and, in the north, above fifteen hours; ſo that it is very natural to ſuppoſe that, in ſuch a vaſt extent of country, the air and ſeaſons greatly differ, which we find they really do. Their winter, in the middle of the kingdom, begins in November, and continues till March, with ſevere froſts and ſnow, the latter of which falls in great quantities on their mountains, but not ſo much in the plains. From March till May, the wind is commonly high; and from that time till September, they enjoy a calm ſerene atmoſphere, without ſo much as a cloud in the heavens; and though it be pretty hot in the day time, the refreſhing breezes, which blow conſtantly in the morning and evening, and at night, make the ſummer tolerably pleaſant, eſpecially as the nights are nearly ten hours long. The air is very pure; and the ſtars ſhine with ſuch luſtre, that one perſon may know another very well by their light; and people in general, find it much more convenient and agreeable to travel in the night, than in the day time.

There are ſeldom any hurricanes or tempeſts in the middle of Perſia, and very little thunder or lightning; nor have they many earthquakes, and the air is ſo extremely dry in the fine ſeaſon, that there is not the leaſt moiſture found on any thing that is laid abroad all night, or even on the graſs; and they have very little rain in the winter ſeaſon. It is a common obſervation among foreigners, who have travelled to the heart of Perſia, that thoſe who are healthful on their arrival thither, continue ſo; and that thoſe who are ſick, ſeldom recover; which is a manifeſt indication of the ſalubrity of the air and climate, and further appears from the hale complexion of the natives, who are ſtrong and robuſt, and generally enjoy a conſtant ſeries of health.

In the ſouthern part of Perſia, the air is very unhealthful in the ſpring and fall, particularly about Gombron; the European factors never paſs a year without a dangerous fit of illneſs, which frequently proves fatal to them. As this event is always expected to happen, two of them commonly agree, that if one die, the fortune of the deceaſed ſhall devolve to the ſurvivor. This is no great prejudice to the relations; for if a man leaves private truſtees, or makes the company his executors, the heir of the deceaſed will, in either of thoſe caſes, meet with great difficulties in recovering the effects of the teſtator. The months of June, July, and Auguſt, are pretty healthy, but ſo very hot, that both natives and foreigners get upon the mountains at that time. The hot winds, which come from the eaſtward over a long tract of ſandy deſerts, well nigh ſuffocate them; and ſometimes a peſtilential blaſt ſtrikes the traveller dead in an inſtant. It ſeldom rains here in any part of the year; and the water they ſave when it does, is very unwholſome. It has been commonly remarked, that the countries near the tropics are much hotter than thoſe under the line; which is accounted for, from the ſun's remaining longer near the tropics, than the equator; and the days being of a greater length in ſummer near the tropics, than under the line; which are certainly very ſubſtantial reaſons. But a great deal muſt be attributed to the nature of the ſoil, and the ſituation of the country, where the winds blow over large, ſandy, and ſcorching deſerts; and eſpecially between the mountains, which reflect the heat from one ſide to the other; and there are no refreſhing breezes or ſhowers to cool the air, as there generally are near the line; ſo that it is no wonder that thoſe countries are much hotter than any that are under the equator, as thoſe near the Perſian gulf certainly are. The moſt probable reaſon, therefore, that the antients never diſcovered any country in the ſouthern latitude, is, they found it ſo exceſſively hot about the tropics, that they imagined, if they ſhould proceed much farther ſouth, the heat would have been intolerable; and it ſeems to have been a received opinion among them, that part of the torrid zone was not habitable. But we find on the contrary, that in many countries, which the antients were acquainted with, the heats were greater than thoſe under the line.

It ſeems very incredible that all countries in the ſouthern latitude were uninhabited till within ſome hundred years paſt, eſpecially in Africa, where no ſeas intervened to prevent diſcoveries; but it appears no leſs ſtrange, on the other hand, if people had travelled into the ſouthern parts of Africa, that none ſhould ever return from thoſe parts, to give the antients an account of theſe countries, and inform

them, at leaſt, that they were capable of being inhabited.

It is a received opinion among philoſophers, that the wind is nothing elſe but the air put in motion, and the air muſt receive a great addition of heat from the reflection of the burning ſands; this, therefore, being the caſe, it is not more ſurpriſing that the wind ſhould blow warm at noon day, when it has paſſed over a parched country for ſeveral hundred miles, than that thoſe which come from the ſea, or from ſome frozen climate, ſhould prove cool. We ſhall not diſpute that ſome people may have been ſuffocated by theſe hot winds, as travellers inform us; but do not remember to have heard one inſtance of it from thoſe perſons who have been ſeveral years in India, where the hot winds likewiſe blow annually in May and June. It is certain that the chilling cold winds that happen in the night, ſometimes after an exceſſive hot day, have been very fatal to Europeans, who have imprudently lain expoſed in the open air. There have been alſo inſtances of people loſing the uſe of their limbs, and ſome of them their lives, by a ſudden peſtilential blaſt, as well at ſea, as on ſhore.

About forty years ago a gentleman, who held a conſiderable poſt in India, under the Eaſt India Company, had the uſe of his limbs taken away in the following manner: a company of ſix or ſeven perſons, of which number he was one, were drinking a glaſs of wine on board, when two of them were ſuddenly ſtruck dead, and the others ſeized with a kind of dead palſy; and, for his part, he had not the leaſt feeling in his limbs; but when he was carried on ſhore, the Indian phyſician ordered him to be ſtretched out in the ſcorching ſand at noon, for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, placing an umbrella over his head only, and two or three ſervants were ordered to rub and pinch his fleſh in every part, for ſome hours; and though he was ſo very bad, that when one of them ſtood upon his breaſt, he did not feel him at firſt, yet, by chafing and rubbing him with oils in the ſun, and bathing and pinching him in this manner, for ſeveral days, his feeling at length returned, and the uſe of his limbs, except one hand, the uſe of which he was in a great meaſure deprived of.

With reſpect to the temperature of the air in the north part of the Perſian dominions, we ſhall here remark, that the provinces of Georgia, Shirvan, and Aderbeitzen, are very warm and dry in ſummer; but in winter they are ſubject to violent tempeſts, and to as ſevere froſts for ſix months, as any country on the continent, in the ſame latitude: but as this part of Perſia is very mountainous, there is frequently a great difference between the air on the north and ſouth ſide of the mountains; and, after travelling a few miles, people imagine themſelves to be in a different climate; but how cold ſoever the mountains on the north may be, they are extremely healthful. The inhabitants of the flat country of Ghilan and Mazanderan (which lies upon the Caſpian ſea, and was the antient Hyrcania), in the ſummer retire into the mountains, all the water they have being foul and corrupted in the hot ſeaſon; and it is ſaid that here, and in Choraſan, earthquakes are very common. This part of the country is alſo very damp, full of ſtinking moraſſes, and unhealthful.

Though Perſia exceeds moſt other countries in the world in extent, yet there are very few navigable rivers in it, there not being one in the heart of the country, that will carry a boat of any burden; and, in ſome parts, people may travel ſeveral days journey together, without meeting with any water. The river Oxus, it is true, which divides Perſia from Uſbeck Tartary, is a large ſtream; but as none of the branches of it ariſe in the Perſian dominions, it is of little uſe to them. There are, however, ſeveral ſmall rivulets which fall from the mountains, and are conveyed by ſubterraneous channels, or otherwiſe, to their principal cities. The rivers Kur and Aras, antiently called Cyrus and Araxes, which riſe in the mountains of Ararat, run through Georgia, Shirvan, and Aderbeitzen, and having joined their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian ſea, are much the moſt conſiderable rivers in the Perſian dominions.

As the government in Perſia have the care of the conveyance and diſtribution of the waters, they have appointed a great officer in every province, who has the charge of it. And as there is a great ſcarcity of this uſeful article in this country, ſo there is no place where they are more careful of it, or have more ingenious contrivances to convey it to their cities, and into their corn fields and gardens. For the more copious and general ſupply of water, the Perſians alſo turn their little rivulets and ſprings to ſuch parts of the country where it is moſt wanted; and they dig very broad and deep wells, out of which they draw the water with oxen, in great leathern buckets, which they afterwards empty into ciſterns, and let it out for the ſervice of the country, as there is occaſion. Subterraneous aqueducts are alſo provided, through which the water is conveyed to the diſtance of near thirty leagues. Theſe are arched with brick, and are two fathoms high; at the diſtance of every twenty paces, there are large holes like wells, made for the conveyance of carrying on the arch, without working underground too far, and for the more eaſy repairing them. The river and ſpring water is diſtributed to different quarters of the town alternately, as occaſion requires, when every perſon opens the canal or reſervoir in his garden to receive it; and for this benefit every garden pays a yearly ſum to the government, particularly about Iſpahan; and as it is very eaſy for any perſon to turn his neighbour's water into his own channel, that fraud is very ſeverely puniſhed. As the ſpring water is not found ſo proper for the grounds, they therefore pay a higher rate for river water.

Two ſeas, beſides the ocean, belong to Perſia; namely, the Caſpian ſea, and the gulf of Boſſora, or Perſia, one on the north, and the other on the ſouth-weſt. The Caſpian ſea is about a hundred leagues in length, from north to ſouth, and ninety leagues in breadth, and has near a hundred rivers running into it, of which the chief is the Wolga, at the mouth of which ſtands Aſtracan, but this ſea has no communication with any other; and though ſo many rivers fall into it, the way by which it diſcharges its redundance of waters is not known, for they neither ebb nor flow, but are always of the ſame height. It is navigated chiefly by the Muſcovites, who live on the north ſide of it; and the late Czar was cutting a channel between the Wolga and the Don, or Tanais, whereby that monarch propoſed to open a communication between the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas; but this project is ſaid to be at preſent ſuſpended. As to the Perſians, they ſeldom apply themſelves to navigation, and have few veſſels upon this ſea; but they are not altogether ſo negligent of the gulf of Boſſora, upon account of the pearl fiſhery there, which, being reckoned the beſt in the world, they are very jealous of. The pearl fiſhery lies near the iſland of Baharem.

Ormus is the moſt famous of the reſt of the iſlands in the bay; it is ſituate at the entrance of the gulf of Boſſora, and is about thirty miles in circumference. While the Portugueſe were poſſeſſed of this iſland, they commanded the pearl fiſhery, and all the trade of Perſia, and had built one of the moſt elegant cities in Aſia upon it. There is now only an indifferent caſtle upon the iſland, which the Perſians keep poſſeſſion of, in order to prevent other nations from inſulting them as the Portugueſe did formerly, the trade being removed to Gombron, from which it is about two leagues diſtant. The iſland itſelf never produced any thing but ſalt, which grows in a ſolid cruſt, two inches deep upon the ſurface of the ground; and the hills, at a diſtance, appear as if they were covered with ſnow. The Portugueſe fetched moſt of the water they uſed from the continent; for there is not a drop of water upon the iſland but what is preſerved in ciſterns.

The king of Perſia, by the aſſiſtance of the ſhips belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company, reduced this iſland, about one hundred years ago, to his obedience, and expelled the Portugueſe; for which ſervice the Perſians allowed the company great advantages in trade, and half the cuſtoms of Gombron, for fifty years ſucceſſively, amounting, it is ſaid, to forty thouſand pounds per annum; but theſe cuſtoms were afterwards taken from the company, who were allowed three or four thouſand pounds a year, as an acknowledgment of their ſervice at Ormus. The Engliſh were deprived of their ſhare of the cuſtoms, under pretence that they did not afterwards protect the Perſian trade againſt the Portugueſe and Arabs, as they had ſtipulated to do; but the ſum of three thouſand pounds and upwards per annum, was paid till the civil war commenced. Several iſlands are diſperſed over this ſea: but none of them are of any note except two ſmall ones, the one called Kiſmiſh, and the other Lareca; the former of which is ſaid to yield abundance of wheat, and to be as fruitful as Ormus is barren.

SECT. II.

Containing a circumſtantial Account of the Public and Private Buildings, Chief Places, Houſes and Furniture, Streets, Bridges, Squares, Palaces; alſo the Stature, Complexion, Dreſs, Food, &c. of the PERSIANS.

PERSONS of quality in Perſia generally erect their houſes in the middle of a garden elegantly laid out, ſo that they make little or no appearance in the ſtreet, nothing

thing being ſeen but a dead wall with a great gate in the middle, and perhaps a ſkreen or ſlight erection within the gate, to prevent their being overlooked. By their fondneſs for privacy and retirement, they differ greatly from the Europeans, who generally expoſe their ſeats as much as poſſible to the view of the public, and ſeem to intimate, that they can enjoy no pleaſure in the fineſt palaces, but what reſults from the admiration of the ſpectators that paſs by the gates. The Perſians alſo differ from us, in that they have ſeldom more than one floor, which is diſpoſed in this manner: In the front of the houſe ſtands the virando, being a large piazza or cloiſter, open before, where they ſit and conduct their ordinary affairs. Beyond this is a large hall eighteen or twenty feet high, which is uſed at great entertainments or on any ſolemn occaſions. On the farther ſide of the houſe is another virando, or piazza, with a baſon or fountain of water before it; beyond which runs a walk of fine-trees, as there likewiſe does from the front of the ſtreet to the houſe. At each corner of the hall is a parlour or lodging-room, ſerving indifferently for both thoſe purpoſes: between theſe parlours, on the ſides, there are doors out of an hall into an open ſquare place as large as the rooms at the corners; there are alſo ſeveral doors out of the hall into the virando or piazza, before and behind the houſe; ſo that in the hot ſeaſon they can ſet open in the great hall nine or ten doors at once; and they will have the benefit of the air, if there be any ſtirring. There is a handſome baſon in ſome palaces, and a fountain playing in the middle of the hall, which adds ſtill more to the coolneſs of the place. The walls of the houſes are of a conſiderable thickneſs, and ſometimes built of burnt bricks, but more commonly of bricks dried in the ſun. The roof of the great hall is arched, and five or ſix feet higher than the other rooms about it. The roofs of the buildings on each ſide of the hall are flat; and there is a pair of ſtairs up to the top, where the Perſians walk in the cool of the day: they ſometimes lie there all night on a mattraſs, as there is a wall or baluſtrades all round the top of the building. The kitchens and other offices are at a diſtance on the right or left; and it is obſervable, that all their rooms, except the hall, ſtand ſeparate, and there is no paſſage out of one into another, except from the hall. Inſtead of a chimney, they uſually have a round hole about four or five feet broad, and a foot and a half deep in the middle of the room, in which a charcoal fire is made, and the place covered with a thick board, or table, about a foot high, ſo cloſe that no ſmoke can get out. Over that table a large carpet is thrown, under which they put their legs in cold weather, and ſit round, there being a paſſage for the ſmoke by pipes which are laid under the floor. The doors of the houſe are narrow, and ſeldom turn upon hinges as ours do; but at the top and bottom of the door there is a round piece left, which is let into the frame above and below, on which they turn; and the very bolts are frequently made of wood.

Their furniture conſiſts only in carpets ſpread on the floor, with cuſhions and pillows to lean on; and at night there is a mattraſs brought to ſleep on, and a quilt or two to cover them, but ſheets are ſeldom uſed. Their ſervants lie about in any paſſage on mats, and take up very little room.

The floors of the rooms are either paved or made of a hard cement, on which they lay a coarſe cloth, and a carpet over it. The ſides of ſome of their rooms are lined with fine tiles, not unlike the Dutch tiles, about a yard high, and the reſt of the wall painted or hung with pictures. From the above deſcription, the reader may form a tolerable idea of a Perſian houſe. Thoſe of the inferior claſs of people cannot be expected to be like thoſe already deſcribed in every particular; but they endeavour to imitate their ſuperiors as nearly as they can. The palaces of the princes ſeem to be built much after the ſame manner, only they are more lofty and magnificent.

We proceed now to deſcribe ſome of their principal towns, the firſt of which is Iſpahan, or, as is commonly pronounced, Spahawn. It is ſituated in thirty-two degrees forty minutes north latitude, and the fiftieth degree of longitude, reckoning from the meridian of London. It ſtands in a fine plain, almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, which lie about two or three leagues from it; and the form is pretty nearly oval. The river Senderhout runs by it at about a mile diſtance; but there are ſeveral channels and pipes above the town, which convey the water from it into canals and baſons, for the ſervice of the court and city. The town is without walls, and about ten or twelve miles in circumference. Thoſe who extend it ten leagues, take in the town of Julpha, and ſeveral others, for which we ſee no manner of reaſon; for Julpha lies a mile from Iſpahan, and on the other ſide the river, and can no more be reckoned a part of the city, than Chelſea may a part of Weſtminſter. Were we to take in all the villages within the weekly bills, the circumference of all London would very probably be little leſs than ſome travellers reckon Iſpahan. There were formerly twelve gates to the town, but four of them are now cloſed up, the others are always open. With reſpect to the walls mentioned by ſome gentlemen, it is probable there was formerly a mud-wall; but a merchant who came not many years ago from thence affirms, that there is no part of it viſible at preſent. There is indeed an old caſtle without artillery, run to ruin, which is no better fortified than the town.

Moſt of the ſtreets of Iſpahan are narrow and crooked, and as few of them are paved, they are either exceeding dirty or duſty; and the paſſage is rendered very unpleaſant by the number of people of faſhion who ride through them with great trains of ſervants, notwithſtanding there are no coaches or carts. There are, however, ſeveral very fine ſquares in the town, particularly Meydan, or the royal ſquare, of which we ſhall now give ſome deſcription.

Two of the palace gates open into this ſquare, which is one third of a mile in length, and above half as much in breadth. On the ſide of it are buildings reſembling the Exchange in the Strand at London, with ſhops on both ſides; where every trade has a diſtinct quarter aſſigned; there is alſo a ſecond ſtory, where the mechanics have their working ſhops. There ſeems to be little difference between theſe exchanges and ours; except that thoſe at Iſpahan have no windows, but great openings at proper diſtances to admit the light, and people ride through them as along the ſtreets. There is a market for horſes and cattle in the middle of the ſquare, and all manner of goods and eatables are expoſed to ſale; though the great Shah Abbas, who built this ſquare, deſigned it for manly exerciſes, particularly thoſe of horſemanſhip, and handling the bow and lance, at which no people are more ſkilful than the Perſians. There is a fine row of trees planted, and a handſome baſon of water, on that ſide of the ſquare next the palace; and ſome great braſs gates, which were taken from the Portugueſe, ſerve to make a fine ſhew. A great moſque ſtands at the ſouth end of the ſquare, and another on the eaſt ſide, over-againſt the great gate of the palace.

Several ſtreets in Iſpahan are covered and arched over, which makes them pretty dark, and this ſeems to be peculiar to the Perſian towns. In the Indies, it is true, the tradeſmen have little piazzas before their houſes, where they expoſe their goods to ſale, but then there are wide ſtreets before them; though in ſome places there is no other ſtreet than theſe covered ways through which people ride. Another peculiarity among them is, that their houſes and ſhops are never in the ſame place, ſo that it is very common for a tradeſman to go half a mile in the morning to the hazar or market-place, where his ſhop is; and at night they lock up their valuable goods in cheſts and counters, and the meaner ſort they leave packed up, ſometimes in the open ſquare; for it ſeldom happens that any thing is loſt, ſo careful are the watch appointed to guard their market places, or ſo very little given to thieving are the people in this part of the world; and no doubt the ſpeedy and exemplary puniſhments inflicted upon pilferers, is one great means to deter them from it.

Foreign merchants lodge their goods in the public caravanſeras about the city: which ſerve them alſo inſtead of inns, for lodging and diet; but there is this difference between an inn and caravanſera, that people find their own bedding and cookery in the caravanſera, whereas we have not that trouble in our inns. Two things, however, render a caravanſera preferable to an inn; one is, that a perſon is not ſubject to the extortions of an inn-keeper, but buys his proviſion at the beſt hand; and the other is, that let the merchant occupy never ſo many rooms, he ſhall not be diſturbed in them; pays only a ſmall ſum for his warehouſe or lodgings, and pays nothing upon the road. In Iſpahan there are one thouſand five hundred public caravanſeras, which have been built by charitable people, for the uſe of ſtrangers; moſt of them are built after one model, and differ only in the dimenſions. There is a handſome portal at the entrance, on each ſide of which are ſhops, from whence you enter into a ſquare, about which there is a cloiſter, or piazza, and within are lodging rooms, and warehouſes for goods; there are alſo conveniencies and ſtabling for horſes, and other beaſts, on the outſide, or they may be brought into the ſquare, and faſtened there, as is frequently done on the road, where there is no danger of robbers.

There

There are no taverns at Iſpahan, wine being prohibited by the Mahometan religion; nevertheleſs ſome of the Perſians drink pretty plentifully of it in private. There are, however, very handſome coffee-houſes in the principal parts of the town, where people meet and converſe of politics, though they have no printed papers in them. In theſe are to be met with ſome amuſements peculiar to the country, as the harangues of their poets, hiſtorians, and prieſts, who frequently, by their orations, collect a great number of people about them, and expect, for their inſtructions, ſome gratuity from their audience.

The palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, occupy above a league in circumference. One of the gates which comes up to the royal meydan or ſquare, is called Alicapi, and the other Doulet Cuna; over one of them is a gallery, where the Sophi uſed to ſit and ſee martial exerciſe performed on horſeback. No part of the palace where the court reſides, comes up to the royal ſquare; but within the principal gate there is a hall, or court, on the left hand, where the Vizir and other judges, adminiſter juſtice on certain days; and on the right hand are rooms where offenders are allowed to take ſanctuary. From hence to the hall, where the king uſually gives audience, is a handſome walk: it is a long room, well painted and gilded, and ſupported by forty pillars; it is divided into three parts, one a ſtep higher than the other, on which the great officers ſtand, according to their rank. There are no hereditary nobility in Perſia. On the third aſcent is the royal throne, raiſed about a foot and an half above the floor, and about eight feet ſquare, on which is ſpread a rich carpet; the King ſits croſs-legged here upon ſolemn occaſions, having a brocade cuſhion under him, and another at his back. No perſon is permitted to enter the other apartments of the palace, particularly the haram, or women's apartment, none but eunuchs entering them: ſo that they cannot be exactly deſcribed; but we underſtand in general, that they are compoſed of ſeveral pleaſure-houſes diſperſed about the gardens, nearly reſembling the houſes firſt deſcribed; their great beauty conſiſts in the fine walks, fountains, and caſcades about them. The ladies hunt and take their pleaſure with the Prince, in a large park walled in, which is beyond the above-mentioned gardens.

There are upwards of an hundred and fifty Mahometan moſques, or temples, in this city which are covered with domes or cupolas, and, appearing through the trees that are planted almoſt all over the town in the ſtreets and gardens, afford a noble proſpect; but the common buildings are ſo low, that they are hardly diſcerned by a perſon who views the town on the outſide. Chriſtians are prohibited from entering their moſques, or even coming within their courts under ſevere penalties, ſo that our readers cannot expect a minute deſcription of them.

The great moſque in Iſpahan, called by way of eminence the King's, or becauſe it was built by one of their kings, has been viewed by travellers in diſguiſe, who inform us, that there is a gate which leads to this moſque, covered with ſilver plates; through this you proceed to a court with a piazza or cloiſter on each ſide of it, where the prieſts lodge who belong to the moſque. Oppoſite to the great gate are three large doors, which open into it: the five iſles, of which the moſque is compoſed, are beautified with gold and azure: in the middle is the cupola, ſupported by four great ſquare pillars: the iſles on the ſide are lower than that in the middle, and borne up by thick columns of free-ſtone; two great windows towards the top of the middle iſle give light to the whole moſque: on the left hand, towards the middle, ſtands a kind of pulpit, with a flight of ſtone ſteps to go up to it: there are no ſeats, or pews, as in Chriſtian places of worſhip, nor any kind of imagery or pictures. The bricks and tiles on the outſide of the building are painted with various colours after the Perſian manner, and the floor of the moſque is covered with carpets, all perſons putting off their ſhoes as they enter it.

The outſide of the moſque at the ſouth ſide of the royal meydan is ſtone, and the form round, it is divided into iſles: the walls are lined fifteen feet high with white poliſhed marble, and in the middle of the ſquare before the moſque is a large baſon where they waſh themſelves before they enter the temple. The moſques have moſt of them cupolas with ſteeples or towers, whither the Mollas go up to ſummon the people to their devotions, but make no uſe of bells for that purpoſe.

Another ſubject of the traveller's admiration, is, the numerous bagnios, called hummums, in this city. Some of theſe are ſquare buildings, but moſt of them globular: the tops are covered with tiles painted blue; and the ſtone of which they are built is uſually white, and well poliſhed. The inſides are divided in many cells, or chambers, ſome for pleaſure, and others for ſweating: the floors are laid with black and white marble. As the Perſians eſteem bathing to be extremely healthful, and an effectual remedy for colds or aches, and many other diſtempers, they therefore repeat it almoſt every day.

The Charbag, which is a walk above a hundred yards wide, near Iſpahan, is greatly admired by foreigners; it extends a mile in length, from the city to the river Zenderhoud; double rows of trees are planted on each ſide of it, and in the middle runs a canal, not continued upon a level, but at every furlong diſtance the water falls into a large baſon, and forms a caſcade; the ſides of the canal and baſon are lined with hewn ſtone, broad enough for ſeveral men to walk a-breaſt upon them. On each ſide of this walk are the royal gardens, and thoſe of the grandees, with pleaſure-houſes at ſmall diſtances. Theſe, when viewed together, afford a very agreeable proſpect to the ſpectator. At the end of this walk is a bridge, over the river Zenderhoud, which leads to the town of Julpha; there are alſo two other bridges, one on the right, and the other to the left, by which the neighbouring villages have a communication with the city, though they are diſtant about a mile from it.

The architecture of theſe bridges is extremely remarkable, for on both ſides, both above and below, are arched paſſages, through which people ride and walk, from one end of the bridge to the other; as in the covered ſtreets of the city, and at little diſtances, there are openings to receive the light. The arches of theſe bridges are not very high, there being no veſſels to paſs under them; for this river is not navigable, any more than the reſt in Perſia. At the latter end of the ſummer the channel is exceeding narrow and ſhallow, inſomuch that there is not water enough for the gardens belonging to the city; to ſupply the want of it, they have abundance of wells about Iſpahan, which contain very good water for all uſes. But in the ſpring, on the melting of the ſnow on the mountains, it makes a pretty good appearance, being almoſt as broad as the Thames at London.

The town of Julpha ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the river Zenderhoud: it is inhabited by a colony of Armenians, which were tranſplanted hither by the great Shah Abbas. This town is about two miles in length, and not much leſs in breadth, being for the moſt part better built, and the ſtreets wider than thoſe of Iſpahan, but the trees that are planted in the ſtreets, and the large gardens they have near their houſes, give it more the appearance of a country village than a town. Georgians, and ſeveral other Chriſtians, inhabit here, as well as Armenians; and there are ſome convents of Europeans, but no Mahometans. This colony has flouriſhed prodigiouſly ſince its firſt ſettlement here by Shah Abbas; they being now the moſt conſiderable merchants in the world; and we meet with them in almoſt all countries of Aſia and Europe. The king at firſt provided them with ſtocks to trade with, and partook of their profits, ſo that they were little better than the king's factors; but they now only pay a yearly tax to the government. They enjoy a privilege above all other Chriſtians, being allowed to purchaſe eſtates.

The factors belonging to the Eaſt India company have a handſome houſe in Iſpahan, the model of which is the ſame with the houſe firſt decribed; but ſince the civil wars broke out, the uſurpers have ſo harraſſed and oppreſſed them, that the company have ordered their ſervants to retire from thence; they have alſo withdrawn moſt of their ſervants from Gombron, and made Boſſora (at the bottom of the gulf of the ſame name) their principal factory on that ſide. The city of Boſſora ſtands on the Tigris, two days journey below Bagdat, and the territory is governed by its own prince, but tributary to the Grand Seignior.

Schiras, or Sheraz, according to the modern pronunciation, lies about two hundred miles to the ſouthward of Iſpahan: it is ſituate in twenty-nine degrees fifty minutes of north latitude, and is uſually reckoned the ſecond city of the kingdom, and is the capital of the province of Fars, or the antient Perſia: ſome deduce the name from Cyrus the Great, there being a tradition that he was buried there; others ſay it is derived from "ſherab," which in the Perſian tongue ſignifies a grape, becauſe that fruit abounds in this place; and others from the word "ſheer," which ſignifies milk. The town is ſeated in a pleaſant fertile valley, about twenty miles in length, and ſix in breadth: it has a rivulet running through it, which in the ſpring appears like a large river, and ſometimes increaſes to ſuch a torrent,

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as to bear down the houſes in its courſe; but in the ſummer it is almoſt dry. There are no walls about this place, which contains only about four thouſand houſes: the compaſs of it is reckoned to be about ſeven miles, but much the greateſt part of this ſpace is gardens. It is obſervable, that the Perſians let moſt of their buildings run to ruin: every generation chooſing to build new houſes, rather than occupy thoſe of their anceſtors. There is no place where the Mahometan ſuperſtition prevails more than here, there being a moſque or temple almoſt to every twenty houſes; the domes of which, being covered with blue varniſhed tiles, make a pretty appearance among the trees: here is alſo a college, where the liberal arts are ſtudied.

Schiras is moſt remarkable for the fine gardens and vineyards about it. The ſtreets are for the moſt part narrow and duſty; but there are ſome broad ones with canals, and baſons faced with ſtone. The cypreſs-trees with which their walks are chiefly compoſed, are the talleſt and largeſt of any whatever, and grow in a pyramidal form; intermixed with theſe are ſeveral broad ſpreading trees, and all manner of fruits, as pomegranates, oranges, lemons, cherries, pears, apricots, dates, &c. Theſe are not planted againſt walls, as with us, but ſtand in the alleys, and ſometimes are diſpoſed irregularly, as in a wilderneſs. They have alſo abundance of ſweet flowers of various colours, but not planted in that regular order as in the gardens of Europe. Their vineyards and wines are preferable to any in Perſia: and the canals, caſcades, fountains, and pleaſure-houſes in their gardens, are not at all inferior to thoſe of Iſpahan. The king's garden here is no leſs than two thouſand paces ſquare, and ſurrounded with a wall fourteen feet high; but the gardens as well as the buildings of Schiras have been much neglected of late years.

The nobleſt ruins of an antient palace, or temple, that any country can boaſt of, are now to be ſeen thirty miles to the north-eaſt of Schiras; even Rome itſelf, it is ſaid, has nothing comparable to theſe venerable remains of antiquity. The place is at preſent called Chilmanar, or Forty Pillars. According to ſome, it was built upon a mountain of dark-coloured marble, and the ſteps hewn out of the ſolid rock; but others, who have viewed it more narrowly ſince, obſerve that the ſteps are compoſed of large ſtones, fifteen or ſixteen feet in length, and of ſuch a thickneſs, that ſix or ſeven ſteps are cut out of one ſtone: the whole being ſo ſkilfully joined by art, that they appear to be but one piece.

The ruins of this once magnificent palace or temple are ſeated at the north-eaſt end of that ſpacious plain where PERSEPOLIS once ſtood, and are generally held to be part of the palace of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander the Macedonian monarch. The front of this palace ſtood towards the weſt, and was about five hundred paces in length, the whole occupying near threeſcore acres of ground. The aſcent to it is by ninety-five ſteps, thirty feet in length, and twenty inches broad, but not above three inches deep, ſo that a horſe may eaſily go up or down them. The ſtair-caſe divides as you aſcend; one branch winds to the right, and the other to the left, each having a well on one ſide, and a marble balluſter on the other: both of the branches afterwards turn again, and end at a ſquare landing-place, from whence is an entrance into a portico of white marble twenty feet wide: on which are carved in baſs-relieve two beaſts as large as elephants; but their bodies reſemble thoſe of horſes, and they have the feet and tails of oxen. Ten feet farther ſtand two fluted columns of whitiſh ſtone, about ſixty feet high, beſides their capitals and baſes, and as thick as three men can fathom: a little farther ſtand two other pilaſters, carved like the firſt, except that the beaſts on theſe latter have wings, and men's heads. Beyond this portal, or hall, is another ſuch double ſtair-caſe, leading to the upper rooms, twenty-five feet broad, but incomparably more beautiful than the former; for on the walls of it a kind of triumph is carved in baſs-relieve, conſiſting of a numerous train of people in diſtinct companies, ſome of them carrying banners, and others offerings, and after all comes a chariot drawn by ſeveral horſes, with a little altar upon it, from whence the fire ſeems to aſcend. On the other ſide are carved wild beaſts fighting, and, among others a lion and a bull are cut with great exactneſs, the ſtone of which is ſo hard, that the niceſt and moſt curious part of the workmanſhip is ſtill in fine preſervation.

There is a ſquare place on the top of the ſecond ſtair-caſe, which has been ſurrounded with columns, ſeventeen of which only are now ſtanding, but there are an hundred pedeſtals: ſome of thoſe that are left are ſixty, and others ſeventy feet high, and twelve of them near three fathom in compaſs; they are of red and white marble fluted. Antiquaries ſuppoſe that theſe ſupported the temple of the ſun. Near thoſe columns, on the ſame floor, is a place fifty feet ſquare, incloſed with walls ſix or ſeven feet thick, of a much finer marble than any hitherto mentioned, and ſo wonderfully carved, that it would take up ſeveral days to view all the figures: which way ſo ever a man turns himſelf in this ſecond floor, there appear figures cut in baſs and half-relieve. In one place, are men fighting with lions; in another, a man holding a unicorn by the horn; in a third, are the figures of giants; and in a fourth, a prince is repreſented giving audience to his people or to ambaſſadors; beſides a multitude of other ſcenes. Here are likewiſe abundance of inſcriptions, in laſting characters, many of which have been tranſcribed, and brought into Europe, but ſcarcely any of them are underſtood at this day by the learned, any more than they are by the people of the country.

Gombron is a town and port the moſt reſorted to of any in the Perſian dominions. The Engliſh Eaſt India company have had a factory here for upwards of three hundred years: they have a juſt claim to half the cuſtoms of this place, by virtue of the before-mentioned treaty, in conſideration of their having aſſiſted Shah Abbas in the reduction of Ormus; but of late years they have received the annual ſum of one thouſand tomans, or three thouſand three hundred and thirty-three pounds, ſix ſhillings and eight pence in lieu of it. After the conqueſt of that iſland, Gombron received the name of Bandar-Abaſſi, or the port of Abbas (Bandar ſignifying a port) that prince having transferred the trade hither. Gombron is ſituate in twenty ſeven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and diſtant about three hundred miles from Schiras. It is about three miles in compaſs; and ſtands on a level ground cloſe to the ſea; the country almoſt every way riſing inſenſibly for ſome miles, without any conſiderable hill, except towards the north: near this town is the narroweſt part of the Perſian gulf, or Boſſora. The coaſt of Arabia lies oppoſite to it, at about ten leagues diſtance, but does not ſeem to be farther acroſs than from Dover to Calais. Beſides the natives, it is inhabited by Engliſh, Dutch, Portugueſe, Arabs, Jews, Armenians, Banians, and ſeveral other nations, of which the two laſt mentioned are much the greateſt merchants. Towards the land it has a wall, which is in a ruinous condition; and towards the ſea there are three ſmall forts, mounting five guns each, and a platform of eight. There is a caſtle mounted with thirty-five guns, for the ſecurity of the road. The people here have the ſame humour as in other parts of Perſia, in letting the houſes of their anceſtors drop, and erecting new ones for themſelves; for they have adopted the ſuperſtitious opinion, that if the perſon who inhabited the houſe before was deemed unhappy, they are apprehenſive that the like ill fortune will attend the perſon who next occupies it; ſo that the houſes in many of the ſtreets are tumbling down, and others going to decay. Their beſt houſes are built of ſtone brought from the iſlands of Kiſhmee, or Larrak, but they are for the moſt part built of bricks hardened in the ſun. They conſiſt ſometimes of two ſtories, and have a wooden contrivance on the top of the houſe, to force the wind down into the lower rooms. Theſe machines are about ten feet high, and at a diſtance look like towers. The houſes belonging to the Engliſh and Dutch Eaſt India companies are as well built as moſt in the town.

Tauris is the next town of note. It is called by the Turks and Perſians Tabriz, and was the metropolis of Media. It is ſituate in thirty-eight degrees odd minutes, north latitude, and is ſuppoſed to be the antient Ecbatana. Some of the antients were of opinion that it was founded by Semiramis, who with incredible labour brought the water thither from the mountain Orontes, a branch of Taurus; but a celebrated Jewiſh writer aſſures us, that it was built, or at leaſt a royal palace in it, by the prophet Daniel. It was beſt known formerly by the name of Ecbatana, and was then in its greateſt ſplendor. The antients obſerve, that it was fifteen miles in circumference, and had walls ſeventy cubits high and fifty broad, with many noble palaces; but there is now little or nothing remaining either of the walls or palaces. However, Tauris is ſtill a conſiderable town, being about five miles in circuit, populous, and a place of very great trade; but it is not near ſo well peopled as ſome late accounts have made it. The inhabitants, including men, women, and children, do not exceed fourſcore thouſand, though their number has been exaggerated beyond all credibility; for during the late civil war neither the prince or uſurper have been

able to levy an army of forty thouſand men, notwithſtanding the news-writers have lately found in this city two hundred thouſand men capable of bearing arms. Here are ſeveral noble meydans, or ſquares, one of them almoſt equal to the royal meydan of Iſpahan: they have alſo their covered ſtreets, or exchanges, where abundance of rich merchandiſe is expoſed to ſale; and their moſques and bagnios reſemble thoſe in other cities, of which we have made mention before.

The city of Tauris, like moſt others in Perſia, ſtands in a plain ſurrounded by mountains, from whence there falls a ſmall ſtream, which runs through the middle of it; but, on the melting of the ſnows, it is increaſed to a mighty torrent. This city has often changed its maſter, having been ſometimes poſſeſſed by the Turk, and at others by the Perſian: but as the citizens ſeem chiefly inclined to the Perſians, the Turks have ſeveral times burnt and plundered it without mercy, but the great Shah Abbas, upwards of a hundred years ago, drove the Turks out of this part of Perſia, from which time Tauris remained in the peaceable poſſeſſion of the Perſians till a few years ago, when the Turks again ſurpriſed it, exerciſing their uſual cruelties on the miſerable inhabitants. The caravans uſually travel in four and twenty days to and from Iſpahan and Tauris, which lies about four hundred miles to the northward of the other.

We have already obſerved that Tafflis is the capital city of Georgia, but ſubject to the Perſians, and inhabited chiefly by Chriſtians; inſomuch that there is not one Mahometan moſque in the place, except that of the caſtle, though there are no leſs than fourteen Chriſtian churches. It is ſituate in fourteen degrees of north latitude, on the river Kur, or Cyrus, at the foot of a mountain; it is not of very large extent, but elegantly built. On the ſouth ſide, on the declivity of the mountain, ſtands the caſtle, which was once a place of ſtrength, but is hardly tenable at preſent, and therefore liable to be ſeized by the next invader, whether Turk or Muſcovite, if they are not already poſſeſſed of it. It is a biſhop's ſee, and has a handſome cathedral, built in form of a croſs. The other churches belong partly to the Georgians, and partly to the Armenians. Theſe, as well as the other public ſtructures, are built of ſtone, ſuch as their bazars, caravanſeras, bagnios, &c.

SECT. III.

Containing a further Account of the PERSIANS, with reſpect to their Diſpoſition and Mental Qualities, Dreſs, Stature, Shape, and Complexion; together with their Diet, Liquors, Public and Private Diverſions, Rural Sports, and Ceremonies, Salutations, Gaming, &c. alſo of their Travelling, Carriages, Roads, and Retinue.

IT is univerſally allowed, that the Perſians are in general endowed with bright parts, have abundance of vivacity, are fond of glory, and ſurpaſs their neighbours of India in point of courage, inſomuch that the great Mogul prefers them to the greateſt poſts both in his court and army; and as they were obſerved to be of all men the moſt civil and obliging, they retain the ſame diſpoſition to this day; eſpecially towards foreigners, who cannot but admire their hoſpitality and benevolence. They are far from being guilty of that brutiſh behaviour which is ſo common among the Turks; they are, however, moſt juſtly and univerſally charged with vanity and profuſeneſs in their apparel, equipages, and number of ſervants. Voluptuouſneſs in eating and drinking does not appear to be their diſtinguiſhing vice, at leaſt the Europeans are much more addicted to it; for the greateſt part of their food is rice, fruit and garden-ſtuff: they have not any great variety of fleſh, neither have they many ways of dreſſing it: pilo ſeems to be the ſtanding diſh, even among thoſe of the beſt quality. And as for ſtrong liquors, though they drink them now and then by ſtealth, yet drunkenneſs is very far from being common among them; every man may retire from an entertainment without ceremony, when he thinks proper, without a breach of good manners; no perſon being urged to take more liquor than he finds convenient and agreeable to himſelf.

It is univerſally allowed that the Perſians have a genius well adapted to poetry, inſomuch that a poet is introduced at every feſtival or entertainment; and is deſired to oblige the company with his compoſitions; and theſe perſons are frequently found with a crowd about them in coffee-houſes, and other places of public reſort. Though the Perſians are by ſome people charged with being very covetous, this muſt certainly be underſtood with reſpect to the acquiſition of riches; for as to keeping and hoarding up money, they are generally abſolved from it. They only get that they may ſpend; and when they have furniſhed themſelves with an equipage, houſe and gardens, ſuitable to their mind, they chuſe rather to lay out their money in building caravanſeras, moſques, and on other public occaſions, than let it lie by them; ſo that ſome travellers obſerve, that no people in the world take leſs thought for to-morrow. A man, for inſtance, who has lately come to the poſſeſſion of eight or ten thouſand pounds, will in a few weeks lay it out in purchaſing wives and ſlaves, clothing and furniture, without conſidering where he ſhall meet with a ſupply in future, and in two or three months afterwards he will diſpoſe of them again for ſubſiſtence.

The Perſians have a great command of their paſſions: they are not eaſily provoked to anger or reſentment: and when they are, it never proceeds to a duel, and very ſeldom to blows. When angry, they generally call each other Jews or Chriſtians, and their quarrels commonly terminate in ill language, which is ſometimes intermixed with hearty curſes. Few European nations are in general more polite, they being of a very engaging addreſs and moſt obliging behaviour: they are alſo meek, peaceable, modeſt, grateful, generous, enemies to fraud, and courteous and affable to Chriſtians as well as others; they are moreover fair and punctual in their bargains, and treat foreigners with great humanity.

The ſtature, ſhape, limbs, and features of the Perſians are agreeable and well proportioned. In Georgia, and the northern provinces, they have an admirable complexion; towards the ſouth, they incline to the olive: but the great men having had their wives and concubines chiefly from Georgia and Circaſſia for an hundred years paſt, the breed is very much mended in the ſouthern provinces. Their eyes and hair are generally black, and they wear only one lock on the crown of their heads, like other Mahometans, by which they expect Mahomet will lift them up to paradiſe. The king, great officers of ſtate, and ſoldiery, wear only long whiſkers on the upper lip, which, joined to a tuft of hair on the upper part of their cheeks, grow to a very enormous ſize, inſomuch that ſome of them, it is ſaid, are near half a foot long. The common people clip their beards pretty ſhort; but none of the Perſians ſuffer any hair to grow upon their bodies. Their mollahs and religious people wear their beards long, only clipping them into form.

The large turbants, which the Perſians wear over their heads, are ſome of them white, and others ſtriped with red or other colours, and the great men have flowers of gold and ſilver woven or worked in the cloth. They have alſo a ſcull cap under their turbant, and altogether does not weigh leſs than ſeven or eight pounds, ſometimes a great deal more. They wear a kind of ſhirt of coloured ſilk or callico, generally blue, next to their ſkins, which they ſeldom waſh white while it is fit to wear; this ſhirt has an open boſom, but neither neck nor wriſtbands, and is made cloſe to the arm: they have alſo a pair of breeches, or rather drawers, cloſe before, reaching half down their legs. Their ſtockings are made of woollen cloth, but not at all ſhaped to the leg: over the ſhirt they wear a waiſtcoat, and upon theſe a coat with ſleeves, and buttons and loops before, tied with a ſaſh; this is wide at bottom, and hangs like a bell a little below their knees. Beſides this, they put on another coat frequently without ſleeves, the uppermoſt coat being ſhorteſt; over all theſe they have another looſe coat, lined with furs. Inſtead of ſhoes, they have peeked ſlippers turned up at the toes, and made of Turkey leather, which are neither tied nor buckled; and when they ride, they have boots of yellow leather: their bridles, ſaddles, and houſings are immoderately fine; and almoſt covered with gold: the houſing is ſo large, that it almoſt hides the hinder part of the horſe; and whether on foot or on horſeback, they wear a broad ſword and crice or poniard; the latter of which, it is ſaid, the ladies alſo wear.

The dreſs of the women nearly reſembles the men's, except that they neither wear turbants on their heads, nor ſaſhes about their waiſts; and their coats, or veſts, reach almoſt to their heels. When they go into the ſtreets (which women of quality ſeldom do) they are covered from head to foot with a white vail. The girls wear a ſtiffened cap upon their heads, turned up like a hunting cap, with a heron's feather in it, their hair being made up in treſſes, and falling down their backs to a very great length; the quality have pearls and jewels interwoven with their hair. The married women comb their hair back, and, having bound it about with a broad ribbon, or rich tiara ſet with jewels,



HABITS and CHARACTER of the PEOPLE in PERSIA, with the manner of SMOKING, &c as practised in that COUNTRY.

Bannerman & Smith sculp.

jewels, which looks like a coronet, let the reſt of their hair fall gracefully down their ſhoulders; which is a very becoming dreſs. Both men and women have a great many rings and bracelets on their arms and fingers; but neither of them wear gloves.

Black hair is in greateſt eſteem, being the moſt common, and the thickeſt and broadeſt eye-brows are thought the fineſt; the women will dye their eye-brows, if they are not black, and it is very cuſtomary with them to paint their faces; they alſo rub their hands and feet with an orange-coloured pomatum. Some have feathers ſet upright in their tiara; and others have a ſtring of pearls, or precious ſtones faſtened to it, which hangs down between their eye-brows: they likewiſe wear jewels in their ears, and rows of pearls fall down their temples as low as the neck; and in ſome provinces, which are on the confines of India, they wear jewels in their noſtrils, which have a very diſagreeable appearance to Europeans; for as they hang down to the mouth, it makes them look as if they had hare lips; but the ladies of Iſpahan never wear noſe-jewels. Their necklaces fall upon the boſom, and have always a little golden box hanging to them, which is filled with fragrant and reviving perfumes: theſe necklaces are either gold or pearls.

Dreſs is no inconſiderable article in Perſia: for the clothes of both men and women conſiſt of the richeſt flowered and brocaded ſilks; and people of mean fortunes endeavour to vie with the quality, and will have fine clothes; though they want food. The purchaſe of an ordinary turbant, it is ſaid, amounts to ten pounds, and they frequently coſt twice as much; and they muſt alſo have a variety of them, leſt, as the proverb is, they ſhould be known by their clothes. Their ſaſhes are alſo brocaded, and coſt from twenty to an hundred crowns; and over this they have frequently another of camel's hair, which coſts nearly the ſame ſum, on account of its curious workmanſhip. Thoſe who wear ſables, which they are very eager to obtain, ſeldom pay leſs than a hundred pounds for a cloſe-bodied coat; all this, with the rich furniture and equipage they have when they ride out (which they do almoſt every day, if they go but a very little way) muſt amount to a very large ſum; and it is juſtly obſerved, that this keeps them exceedingly poor. However, as there are in no country more handſome and comely men, finer horſes, or richer equipages to be ſeen, the Perſians are allowed to make as ſplendid a figure as any people in the world: though poverty may prey upon them at home, they are generally loaded with gold and jewels when they go abroad: as they enjoy almoſt continually a clear ſun-ſhine, and a bright element, a more than ordinary luſtre is caſt on their perſons, and their elegant dreſs appears to the greateſt advantage. Our European merchants, in order to preſerve their credit, and conduct their affairs ſucceſsfully, are under a neceſſity of conforming to theſe expenſive cuſtoms at Iſpahan; and the accuſtoming themſelves to ſo much expenſive gaiety might prove of ill conſequence to them when they return to Europe, were it not that they uſually acquire fortunes in this country ſufficient to ſupport an equipage in their own.

We now proceed to give an account of the food and liquors of the Perſians. They commonly drink a diſh of coffee early in the morning; and go to dinner about eleven o'clock, when they eat melons, fruit, ſweetmeats, cheeſe-curd, or milk; but their principal meal is in the evening, when a diſh of pilo is always ſerved up; this conſiſts of boiled rice well buttered and ſeaſoned, with a fowl, a piece of mutton, or kid, accompanying it: they have an excellent way of boiling their rice all over the coaſt: the water is quite dried away by the time the rice is enough; after which, they ſeaſon it with ſpices, and mix ſaffron or turmerick with it, giving it a yellow, or what other colour they pleaſe; but, as we have already obſerved, there is very little variety either in their food, or the manner of dreſſing it. If they have a large joint, it is baked, inſtead of being roaſted, but their uſual way is, to cut their fleſh into ſmall ſlices, and ſpitting, or ſkewering them together, roaſt them over a charcoal fire: and, whether they boil or roaſt, it is always done to rags, as the phraſe is, or it would be impoſſible to pull the meat to pieces with their hands, as they do; uſing neither knives nor forks. Pork is never eaten here, nor veal; neither do they eat hares, or other animals prohibited to the Jews; and beef is eaten but ſeldom: they do not deal much in veniſon, fiſh, or wild fowl: they dreſs only plain diſhes, being ſtrangers to haſhes, ragouts, and other compounds; and ſeldom have any other ſauce than a ſlice of lemon, or ſome pickles. They eat their bread, which is made in thin cakes, the moment it is baked; but eat much more rice. They uſe no beaten pepper, only the whole ſort; and not much ſalt in their ſeaſoning, nor is there any brought to table; their meat is never ſalted before it is dreſſed, as with us. They generally kill their meat and fowls the ſame day they uſe them; and ſet by nothing till the next, to be eaten cold; and if any meat is left, they give it to the poor. They ſit down croſs-legged at their meals, having a cloth ſpread upon the carpet: then ſome perſon, who has the proviſion before him, diſtributes rice and fleſh to the company. They uſe no ſpoons, except for ſoups and liquids; but take up their rice by handfuls, like the people in India. They ſeldom ſit above half an hour at their meals: before which they waſh, making uſe of their handkerchiefs to wipe on, inſtead of a towel.

The common people of Iſpahan ſeldom dreſs their food at home, but when they have ſhut up their ſhops in the evening, go away to the cooks, of which there are great numbers in that city, and buy pilo for their families. The cooks have kettles, or coppers fixed in brick-work in their ſhops and ſtoves, over which they dreſs moſt of their meat, ſeldom making uſe of chimnies.

To the commendation of the Perſians, we may obſerve, that they are ſo far from ſhutting their doors at their meals, that they invite every one to eat with them, who happens to come to their houſes at that time: they remember to this day, and imitate, the hoſpitality of Abraham; obſerving, that if he had not been of that communicative diſpoſition, he had probably miſſed the honour of entertaining three angels.

When any of the Perſians are diſpoſed to make an entertainment, it is generally in the evening; and though a ſupper, the gueſts uſually come at nine or ten in the morning, and ſpend the whole day at the place to which they are invited. They diſcourſe, ſmoke, eat ſweetmeats, and paſs away the time with a variety of amuſements; ſometimes they are entertained with heroic poems, repeated in honour of their prince; ſometimes ſinging women are introduced, who ſing, dance and play, and exhibit a thouſand antic tricks to divert the company, and if any of the gueſts are diſpoſed to withdraw with any of thoſe dancing girls, they are ſhewn into a private room; and when they return not the leaſt notice is taken of it. When ſupper is ſerved up, the ſon, or ſome relation of the maſter of the houſe takes the management of the feaſt upon him, and helps the gueſts to their meat: they generally provide a variety of ſherbet on theſe occaſions. It is the employment of great numbers of people of Iſpahan, to collect vaſt quantities of ice together in the winter ſeaſon, and keep it in repoſitories under ground all the ſummer, when they ſell it to great advantage; for the uſual drink of the Perſians is nothing but fair water, which they drink with ice.

We have already obſerved, that wine is made in ſeveral provinces in Perſia; but it is chiefly uſed by the Armenians and other Chriſtians. The officers of the army will indeed ſometimes indulge themſelves with this liquor, and other people drink it as they pretend for their health; but that is ſeldom done: the greateſt part of it is ſent to the neighbouring countries, or drank by thoſe Chriſtians who are diſperſed throughout the Perſian dominions. Thoſe who abſtain from wine for conſcience ſake, becauſe it is prohibited by law, exhilarate their ſpirits with opium, bang, poppy-ſeed, and other intoxicating ingredients; it being almoſt univerſally allowed, that they cannot ſuſtain the cares and inquietudes of life, without an expedient of this nature.

The Perſians, like other eaſtern nations, take pills of opium, which ſome of them gradually increaſe to ſuch a doſe, as would deſtroy half a dozen Europeans. In an hour after they have taken the pill, it begins to operate, and a multitude of romantic ſcenes preſent themſelves to their imagination; they laugh and ſing, and repeat abundance of humorous expreſſions, like men intoxicated with wine; but after the effect of it is gone off, they find their ſpirits exhauſted, and grow penſive and melancholy till they renew the doſe; ſome, we are told, have made it ſo neceſſary to them, that they cannot live without it. A decoction of poppy-ſeeds is ſold in moſt cities of Perſia; and in theſe houſes you will ſee people acting and talking as ridiculouſly as men uſually do when they are drunk. Surely, if there was any reaſon for prohibiting the uſe of wine, it muſt have been, in order to prevent people's playing the fool, and deſtroying their healths, which we perceive can be as effectually done by an opiate: but as long as they keep to the letter of the law, and abſtain from wine, it matters not how much they diſorder themſelves, ſince they think they never ſhall be accountable for that.

The

The young gentlemen of Perſia in general, as well as that province inhabited by the deſcendants of the antient Parthians, endeavour with great diligence to accompliſh themſelves in the uſe of the bow and horſemanſhip; which are exerciſes that the Perſians are extremely fond of at this day. Their greateſt kings have condeſcended to come into the meydan, before the palace, at certain times in every week, to be witneſſes of the addreſs and activity of their ſubjects, and frequently themſelves contended for the prize. They begin with teaching the young pupil to bend the bow, firſt a weaker, and then a ſtronger: he is afterwards taught to ſhoot forwards, backwards, ſideways, and almoſt in every poſture: they are exerciſed for ſome time in ſhooting upwards into the air, to try which of them can ſhoot higheſt; after this, they are inſtructed to ſhoot at a mark, and to deliver their arrows ſteadily without ſhaking. The arrows for theſe exerciſes have blunt iron heads; but thoſe for ſervice are ſhaped like the point of a ſpear. They next teach the pupil to mount a horſe with dexterity, to have a good ſeat, gallop with a looſe rein, ſtop ſhort, and turn ſwiftly to the right or left, upon the leaſt ſignal, without being diſordered in their ſaddle. They are alſo taught to play at a game almoſt like bandy on horſeback: every gentleman has a ſhort bat in his hand; and a ball being thrown amongſt them, they ride after it, and ſtooping almoſt to the ground, ſtrike it in a full career; and he who ſtrikes it ofteneſt before it comes to the end of the mall, wins the prize. They are likewiſe taught to manage the ſabre, or back-ſword, and to throw the lance: the ſtaff they throw by way of exerciſe is without iron, and about five feet long, and with theſe they engage on horſeback; and though there be no ſpear at the end, they frequently give one another very dangerous wounds.

When they have gone through their exerciſes, they are permitted to ſhoot for the prize in the royal meydan, before the king and court. In this ſquare is erected a high pole, like the maſt of a ſhip, and upon it is ſet a cup, ſometimes of maſſy gold, eſpecially if the king and great officers deſign to ſhoot at it, as they frequently did, till of late. Thoſe who contend for the prize, ride full gallop with their bows and arrows in their hands; and when they are got a little beyond the pole, without ſtopping or turning their horſes, they bend themſelves backward either to the right or left, and let fly their arrows at the cup, and he who brings it down gains abundance of honour. As the Perſian troops are thus conſtantly practiſed in ſhooting backwards, they may poſſibly take their aim better this way than any other: it is therefore no wonder that the Perſian troops have been as much dreaded when they retreat as when they charge.

The rural ſports and manner of hunting, or rather courſing, of the Perſians, ſeems as remarkable as their martial exerciſes. Their grey hounds very much reſemble thoſe of the Iriſh; but the ſtags and antelopes they hunt, are ſo very fleet, that the dogs cannot come up with them without the aſſiſtance of their hawks: of theſe they have various kinds brought from Circaſſia, Muſcovy, and the northern parts of the empire: theſe hawks are taught not only to fly at partridges, quails, rabbits, hares, &c. but even at deer and wild beaſts; and in order to train them up to it, they take the ſkin of one of theſe beaſts, and having ſtuffed it, faſten a piece of fleſh on the head of it, with which they feed the hawk, drawing the ſtuffed ſkin along upon wheels at the ſame time, to uſe them to fix themſelves on the head while it moves. When they have uſed the young hawk to this for ſome time, they carry him to the ſport with an old ſtaunch hawk that is uſed to the game: the dogs being let go, the hawks are ſoon after thrown off, who faſten upon the noſe of the deer, and ſtriking their talons into his fleſh, keep beating their wings about his head, ſo that he cannot ſee his way: which gives the dogs an opportunity to come up and ſeize him: the gentlemen uſually carry a little kettle-drum at their ſaddle bow to call off their hawks; ſome of them, it is ſaid, have formerly been taught to fly at men. The governor of Tauris uſed to divert himſelf with this ſport, not ſparing his friends ſometimes: and one day letting his hawks fly at a gentleman, they tore his face and eyes in ſuch a manner that he died of it; but the king being informed of it, reſented it ſo far, that he was turned out of his office.

When a grand hunt is ordered by the king, at which the great omrahs are preſent, the country-people for ten or fifteen miles round, are ordered to drive all the wild beaſts and game into a certain place, which is ſurrounded with ſtrong nets and fences; and when they have thus incloſed them, every one of the company ſhoots at which he pleaſes, and they make a terrible ſlaughter of them; there are often ſeveral hundreds killed at one of theſe hunting matches; but they uſually ſtay till the man of the beſt quality in the field comes up and diſcharges an arrow, after which every one diſcharges as faſt as he can, there being generally a ſtrange variety of deers, antelopes, wild hogs, wolves, foxes, hares, &c. all driven together in a crowd. They frequently bring up the leopards and panthers to hunt the game, or rather ſurpriſe it; for they creep from one cover to another, till they can jump upon their prey, as a cat does upon a mouſe, but never run after it in a continued courſe. As for hounds, and hunting by the ſcent, they know nothing of it; and indeed their country ſeems to be too dry for this kind of ſport, if they had dogs which were fit for it.

The Perſians are not much addicted to gaming; and ſome of the moſt ſcrupulous look upon the games of chance to be unlawful: however, ſome of them play at cards, dice, tables, cheſs, and other games not in uſe among us. The king and people of quality alſo ſometimes divert themſelves with the fights of wild beaſts, as is practiſed in India. The common people alſo amuſe themſelves with jugglers, tumblers, and rope-dancers; but as their tricks nearly reſemble thoſe practiſed in Europe, it is needleſs to take up our readers time with a rehearſal of them.

In Perſia, they uſually ſalute each other by bowing the body a little, and clapping the right hand to their breaſt; but they never ſtir their cap or turbant; they bow their faces three times to the ground when they approach the king, the viceroys of provinces, and other great men. They expect from Europeans, the ſame reverence they ſhew to men of quality in their own country; and if they are not cloathed in the Perſian dreſs, they look for the motion of their hats as a token of reſpect.

The Perſians do not fail to viſit each other, and people of condition always expect the compliments of their dependents, on occaſions of mourning or rejoicing. They are introduced into a large hall, where coffee and tobacco are ſet before them, with which they amuſe themſelves till the great man appears; as ſoon as they ſee him, every man riſes up, and ſtands in his place; he bows to them, and every one bows much lower to him again as he paſſes by: and after he has taken his ſeat, he makes a ſign to the company to ſit. If the maſter of the houſe be already in his hall, the viſitor comes in ſoftly, and, ſtepping to the next vacant place, ſtands gravely with his feet cloſe together, and his hands acroſs, till the maſter of the houſe beckons to him to ſit down. But if a perſon receives a viſit from his ſuperior, he riſes as ſoon as he ſees him, and meets him half way; and ſometimes receives him at the gate, if he has notice of his coming; and, in ſhort, the reſpect ſhewn is generally proportionable to the quality of the perſon, as it is with us; but they differ in this, that they place thoſe on the left hand for whom they have the greateſt reſpect. They have frequently ſtools brought for Europeans, who viſit them, to ſit upon, but the Perſians themſelves ſit croſs-legged.

The people in this country travel upon camels, horſes, mules, or aſſes, as they have no wheel-carriages. The women, who are always concealed as much as poſſible, are put into a ſquare wooden machine, one of which they hang on each ſide of a camel; they are about three feet deep, and juſt large enough for one to ſit down in; and over-head are three or four hoops, like thoſe which ſupport the tilt of a waggon, with a cloth thrown over them. Their aſſes, it ſeems, are much larger and nimbler than ours, and will trot ten miles at a pretty good rate; but they are very obſtinate and unruly, and frequently throw their riders.

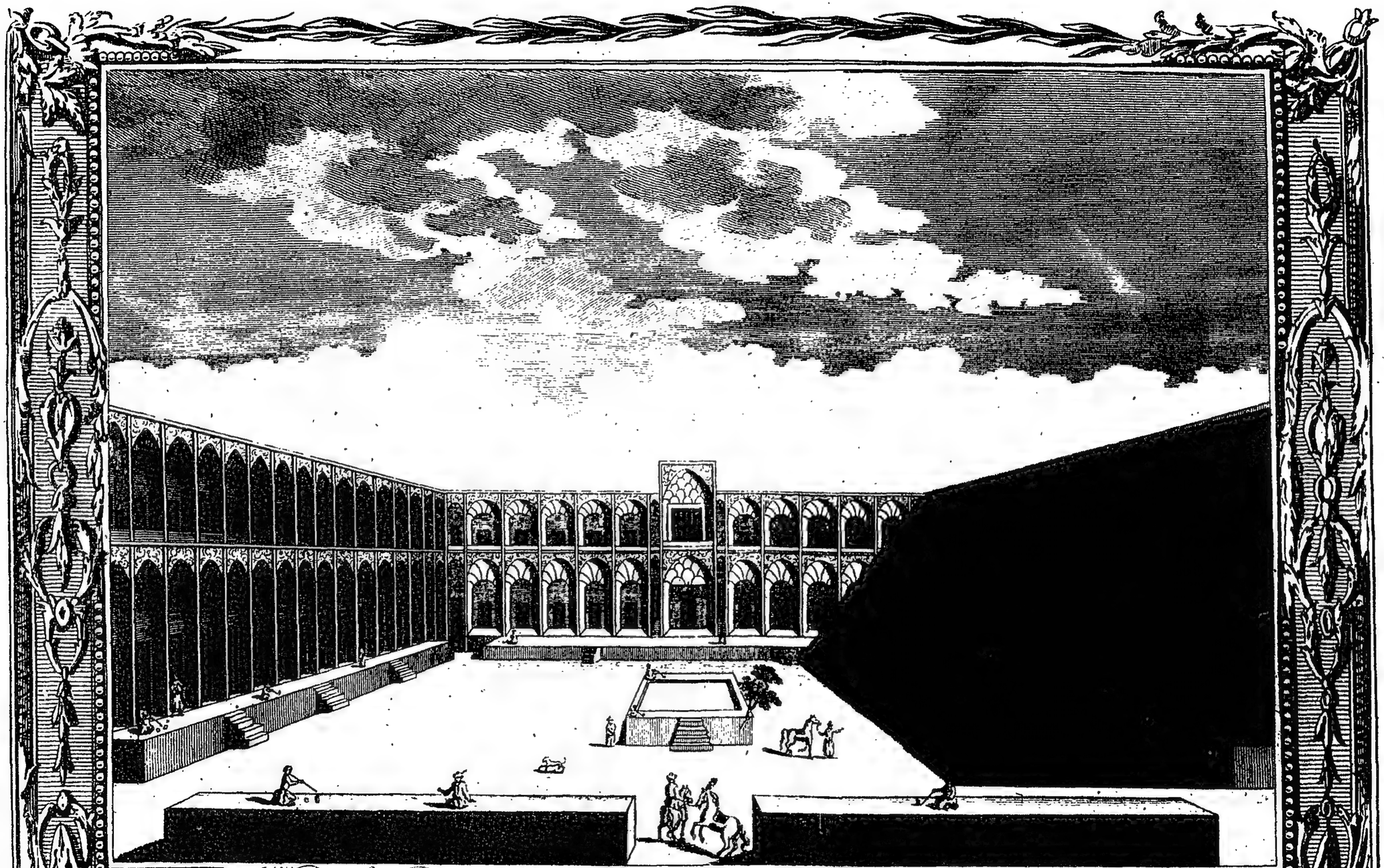
A common method of travelling in Perſia, is with the caravan, conſiſting of four or five hundred camels, beſides other beaſts; and there is no place where they travel with greater ſecurity, and leſs expence, there being caravanſeras at proper diſtances, where they have their lodging gratis, and purchaſe proviſion at the beſt hand; and though the roads are frequently ſteep and mountainous, yet ſuch care is taken in laying bridges and cauſeways, and to level and enlarge the ways, that a traveller ſeldom meets with any difficulties but what are eaſily ſurmounted.

Here are no general poſts; but if a perſon has letters to ſend, he diſpatches a ſhatir or footman with them on purpoſe, who will travel a thouſand miles in eighteen or twenty days: ſome families make this their only employment; and breed their children up to it, practiſing them to run from their infancy. Theſe perſons carry with them a bottle of water, and a little bag of proviſions, which ſerves them thirty or forty hours; they generally leave



Page sculp.

Curious Remains of GRECIAN ANTIQUITIES *near* ATHENS *in* Attica



View of a Persian **CARAVANSARY**, *as built by public authority on great Roads, for the accommodation of Travellers.*

leave the high road, and croſs over the country the neareſt way. Each of them charges no more than twenty-pence or two ſhillings a day for his trouble. The king and all the great men have ſeveral of theſe ſhatirs or footmen in their retinue.

Before a man can be admitted one of the king's footmen, he muſt give a very extraordinary proof that he neither wants heels nor breath; for he muſt run from the great gate of the palace, called Aly Capi, to a place a league and a half from the city, twelve times in one day, and every time bring an arrow along with him, which is delivered to him by thoſe who ſtand at the end of the race, to ſhew he has run the whole courſe; and this he performs between ſun riſe and ſun ſet, in thirteen or fourteen hours at moſt, being no leſs than one hundred and eight miles. This honour is always beſtowed upon ſome favourite ſervant of the king.

On the day of trial, the elephants and horſemen are drawn up in the royal ſquare, with the muſic, drums and trumpets ſounding, as if it was ſome feſtival; all the great men make preſents to the ſhatir (ſome of whom have obtained above a thouſand pounds on ſuch an occaſion) and ſeveral of them ride the courſe with him, to ingratiate themſelves with the prince; and the populace attend him, every time he returns, with their ſhouts and acclamations. The chams and viceroys, who admit of a ſhatir into their ſervice, make him run the ſame number of miles, and they are careſſed, and preſented by all their dependents in the ſame manner as the king's ſhatirs are, though, we may well ſuppoſe, not to the ſame amount.

SECT. IV.

Containing a Relation of the Civil War in PERSIA, which terminated in the depoſing of SULTAN HOSSEIN by MAHMOOD, who uſurped the Sovereignty.

SHAH Sultan Hoſſein, the late Sophi, ſucceeded his father Sultan Solyman. This prince choſe to paſs his time in an indolent and inactive manner among his women in the haram, leaving the adminiſtration of the government intirely to his miniſters, who promoted and diſplaced whom they thought fit; oppreſſing the ſubjects with taxes and impoſitions, though in a time of profound peace, and ſetting every thing to ſale; ſo that a general corruption ſpread itſelf through the whole magiſtracy, and juſtice was as often bought and ſold as any other commodity; the public buildings were neglected; and even the ordinary exerciſes of the young nobility and gentry, which uſed to be performed in the royal preſence, were diſuſed; hunting and all rural ſports were laid aſide; and ſo univerſal was the degeneracy, that while one part of the people, following the example of their prince, ſpent their whole time in the harams with their women, others were employed in devouring and preying upon their fellow-ſubjects.

The famous Mereweys was one of the perſons, among others, who were diſcarded for not offering a bribe, or preſent, as it is called in Perſia, ſuitable to the expectation of the miniſtry. This gentleman was a Tartar by deſcent, or at leaſt commanded four or five hundred men on the utmoſt bounds of the Perſian empire towards Uſbeck Tartary, where the Perſians live in hords, or clans, as the Tartars do on the other ſide of the river Oxus, moving from place to place with their tents, as they can find proviſion for their cattle. Mereweys, underſtanding that he was removed only to make room for another who had procured to himſelf a preference by preſents, applied to all his friends; and raiſed ſuch a ſum, as in a ſhort time cauſed him to be reinſtated in his command. He was however, ſo impoveriſhed by this laſt preſent, that he found himſelf in very uneaſy circumſtances; and taking advantage of the ſupineneſs of the government, and his diſtance from the court, he determined to ſeize on the neighbouring province of Candahor, and ſet up for himſelf. Accordingly, he communicated his deſign to his friends the Tartars, who promiſed to aſſemble their troops, and aſſiſt in the enterprize; but the city of Candahor being a frontier towards India, and a conſiderable body of troops quartered thereabouts, he was in doubt whether he ſhould be able to carry the place by force; whereupon he had recourſe to the following ſtratagem: When he received his firman or commiſſion for reinſtating him in his command, he pretended alſo that he had received a commiſſion to ſucceed the governor of Candahor in that province, and accordingly marched that way with his troops. When he came within a mile or two of the town, he ſent to the governor, to appriſe him of his pretended commiſſion: well knowing that the governor, as was uſual in ſuch caſes, would come out to meet him; which he accordingly did. After ſome compliments between them, Mereweys, who had poſted his men ſo as to prevent the governor's retreating into the town, fell upon his guards, and cut them to pieces; after which, before the city could be informed of what had happened, he marched forward to Candahor, and had the gates immediately opened to him.

Mereweys had no farther views at this time, than the erecting the province of Candahor, which had formerly belonged to India, into an independent ſtate; but this he could not expect to accompliſh, without forming ſome powerful alliances: in order, therefore, to protect himſelf againſt the forces of the Perſians, which he had reaſon to expect would be ſuddenly brought down againſt him, he diſpatched an omrah to the Mogul's court, to give advice of his ſucceſs, and to propoſe an alliance againſt Perſia, the antient enemy of India. This intelligence was joyfully received by the Mogul, who began now to entertain hopes of recovering the province of Candahor, and reſtoring it to his dominions, which would be no hard matter to effect, if he could make Mereweys dependent on him. He therefore offered him what number of troops he thought fit to demand for his ſupport, giving him the title of Prince of Candahor, which he then aſpired to; and moreover ſent him all imaginable aſſurances of his affection and eſteem.

Advice being received at the Perſian court of the ſurpriſe of Candahor by Mereweys, the miniſtry detached a body of four or five thouſand horſe to endeavour to reduce him; but Mereweys (being joined by the Uſbeck Tartars, and ſome others, who daily flocked to him in hopes of meeting with abundance of rich plunder in Perſia) did not ſhut himſelf up in Candahor, but attacked the Perſians in their march, and defeated them. This ſucceſs induced him to extend his views, and he ſeemed now to aim at a revolution: to this end he diſpatched his emiſſaries into all the provinces, and even to Iſpahan itſelf, who complained loudly of the perſonal vices and indolence of the Sophi, who, he inſinuated, was unworthy to govern the true believers, and remonſtrated againſt the male-adminiſtration of public affairs, through the corruptions and oppreſſive conduct of the miniſters.

The late tranſactions threw the miniſtry into the utmoſt conſternation: but they had, by their paſt behaviour rendered themſelves ſo obnoxious to the reſentment of the chams and omrahs, that they knew not whom to confide in. Should they order them, with their troops, to aſſemble and make head againſt this formidable rebel, they were under apprehenſions he would receive additional ſtrength by their joining him: or that they would at leaſt expoſe their adminiſtration, if not demand their heads as an atonement for their crimes. If on the other hand they ſuffered him to march forward without oppoſition, they knew the conſequence would prove no leſs fatal. They therefore diſpatched another general, whoſe fidelity, and ſkill in military affairs, they had a great opinion of, to watch the motions of Mereweys, and awe the country at leaſt, that they ſhould not go over to him, or ſupply him with proviſions: but this detachment ſucceeded no better than the former, being ſurpriſed by Mereweys, and moſt of them cut to pieces.

In conſequence of theſe two engagements, Mereweys furniſhed his followers with arms and accoutrements, who were at firſt little better than a defenceleſs rabble. He began alſo now to talk of advancing to the capital of Iſpahan; but as there was a vaſt extent of country between Candahor and Iſpahan, and his troops did not yet amount to more than eight or ten thouſand horſe, he thought proper, firſt of all, to ſtrengthen himſelf with an alliance with the Grand Seignior, and put the city of Candahor into a condition to reſiſt any attempt that might be made upon it in his abſence. His negotiations at the Porte ſucceeded to his heart's deſire; and the Baſſa of Bagdat was immediately ordered to aſſemble an army, and march to the frontiers of Perſia. Mereweys now began to throw off all diſguiſes, and ſtile himſelf Protector of the kingdom of Perſia, and to prepare for his march to Iſpahan; but in the midſt of all his projects, and while he was graſping at the whole world in his imagination, death put a period to his views. This event had probably diſcouraged his adherents, and proved fatal to the cauſe, had he not left a ſon behind him equal, if not ſuperior to himſelf, in every reſpect.

Mahamood, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Mereweys, being conſcious of the great reputation his father had gained by the ſurpriſe of Candahor, and the victories he had obtained, thought fit to conceal his death, and to tranſact all affairs in his father's name, till his own reputation ſhould be

eſtabliſhed. Accordingly, all things went on as if Mereways had been ſtill alive: the preparations for marching to Iſpahan were continued, new alliances were cultivated, and new forces raiſed. Nor did the Turks and Muſcovites neglect to improve theſe diſtractions in Perſia to their own advantage. The Muſcovites ſurpriſed Derbent and Tarku, which lay next to them on the weſt ſide of the Caſpian ſea; and afterwards extended their arms into Ghilan, all along the ſouth coaſt of the ſame ſea. The Turk, on the other hand, took poſſeſſion of Hamadan, and ſeveral other frontier places, finding little or no oppoſition.

The Perſian miniſtry were now terribly alarmed, not knowing what meaſures to purſue; and, to add to their misfortunes, the treaſury was entirely exhauſted. They came, however, at length to the reſolution, to let the frontiers ſhift for themſelves, and to aſſemble an army of eight or ten thouſand horſe in the neighbourhood of Iſpahan, to oppoſe the uſurper, of whom they received repeated advices, that he was in full march for that capital.

The king, when he underſtood that the uſurper's army, under the command of Mahamood, was approaching his capital city, and that the people were in general diſcontented with the adminiſtration, propoſed to his omrahs to reſign his crown, and ſet his eldeſt ſon upon the throne. This was generally approved of; but the poor young gentleman, who had never been out of the ſeraglio, and was ſufficiently terrified with the repreſentation the eunuchs made of the ſtrength and power of the uſurper, declined the offer, being apprehenſive that he was only ſet up to be made a ſacrifice to the rage of a powerful enemy.

Sultan Thamas, or Thomas, the King's ſecond ſon, was not altogether of ſo puſillanimous a ſpirit; but was contented to ſucceed his father in the throne, and put himſelf at the head of the army, which encamped in that fine walk called the Char Bag, between Iſpahan and Julpha or Zulpha. Here the army continued ſome time, and an engagement between the royal troops and the uſurper was daily expected. Shah Thomas, in the mean time, endeavoured to diſcover how the great men and officers ſtood affected to his cauſe: and, among others, he ſent to the Engliſh factory, reminding them of the previleges they had enjoyed in Perſia under his anceſtors, and let them know, that he expected all the aſſiſtance they could give; and, in ſhort, things bore ſo favourable an aſpect, that it was expected he would have driven the uſurper from the neighbourhood of Iſpahan; when news was brought one morning, that Shah Thomas, with ſome few of his friends, had left the army the night before, and had fled, nobody knew whither; whereupon the officers of the royal army, as well as the citizens, thought of nothing elſe but making their peace with the uſurper, and inviting him into the town, which he ſoon after took poſſeſſion of, making the old king and the whole court his priſoners. This Mahamood effected with ſo ſmall a force as ſix or ſeven thouſand horſe.

Mahamood, finding an empty treaſury, and being under a neceſſity of raiſing more forces for the ſupport of his uſurpation, confiſcated the goods of all thoſe who were not in his intereſt; he alſo cut off the heads of the prime miniſter and his adherents, who for ſeveral years had been fleecing the people, whereby he repleniſhed his coffers, at the ſame time that he gained the applauſe of the people, who ſeldom conſider the juſtice of the cauſe on theſe occaſions, but never fail to rejoice when they ſee their oppreſſors puniſhed. The uſurper, having ſent the king under a guard to Candahor, took poſſeſſion of the royal palace; money was extorted from the foreign merchants, eſpecially the Engliſh, inſomuch that the factory was in a manner ruined.

Sultan Thomas, with his few friends, having quitted Iſpahan, took the road of Tauris, where he aſſembled a body of horſe, and made a ſhew of oppoſing the Turks, which drew over many of the Perſians to his intereſt; but the Turks were ſo much ſuperior to him, that he could do little towards ſtopping the progreſs of their arms; and the towns being for the moſt part without walls or garriſons, became an eaſy prey to the grand ſeignior's forces, who ſoon afterwards took Tauris, and put the inhabitants to the ſword.

SECT. V.

Of the PERSIAN Home Trade, Mechanic Arts, and Manufactures; alſo of their Foreign Trade, Navigation, Pearl-Fiſheries, ENGLISH Trade in PERSIA, Freight of Goods from GOMBRON to SURAT, Price of Goods at GOMBRON, Port Duties, Weights, and Coins.

A HEAD or warden is appointed by the Government to preſide over every trade, who is to ſee that the rules and orders relating to the profeſſion are duly obſerved. When any perſon intends to ſet up a trade, he goes to the warden, and regiſters his name and place of abode; and no enquiry is made who was his maſter, or whether he underſtands the buſineſs, or not; nor is there any reſtraint laid upon them, that they ſhall not encroach upon any other profeſſion; thus, for inſtance, the braziers are at liberty to make ſilver veſſels, as they frequently do, without being in danger of a proſecution from the ſilver-ſmiths. Every trade almoſt is bound to work for the king, whenever he requires it; and thoſe who are exempted, pay an annual tax to the government. Tradeſmen do not take apprentices for a term of years; but hire their ſervants, and allow them wages from the firſt day they entertain them.

It is obſerved, that their carpenters are but very indifferent artiſts: and the reaſon thereof may be, that there is not much timber in Perſia, and but very little is uſed in their buildings. Joiners and turners are more expert in their profeſſion, and they lay on their lacker very nicely. The braziers and tin-men work well with their hammers, files, and turning inſtruments. They have neither iron, braſs, nor pewter in their kitchen furniture; moſt of the veſſels and implements uſed in their kitchens being made of copper tinned.

The broad-ſword blades, made by their armourers, are very good, and they damaſk them as well as any European. The barrels of their fire-arms are not amiſs; they make them very ſtrong, and as thick at the muzzle as the breech. Their ſtocks are but ill-contrived, being thin and light at the butt end, and not fit to clap to a man's ſhoulder; as for locks to their guns, or any locks that have ſprings, they do not pretend to make them, any more than they do watches or clocks, which they either purchaſe abroad, or employ European workmen to make for them. Knives, raſors, ſciſſars, and ſome other cutlery ware, they make very well; and little ſteel mirrors, which they uſe inſtead of looking-glaſſes: theſe are almoſt all convex; and the air is ſo perfectly dry, that they ſeldom ruſt, or grow dull. They do not underſtand the art of making looking-glaſſes, but have them from Europe; they have, however, a manufacture of glaſs, which ſerves for windows and bottles. The uſe of the bow being what the Perſians greatly value themſelves upon, there are no where better bows made than among them: the chief materials are wood and horn, with ſinews bound about them: their quivers are of leather, embroidered or worked with ſilk. The bow-ſtring is of twiſted ſilk, of the bigneſs of a gooſe-quill. Their bows are painted and varniſhed, and made as fine as poſſible.

The Perſians are as well verſed in embroidery as in any art whatever, eſpecially the gold and ſilver embroidery, either on cloth, ſilk, or leather: they cover their ſaddles and houſings almoſt with embroidery, and the ſtitching of the leather by far exceeds any thing done in Europe. Their ſaddles are made after the Morocco model, the ſtirrups of which are very ſhort; they have a kind of breaſt-plate to them. Perſons of quality have gold about their furniture where we uſe braſs.

What is called in Europe Turkey leather, from its coming through that country, is uſually made in Perſia. The ſhagreen alſo comes from thence, which we are told is made of the ſkin of an aſs's rump. Tanners uſe ſalt and galls inſtead of bark, and dreſs their coarſe ſkins with lime.

Earthen-ware is another manufacture the Perſians excel in; it is much beyond any thing of this kind made by the Dutch; ſome affirm, that it is almoſt equal to china-ware. It is chiefly made at Schiras, Metzed, Yeſd, and Kerman. Mending of glaſs and earthen-ware is a particular trade in Perſia: they will drill holes through them, and faſten the pieces together ſo, that a broken bowl or plate will hold liquids as well as before it was broke.

Gold wire-drawers and thread-twiſters, may alſo be ranked among their moſt ingenious artiſts. They will draw a piece, weighing a dram, to the length of three hundred Perſian ells (five and thirty inches making an ell).

Their lapidaries, we are aſſured by a perſon who was a jeweller, underſtand the grinding of ſoft ſtones, and can cut them pretty well.

Their dying is preferred to any thing of that kind in Europe. This is rather aſcribed to the dryneſs and clearneſs of the air (which gives a livelineſs to the colours, and fixes them) than to the ſkill of the artiſt.

Taylors work is done very neatly by the Perſians; the men's cloaths, which are made of the richeſt flowered and brocaded ſilks, are fitted exactly to their bodies without the leaſt wrinkle; and their ſewing is incomparably beyond that of our workmen; as the fine materials they work on require it ſhould. They work flowers alſo upon their carpets,

pets, cushions, and window-curtains, so very nicely, that they look as if they were painted. Their barbers are no less excellent in their way: for they will shave the head almost at half a dozen strokes, and have so light a hand that a person can scarce feel them. They use only cold water, and hold no bason under your chin, as with us; but have their water in a cup about the bigness of a little china dish. After they have shaved a man, they cut the nails of his feet and hands with a little iron instrument like a bodkin, sharp at the end; then they stretch his arms, and rub and chafe his flesh; which, in these hot countries, is an operation very pleasing as well to the Europeans as the natives.

Their goldsmiths are in general very unskilful and awkward workmen; what they perform best, is in the filligree way: they also make stone rings, and engrave pretty well, but do not understand enamelling. Any work which requires springs, such as watches, &c. they are totally unacquainted with.

The principal manufactures of the country are silks; such as taffaties, tabbies, sattins, and silk mixed with cotton or camel or goat's hair, brocades, and gold tissue. There are an hundred sorts of the single brocade: the double are called duroy, or two faces, because both sides are equally good; they are the richest that are to be met with any where. The gold velvet, which is wrought in Persia, is admirable. All their rich stuffs have this good property, that they are very durable; the gold or silver does not wear off or tarnish, while the work lasts, but keeps its colour and brightness. The finest looms for these stuffs are at Ispahan, Cashan, and Yesd: those for carpets are chiefly made in the province of Kerman. What are usually called Turkey carpets, are indeed Persian; but obtained that name from being brought to us by way of Turkey. The camel-hair stuffs are made in Carmania: it is exceeding soft and smooth: but the stuffs they make with it are not strong. Camlets and silk and worsted druggets are made in the same province. Goats-hair stuffs are made in Hyrcania, and near the gulf of Bossora. There is some callico cloth made in Persia, and they know how to paint and stain it; but the Indian callicoes are far preferable.

In Persia, the profession of a merchant is reckoned very honourable; and the rather, as there is no hereditary nobility, which devolves from father to son. With respect to those in great posts, their honours and profits terminate with the office: and their lives and fortunes are in perpetual hazard, especially under a weak or cruel prince. The trader seems more independent than any other subject; and notwithstanding the government is despotic, they are usually encouraged, because they bring in a considerable revenue to the crown; and we may add, the greatest ministers do not think the business of a merchant degrading to them: even the king himself has had his factors and agents in the neighbouring kingdoms, and exported silks, brocades, carpets, and other rich goods; and his agents at the Mogul's court, and elsewhere, when their business was chiefly traffick, have frequently had the character of ambassadors conferred upon them.

Brokers and stock-jobbers, who are a very cunning and subtle class of people, generally carry on the trade in Persia. After they have talked over and settled the matter at the seller's house (for there is no exchange for the rendezvous of merchants) they agree about the price upon their fingers, putting their hands under a cloth; the fingers end, it seems, stands for one; the bent finger for five, and the strait for ten; the open hand for a hundred, and, if shut, a thousand; and it is impossible for a by-stander to gather any thing from the circumstances, because they retain so even a countenance all the while they are transacting the affair.

The Armenian Christians, and Banians of India, have by far the greatest share of the trade, notwithstanding the Mahometans are the governing part of the country. The Mahometan Persians trade from one province of their own country to another, and to India not a little; but the Armenians manage the whole European trade; one reason whereof is, that the Mahometans do not care to go into Christian countries, because they cannot there observe the customs their religion prescribes; for their law, it seems, forbids them to eat flesh killed or dressed by a man of a different religion, or to drink out of the same cup with him; and even prohibits the touching of persons in some circumstances, whom they look upon to be polluted. Another thing, which is a disadvantage to their trade, is, that the taking up money at interest is unlawful, though they are at liberty to make what advantages they can in buying and selling. But the business of trade never entered into the thoughts of their law-giver, he lived in a part of the country, where they dealt chiefly in herds of cattle, and he did not foresee the advantages his disciples might make by foreign trade and merchandize. The government, therefore, find themselves under a necessity of protecting and encouraging their Christian subjects, as they value their foreign trade, and the revenue it brings in; and Christians, it is observed, live much easier and happier under the Persian government, than in many Christian countries, where the people are of different sects and persuasions; and, as a consequence of this, the Christians of Persia, especially towards Georgia, are a very considerable body; the Christians also are the only sort of people who inhabit the great town of Julpha near Ispahan.

Silk, both raw and wrought, is the staple commodity of Persia; great quantities of this are exported to India, Turky, and Muscovy; and the English and Dutch formerly took a great deal off their hands, but little or none at present. They supply India with abundance of fine horses, at a very great rate, forty or fifty pounds being but an ordinary price for an horse there. They export also camels hair, goats wool, leather, wines, distilled waters, dried and preserved fruits, pistachio nuts, dates, &c.

We cannot learn that there is any considerable quantity of pearls to be met with in Persia at present, though the country was once famous for them. There was, it is true, one of the finest pearl fisheries in the world in the gulph of Persia some few years ago; but the Persians have lost the dominion of that sea, and of all the islands in it, except Ormus, and that was vigorously attacked by the Arabs, who conquered the rest.

About the year 1718, the Persians made an attempt to recover these islands, and, in order thereto, procured the viceroy of Goa to assist them with four men of war, but the Persian general, it seems, was bribed by the Arabs, and had nearly betrayed the Portuguese ships into their hands; and though he failed in that, yet never providing any land-forces to assist in that expedition, the Arabs remain in possession of those places, and, with them, of the pearl-fisheries. The Portuguese squadron, however, came to an engagement with the Arabian fleet, and it proved one of the most obstinate encounters that had been seen in that part of the world: one of the Arabian ships was sunk; and those of the Portuguese were so shattered, that they were glad to retire to their ports, and appeared no more in that sea. Some of the Arabian men of war are very large, carrying no less than fourscore guns; and they are said to have ships of the greatest force of any nation on the other side the Cape of Good-Hope.

The English East India Company trading to Persia had before the civil war, two considerable factories in that kingdom, one at Ispahan, and the other at Gombron in the mouth of the gulf of Persia or Bossora; the head of each factory was called their agent, and lived in as great state as a nobleman. The agent at Ispahan had with him at that time three or four English factors, and a retinue of no less than thirty or forty servants natives of the country: their house was elegantly built, after the model of the Persian palaces, and stood in the middle of a garden. Their horses, servants, and equipage, when they went abroad, were equal to an omrah's: their furniture shone with gold, or rather was covered with it. The state of the Gombron agent was not altogether so grand; but his advantages were equal, as will appear hereafter; but before we give an account of the privileges of the servants of the English company, it will be necessary to treat of their trade which has very much dwindled of late years.

English cloth is almost the only commodity the company carry to Persia, nor does this turn to any great account, the Turky company being able to supply that part of the country, where it is chiefly vended, at a much cheaper rate. In return for cloth the company bring back wool, as it is commonly called, which is the soft down that grows under the hair next the skin, and is chiefly used by hatters: the company bring away every year about a thousand bags of this, each bag weighing a hundred weight; and if they do not meet with a sufficient return in this, they take the balance in abasses and chequeens, or else in gold bars, of which great advantage is to be made; and as they have not sufficient freight of their own, they take in freight of the Armenians, Banians, and Moors, and other private traders, when they return to Surat, and generally a great number of passengers for that country.

The Persians have not a ship in the gulf, or indeed any where else, but freight all their goods for India in English or Dutch vessels, and the captains and officers were formerly guilty of great extortions: for they would make a merchant pay a considerable sum for a place on the deck to sleep on; the room between two guns they let out at

thirty or forty rupees (valued at two ſhillings and ſix-pence each), and the mates would have two or three hundred rupees each for their cabbin, which are but juſt big enough for two or three people to ſit in: but the company have taken that matter under their conſideration, and regulated the price to the ſatisfaction of the merchants, and, in purſuance to their directions, the chief and council always agree with the commanders before-hand, for ſuch conveniences as the merchant requires. The great cabbin, in a ſhip of four hundred tons, is uſually let for a thouſand rupees, which, being occupied by twenty or thirty merchants, is not thought much, and is indeed a trifle compared to what uſed to be extorted from them; even the long boat itſelf uſed to be farmed out formerly. The ſearching the paſſengers little parcels on their going aſhore, was another thing that uſed to diſoblige them highly; and which the Dutch, who were conſiderable gainers by tranſporting theſe merchants and their effects, never concerned themſelves about; which made them better affected to the Dutch than the Engliſh.

We cannot forbear reflecting here on the inſolence of ſome of our ſea-officers, even towards gentlemen of their own nation, who happen to be paſſengers on board them; and as for a Moor or Banian merchant they reſpect them no more than dogs.

Nothing ſurely can be more barbarous than the uſage of theſe people to the poor laſcars, or Indian ſailors, who aſſiſt in bringing their ſhips home, when they have loſt their Engliſh ſailors by ſickneſs or deſertion. One of the captains beat and abuſed the laſcars unmercifully; and when they repreſented to him, that this treatment would not paſs unpuniſhed in the next world, however it might in this, he would laugh at them; and by way of jeſt, when one of theſe poor fellows died, ordered a letter to be written, and put into his mouth, directed to ſome of his friends, who had gone before him, wherein he endeavoured to ſhew his wit, but in ſuch a ſtrain, as made all men abhor him. Another great hardſhip theſe laſcars are liable to, is, that when they have brought an Indian ſhip to England, care is not always taken to ſend them back again to their own country; but they are ſeen, through extreme neceſſity, begging about the ſtreets: and as they come from a hot climate, many of them probably periſh in the winter ſeaſon. Such practices as theſe are diſgraceful to any nation, and give more cauſe to Indians to brand us with the epithet of ſavages, than we can have to give them that appellation.

The gains made by the Engliſh Eaſt India company in carrying the effects of the Armenians, Moors, Banians, &c. from Gombron in the gulph of Perſia to Surat in India, is one great branch of the company's profit; and they rarely ſend a ſhip from Gombron to Surat, but ſhe is as deeply laden as ſhe can ſwim full of paſſengers, and ſhe has a vaſt quantity of treaſure on board, ſometimes to the value of two or three hundred thouſand pounds, inſomuch that the Engliſh ſhips going from Perſia to India in October and November annually, are ſuppoſed to be the richeſt veſſels in that part of the world.

The orders and regulations of the Eaſt India company made, in relation to this voyage, about the beginning of the preſent century, were as follows; viz. "That as often as any ſhip of ours is let to freight to or from Perſia, our council on the place take care an agreement be made before them (of which they are to be judges) that it be reaſonable what the captains ſhall be allowed for the paſſage and accommodation of ſuch Armenians, Perſians, or other paſſengers; and to that end they are to ſend a proper perſon on board each ſhip, to ſee their accommodations be as they ought. That when the paſſengers return, the ſaid council enquire whether the captain has complied with his agreement; and if he has failed in any part, they muſt take care ſuch paſſengers have juſtice done them; and that the council on the place from whence the ſhip proceeds, adviſe thoſe, who reſide where ſhe is conſigned unto, with the terms of ſuch agreement. If, when this is done, the captains ſhall treat thoſe paſſengers unreaſonably, or will not do them that juſtice which the council ſhall award, let the council proteſt againſt ſuch commanders for their injuſtice and failure; and therein ſpecify the damage the company ſuſtains by the loſs of freight, occaſioned by ſuch diſcouragements to the freighters, or their vakeels or ſervants: or the hazard that may in probability happen thereon; and the council have then ſo far done their part; and we ſhall upon notice which muſt be ſent us from time to time, do the reſt. Although we muſt farther put you in mind, that you have, by charter-party, liberty to diſplace commanders when juſt reaſon offers; and if their oppreſſions are ſevere, we know no better reaſon to diſplace them, than the curing ſuch a growing evil."

The weights uſed by the company are maunds only, and theſe differ according to the nature of the commodities to be delivered by them.

All bargains at Gombron are made for ſhahees, and the company keep their accounts in them, reckoning them worth four-pence each, though that coin is rarely met with, but in its ſtead coz's and mamooda's are current every where. Horſes, camels, houſes, &c. are generally ſold by the toman, which is two hundred ſhahees, or fifty abaſſees, and they uſually reckon their eſtates that way: ſuch a one is worth ſo many tomans, they ſay, as we reckon pounds in England. The ſhahee, in the company's accounts, is reckoned worth four-pence Engliſh money.

The company do not at all interfere in the trade between Perſia and India: this they leave entirely to their factors and ſervants, and to ſuch country ſhips and private traders as put themſelves under their protection, and are content with paying the port duties. For the better regulation of this trade, orders are hung up in the conſultation of Gombron.

SECT. VI.

Giving a Deſcription of the Country in general, and the Quality of the Soil; alſo of their Huſbandry and Gardening; including Grain, Fruit, Trees, Flowers, Plants, Drugs, &c. alſo an Account of their Animals and Minerals.

PERSIA abounds with mountains, but has very few rivers: ſome of the mountains are ſuppoſed to be the higheſt on the face of the earth. Mount Taurus, which frequently receives different names, as it branches itſelf out into different provinces, runs through the country from weſt to eaſt. The loftieſt of theſe mountains are Ararat in Armenia, the five mountains which ſeparate Media from Hyrcania, and Parthia or Irac. Thoſe which divide Fars or Perſia from Carmania are exceeding high, the moſt famous of which is called Mount Jarron; but they are generally dry barren rocks, without trees or herbage upon them, except thoſe of Ghilan or Hyrcania, and the mountains of Curdeſtan, which are covered with woods, and very fruitful where they are manured. There are vaſt ſandy deſerts ſeveral days journey over in this kingdom, where there is ſcarce a drop of water to be found; and the land in general upon the frontiers lies uncultivated, to diſcourage their enemies from invading them; for there is not the leaſt ſubſiſtence to be met with for ſeveral miles, in travelling into the kingdom either from Turky or India. There are, however, ſome fruitful plains and vallies, in which their principal cities ſtand, which yield plenty of grain and herbage: and no country is more fruitful than the provinces which lie upon the Caſpian ſea, as we have already obſerved. But Hyrcania is very unhealthful in ſummer time, which ſome apprehend proceeds from the multitude of ſnakes and inſects which lie rotting upon the ground when the waters are dried up, as well as from the foulneſs of the water itſelf, which at that time of the year is ſo thick and muddy that it is unfit for uſe.

Though there is not a tenth part of Perſia cultivated, at preſent, yet when greater care was formerly taken to turn the waters into thoſe vallies which now produce neither graſs nor grain, theſe were extremely fruitful. In ſome provinces there are hundreds of fine aqueducts choaked up and buried in the ruins; ſo that it is not ſo much a defect in the ſoil, as the want of people, or at leaſt of huſbandmen and tillage, which renders Perſia ſo barren.

The ſoil in ſome parts is a hard gravel, and in others a ſtiff whitiſh clay almoſt as hard as a ſtone; but either of them are fruitful when well watered, and will bear often two crops, and ſometimes three in the courſe of a year. If we give credit to antient authors, there was not a more plentiful country in the world than Perſia; the reaſon of this alteration ſome aſcribe to the different diſpoſitions of the people who have inhabited it. The antient Perſians, the fire-worſhippers, it is ſaid, were obliged by the precepts of their religion, to cultivate the ground, and it was by them accounted a meritorious act to plant a tree, to bring the water into a field, and make a barren ſpot of earth produce graſs or grain: while the Mahometans ſeem to have no genius for improvements, or even to preſerve what their anceſtors have built or planted, but let every thing run to ruin: however, one reaſon of this neglect may be, that the property of the people is not ſecure to them; ſo that it is no wonder they have but little inclination to make improvements, when they can have no certainty of reaping any advantage

vantage from them; and an eſtate very rarely remains in a family for three generations.

Near great towns they improve their grounds with the dung and dirt of the ſtreets they carry out; but at a greater diſtance they throw their fields into little level ſquares, which they bank about, and then turn the water into them, letting it ſtand in the field all night; which having ſoaked it, the water is let out the next morning, and the ſun ſhining with almoſt perpendicular rays upon the moiſt earth, renders it fit for the production of any ſort of grain or plants. When the ground is light, they plow with two or three oxen or buffaloes; but in Ghilan, and other countries, where they meet with a ſtiff clay, and the ploughs being very large, it is as much as eight or ten oxen can do to draw them.

The principal, and almoſt the only kinds of grain produced in Perſia, are rice, wheat, and barley; they have no oats, and very little rye. Their ſeaſons are not the ſame in the north as in the ſouth: but when they are ſowing in one part of the country, they are reaping in another, and in ſome places it is not more than three months between the ſeed-time and the harveſt. Their land never lies fallow, but is ſown every year at leaſt; it is ſo meliorated and enriched by being flowed, and the heat of the ſun afterwards working on the mud, that it is never out of heart as ours is; and though we have not ſo warm a ſun, yet if we were to overflow ſome of our grounds as they do, it would be a vaſt improvement, eſpecially where dung and other manure is wanting. Rice muſt be conſtantly ſupplied with water till the harveſt, but the land is only flowed before the ſowing, to render it prolific for other kind of grain.

Moſt of the roots and ſallads we have in England, grow in great plenty in the kitchen gardens in Perſia: they have no leſs than twenty ſeveral ſorts of melons, during the ſeaſon they laſt, which is about four months; the common people make them their conſtant food: thoſe which come to maturity firſt in the ſpring, are round and ſmall: thoſe that are ripe in the latter part of the ſeaſon are the beſt and largeſt; ſome of them weigh eight or ten pounds, and are as ſweet as ſugar: at the tables of perſons of quality they have them all the year round, there being a way to preſerve them under ground till the ſeaſon returns. The beſt melons grow in Choraſan and Tartary, and they are carried as far as Iſpahan for the king's uſe, and as preſents to their friends. Cucumbers are another fruit much eaten by the common people; one ſort of them has ſcarcely any ſeeds in it, is eaten without paring or dreſſing, and is not reckoned unwholeſome. Some perſons will eat eight or ten pounds of melons at a meal, without being ſick.

They have ſeveral kinds of grapes in Perſia, ſome of which are ſo large, that a ſingle grape is a mouthful. The wine at Iſpahan is made of kiſmiſh's, a little round grape, and without any ſtones that can be perceived; but the beſt wines are made at Schiras. They keep their grapes all the winter here; and let them hang a conſiderable time on the vines, wrapped up in linen bags; the air is ſo dry, that they can for a very long time preſerve all kinds of fruit without ſpoiling.

The moſt delicious food in this country are dates; theſe are no where ſo good as in Perſia: the pulp which incloſes the ſtone is a clammy ſubſtance as ſweet as honey: they are laid on heaps when they are ripe, and melting they candy, or preſerve themſelves without ſugar. Foreigners are adviſed to eat moderately of them, becauſe they heat the blood, and occaſion ulcers in thoſe who are not uſed to them, and ſometimes weaken the ſight, but are obſerved to have no ill effects on the natives. The tree does not bear them till it is fifteen years old. It is ſlender, but very tall, and like other palms has no branches but on the top, and the fruit grows in cluſters of thirty or forty pounds weight.

Moſt of the fruits eaten in Europe may be had in Perſia, and would be there in much greater perfection, if they knew any thing of gardening; but they underſtand neither grafting, nor inoculating, nor managing dwarf trees; all their trees grow to a great height, and are loaded with wood. Their nectarines and peaches weigh ſixteen or eighteen ounces a-piece: there is an apricot red within, which is called the egg of the ſun; theſe are dried and exported in great quantities; they are boiled in water, which is thickened by the juice of the fruit, and makes a perfect ſyrup without ſugar. They have ſeveral kinds of excellent apricots, which are in ſeaſon one after the other.

In the north part of Perſia, apples and pears chiefly grow: they have alſo pomegranates of ſeveral kinds, alſo oranges, quinces, and prunes: they have ſuch a great variety of fruits, that above fifty different ſorts have been ſeen at an entertainment, ſome of which grew at the diſtance of three hundred leagues.

Olives grow in Hyrcania, near the Caſpian ſea; but they neither know how to preſerve them, or extract the oil. They have alſo plantations of ſugar and tobacco. Piſtachio nuts are almoſt peculiar to Perſia, and are tranſported all over the world. Here are likewiſe ſmall nuts, filberds, and almonds.

The cypreſs, palm, and mulberry, are among other trees in their gardens. There are large plantations of the latter for their ſilk-worms; theſe trees they do not ſuffer to grow up to a great ſize, becauſe the leaves are beſt when the ſhoots are young: therefore they grub up the trees when they grow old, and plant their grounds again. But the tree which is in as great eſteem as any in Perſia, is the ſenna: the body of this tree is very large, and ordinarily forty or fifty feet high, and ſtraight as the maſt of a ſhip, having no branches but on the head of it; the bark is of a bright grey, and the wood ſerves them to make doors, rafters, and for other uſes in building.

The trees that are moſt common in Perſia, are the plane tree, the willow, the fir, and the cornel tree. The Perſians imagine that the plane tree is a preſervative againſt the plague and other contagious diſtempers; and obſerve, that the plague has never raged in Iſpahan ſince this tree was planted in their ſtreets and gardens. The tree alſo which bears the gall-nut is very common in many parts of Perſia; and there are trees which yield gum, maſtic, and frankincenſe: that which produces frankincenſe very much reſembles a pear tree, and is found chiefly in Carmania.

There are trees in Perſia which produce manna of ſeveral ſorts: the beſt manna has a yellowiſh caſt, a large coarſe grain, and comes from Choraſan or Bactria; there is another ſort called tameriſk, becauſe the tree it drops from is ſo named, and is found in large quantities in the province of Suſiana: and there is a third ſort gathered about Iſpahan; which falls from a tree much like the tameriſk, but larger. The leaves of this tree drop liquid manna in ſummer-time, which the natives take to be the ſweat of the tree congealed upon the leaf: it has as ſweet a taſte as other manna. In the morning the ground under the tree is perfectly fat and greaſy with the droppings from it. The cotton tree is common all over Perſia; and they have another little tree which yields a kind of ſilken down uſed for quilting and ſtuffing of pillows. There is alſo a plant called hannah, that bears a ſeed which they beat to powder and colour their hands and feet, and ſometimes rub over their faces with it, apprehending it keeps their ſkin ſmooth, and preſerves their complexion; they ſometimes put the leaves of it, when bruiſed, to the ſame uſe.

In the deſerts of Carmania are found two little ſhrubs of a poiſonous quality; the firſt is called galbad ſamour, or the flower that poiſons the wind; ſome people imagining that this occaſions thoſe killing winds which blow in this province in the hot ſeaſon; the other ſhrub is called kerzebre, the trunk whereof is about as big as a man's leg, and grows about ſix feet high: its leaves are almoſt round, and it bears a flower like the ſweet-brier.

There are ſcarcely any trees to be found on the mountains, or wild fields in Perſia; theſe are, for the moſt part, deſtitute of all manner of verdure; while in their cities, and the villages for three or four leagues round them, the ſtreets and gardens are ſo well planted, that the houſes are hardly to be diſcerned at a diſtance. After travelling ſome few leagues, indeed, there is neither houſe, trees or ſhrubs for many miles, but all looks like a barren deſert; notwithſtanding which great part of this ſeemingly barren ſoil, were it watered and cultivated, would be as fruitful as the other, as it anciently was when a more induſtrious people poſſeſſed the country.

Flowers are found in great variety in ſome of the provinces. The ſouth part of Perſia has the feweſt, the exceſſive heat being there as deſtructive to them as ſevere cold. But the fields of Hyrcania are beautified and enriched with whole groves of orange trees, jeſſamins, and all the flowers we have in Europe. Mazenderan, which is the eaſt part of the country, is one continued parterre from September to April, and at that time is covered with flowers; and though this be their winter ſeaſon, it is nevertheleſs the beſt time for fruits; in the other months the heat is exceſſive, and the air ſo unhealthful, that the natives find themſelves under the neceſſity of retiring to the mountains. In Media the fields produce tulips, anemonies, and ranunculuſes; about Iſpahan and ſome other towns jonquils grow wild; they have alſo daffodils, lilies, violets, and pinks in their ſeaſon, and ſome perennial flowers; but they have the greateſt quantity of lilies and roſes. They

export abundance of roſe water to other countries. In the ſpring there is plenty of yellow and red gilly-flowers; and another red flower, which reſembles a clove, of a beautiful ſcarlet colour; every ſprig bears thirty of theſe flowers, which form a fine head as large as a tennis ball. Their roſes are white, yellow, and red; and others, white on one ſide, and yellow on the other; but, notwithſtanding all this great variety of beautiful flowers, their gardens are not comparable to thoſe of Europe. Flowers are very little regarded by them; ſo that they are often intermixed with fruit trees and roſe buſhes, without any order. No borders, or knots of flowers, are to be ſeen in their gardens, but large walks planted with trees; fountains, canals, caſcades, and pleaſure houſes, are all that muſt be expected in their fineſt gardens; which being ſo common, the Perſians take no pleaſure in walking in them, any more than they do in the fields; but place themſelves in ſome alcove, or ſummer houſe, as ſoon as they come into them, regardleſs of that exquiſite variety that every foreigner is enamoured with.

This country affords great plenty of phyſical drugs, as caſſia, ſenna, antimony, nux vomica, gum armoniac, galbanum, ſal armoniac, and a kind of rhubarb, with which they purge their cattle: the beſt rhubarb comes from China, or rather from eaſtern Tartary, which lies to the northward of it. Perſian poppies are in great eſteem, from the quantity of juice they yield, and the ſtrength of it: they grow four feet high in ſome places, and have white leaves. They draw the juice from them in June, when they are ripe, by making little inciſions in the head of the poppy; and a thick liquor oozes from them, which is gathered before ſun-riſe. It is ſaid to have ſuch an effect on the people who are employed in this work, that they look as if they had been buried and taken up again, and their limbs tremble as if they had the palſy. The liquor which is extracted from the poppies, in a little time grows thick, and is made up into pills: the Perſians give it the name of afion, and we call it opium. The Perſian bakers ſtrew poppy-ſeed on their bread, which inclines thoſe who eat it to ſleep; and the eating it is not reckoned unwholſome after their meals; the common people eat the ſeed almoſt at any time.

Saffron grows plentifully in Perſia, and aſſafœtida is to be had almoſt every where, which is admired by the natives of this country as well as India, and frequently eaten with their food: that which, to us is the moſt offenſive of all ſcents, is by them eſteemed a moſt refreſhing perfume, and at leaſt equal to muſk. Aſſafœtida is a liquor which diſtills from the plant called hiltot; it thickens after it is drawn, and grows as hard as gum: there is the white, and the black kinds of it, of which the white is reckoned the beſt to eat. The ſmell of this drug is ſo very ſtrong, that if any goods in a ſhip lie near it, the ſmell is communicated to them, how cloſe ſoever they are wrapped up, and it is almoſt impoſſible to clear them of it; nay, it affects the colour of them to ſuch a degree, that ſome rich ſtuffs of gold and ſilver (the latter of which are turned perfectly black, have been tarniſhed with it, notwithſtanding they were incloſed in cotton, and covered with ſeveral folds of ſear cloth.

In the ſands of Choraſan or the antient Bactria, mummy is frequently found. This is human fleſh embalmed, which has lain ſeveral ages in dry earth. Some of the bodies, it is ſaid, are ſo little altered, that the features may be plainly diſtinguiſhed. Beſides this common mummy, there is a precious gum which diſtills from a rock, to which the Perſians give the name of mummy. This is ſaid to perform miraculous cures; and is reckoned to be ſo valuable, that the governors of the provinces where it is found, ſend it to court under their ſeals, and the king engroſſes moſt of it.

The bezoar ſtone of Perſia has ſeveral thin coats over it; it is found in the bodies of goats and other animals; it is in much higher eſteem than the Indian bezoar.

Several kinds of beaſts, birds, fiſhes, and inſects, are found in Perſia. Among their cattle, the moſt ſerviceable are camels, horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, and buffaloes; but the camel, for a beaſt of burden, much excels all the reſt, whether we conſider the weight he carries, the diſpatch he makes, or the little charge in keeping him. Of theſe camels there are ſeveral kinds; ſome of them have two bunches upon their backs, and others but one; and there is a third ſort, engendered between a dromedary or camel with two bunches, and a female with one, which are eſteemed much the beſt, and are ſold for twenty or thirty pounds a piece, for they are ſeldom tired, and will carry nine hundred or one thouſand weight. Thoſe which travel between the Perſian gulf and Iſpahan, are of a much leſs ſize, and do not carry above five or ſix hundred weight; yet theſe are almoſt as ſerviceable as the others, for they are much ſwifter, and will gallop like a horſe, whereas the others ſeldom exceed a foot pace: theſe ſwift camels are kept by the king and great men; they ſerve to convey their women from place to place, and carry their baggage: they are uſually adorned with embroidered cloths, and ſilver bells about their necks; a ſtring of ſix or ſeven of them are tied together when they travel, and governed by one man: they uſe neither bridles nor halter to hold them in, nor whips to drive them; but they are governed by the driver's voice, who ſings or plays to them as they travel: it is in vain to beat them if they tire, they will go never the better for it. When they are to take up their burden, the driver touches their knees, whereupon they lie down on their bellies till they are loaded, groaning, however, and giving ſigns of uneaſineſs, under a ſenſe of the fatigue they are about to undergo. They let them graze by the road ſize, with their burdens on their backs, on weeds and thiſtles, and ſometimes they feed them with balls compounded of barley-meal and chaff made up into a paſte, with which they often mix the cotton ſeed; but he is the leaſt feeder of any beaſt, conſidering his bulk. It is very happy alſo that the camels will live without water two or three days together, there being ſcarcely any to be met with in thoſe deſerts the caravans are obliged to paſs. They ſhed all their hair every ſpring, and are perfectly naked. Theſe creatures are very tame and tractable, except when the luſtful fit is upon them, which laſts thirty or forty days, and then they are very unruly, which makes their drivers increaſe their burdens at that time to keep their fleſh under. When once the male has covered the female, he grows ſluggiſh, and does not care to ſtir out of the ſtable. They copulate as other four footed animals do, except that the female lies down on her belly, as ſhe does to receive her burden: they do not engender backwards as ſome writers have erroneouſly aſſerted. They go with young eleven, or, as ſome ſay, twelve months.

Oxen, buffaloes, aſſes, and mules, are uſed indifferently for carrying of paſſengers or burdens; and their land being plowed by buffaloes and oxen, theſe beaſts are very ſeldom killed for food. The aſſes of Perſia are much larger and ſwifter than ours, and will perform a journey very well. But the fineſt beaſts are their horſes: theſe are beautiful creatures, and no where better managed than in Perſia. They have fine foreheads, and are exactly well proportioned, light and ſprightly, but only fit for the ſaddle, or at leaſt not uſed for any other purpoſe. They are never gelt, and wear their tails at the full length: but though they are lovely creatures to look on, they are neither ſo ſwift as the Arabian horſes, nor ſo hardy as thoſe of Tartary; and the king has always a ſtable of the Arabian breed. Horſes are very dear in Perſia, ſome of them being ſold for two or three hundred pounds, and ſeldom for leſs than fifty. The ſending ſuch numbers of them to India and Turky contributes more to enhance the price, than the ſcarcity of them. Their mules carry very well, and ſome of them are valued at thirty or forty pounds a piece: ſome aſſes are not valued at much leſs, after they have been taught to pace. The ordinary food for horſes is barley and chopt ſtraw; they have no mangers in their ſtables, but give their horſes their corn in bags, as our hackney-coachmen do. In the ſpring they cut green graſs for their horſes, but never make any into hay to be eaten dry: ſometimes they feed their horſes with balls made of barley-meal, as in India. Inſtead of litter, their own dung is dried and beaten to powder, and laid a foot deep for them to lie on; and if any of it be wetted, it is dried in the ſun the next day. Their horſes hoofs are much ſounder and harder than ours; and they are ſhod with thin plates, as the oxen are alſo, on account of their travelling over the ſtony mountains. In winter, they daub their horſes with a yellow herb called hannah, and ſometimes anoint their bodies with it as high as the breaſt, to keep out the cold; but it ſeems rather to be by way of ornament.

Large ſtables of horſes belonging to the king are diſperſed throughout the kingdom, for the public ſervice. A horſe is ſeldom denied to any man who demands one, if he will keep him; but ſuch perſons are accountable to the government for them when they ſhall be called out; but they have the liberty of riding them in the mean time. Theſe troopers horſes are ſometimes quartered upon people againſt their conſent, who would gladly be excuſed from the trouble and charge of keeping them; and if any horſe dies in their hands, oath muſt be made that he was

was well treated, and did not die for want of corn or looking after. Their horſes are ſubject to many diſtempers: ſometimes their legs ſwell, and a tumour riſes on the breaſt, which it is ſaid proceeds from eating too much barley: in this caſe, they clap a hot iron to the ſwelling, or lance it, and keep the ſore open, by running a yellow twig through it; but for lame or diſtempered horſes, a hot iron applied to the part is the moſt general remedy.

There are great plenty of ſheep and goats in Perſia; the natives ſeldom eat any other meat. Their ſheep are large, and remarkable for their fat tails, which weigh eight or ten, and, according to ſome, above twenty pounds weight. In ſome parts of Perſia alſo they have more horns than ours: ſome of their ſheep have ſix or ſeven horns, ſome projecting ſtrait from their foreheads, ſo that when the rams engage there is generally a great deal of blood ſpilt in the battle. The Perſian goats are not only valuable for their fleſh, but the fine wool they yield, of which great quantities are exported from Carmania annually. As the Mahometans, who are the governing part of the country, have an averſion to hogs, their Chriſtian ſubjects do not endeavour to increaſe the breed of that animal, unleſs towards Georgia and Armenia, where the Chriſtians are numerous; ſo that it is no wonder there are ſcarcely any to be met with.

There are not many wild beaſts either in the middle or ſouthern part of Perſia, there being no cover for them. They have ſome deer and antelopes, which are much of the ſame nature, except that they are ſpotted, and have finer limbs. In Hyrcania and Curdeſtan, the woody parts of the country, wild beaſts abound, ſuch as lions, tygers, leopards, wild hogs, jackalls, &c. In Media and Armenia there are abundance of deer, wild-goats, hares, and rabbits; and there are ſome, but not many, found on the mountains in almoſt every part of the country.

In the heart of Perſia, which is very dry, they are not much troubled with inſects, unleſs it be with ſwarms of locuſts, which ſometimes viſit them; they fly in ſuch numbers, that they appear like a cloud, and perfectly obſcure the ſun; and deſtroy the fruits of the earth, wherever they ſettle; but there are certain birds which generally viſit the country about the ſame time, and prevent the ruin of the huſbandman, by eating up the locuſts.

There are great numbers of ſerpents, toads, ſcorpions, and other venomous reptiles, in that part of the country which lies upon the Caſpian or Hyrcanian ſea; but many of them die in ſummer-time for want of water, and infect the air, rendering that part of the country very unhealthful at that time. The ſcorpions are of an immoderate ſize; and their ſting is mortal if proper remedies be not immediately applied; and a perſon ſtung by one of them is in ſuch torture, that he becomes raving mad for ſome time. Muſketoes, or gnats, are very troubleſome in the flat country near the Caſpian ſea. And there is a white fly in Perſia, no bigger than a flea, which makes no noiſe, whoſe ſting is like the prick of a pin. There are alſo the millepedes, almoſt like a caterpillar (the Perſians call them hezar-pai, or a thouſand feet); their bite is as pernicious as the ſting of a ſcorpion.

Tame and wild fowl, ſuch as geeſe, hens, ducks, partridges, ſnipes, &c. are almoſt in the ſame plenty and variety in Perſia as in Europe; but more of them in the north than in the ſouth part of the country. Turkeys have been exported to Iſpahan, but they do not thrive there. They take all imaginable care to increaſe and propagate the breed of pigeons on account of their dung, with which they raiſe their melons. Their dove houſes are five times as large as ours, of a round figure, and handſomely built of brick; it is ſaid there are not leſs than three hundred of them in the city of Iſpahan only. The dung is uſually ſold for four-pence the biſty, or twelve pounds weight; and the government, it ſeems, lays a tax upon it. Their partridges are reckoned the largeſt and beſt taſted that are any where to be met with. The pelican, which the Perſians call tacob, or the draw-water, is as remarkable as any of their fowls, for the body of it is ſaid to be as large as a ſheep, and his head is at the ſame time extremely ſmall: but it has a large bill of ſixteen or eighteen inches long, as big as a man's arm, and under the bill there is a large bag, which, travellers tell us, will hold a pail of water: they build their neſts in the deſerts for their ſecurity, where there is neither water nor inhabitants; and frequently go two days journey for water for their young ones; but they bring enough, in the above-mentioned receptacle, to laſt a conſiderable time. In the province of Choraſan there is another extraordinary bird, which has ſuch an appetite towards the water of a certain ſpring in that country, and ſo much ſagacity in diſcovering it, that they will follow any perſon that carries it in a bottle ſeveral hundreds of miles. We ſhall paſs over in ſilence many extravagant and improbable ſtories related by travellers of this bird.

No country in the world abounds more than Perſia with eagles, hawks, falcons, and other birds of prey, nor are they any where better inſtructed to take their prey. The king has eight hundred or a thouſand of them; and no man of the leaſt diſtinction is without his hawks and falconers. The Perſians breed up their very crows to fly at the game. We have already taken notice of the dexterity of their hawks in flying at birds and beaſts, &c. under the article of rural ſports; to which we refer the reader.

The ſame kind of ſinging-birds are to be found in Perſia as with us, ſuch as the linnet, chaffinch, nightingale, lark, &c. ſome birds are alſo taught to ſpeak; but we cannot learn that there are parrots or parroquets on this ſide India. There are, however, ſeveral parti-coloured birds to be ſeen in Perſia, with a plumage of blue, green, and yellow, beautifully mixed. There are ſuch numbers of ſparrows here, that they are very troubleſome to the huſbandmen; who are forced to place their ſervants in the fields all day long, to keep them from their corn, when the harveſt approaches.

There are ſcarcely any fiſh to be met with in the heart of Perſia, the few rivulets they have hardly ſupply the country with water for neceſſary uſes, and in the ſummer they are for the moſt part dried up: even the river Zenderhoud, to which the government at a prodigious expence have joined other ſtreams for the ſupply of the city of Iſpahan, is perfectly loſt in the ſandy deſerts about twenty leagues from thence, and it is more than probable there is not one ſtream, that riſes in the middle of the kingdom, which ever reaches the ſea in the ſummer; though in the ſpring, when the ſnow melts on the mountains, they may make a conſiderable appearance. Some writers affirm, indeed, but without the leaſt colour of proof, that the river Zenderhoud, though it diſappears about twenty leagues from Iſpahan, riſes again in Carmania, and falls into the ocean. There is a great plenty of ſea fiſh in the Perſian gulf and the Caſpian ſea: the rivers Kur and Arras alſo, which fall into the Caſpian ſea, are well ſtocked with river fiſh; but as theſe lie at too great a diſtance from Iſpahan to ſupply that city, they are conſequently deprived of that delicacy.

Among the many vaſt mountains in Perſia, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that there may be ſome mines of gold and ſilver; but it ſeems there are none open, neither have they any account that ever any were wrought, unleſs their lead mines may be denominated ſilver, which yield an inconſiderable quantity of that metal, as all lead mines do, but not near enough to countervail the charge of extracting it. They have, however, good mines of iron, ſteel, copper, and lead: the iron and ſteel mines are in Hyrcania, Media, and the provinces of Irac and Choraſan; their ſteel is ſo full of ſulphur, that if the filings are thrown into the fire, they will give a report like gun-powder: it has a fine delicate grain, but it is as brittle as glaſs; and the Perſian artificers, who do not underſtand how to give it a due temper, cannot for that reaſon make wheels or ſprings, or any minute pieces of workmanſhip. Moſt of their copper-mines are near Seris in the mountains of Mazenderan; they mix it with Swediſh and Japan copper, and the proportion is one part foreign to twenty of their own metal. The greateſt quantity of ſilver is found in their lead mines, moſt of which are near the city of Yeſd.

In the mountain Damaverd, which divides Hyrcania from the province of Irac, ſulphur and ſaltpetre are dug. Antimony is found in Carmania, but it is a baſtard ſort. Emery is had near Niris: they have no vitriol nor mercury; and their tin is imported from abroad. There are two kinds of ſalt in Perſia, the one upon the ſurface of the ground, and the other dug out of the rock: the ſalt is ſo hard in ſome parts of Carmania, that the poor people make uſe of it inſtead of ſtone to build their cottages with. There are plains of ten or twelve leagues over, quite covered with ſalt, as others are with ſulphur and alum.

The Perſian marble is either white, black, or red, and ſome veined with white and red: it is dug near Hamadan, and in Suſiana: ſome of it will break into large flakes or tables, like ſlate; but the beſt comes from Tauris, which is almoſt as tranſparent as cryſtal: this kind is white mixed with green. In the country about Tauris alſo is found the mineral azure; but this is not ſo good as that which comes from Tartary, as it loſes its colour by degrees. In the provinces of Fars and Shirvan there is found abundance of bole armoniac, and a marle which the country people

people uſe inſtead of ſoap. There are ſome mines of iſing-glaſs in the ſame country. In ſeveral parts of Perſia we meet with naphtha; both white and black, it is uſed in painting and varniſh, and ſometimes in phyſic: there is an oil extracted from it, which is made uſe of on various occaſions.

Thoſe mines in Perſia, where the turquois ſtones are found, are moſt valuable; there is one of them at Niſapour, in the province of Choraſan, and another in a mountain between the province of Irac and Hyrcania: there has of late years been a third diſcovered, but the ſtones are not ſo fine and lively as thoſe in the old mines. All that come out of the old rock are preſerved for the king; and when he has taken thoſe he likes beſt, he orders the reſt to be ſold to the merchants, or others who chuſe to purchaſe them.

There was formerly the fineſt pearl-fiſhery in the world in the gulf of Perſia. We are told by a judicious and curious traveller, that it did not produce leſs than the value of a million livres one year with another, and that he himſelf ſaw a pearl taken out of it that weighed fifty grains, and was perfectly round; but the largeſt that were uſually met with in that ſea did not weigh above ten or twelve grains; all above that weight the fiſhermen were obliged, under the ſevereſt penalties, to lay by for the king. But whether the pearl banks are now exhauſted, or, in the late indolent reigns, the people are become as inactive as their governors; or, laſtly, whether it is that the Arabs, having made themſelves maſters of this ſea, and moſt of the iſlands in it, the fiſhermen are interrupted in their buſineſs, the pearl-fiſhery ſeems wholly to be diſuſed at preſent, and there are as few pearls to be met with in Perſia as in any other place.

We are informed, that there were two ſeaſons for fiſhing; the firſt in March and April, and the other in Auguſt and September; though a writer of credit mentions only one, namely, from the latter end of June till the end of September; and there were formerly to be ſeen, near the iſland of Baharen, two or three thouſand fiſhing-boats, in every one of which was a diver. They fiſh for the pearls in the following manner; the boats are brought to an anchor in five fathom water, and then the diver ſtrips himſelf naked; and having fixed a piece of horn, like a pair of ſpectacles, to his noſe, which prevents any water getting in that way, and tied a ſtone to one of his feet, that he may ſink to the bottom in an inſtant, he takes a net or a baſket with him, and deſcends to the bottom, there being a rope faſtened under his arms, and another to the baſket. Having ſlipped the cord which faſtened the ſtone to his foot, he preſently falls to gathering up the oyſters, or nacres, and puts them into his baſket; and, having remained under water as long as he can, makes a ſign to the people in the boat to draw him up, and afterwards they pull up the baſket: in the mean time the diver uſually refreſhes himſelf with a pipe of tobacco, and then goes down to the bottom as before; and thus he works from eight in the morning till eleven, and then goes to dinner; about twelve he begins to dive again, and continues it till three in the afternoon. It is ſaid theſe divers will continue under water near half a quarter of an hour at a time. Towards evening they carry their oyſters on ſhore, where they lay them on heaps; and when they begin to dry, the oyſters open of themſelves, and they ſearch diligently for the pearls, which the Banians and Armenians are ready to take off their hands, and, by ſorting and retailing them out to others, they get a very conſiderable profit.

SECT. VII.

Treating of the Language, Characters, Writings, Arithmetic, Learning, Muſic, Hiſtory, Chronology, Aſtronomy and Aſtrology, Philoſophy, Arts, &c. of the PERSIANS.

FOUR languages are ſpoken in Perſia, namely, 1. The Arabic. 2. The Turkiſh. 3. The Perſian. And, 4. A language which the Gaurs or Guebres, the poſterity of the antient Perſians who worſhip the fire, ſpeak: their language and characters are peculiar to themſelves, and cannot be the ſame with thoſe of the antient Perſians, inaſmuch as they underſtand none of the inſcriptions remaining at Perſepolis, neither are the characters of the preſent Gaurs any thing like thoſe at Perſepolis. The Arabic is the learned language; and in this the Alcoran and other books of divinity, as well as their books of morality, phyſic, and philoſophy, are written. The Turkiſh language is uſually ſpoken at court, and in the provinces adjoining to Turky. They generally ſpeak the Perſian tongue at Schiras, the capital city of Fars, or the antient Perſia.

The Perſian language is intirely modern, of the ſame date with their religion; and, beſides thoſe words which are peculiar to it, there are a great number of words of other nations, which have in their turns conquered Perſia, introduced into it; as thoſe of the Turks, Tartars, and Arabs. There are alſo an inconceivable number of European words mixed with it, as High Dutch, Engliſh, and French; but it is ſaid, there are more of the Engliſh than any other. Some of our Engliſh travellers give us inſtances of this, as broder for brother, &c. They take ſome of their words from the Greek and Latin, but they borrow more from the Arabic than all the reſt; inſomuch that a perſon is reckoned to be half inſtructed in Arabic, who has a perfect knowledge of the Perſian.

They have neither grammar nor ſyntax in the Perſian language, but make uſe of the Arabic rules. They have twenty-eight letters in their alphabet, and ſome reckon twenty-nine; but they are all conſonants except alif, which is their firſt letter, and has the ſound of our a; the letters you and ye are alſo, in ſome inſtances, uſed as vowels, and give a ſound to their other letters. They have no ſtops, comma, or paragraphs in their books; but, like our lawyers, when they enter upon a new clauſe, begin with a great letter, or an item. If they make any points, it is for young people who are learning to read; or for thoſe who deſire it, and will pay well for the trouble.

The Perſians make their paper of ſilk rags and cotton; it is extremely thin and ſmooth, and will bear but on one ſide; it is not ſo white and ſtrong as ours, nor in any reſpect comparable to it. Their ink is made of galls and vitriol, and the rind of pomegranate, with burnt rice powdered, which being made up into a cake, they diſſolve in gum-water. Inſtead of gooſe-quills, they make their pens of a reed ſomething larger than a quill. The characters are Arabic whatever may be the language they write in.

The Mahometans conſider paper as a ſacred thing; they eſteem it a very ill action for a man to burn or tear paper, and much more to put it to any vile uſes; for, ſay they, the name of God, or ſome of his ſaints, may be written upon it, and it would be impious to profane it in ſuch a manner. On the other hand they maintain, that if not written upon, it ought not to be put to any common uſe, ſince it is deſigned for writing matters upon it which concern religion, the laws divine and human, and ſuch other venerable purpoſes.

The art of printing is not yet introduced among the Perſians; their books are therefore all manuſcripts. They excel in writing, which is reckoned among the liberal arts. They write eight ſeveral hands: that which they call neſky, and is the hand the Alcoran is written in, is in moſt eſteem. They ſtand or ſit gracefully, holding the paper in their hands, and write with all imaginable caſe, notwithſtanding they have no table to lay their paper on as we have, and exceed the beſt of our clerks in the diſpatch they make. They do not write as we do, from the left hand to the right; but from the right to the left, as the Arabs do; neither do they write in a ſtraight line, but the lines are convex, or bending like a bow, and the margin is on the right hand. They will write over a book as big as the bible in a fair character for about ten pounds, provided the paper be found them; whereas we could not have a book of that quantity tranſcribed for fifty pounds. They have a kind of ſhort hand in Perſia, in which they uſe the letters of the alphabet; and the ſame letters, differently pointed, will have different ſignifications. They have a vaſt number of clerks in all their great towns, but there is hardly a livelihood for half of them. They ordinarily write from morning till night for five-pence or ſix-pence a day.

The Perſians make uſe of figures in their arithmetic, as we do; and their addition, ſubtraction, multiplication, and diviſion, differ but little from ours; but they go no higher; and with reſpect to the rule of three, they are intirely ignorant of it.

It is univerſally allowed, that learning flouriſhed moſt in the eaſt in the firſt ages; the Perſian Magi, in particular, from their extraordinary ſkill in aſtronomy and other ſciences, were thought to entertain a commerce with infernal ſpirits, ſo that a magician and conjurer became terms of the ſame import; but notwithſtanding their ſuperiority to other nations in this reſpect in antient times, we find, that at preſent the ſciences are not arrived to that perfection in Perſia as in Europe. They underſtand neither the celeſtial nor terreſtrial globes. They have, however, an aſtrolabe, can name the ſigns of the zodiac, and are not unacquainted

unacquainted with the other ſtars. Some years ago, when an European brought a pair of globes with him to Iſpahan, they were even ſurprized at their own ignorance.

Next to judicial aſtrology, which they have great faith in, the ſciences moſt in eſteem at preſent are, aſtronomy, geometry, arithmetic, natural and moral philoſophy, phyſic, and the ſtudy of the law. They ſeem to have a more than ordinary paſſion for poetry; moſt of their beſt pieces being written in verſe. Their poets are very nice as to the rhime, but ſomething negligent in their numbers. Their ſatire is chiefly levelled againſt the Turks, who certainly give them ſcope enough; for, compared to the Perſians, they are a very brutiſh and barbarous nation.

The antient philoſophers in the eaſt were all poets, according to the Perſians: and their wiſe leſſons were delivered in verſe, to render them the more amiable and venerable, and that the people might the more readily retain them in their memories. The ſubject of their poems at this day, alſo, is generally ſome piece of morality or philoſophy.

The Perſians excel more in poetry than in any other branch of literature, as they ſeem to have a genius peculiarly adapted to it. Their invention is fruitful and lively, their manner ſweet, their temper amorous, and their language has a ſoftneſs proper for verſe: one who did not underſtand a word of Perſian, would be delighted to hear their verſe recited, the very tone and cadence are ſo affecting. They mix verſe with all the proſe they write, and even in common converſation; imagining that verſe gives a force and luſtre to their fineſt thoughts, and impreſſes them on the memory.

The method taken by the antients to preſerve the memory of their great actions, was, to make them the ſubject of their ſongs, and ſing them in their aſſemblies, and at their feſtivals, as is the cuſtom of Perſia at this day, and we may add in moſt of the eaſtern kingdoms; herein the Grecians, and moſt nations in Europe imitated the Aſiatics. There are more volumes of excellent poetry to be found in Perſia, than in any other country; one of them, particularly, is the hiſtory of their kings, and contains ſixty-ſix thouſand verſes: the thoughts are noble and elevated, their expreſſions ſoft, and their terms always the moſt proper that can be deviſed: their alluſions are delicate, and all their figures abound with hyperbole. There is one poem, among others, called the ſtory of the patriarch Joſeph and Potiphar's wife, which raiſes all the paſſions to the higheſt pitch. Love is ſometimes the ſubject of their poems, as well as morality and hiſtory; but nothing immodeſt, or that coutenances obſcenity of any kind, is ever the ſubject of their verſe.

The Perſian muſic next demands our notice. They ſing and play by rule, though to an European ear, they ſeem to make but very indifferent harmony. Singing in parts is not practiſed among them; but they ſing after each other, and generally to ſome ſtringed inſtrument like the lute or viol: their men ſing better than the women; but many of them do not practiſe ſinging, it being, as well as dancing, looked upon as a ſcandalous exerciſe in Perſia. People of rank will not ſuffer their children to learn either the one or the other; but it is left almoſt intirely to the common wenches and proſtitutes, as it is all over the eaſt. It is reckoned indecent in people of any reputation to ſing; and the attempting it in company would render a man contemptible. The Perſians call their ſinging-women Caine, intimating that they derive their ſkill from the daughters of Cain, who they pretend were the firſt inventors of ſinging and muſic in Aſia. They have a great number both of ſtring and wind inſtruments of muſic; ſome reſemble in ſhape our hautboys and flutes, others the viol, harp, virginals, kettle drum, and trumpet; the latter of which is the moſt diſagreeable and monſtrous inſtrument for ſize and ſound, that can be met with: it is commonly ſeven or eight feet long, and proportionably wide at the great end, and as much as a man can hold up: theſe and their drums nearly drown all other ſounds; though as we have obſerved, the leſſer inſtruments have no great harmony in them. Their muſic, as it is called, ſerves chiefly inſtead of clocks, to let people know the time of day or night, ſounding conſtantly at certain hours, for they have no bells. When the king or any great man goes out of his palace, you have always notice of it by theſe drums and trumpets, which are placed over the palace-gate, or in ſome balcony or gallery, and are ſounded upon ſuch occaſions, being heard at a great diſtance. Muſic and dancing girls are in ſome places appointed to go before a great man when he travels, and conſtitute part of his equipage.

The ſtrings of their inſtruments are never made of gut, the touching of any thing belonging to a dead animal, eſpecially the entrails, being accounted a pollution; they make them, therefore, of twiſted ſilk, or braſs wire. The playing upon a muſical inſtrument ſeems to be prohibited by their religion; for which reaſon their eccleſiaſtics and devotees will not be preſent at entertainments where they are uſed; ſo that we need not wonder that the ſcience is not arrived at greater perfection in Perſia. Except ſome of the king's, their muſic is hardly worth the hearing: it being chiefly performed by a ragged ſtrolling rabble, for a livelihood, either upon feſtivals, the circumciſing of a child, or other joyful occaſions.

The people of the eaſt look upon aſtrology as the key to futurity, and they have an inſatiable curioſity for prying into things to come. The Perſians term aſtrology the revelation of the ſtars; and aſtronomy is ſtudied in Perſia purely for the ſake of it. This ſeems to be the principal end of their ſtudies; and they look upon a perſon to be to the laſt degree ſtupid and ignorant, who ſpeaks ſlightly of this ſcience, falſely ſo called. The aſtrologers of Perſia, at leaſt the moſt celebrated, are all natives of the province of Choraſan, or Bactria, and of the town of Genabed. The king never entertains an aſtrologer who is not of that town. The reaſon that the aſtrologers here have more ſkill in their art than elſewhere, is, we are told, becauſe the air is drier and purer, by which means they have a better opportunity of obſerving the motions and aſpect of the ſtars. If we conſider the number of aſtrologers that are in Perſia, the rank they hold, and the large penſions they receive from the crown, we may eaſily account for the confidence the people put in them: they receive from the government no leſs than four hundred thouſand pounds per annum. To the poſt of chief aſtrologer to his majeſty there is annexed a penſion of ten thouſand pounds per annum, and to the ſecond aſtrologer five thouſand pounds per annum, and to the reſt according to their ſkill. They receive alſo in preſents annually from the king, one year with another, two hundred thouſand pounds; and yet they are ſometimes arbitrarily puniſhed and put to death, according to the caprice of the prince, for the moſt trivial of offences, and even for actions the moſt innocent in themſelves: of which we ſhall give an inſtance.

In the reign of Sephy, on a day when the king and all the great men were aſſembled to ſee ſome criminals of ſtate cut in pieces, and the chief of the aſtrologers was there among the reſt; the king, viewing attentively the countenances of his courtiers, obſerved, that the principal aſtrologer ſhut his eyes at every ſtroke of the ſabre, as not able to behold ſo horrid a ſlaughter: the king thereupon called to the governor of a province who ſat near him, and commanded him to put out the eyes of that dog who ſat at his left hand, ſince he did not uſe them. It is evident that the ſtars had never revealed any part of the aſtrologer's deſtiny to him; for this cruel order was executed upon him in an inſtant.

A certain number of aſtrologers are conſtantly retained in waiting at the royal palace, and ſome of the chief of them about the king's perſon, except when he is in the haram with his women, who advertiſe him of the lucky or unlucky moments. Every one of them carries an aſtrolabe hanging at his girdle, in a little neat caſe, not bigger than the hollow of one's hand; they are conſulted not only in affairs of importance, but frequently upon the leaſt trifles: for inſtance, If his majeſty ſhall go abroad? If it be an auſpicious hour to enter the haram? If it be a proper time to eat, or to give audience? &c. When theſe queſtions are aſked, the aſtrologer immediately takes out his aſtrolabe, obſerves the ſituation of the ſtars, and, by the aſſiſtance of his tables, makes his aſtrological concluſions, to which intire and implicit faith is always given.

Eclipſes of the ſun and moon, are in general pretty juſtly calculated by the Perſian aſtronomers, who often foretel the very moment wherein thoſe luminaries will be obſcured; though there have been inſtances of their miſtaking half an hour, eſpecially in eclipſes of the ſun. But they differ from us in nothing more than in the calculation of the vernal equinox; there being ſometimes an hour's difference between them and the Europeans. Comets, they apprehend, always portend ſome great calamity; but generally ſuppoſe their malign influences are directed againſt ſome other kingdom, rather than their own. They had neither celeſtial globes, or charts, or teleſcopes for obſerving the conſtellations, till the Europeans imported them; they have ſince indeed endeavoured to imitate the celeſtial globes; having had before only ſome repreſentations of the conſtellations in a book called, The plan-

of Abdal Rahmen. It is obſervable, however, that the figures were nearly the ſame as on our globes; the longitudes and latitudes of the ſtars are alſo marked, but a little different from ours. They generally make forty-eight conſtellations; and the names of them, for the moſt part, are the ſame we give them; but ſome of them are different. The only inſtruments they uſe in any of their operations are the aſtrolabe and Jacob's ſtaff; and as with theſe alone they take the elevation of the pole, it cannot be ſuppoſed that their latitudes are very exact. Their aſtrolabes are very curiouſly made, being chiefly the workmanſhip of the mathematicians themſelves.

Takumi is the name given to the Perſian almanac, which contains the ephemerides of the enſuing year. It contains properly a mixture of aſtronomy and judicial aſtrology, giving an account of the conjunctions, oppoſitions, aſpects, longitudes, latitudes, and the whole diſpoſition of the heavens. It alſo contains prognoſtics on the moſt remarkable events, as war, famine, plenty, diſeaſes, and other occurrences in human life; with the lucky or unlucky times for tranſacting all manner of affairs, whether of importance, or not; directing the people to regulate their conduct accordingly. The feſtivals alſo are marked as in our almanac; but whereas we divide the year into four ſeaſons, they make only two, ſummer and winter. Though there are great numbers of theſe almanac-makers, and though they frequently diſagree even in their aſtronomical calculations as well as their aſtrology, they are nevertheleſs looked upon as infallible. Their prognoſtications are generally taken from the moon, believing that this ſublunary world, as it is termed, is much more influenced by this planet than by the ſun. Theſe aſtrologers, like other oracles, generally deliver themſelves in dubious and equivocal expreſſions, which may bear half a dozen meanings; and if their productions prove true in any ſenſe, or but in part, they are ſure to meet with applauſe, though they ſhould fail in ſome inſtances. They ſeem to regard the earth more than the heavens, and to be governed by probable circumſtances, rather than the conſtellations, in the predictions they make; and their predictions on that account frequently prove true. For inſtance, their almanacs are always publiſhed in the ſpring, when the winter is paſſed; and, according to the weather they have had, it is no difficult matter to foretel whether they ſhall have good or bad crops in the ſummer, eſpecially in a climate where the weather does not vary as in Europe; and from the ſame premiſſes they will be able to paſs a tolerable judgment on the health or ſickneſs of the enſuing ſeaſons.

As the aſtrologers are always about the court, and have ſo great a ſhare in the adminiſtration of affairs, and are in ſuch credit with all the world, they may be ſuppoſed to make very ſhrewd gueſſes in relation to politics. They cannot but obſerve the humours and diſpoſition of the prince and his favourites; the likelihood there is that one will be reſtored, and another diſgraced. Nay, they very well know what an influence they have in theſe caſes, inſomuch that there very rarely happens a conſiderable alteration in the ſtate, but it is brought about, and indeed is the effect of ſome prediction of their own.

There are ſeveral kinds of divination in uſe among the Perſians; for they do not believe that the ſtars reveal, and are indeed the cauſe of every accident and moral action; but alſo, that God is pleaſed to let them know their fate by lots, by the throw of a die, or even by toſſing up a piece of money; when theſe are done with due ſolemnity, and a religious ſerioufneſs. The aſtrologers are alſo profeſſors of the art of divination, though the Mahometan prieſts come in for a ſhare by this gainful trade; and for this purpoſe the very alcoran, their moſt ſacred writings, are proſtituted. When the prieſt is applied to, he makes a preparation ſuitable to the quality of the perſon who conſults the oracle. He purifies himſelf by bathing, puts on a clean robe, and having repeated certain prayers, he takes the alcoran in his hand, and opens it at a venture; and if the place he caſts his eye upon contains a poſitive command, the prediction is favourable, and the perſon may undertake the thing; but if it contains a negative, the contrary, and he ought to lay aſide the deſign. The greateſt doctors, from a regard to their learning and ſanctity, are the moſt ſought after on theſe occaſions.

There are offices for the diviners and aſtrologers in all the great towns of Perſia, where they tell fortunes, and interpret dreams. Beſides other methods, they have alſo a folio book, containing about fifty pictures, ſome repreſenting the ſigns of the zodiac, and others their prophets and ſaints; from this they pretend to give the interpretation of dreams, and diſcover all that is demanded of them.

Another part of the Perſian ſuperſtition conſiſts in charms and amulets. The amulets have certain inſcriptions on paper, and ſometimes on precious ſtones, and theſe inſcriptions they wear in little bags about them: they contain ſome paſſages of the alcoran, or ſentences of their ſaints or prophets, applicable to the diſeaſe or enchantment complained of. They depend alſo much on the diviners and aſtrologers with reſpect to the obſervance of days and times: and the aſtrologers, when the king is on a journey, will ſometimes make him riſe at midnight and begin his march in the worſt weather that can happen, and perhaps out of the high road, to avoid the unfortunate hour, or his evil ſtars.

The Perſians reduce their philoſophy under three heads; namely, phyſics, metaphyſics, and logic. Their great maſter is Ariſtotle, whom they have tranſlated into Arabic. Till very lately they did not believe there were Antipodes: but are of another opinion ſince the Europeans have viſited them. The philoſophy of Pythagoras, which prevails in India, is here taught by a ſect of Mahometans, called Sefys. Theſe underſtand the alcoran, and all its precepts; and, whatever regards external worſhip in religion, in a ſpiritual ſenſe; and though they practiſe corporal purifications with the other Mahometans, they do not look upon them as eſſential to their religion, which occaſions the reſt of their church to hate them mortally. They profeſs love to all the world, and to hate no man. They conſider all men as proceeding from one common father, and people of different ſects and perſuaſions as all ſervants of the ſame maſter; they teach that the joys of Paradiſe conſiſt of an intimate knowledge of, and a ſtrict union with, God; and that hell conſiſts in a regret for being ſeparated from him. Ethics, or moral philoſophy, ſeems to be more cultivated than any other in Perſia. Thoſe who profeſs it, ſhew a perfect reſignation under all misfortunes, and ſpeak of death, and even ſuffer it with great evenneſs of temper. Moſt moral virtues, particularly patience, fortitude, and temperance, ſeem to be deeply impreſſed on them.

Little can be ſaid of the geography of the Perſians, as they had neither terreſtrial globes, maps, or planiſpheres, till the Europeans introduced them. They thought there was a ſmall part of the earth habitable; and compared it to an orange ſwimming in a veſſel of water, the greateſt part whereof remains under water.

Hiſtory is but little cultivated in Perſia. They are ſo far from knowing any thing of the hiſtory of Europe, or any diſtant country, that they are ignorant of that of their neareſt neighbours; nor has the hiſtory of their own nation any thing of certainty in it, till the eſtabliſhment of the Mahometan religion among them. Their hiſtories, before that time, are but ſo many legends, without the leaſt appearance of truth. They pretend that the world was created ſeveral thouſand years before Adam; and that it was firſt inhabited by dæmons and ſpirits, who, rebelling againſt God, were thrown into hell, and that God introduced Adam and his poſterity in their room.

The Perſians begin their year at the vernal equinox. They complete their years by the number of moons, reckoning twelve moons to a year, or thee hundred and fifty-three days, ſo that their ſolar computation exceeds their lunar at leaſt twelve days in the year. Their epoch begins with the hegira or flight of Mahomet, which was in the month of July, ſix hundred and twenty-two years after the birth of Chriſt. And as the Jews computed their time by jubilees, the Chriſtians by indictions, the Romans by luſtras, and the Greeks by olympiads; the Perſians alſo, in ſome caſes, account by a revolution of four years.

Their week begins on the Saturday; ſo that the ſeventh day, which is their ſabbath, falls on a Friday: they call it adine, or tzemeh, that is the day when they aſſemble for religious worſhip. Upon the nuries, or new-year's-day, the great men wait on the king to wiſh him a happy new year, every one making him a valuable preſent, as do the chams who preſide over diſtant governments.

They divide the day into four equal parts, and the night into as many: and they have a hollow brazen veſſel with a little hole in it, which they ſet upon the water, and is filled in about the ſpace of three hours, and, when it ſinks, the watch is expired: of which notice is given by the public drums and trumpets in all great towns.

The Perſians call a phyſician hakaym, or the preſerver of life. There is not a country in the eaſt where phyſicians are in greater eſteem, or that produces a greater variety of medicines and phyſical drugs: it is a common ſaying in Perſia, that the aſtrologers and phyſicians devour the country. The king always entertains vaſt numbers in

in his pay, who are not leſs chargeable to him than his aſtrologers; but there is an eternal variance between them: for when the phyſician has preſcribed and prepared the medicine, the patient muſt wait till the aſtrologer aſſigns the lucky moment to take it: and if it has not the wiſhed-for effect, the aſtrologer imputes it to the ignorance of the phyſician, who, on the other hand, tells his patient that the reaſon it had no better ſucceſs, was, becauſe there was a miſtake made in the calculation of the aſtrologer.

The diſeaſe is chiefly judged of by feeling the pulſe, or conſidering the patient's urine, by which the phyſicians learn the diſtemper without ſeeing them; which ſeems neceſſary in Perſia in relation to the female ſex, who are never ſeen on any occaſion whatever; and when a phyſician deſires to feel a woman's pulſe, they give him her hand covered with crape or fine linen, having all the while a curtain between them. They ſeldom bleed in Perſia, but give emulſions and other potions in a fever, which is the moſt ordinary diſtemper in the country, and of theſe four or five pints ſometimes in a morning; but they never give clyſters, which ſome think proceeds from an exceſs of modeſty, or rather from a prohibition reſulting from their religion.

That the patient may not be diſpirited, the phyſicians tell him, with the greateſt aſſurance, if he is at death's door, that there is no manner of danger, and that they will reſtore him in a few days. In their preſcriptions, they always follow Galen, whom the Perſians call Galenous. The other great maſters in phyſic are Hermes Triſmegiſtus and Avicenna, or Abouſina, as they call him, the moſt celebrated phyſician and philoſopher of Aſia in his time.

In ſurgery the Perſians are very ignorant: their barbers are the only ſurgeons, and few of them underſtand any thing more than blood-letting. There is not a phyſician in Perſia that ever ſaw a body diſſected; but they have the leſs occaſion for ſurgeons, becauſe the air is ſo good, that green wounds almoſt heal of themſelves, and they are exempt from many of thoſe maladies which ariſe from a corruption and flux of humours among us.

The Perſian phyſicians are both druggiſts and apothecaries; and have their ſhops and ſervants to make up their medicines. The phyſician demands nothing for his advice, but only for his medicines, where the patient comes to the houſe; it is, however, uſual to make him a preſent. When the phyſician viſits the patient, he has about two guineas for the firſt, and one for every ſucceeding viſit; notwithſtanding there are multitudes of phyſicians in Perſia, the country in general is very healthy, except near the ſea-coaſt, and this is thought to proceed either from the dryneſs of the air, the temperance of the people, or the ſerenity of their minds.

Though the neighbouring kingdoms of Turky and India are ſeldom free from the plague, yet it very ſeldom viſits Perſia. They are equally ſtrangers to the ſtone, ſciatica, head-ach, and tooth-ach; and though it is true, many of them have the venereal diſeaſe, yet it is not attended with thoſe pernicious effects there, as in Europe: there are not thoſe blotches and breakings out which are found upon thoſe who have that diſtemper amongſt us. They eat, drink and bathe together, when they are affected with it; nor is any body aſhamed of having contracted it, but they ſpeak of it as of any other ordinary diſtemper; frequent bathing is thought to be of great ſervice to the Perſians under that diſorder, though it may communicate it to others.

The falling-ſickneſs, apoplexy, conſumptions, and ſmall-pox, are ſcarcely known amongſt them: but the diſeaſes the Perſians are moſt ſubject to, are fevers, St. Anthony's fire, pleuriſy, colic, dyſenteries and dropſies. Near the gulf of Perſia they are troubled with a ſmall worm of a prodigious length, which breeds in their legs: they are drawn out by twiſting them round a ſtick; but if they happen to break in the operation, it is of very bad conſequence to the patient. Near the Caſpian ſea, the common diſtemper is the yellow jaundice; and travellers obſerve that the people in general in Hyrcania have a yellowiſh ſickly countenance.

A fever is very ſoon removed by the Perſian phyſicians, but then they frequently throw the patient into a dropſy. Whatever may be the firſt diſeaſe with which the patient is attacked, the ſwelling of his legs generally ſucceeds, and it is frequently a great while before this is removed; it very often carries them to their graves, a dropſy being more fatal in Perſia than any other diſtemper. In the colic, and ſeveral other diſorders, they uſe burning and cauterizing: this is their laſt remedy, where the perſon is afflicted with wind. In a dyſentery, they give ſour milk, boiled with rice till it is dry. For the hæmorrhoids, they apply the oil of naptha. They never ſuffer the ſick perſon to change his linen or his clothes while the illneſs laſts, or to eat bread or fleſh: boiled rice, or a kind of gruel made of it, is almoſt the only diet of a ſick man; but in almoſt all diſtempers, the moſt general remedy in Perſia is the bath.

The baths in Perſia conſiſt of three rooms, the light into which is communicated from little round quarries of glaſs in the arched roof: the firſt is a great room, with wooden benches round about it; here they put off their clothes, and dreſs themſelves for the bath. The ſecond, which moſt commonly is ſquare, is ſix feet diameter, and has a kind of copper three or four feet ſquare ſet in the floor, covered with a flat copper-plate, which heats the water and the bagnio, the fire being underneath on the outſide. In the third room is the place for bathing. In the morning before day a ſervant goes up to the terrace on the top of the houſe, and ſounds a ſhell or horn, to give notice that the bath is ready.

When any perſon comes to bathe, he undreſſes himſelf in the firſt room, and ties a cloth about his middle, which reaches down to his knees; then he enters into the ſtove, whither a few moments after a ſervant comes, and pours a quantity of water on his ſhoulders, rubbing him from head to foot in ſo rough a manner, that thoſe who are not uſed to it think he is about to flay them: he afterwards ſhaves the perſon's face and head, if he deſires it, cuts the nails of his fingers and toes, handles his body, ſqueezes and rubs it, and ſtretches every finger and limb, as if he was about to diſlocate them; and this takes up about a quarter of an hour. After the perſon has been thus ſtretched and ſqueezed, he goes and plunges himſelf into the bath, and, being wiped with a clean linen cloth when he comes out, he returns into the firſt room, and puts on his own clothes again. The time limited for the men's bathing is from twilight in the morning till four in the afternoon, and the women go from that time till midnight.

When it is the women's turn to bathe, all the male ſervants of the bagnio withdraw, and are ſucceeded by girls.

The ladies are never ſo finely dreſſed as when they come to bathe; this is the only opportunity they have of vying with each other in the article of clothes, and their perfumes and eſſences are enough to ſtifle a perſon who is not uſed to them. In the bath called Collatin, at Iſpahan, ten perſons may bathe at once: but if you go to thoſe large baths the latter part of the day, the ſurface of the water will then be perfectly thickened with a greaſy matter which ſwims on the top of it, and proceeds from the infirm bodies of thoſe who waſh in it, and appears very nauſeous. But the Perſians who are uſed to it; when they plunge themſelves over head and ears into the water, as they are obliged to do when they would cleanſe themſelves from any legal pollutions, only ſtrike away the thick ſcum with their hands, and then throw themſelves in: and it is ſurpriſing that the Perſians are ſo healthy as their florid countenances demonſtrate they are, when we conſider that all ſorts of people, the infirm and the healthful, the infected and ſound, bathe together in the ſame water.

Perſons of diſtinction have bagnios in their own houſes; and thoſe of a lower rank have them adjoining to their houſes, the uſe whereof they reſerve to themſelves at certain times, but let them out to others, upon condition only of providing the neceſſary veſſels and other implements for bathing, and keeping up a conſtant fire in the place.

With reſpect to their painting, the Perſians do not, any more than the Chineſe, endeavour to imitate nature, but ſeem to delight in miſ-ſhapen and monſtrous figures; nor do they know any thing of perſpective. The Europeans far exceed them, both in the liberal and mechanic arts. One reaſon why they apply themſelves no more to painting and engraving, probably is, becauſe their religion diſcourages them; their preciſe doctors prohibit the repreſentation of every created animal. A Mahometan would not perform his devotions where there was a picture in the room, for the world. There are not in Perſia, at preſent, either ſtatuaries or founders, or any emboſſed work made. They draw their pictures commonly with a ſide face, ſcarcely ever with a full viſage; and when they do, they ſucceed very ill, for they do not know how to give the ſhades; even the figures of animals are aukwardly done. Their flowers are pretty well; and they have the advantage of us in the livelineſs of their colours, which are hardened and poliſhed by the dryneſs of the air.

It may not be amiſs to enquire into the education of the Perſians, and of their ſchools and colleges erected for that purpoſe. There are abundance of ſchools in every town, where, beſides the Perſian, the Arabic is taught. The alcoran

alcoran (which is looked upon as the ſtandard of good language, both for grammar and rhetoric), and their other ſacred writings, are all in this language. Perſons of condition chuſe to have private tutors for their children, before they ſend them to the public ſchools.

There are a great number of ſchools in every town in Perſia, and the expence of learning is very ſmall. Their ſchools are called Mekteb, which ſignifies an entrance; this being, they ſay, the gate, by which lads enter into the ſciences. They are taught here the Perſian and Arabian languages, with writing and accompts; which when they are arrived at ſome perfection in, they are removed to ſome college, or Medreſs as they call them, where their doctrine and the principles of their religion are taught. Their colleges are all endowed, and ſome of them very rich; the largeſt have fifty or ſixty apartments, and to each of them belong two chambers. In the beſt colleges, every ſcholar has about two ſhillings a day allowed him, which he lays out as he thinks fit; for they do not common together as with us. In ſome colleges the ſtudents have not more than a penny a day; and yet intereſt is made to get admitted into theſe, on account of having a lodging gratis, and other caſual advantages. Many, whoſe principal deſign ſeems to be to indulge in eaſe and idleneſs, get into them without any deſign to ſtudy, who live to old age in thoſe houſes, and have their wives and children with them.

We ſhall not be ſurpriſed to find that there are abundance of colleges in the great towns and villages of Perſia, when we conſider that theſe people lay out great ſums of money in public foundations. They uſually, firſt of all, build a caravanſera for the lodging of travellers gratis, afterwards a bagnio, a coffee-houſe, a bazar or market-place, and they alſo purchaſe a garden: theſe they let out, and apply the revenues ariſing from them towards building and endowing a college. The founder and his heirs have the appointment of the head and governors of the ſociety; and if the founder's eſtate happens to be forfeited to the crown, the king has the nomination.

In Iſpahan, there are forty-ſeven colleges, moſt of them of royal foundation, or which have devolved to the crown. There are profeſſors who teach the ſciences in every college, to whom the ſcholars make an annual allowance for their trouble; but as there are ſeveral who read lectures gratis, the ſcholars frequently reſort to theſe, and forſake their proper tutors. Thoſe ſtudents who are men of parts and learning, may have a handſome ſalary in any great man's houſe, for inſtructing his children, who are always educated in their own houſes. The head of the houſe admits or excludes whom he ſees fit, and pays the ſtudents their penſions monthly, ſo that they ſhew him abundance of reſpect.

Beſides their colleges, there are in every town thoſe who teach the liberal arts gratis; and theſe are frequently great officers who have been diſcarded, or have voluntarily retired from court. Theſe frequently furniſh their diſciples with books and paper, and entertain them at their own expence certain days in the week, and ſometimes clothe their pupils, and give them money: by which acts they endeavour to recover their reputation with the people: for nothing ſo much raiſes the reputation of a gentlemen in Perſia as the inſtructing a certain number of ſcholars at their own charge, and the being patrons of learning and learned men. There are no public diſputations or lectures in Perſia, as in Europe; but when the ſcholors have made ſome progreſs in the ſciences, they begin to diſpute with their reſpective tutors.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Riſe and Eſtabliſhment of the preſent Royal Family in PERSIA, the Prerogative and abſolute Sway of the PERSIAN Monarchs, Miniſters, Government, and Succeſſion of the Crown, together with a Continuation of the PERSIAN Hiſtory, to the preſent Time.

IT is a received opinion among the Perſians, eſpecially by their clergy, that none but prophets, their ſubſtitutes or ſucceſſors, have a right to dominion. They obſerve, that God has in all ages governed his people by prophets, who directed both the ſpiritual and temporal affairs; as Abraham, Moſes, Samuel, David, Solomon, and laſtly Mahomet, to whom, as they aſſert, ſucceeded Haly and the twelve Imams.

In order to give ſome account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of the preſent royal family, we muſt obſerve that Tamerlane having defeated Bajazet, and marching through Perſia with great numbers of Turkiſh and Perſian captives, Chick Aidor, a doctor of law in great reputation for his ſanctity among the Mahometans, obtained of him the releaſe of moſt of his priſoners, which ſtill increaſed the fame of the Chick; inſomuch that when Tamerlane marched away, the Chick entertained thoughts of aſſuming the ſovereign power. The better to accompliſh his deſign, he gave out, that he was lineally deſcended from Haly, the ſon-in-law and only legal ſucceſſor of Mahomet; and took upon him the title of Calif, which ſignifies prieſt as well as prince. Iſmael Sefi, or Sophi, followed his father's ſteps, and, being ſucceſsful in ſeveral battles, eſtabliſhed himſelf in the government; and is reckoned the firſt king of the preſent dynaſty or family. To Iſmael Sophi ſucceeded Shah Thomas, who, being a cruel prince, was depoſed, and ſucceeded by his brother Mahomet Codabundi, who was a weak man, and famous for nothing but being the father of the great Shah Abbas, who reigned about an hundred years ago. This prince enlarged the empire on every ſide. He took the province of Candahor from the Great Mogul, conquered the kingdom of Lar and Ormus, and drove the Turks almoſt out of Armenia and Georgia. He encouraged all arts and ſciences; and as he found the Perſians were not at all inclined to foreign trade, he tranſplanted the Armenians of Julpha to Iſpahan, and made them his factors and merchants in every part of Europe and Aſia, where there was any traffic; and as he obſerved the pilgrimages to Mecca carried great quantities of treaſure out of his dominions, he went himſelf a pilgrimage to the tomb of Imanrezez, which is ſituated in Perſia, in hopes his ſubjects would carry their pious alms thither, and the money might circulate in his own country: he was ſo ſevere againſt thoſe who were guilty of the leaſt fraud, that he ordered a cook to be roaſted alive, and a baker to be baked in his own oven, for keeping of falſe weights. But with all his virtues, Shah Abbas has been generally charged with cruelty, eſpecially towards his ſon Sophi Mirza, a prince of great expectations, and the darling of the people.

Sefi Mirza, by being bred up among the ſoldiery, and frequently commanding them in the moſt hazardous enterprizes, became extremely reſpected in the army. Whether he was really concerned in any conſpiracy with the generals to depoſe his father, does not appear; but the king was ſo apprehenſive of it, that he did not think himſelf ſecure while his ſon lived. Some writers tell us, that Shah Abbas having rendered himſelf odious to the principal chams by his repeated cruelties, they made an offer of advancing Sefi Mirza to the throne; which the father being made acquainted with, commanded a nobleman, who attended him, to bring him his ſon's head: but he excuſing himſelf, another courtier, named Bebut Bey, undertook to do it, and, ſurpriſing Sefi Mirza as he came out of the bagnio, attended only by one page, acquainted him it was his father's pleaſure he ſhould die, and immediately ſeized the unfortunate prince, and threw him upon the floor, who, lifting up his eyes to heaven, cried out, "Good God! what have I done to merit this diſgrace? Curſe on the traitor who was the occaſion of it: but ſince it is God's will, his and the king's be done." The words were ſcarce ended, when Bebut ſtabbed him twice with a poniard, and, cutting off his head carried it to his father. This tragical event the people were no ſooner acquainted with, than they aſſembled at the palace gates, and it had well nigh occaſioned a general inſurrection.

The mother of Sefi Mirza upbraided the king with his cruelty and tyranny, and, in the tranſport of her paſſion, flew in his face; all which his majeſty took very patiently, and with tears in his eyes demanded of her, "What ſhe would have had him do, when he was informed there was a conſpiracy againſt his life: beſides, it was now paſt redreſs: that none had a greater ſhare of grief than himſelf, and of two evils he had choſen what he then eſteemed the leaſt; though if his ſon was alive again, he would run any hazard, rather than take the ſame meaſures." And indeed he diſcovered all the ſigns of grief imaginable: he covered his face and would not ſee the light for ſeveral days; he mortified himſelf by faſting, and mourned a whole year; and in the place where his ſon was killed, he built a ſanctuary, endowed it with large revenues; and, to revenge himſelf on the Perſian lords, who had inſtilled theſe fears and jealouſies of his ſon into his head, he ordered them to be invited to a feaſt, and to mix poiſon with their wine, and ſaw every one of them expire before his face. The king commanded Bebut Bey, who had murdered the young prince ſo readily and officiouſly, to cut off the head of his own ſon; and when he brought it to his majeſty in

his hand, he told him, that the reflection of what he had done, would certainly bring him to his grave; the king replied, that now he was capable of judging what his grief muſt be, and bid him comfort himſelf, that in this particular he was equal to his royal maſter. Shah Abbas, having reigned about forty years, died anno 1628, appointing his grandſon Shah Sefi, or Sophi, the ſon of Sefi Mirza, his ſucceſſor, who was at that time not fifteen years of age.

The adminiſtration continued in the ſame hands Shah Abbas had left it in for ſome time: but Shah Sefi was no ſooner come to man's eſtate, than he began to call the principal miniſters to a ſevere account, and cut off the head of Ali Kouli Chan, viceroy of Perſia, who had deſerved well of his country, and contributed as much as any general to the conqueſts that were made in the late reign: he alſo ſent for the heads of his three ſons, and of ſeven other great lords of the court. His reign was violent and tyrannical; and he drank to that exceſs, that in one of his debaucheries he killed the queen, for which he was under the deepeſt concern when he grew cool, and prohibited the drinking of wine in any part of his dominions; but in a year's time he fell again into the ſame courſes, which put a period to his life, after he had reigned fourteen years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Shah Abbas II. being then about twelve years of age.

This prince was greatly reſpected for his bravery, and hoſpitality to ſtrangers, eſpecially Chriſtians; but ſo addicted to his father's vice of drunkenneſs, that he ordered three of his women to be burnt becauſe they refuſed to drink as long as he did. According to ſome, he died of an inflammation cauſed by hard drinking; while others affirm, that he was carried off by the venereal diſeaſe, after he had reigned one and twenty years.

Shah Sefi the ſecond, ſucceeded his father. But the grandees, apprehending that this prince had been dead, were about to advance his younger brother Hamzel Mirza to the throne, till they were undeceived by an old eunuch, who aſſured them that Shah Sefi was alive. This prince changed his name, and took that of Solyman: it is obſerved, that in his reign the kingdom was afflicted with war, famine, and epidemical diſtempers; but his government was much milder than that of his immediate predeceſſors: he died on the 29th of July 1694, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Shah Sultan Hoſſein, whom his father expreſsly enjoined, not to put in practice that cruel cuſtom of putting out the eyes of his brothers; but whether he obeyed his commands is uncertain, it being difficult to know what is done in the ſeraglio. We have before related, that this prince, after a long and indolent reign, was depoſed by Mahamood the ſon of Mereweys; who being aſſaſſinated by Eſdriff, one of his officers, who ſucceeded him, Shah Thomas, the young ſultan, invited Kouli Khan or Shah Nadir, to join his forces; which he conſenting to, Eſdriff was defeated, and put to a cruel death. Kouli Khan afterwards defeated the Turks; elated by his ſucceſs, and aſpiring to the empire, he depoſed and afterwards murdered Shah Thomas.

As there are ſeveral remarkable and well authenticated circumſtances, of more recent date, relative to this uſurper Kouli Khan, we ſhall here introduce a particular account of him. He was born at Chalat, in 1687, which principality he was heir to. Being offended at his uncle's treatment of him, he repaired to Choraſan, and entered as a private ſoldier in the Perſian army in 1712, and was in 1719 promoted to the rank of colonel. The governor of Choraſan afterwards gave him the command of the Perſian troops in that province; with which he defeated the Uſbeck Tartars. Being afterwards diſguſted at the conduct of the governor, who contrary to his promiſe, had promoted a young nobleman to the rank of general in preference to him, he upbraided the governor in ſcurrilous terms, who ordering him to be baſtinadoed, he afterwards fled to the mountains where he headed a band of robbers, with which he ravaged the country, and plundered the caravans. His uncle having obtained his pardon for theſe outrages, he repaired to Cholat, where he ſoon afterwards murdered his uncle, and poſſeſſed himſelf of the place which had been deemed impregnable. Becoming exceedingly formidable by the addition of ſix thouſand bold and hardy troops, he attacked and took the city of Nechabar by ſtratagem. In 1728, he was appointed commander in chief of the Shah's forces, and received the diſtinguiſhing title of Tachmas, or Thomas Kouli Khan. After the murder of Shah Thomas, he declared Abbas Mirza, an infant ſix months old, and the ſon of the late monarch, emperor, but reſerved the power and riches of the empire in his own hands. He afterwards marched againſt the Turks, drove them before him, and beſieged Bagdat; but was defeated in a moſt bloody battle, on the 18th of July 1733, by Topal Oſman, at the head of one hundred thouſand men; his army conſiſting of ſeventy thouſand; but he afterwards defeated the Turks in two battles, in the laſt of which they loſt forty thouſand men, with all their camp, and the brave Topal Oſman was among the ſlain. He afterwards marched to Schiras, where he cruſhed a powerful rebellion; and in 1734, gained great advantages over the Turks and Tartars, reducing the open country of Georgia and Armenia. In 1735, he deſtroyed great part of the Turkiſh army at Arpa Kavi; and in 1736, the young Shah Abbas dying, he was elected emperor by the Perſian chiefs and nobles.

After his acceſſion to the throne, Nadir Shah became a moſt deſpotic tyrant, deſtroying the royal family, putting many of the nobility to death, and ſeized their eſtates, not even ſparing the church lands. He concluded a peace with the Turks and Ruſſians, and reduced the revolted Agſans to obedience. After theſe exploits, he defeated the armies of the Great Mogul, whom he took priſoner, poſſeſſed himſelf of Delhi the capital of Hindoſtan, put multitudes to the ſword, and plundered the empire of its riches to the amount of eighty-ſeven millions five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. Among other valuables was the imperial throne, intirely ſet with jewels: he alſo took three hundred elephants, ten thouſand horſes, the ſame number of camels, and a great quantity and variety of cannon and warlike ſtores. Theſe immenſe treaſures he depoſited in his principality of Chalat, putting them under the care of twelve thouſand Georgians, who were Chriſtians; he next made the Uſbeck Tartars tributary to Perſia. He quelled ſeveral inſurrections in the year 1741. In 1742, his eldeſt ſon attempting to murder him, was afterwards brought priſoner to his father, who ordered his eyes to be put out. He exerciſed the moſt ſhocking cruelties in all his expeditions: friends and enemies, armed and unarmed, were alike the objects of his barbarity: he demoliſhed whole cities and towns, laid waſte fertile provinces, plundered people of all ranks, and murdered ſeveral millions of the Perſians, and people of other countries. In 1744, he defeated and took priſoner a pretended prince whom the Turks had ſet up againſt him; but, to the ſurpriſe of every one, permitted him to eſcape puniſhment, though he beheaded two hundred and eighty-two of his followers. He defeated the Turks in 1745, and in 1746 and 1747 was engaged in ſuppreſſing rebellions and inteſtine commotions. After this time he was judged to be in a ſtate of inſanity; his actions being for the moſt part abſurd and unaccountable: and though a gleam of humanity would at certain times appear for a moment, yet avarice and the moſt deteſtable cruelty generally marked his conduct. As this cruel and blood-thirſty tyrant ſeemed to outdo in barbarity the moſt inhuman monſters of antiquity, he was at length become inſupportable; ſo that on the ſecond of July 1747, five of his principal officers aſſaſſinated and ſlew him in his chamber, but not before he ſtruck off the head of one with his ſabre, and wounded another. The people were overjoyed on hearing of his death, put to death his blind ſon, his grandſon, and even his women, that none of ſuch a deteſtable ſtock might be found to ſucceed him, and prove the ſcourge of mankind.

We have inſerted this account for the general ſatisfaction of our readers, as many of the hiſtorical and geographical books publiſhed of late years tend to diſappoint the expectations of the public, by deſcribing this country with reſpect to its ſtate before the time of Kouli Khan, omitting to give its true modern deſcription; treating of cities that are merely ideal, and provinces that are at preſent totally deſerted and uncultivated; of millions that have been deſtroyed, and magnificent ſtructures demoliſhed and laid in ruins. Since the above-mentioned tyrant aſcended the throne, that unfortunate country has remained in the moſt diſordered condition; and whatever revolutions may have ſince happened, they have not come to hand, ſufficiently authenticated for us to communicate to the public. But to proceed; no prince in the world is more abſolute than the Perſian monarch; he has the lives and eſtates of his ſubjects entirely at his diſpoſal: his orders are implicitly obeyed, be they never ſo unjuſt, or given at times when he is ſo little maſter of his reaſon, that he knows not what he ſays or does. Nothing can ſave the greateſt ſubject, when he is determined to deprive him of his life or eſtate; neither zeal for his perſon, preſent or paſt ſervices, will in the leaſt avail. If he is diſpoſed to ruin them, it is done by a word of his mouth, or by a ſign, and executed in an inſtant, without any form of law, or evidence of the fact: the common people, who are at a diſtance from the court, have greatly the advantage of the quality in this reſpect.

reſpect. There are very ſeldom inſtances of any oppreſſion or ſevere judgments executed upon theſe; but they ſeem to enjoy as much ſecurity as in any country in the world; and perhaps the magiſtrates are the more inclined to govern equitably, in regard they are ſenſible that nothing can ſcreen them from the reſentment of their ſovereign, if they are found to have acted contrary to law or equity.

The king's orders are obeyed out of conſcience by the people, who believe that his commands ought to be executed againſt the very laws of nature: ſo that if the ſon be commanded to be his father's executioner, or the father the ſon's, it muſt be complied with. But if any thing is enjoined to be done in prejudice of their religion, they are not obliged to obey him, but ought to ſuffer any thing rather than violate the law of God.

The king having commanded a prime miniſter in the Perſian court to drink with him, he excuſed himſelf, telling the king that he had been a pilgrimage to Mecca, and could not drink without violating the laws of their religion. To which the king anſwered, Thouſands have gone in pilgrimage to Mecca, and yet drink wine: drink, therefore, when your ſovereign commands you. But this gentleman ſtill refuſing, the king abuſed him in the groſſeſt manner, made the ſervants throw wine in his face, and down his boſom, and pour it into his mouth by force. Then he threatened him with immediate death, to which he anſwered, The king had a right to his life, but not to his religion; and he choſe rather to die than drink. And though his majeſty did not think fit to put his threats into execution, he turned him out of his employment: however, he was afterwards reſtored with abundance of honour, and the king ſeemed to value him the more ever afterwards for his reſolution.

It is recorded by an hiſtorian of credit, that Shah Sefi, without any provocation, ordered that one of the greateſt officers of the crown ſhould have his ears cut off in his preſence by his own ſon, which was immediately executed. Then he commanded the ſon to cut off his father's noſe, which he alſo executed. Whereupon the old gentleman finding himſelf thus abuſed by his own ſon, and by order of the king, whom he had not offended, ſaid to the cruel prince, Ah, Sir, after this, I ought not to live any longer, cauſe me therefore to be put to death; which he had no great trouble in obtaining; but that it might not ſeem a favour, he added to the cruelty of the order, by appointing his own ſon to be his immediate executioner, bidding him cut off his father's head, and he ſhould have his whole eſtate; which was readily complied with by this unnatural parricide.

Another proof of the tyranny of the Perſian government, is, the cuſtom of executing the governors of provinces, and great officers of ſtate, without giving them an opportunity of making their defence, or being informed of the crime they are charged with. It is uſual for the king, two or three times in a year, to ſend every governor the calaat, or royal veſt; and theſe are ſent by ſuch perſons as the court intends a favour to; for the cham, or governor, to whom they are ſent, always makes a conſiderable preſent to the meſſenger. When he comes within two or three miles of the place where the governor reſides, the meſſenger ſends him word to come and receive the calaat; but, inſtead of a fine coat, the governor is ſometimes preſented with a halter, and is diſpatched without any farther ceremony. This makes the governors very watchful over their conduct; and they are always under diſmal apprehenſions when they hear the calaat is arrived, knowing how common it is to have their beſt actions miſrepreſented to the prince. The Perſians ſay in defence of this practice, that the court ſeldom proceeds with that ſeverity, but in extraordinary caſes, where the fact is notorious, and there is danger of a rebellion, if they ſhould cite the perſon accuſed to anſwer; that if it be otherwiſe, they always give him an opportunity of anſwering the charge. The king looks upon thoſe about the court as ſlaves he has purchaſed, and dooms them to be puniſhed or put to death as he ſees fit, not thinking himſelf obliged to obſerve thoſe formalities.

There is no privy council of ſtate in Perſia, as in the European governments; but the king acts as he is adviſed by the prime miniſter and great officers: that which moſt perplexes the miniſtry, is, the cabals that are carried on by the women in the haram: the reſolutions that are formed here frequently thwart their beſt laid ſchemes; and the miniſters do not only run the riſque of having their counſels rejected, but they very often turn to their own deſtruction if they are not ſuitable to the intereſt or inclination of the moſt favourite ladies

With reſpect to the ſucceſſion of the crown of Perſia, we muſt obſerve that it is hereditary in the male branches, but the females are excluded: but the ſon of a daughter may inherit, though his mother could not. What ſeems moſt particular in their laws of ſucceſſion in Perſia is, that a blind man ſhall not inherit; and as thoſe males who proceed from the female branches are as capable of ſucceeding as thoſe who derive themſelves from the males, that cruel policy of putting out the eyes of all that are allied to the crown is executed upon every male of the royal family, whether they proceed from ſons or daughters. As there are no common executioners in Perſia, the orders for putting out the eyes of the royal infants are executed by any one the king happens to pitch upon; and they are not content with doing it by a hot iron held to them as formerly, but the very eye balls are ſcooped clean out with the point of a knife or dagger, according as the perſon is provided who is ſent on the buſineſs; but who not being uſed to ſuch operations, the poor children are put to inexpreſſible torture, and ſometimes loſe their lives under their hands.

The Perſians ſeem to excuſe this barbarous cuſtom of putting out the eyes of the royal infants, by telling us, that it prevents all diſputes about the ſucceſſion, and a great deal of bloodſhed; and that they are more merciful than the Turks, who deſtroy every branch of the royal family. On the other hand, the Perſians permit them to live, give them wives, and ſuffer them to enjoy all the pleaſures that blind men are capable of in the haram. But how melancholy muſt it be for theſe miſerable princes to reflect, that all the males which proceed from them will be ſerved in the ſame manner themſelves have been, and have their eye-balls torn out of their heads!

SECT. IX.

Giving an Account of the pompous Titles of the PERSIAN Monarch, the Arms he aſſumes, &c. alſo of the Princes of the Blood, Prime Miniſter, great Officers of State, Generals, eccleſiaſtical Officers, civil Magiſtrates, &c.

THE uſual title of the king of Perſia is Shah, or Paſha, the diſpoſer of kingdoms, which is the higheſt title known in Aſia, and equivalent to that of emperor in Europe. He is alſo ſtiled Sultan, Khan, Caun, or Cham. One of their kings, in his letters, ſtiled himſelf, victorious Lord of the world, the moſt valiant prince deſcended from Chelk Sephy, Mouſſa and Haſſein. His ſubjects, in their addreſſes, call him, the moſt renowned of all men living; the ſource of power, majeſty, and glory, equal to the ſun, ſubſtitute of Heaven, object of all men's vows, &c. &c. With theſe, or ſuch titles, all petitions and repreſentations to the throne abound: but when they ſpeak to the king, they uſually ſtile him the Lieutenant of God, or the prince by whom God diſpenſes his grace and favour to men. The princes of the blood royal are called Mirza, &c. ſignifying the ſon of a prince. The arms of the king of Perſia are a lion couchant looking at the ſun as it riſes over his back.

The Perſians, like the Romans, prefer all men indifferently to poſts in the ſtate and army: the gown-men ſometimes command as generals, and ſoldiers ſit as judges in the courts of juſtice, and the ſame perſon has been prime miniſter and high prieſt. Regard is ſeldom paid to a perſon's birth and fortune in his promotion; but the king diſpoſes of places as he apprehends his ſubjects qualified for them. They enjoy their poſt during life, and ſometimes their children after them, where they have behaved well.

The commiſſion of a great man, intended to be inveſted in an office, is ſent to him written on a roll of paper two or three feet long, in a fine large character, mixed with gold and colours, and put into a purſe made of gold brocade; and with it is ſent the calaat, or rich habit which the king always gives to thoſe he deſigns to honour. The new officer immediately goes to court clothed in the royal habit, and, when the king appears in public, he proſtrates himſelf three times before him with his face to the ground, after which he riſes up and takes his place in the preſence-chamber, or room of ſtate, according to his rank. When a perſon is diſgraced, it is done by ſending for his commiſſion, or the ſeal of his office, as the caſe is, and ſometimes he is ordered to confine himſelf to his houſe till his majeſty's pleaſure is farther known. If a great man is apprehended for any crime, they take all his family and near relations into cuſtody, and confiſcate their goods and eſtates, if found guilty; otherwiſe, the owners have them reſtored.

The



Thornton sculp.

GRAND PROCESSION *of the* PERSIAN AMBASSADOR

When sent to transact Public Affairs *with a* Foreign State.

The Atamadoulet, Grand Vizir, or Vizir Azem, is the firſt miniſter in the kingdom. No buſineſs of conſequence in the ſtate is tranſacted but by the direction of this miniſter, nor any grant or act of ſtate of the king's held to be valid till counter-ſealed by him. The prime miniſter in Perſia, if it be thought fit to diſcharge him, is uſually permitted to retire and end his days in peace with his family; whereas, on the other hand, the grand vizirs in Turky, ſeldom die a natural death.

The Divan Beghis, or Bey, is the ſecond poſt in the government: his office is uſually compared to that of lord chief juſtice or lord chancellor; but they are ſuppoſed to centre in the ſame perſon in Perſia. The word Beg, or Bey, ſignifies Lord, and that of Divan a counſel or court to whom the adminiſtration of juſtice is committed.

The generals are of the third rank: in time of war, a generaliſſimo is appointed. The next place is poſſeſſed by the general of the courtchis, which are a body of thirty thouſand horſe of Turkiſh or Tartar original. The third place among the ſoldiery is the general of the muſqueteers, a body which ſerve on horſeback, but fight on foot, like our dragoons. The fourth is the general of the coulars, or royal ſlaves, as they are called; and the laſt, the maſter of the ordnance.

The Vacanaviſh, or ſecretary of ſtate, occupies the next poſt. This officer regiſters the public acts, and has the care of the records: he alſo appoints a deputy in every province of the empire, who tranſmits all affairs of conſequence to him, to be laid before the miniſtry.

The Mirab, or lord of the water, is the laſt great officer. Every province has its particular mirab, who takes care to diſtribute the waters of the rivers and aqueducts in ſuch proportion, that every part of the country may have an equal ſhare. Theſe are the principal officers of ſtate in Perſia.

The officers of the houſhold are, the Nazir, who ſeems to be both lord treaſurer and ſteward; and all ambaſſadors and foreigners tranſact their affairs with this gentleman: but there is a comptroller, and ſeveral other officers which are a check upon him, as he is on the prime miniſter, and thoſe two have a very great influence in the court of Perſia.

The Ichicagaſi Baſſa commands all that attend in the outward palace; as the maſters of the ceremonies, porters, uſhers, and the guards themſelves. When the king goes out, this lord marches before him with a great ſtaff covered with gold and precious ſtones. He always ſtands ready to obey his majeſty's orders, and ſee them executed; but never ſits before the king, as ſeveral other officers of inferior quality do.

The next office is the maſter of the horſe. All the ſtuds and ſtables of the horſes in the kingdom are under his government, and that of a great number of officers who are ſubordinate to him.

The great huntſman is the fourth officer of the king's houſhold: he has not leſs than a thouſand huntſmen and followers under him. They carry to the chace, when the king hunts, lions, ounces, panthers, and dogs, who are all bred to follow the game.

The principal phyſician and chief aſtrologer, which are poſts of great honour and profit, take place after the great huntſman.

The high chamberlain is alway's a white eunuch, and has as great an influence on affairs as any officer about the court. He ſerves the king at table on his knees, taſtes his meat, dreſſes and undreſſes him, has the overſight of the wardrobe, and the government of all the eunuchs in the palace.

The chief eccleſiaſtical officers are, the Grand Pontiff or High Prieſt, the Ancient of the Law, the Cadi, and the Mufti. The grand pontiff is uſually ſtyled the Sedre in Perſia: they alſo give him the title of Prince of their religious rights, Head of the true church, ſubſtitute of Mahomet, and Lieutenant of the twelve Imans or Caliphis, who ſucceeded their patriarch Haly.

The ſupreme judge in the eccleſiaſtical courts is the Sedre, who takes place in all public aſſemblies next to the Atamadoulet or prime miniſter. The ſecond eccleſiaſtical judge is the Antient of the Law, whom the Perſians ſtyle Cheik Iſlam: his juriſdiction is little inferior to the Sedre's. The Cadi is the third eccleſiaſtical judge in Perſia: he takes cognizance of the ſame cauſes with the two former: but his authority is confined to ſome particular town or diſtrict. The Mufti is the fourth officer, who has not the ſame authority here as in Turky; for he cannot controul or reverſe the proceedings of inferior courts. The other dignitaries and eccleſiaſtical officers have no manner of juriſdiction, and are kept pretty much in ſubjection to the temporal power, upon account of thoſe pretenſions they make to the ſupreme authority, and other principles they maintain, not very conſiſtent with the power of the crown.

The chams, in their reſpective provinces, live in as much ſtate as their ſovereign, having exactly the ſame kind of officers as are in the king's court, with the ſame titles; there being ſcarce any other difference but in their numbers and penſions. They have their poſts for life; and if they behave well, their children after them.

There are three officers in every province put in by the government, who are independent of the cham; namely, the janitchin his lieutenant, the vizar or receiver general of the king's revenues, who hath alſo the management of the lands belonging to the crown, and the government of all places where the crown lands lie; and, thirdly, the vacanaviſh, or ſecretary, whoſe buſineſs it is to take an account of all tranſactions of moment in the province, and tranſmit them to court.

There are other officers, which are independent on the cham, namely, the governors of cities and caſtles, who are called Daroga; theſe are put in directly by the king, and have their lieutenants and vacanaviſh alſo independent of them; and the ſame perſon who is governor of the city, is never made governor of the fort that belongs to it. There are alſo in every town the cadi or civil judge; the mayor or head officer among the trading people, and the provoſt or ſheriff: and every particular trade has a warden or maſter. There is an officer alſo not unlike our conſtable, who has a watch, and is concerned in keeping the peace in the night-time in every great town.

Capital puniſhments are very rare in Perſia, and the ſentence is in moſt caſes paſſed by the king himſelf. The governor of every town is the chief judge in criminal and civil caſes too, if he pleaſes to interpoſe; and may inflict any pains on offenders ſhort of death. The uſual puniſhment is a fine, which always goes to the king, or rather to the governor of the province, who generally brings the crown indebted to him in his accounts.

The vizirs and receivers of the king's revenues uſually obtain their places by virtue of the preſents they make to the eunuchs or favourites at court, and by engaging to increaſe the revenue of the province beyond what it has ever been before; and they generally keep their word, at leaſt to their patrons and friends that promoted them, and to the enriching themſelves. Complaints indeed are frequently carried to court againſt them; but by the artifices of the miniſters concerned in the booty, it is a long time before they get acceſs to the king. When the complaint is from a large country, there are uſually ſeveral hundreds of the perſons aggrieved come up with it to the palace-gate through which the king uſually goes out, and there with lamentable cries, rending their clothes, and throwing duſt into the air, they demand juſtice. If they come to deſire an abatement of their rents or taxes on account of the drought or unſeaſonable weather, as they frequently do, they carry with them withered branches of trees, or ſuch as have their leaves devoured by locuſts; whereupon the king ſends to be informed of the occaſion; and the people preſenting their petition in writing, ſome great officer is appointed to examine their buſineſs.

Whenever his majeſty orders a governor's head to be cut off, the order is diſpatched by the prime miniſter under the king's ſeal, and ſent by ſuch a perſon as the king thinks fit. When the meſſenger arrives at the place, he goes to the houſe of the lieutenant, governor, or ſome other great officer, and ſhews him the king's order, and that the execution is appointed to be done in his preſence: whereupon he takes him with him to the houſe of the perſon proſcribed, and, producing his order, he falls upon the unfortunate man, and cuts him to pieces with his ſabre, crying out only when he falls upon him, "by the king's command." Whenever a miniſter is diſgraced, though the government do not proceed capitally againſt him, yet his whole eſtate is confiſcated, and he experiences a moſt terrible reverſe of fortune in a moment, being deprived of his goods, his ſlaves, and ſometimes of his wives and children.

Notwithſtanding places in the Perſian court are ſo precarious and frequently hazardous, no people in the world purſue preferment with a keener appetite: they come to court morning and evening, although for the moſt part they cannot hope to come into the king's preſence; becauſe he is frequently for ſeveral days ſucceſſively with the ladies in the haram.

SECT.

SECT. X.

Treating of the PERSIAN Laws, Courts of Juſtice, Proceedings in Criminal Caſes, and Puniſhment of Offenders.

THE chief law-book reſorted to by the Perſians is the alcoran: if they do not find the deciſion clear there, they have recourſe to the book called, The ſayings and acts of Mahomet, and afterwards to the ſayings and acts of the Imans; and they have yet another book called cheraiet, which is a collection of judgments both civil and criminal, but they are couched in ſuch obſcure and equivocal terms, that the judges in their interpretations make them ſpeak what language they pleaſe. There ſeems indeed but little occaſion to conſult theſe books at all; for the king, the governors of provinces, and vizirs, frequently ſit in judgment, and determine arbitrarily without regard to the alcoran or any other law-books.

Though the ſpiritual and temporal courts differ very much in their determinations, yet there never are any diſputes between them: for the temporal courts having the government on their ſide, are never oppoſed by the ſpiritual; and beſides, each of them has, for the moſt part, a diſtinct branch of buſineſs aſſigned it. The eccleſiaſtical courts take cogniſance chiefly of deeds and contracts, marriages and divorces, ſucceſſion of eſtates, and other litigious matters. The temporal courts are employed either about criminal cauſes, or ſuch as are plain and obvious, about which there is not much room for diſpute: and if there be any intricacy in the affair, they generally require the opinion of ſome of the learned doctors of their law.

A man is at liberty at any time to claim his right, even the party's own deed will not avail him where he can ſhew any force or fraud, or that he was impoſed upon. Where there are no witneſſes, an oath is tendered to the perſon who denies the charge; and he is ſworn upon the alcoran with great ſolemnity. When the judge ſends for the alcoran, which being brought him in a linen-cloth, himſelf and all the court riſe in reſpect to the ſacred book; then the judge, taking it in both his hands, reverently kiſſes it, and touches it with his forehead; and, having opened the book, offers it to the perſon who is to ſwear, who kiſſes it in the ſame reverent manner the judge has done, and, putting his hand upon it open, ſwears to ſpeak the whole truth. When a perſon of a different religion is to ſwear, the oath is adminiſtered agreeable to the mode obſerved in their reſpective countries. Every magiſtrate hears cauſes in his own hall, or ſome convenient room in his garden, as there are no tribunals or courts erected at the public charge: he has no other aſſeſſors or aſſiſtants but a clerk or ſecretary, who is a man of law.

Writings and conveyances ought legally to be ſealed and executed before a migiſtrate, and atteſted by him; and it is a common thing, after the judge has atteſted a writing by putting his ſeal to it, for the parties to deſire all perſons who happen to be about the court to add their ſeals; ſo that there are ſometimes three or fourſcore ſeals to one deed: but they do not ſign them as with us. There are neither notaries, clerks, or regiſters in Perſia to record any kind of contracts except marriage contracts, which are regiſtered before the Cadi, but the parties uſually keep authentic copies and counter-parts by way of caution.

As there are no public priſons in Perſia, ſo there are no ſheriffs or gaolers who have the cuſtody of priſoners; but every magiſtrate who has the cogniſance of theſe offences, confines the priſoner in ſome part of his own houſe till he is brought to his trial, which is uſually in twenty-four hours after he is taken; and ſentence is no ſooner paſſed than it is executed: ſo that there is very little occaſion for a common gaol, and the judges ſervants perform the office both of gaolers and executioners.

The proceedings in the criminal courts are much the ſame as in the civil. The party aggrieved exhibits his petition to the magiſtrate, who orders a ſervant to apprehend the offender, and bring him before him; and when he has been examined, ſometimes the ſame day, or at fartheſt the next, he is ordered to prepare for his trial. Criminals of ſtate have the carcan or three-cornered yoke put about their necks, to which the right hand is faſtened; and the king uſually ſits in perſon in judgment on ſuch offenders, at which time he is always clothed in red. Tumults and diſorders are ſeverely puniſhed in Perſia, which is one reaſon they very rarely happen; and murder and houſe-breaking are ſcarcely ever heard of.

If a perſon is ſo unfortunate as to kill another, and the fact be proved before the judges, the offender is not puniſhed by the court, but delivered up to the relations of the deceaſed, to put him to death in ſuch manner as they ſee fit. On ſuch an occaſion as this, all the relations and friends of the deceaſed aſſemble, and with loud cries demand that, according to ancient cuſtom, they may have the blood of him who was murderer of their kinſman; which the magiſtrate ſeldom fails to promiſe them: but ſometimes the murderer, by preſents to the judge, and offers of large ſums to the relations of the deceaſed, procures a pardon. If the relations will be ſatisfied with nothing leſs than his blood, the judge ſays to them, "I deliver to you the murderer according to law, make yourſelves ſatisfaction with his blood for the blood that he hath ſpilt; but remember that God is merciful." The judge's ſervants hereupon are ordered to obſerve the directions of the proſecutors, and guard him to the place they deſire; and they follow the criminal with a thouſand curſes, beating and abuſing him all the way he goes. When he is come to the place appointed, he is delivered up to the relations, who ſometimes inflict the moſt cruel tortures they can invent on the miſerable wretch; and even the women, it is ſaid, who ſcarcely ever appear abroad on any other occaſion, will come and imbrue their hands in the offender's blood.

Ordinary crimes are uſually puniſhed by fines, where the parties are men of ſubſtance; but where they are not, they give them a certain number of blows with a cudgel on the ſoles of their feet, not under thirty, and not exceeding three hundred. Their feet are ſwollen with the blows and turn black, and ſometimes the nails of their toes come off. Pick-pockets and little pilfering rogues are marked with a hot iron in the forehead, and houſe-breakers have their right-hand cut off. The ſame puniſhment is inflicted on thoſe who counterfeit or debaſe the coin, for the firſt offence; but for the ſecond their bellies are ripped open. This is the uſual puniſhment for capital offences: and they execute it after this manner: the criminal's feet are tied to a camel, and his head hanging down to the ground, his belly is ripped open, ſo that all his bowels come out, and hang over his head: he is dragged in this manner through the principal ſtreets of the town, an officer marching before him, and with a loud voice informing the people of the nature of his crime. He is afterwards hanged up by the heels upon ſome tree, and it is ſometimes ſeveral hours before he expires.

They have other kinds of puniſhments for capital crimes, as impaling, ſetting them up to the chin in the earth, cutting off the hands and feet, and leaving the criminal in this condition till he dies. They ſometimes precipitate the malefactor from a high tower, by which he is daſhed to pieces: this puniſhment is commonly inflicted on women who have committed capital crimes. They ſometimes uſe tortures to procure a confeſſion, as pinching off the fleſh with red-hot pincers: but the moſt ordinary way of examining offenders, is, while they are beating the ſoles of their feet, called the baſtinado.

There is no part of the world where people travel with greater ſecurity than in Perſia. But if a perſon happens to be robbed, the rabdars or guards of the road, are immediately diſperſed all over the country, give notice of it from one guard to another, and the country is raiſed upon them in an inſtant: and as there are very few woods to conceal themſelves in, and large deſerts to croſs before the robber can diſpoſe of his booty, it is ten to one but he is apprehended. When complaint is made to any governor of a robbery, he ſends for the rabdars, neareſt to the place where the robbery was committed, and requires them to make ſatisfaction, on pain of forfeiting the ſecurities they have given for their places; for they all give bond to make ſatisfaction for ſuch robberies as are committed in their limits: but if they are not able to do it, he orders them to be baſtinadoed, and the money to be levied on the neighbouring villages; and ſometimes as much more as there is occaſion for, which goes into his own or his officers pockets. Beſides this, the party robbed is obliged to make the governor a handſome preſent, on the returning him his money or effects. If a robbery be committed in a city, the watch are obliged to make ſatisfaction, or produce the thief.

SECT. XI.

Giving an Account of the Haram, or the Apartment of the Women belonging to the King of PERSIA, in the Royal Palace of ISPAHAN, their Treatment in general, the Guards, &c.

THERE are ſeveral diſtinct buildings in the royal haram, which have no communication with each other. The following are the ranks of women who reſide there;

there; namely, 1. The princeſſes who are born in the place, whom they call Begum, as they do the princeſſes of the blood royal in the Mogul's court. 2. Thoſe by whom the king has any children or who are his miſtreſſes; theſe have the title of Canum, which is equivalent to that of cham or chan among the men. The third and loweſt rank, whom the king has never taken to his embraces, and many of whom he hardly knows, have the title of Katun, or ladies only. All the reſt have the common appellation of ſlaves, and are employed in ſervile offices.

When a king dies, thoſe ladies he has converſed with as wives are ſhut up in a quarter by themſelves, from whence they are not permitted to ſtir out as long as they live, except the mother of the ſucceeding prince, who has generally a mighty influence on affairs, and almoſt ſovereign authority, within the limits of this palace.

A great variety of beauties are confined in the king of Perſia's haram: for the chans and governors are continually ſending up a freſh ſupply of young virgins from all parts of the empire. If they have intelligence of a woman of ſingular beauty in any family, they immediately demand her: and it is ſaid, their parents are not very averſe from parting with their daughters, but rather proud they have an opportunity of obliging their prince; eſpecially ſince it may be a means of raiſing the wholy family; for whenever a young lady enters the ſeraglio, a penſion is ſettled on her neareſt relation. If ſhe become a confident or miſtreſs to his majeſty, it is increaſed; and if he have children by her, ſhe ſeldom fails to procure the advancement of all her relations. There are the daughters of the governors of provinces, and the greateſt lords of the court, in the haram; but there are many more Georgians and Circaſſian virgins of meaner birth, who generally captivate the young monarch's heart, as they are ſaid to exceed all the reſt in beauty.

The unnatural and cruel practices of the haram are ſaid to be very ſhocking. While the king is without children, every one of his miſtreſſes is fond of having them, as they are in hopes their iſſue will ſucceed to the crown, on which their happineſs very much depends; but when they find the king has ſeveral children already, they do all they can to prevent their being with child, or procure abortion when it happens; for, except the firſt happy woman that has a child, the reſt, after they have any, are confined to an apartment, where they live in perpetual apprehenſions of having their children murdered or deprived of ſight at leaſt, upon barbarous maxims of ſtate, which ſeldom fails to be executed ſooner or later, either in the reign of the preſent king or that of his ſucceſſor. Hence the ladies of the haram principally aim at being married to ſome great man; which they ſometimes accompliſh by inſinuating themſelves into the good graces of the king's mother, the mother of his eldeſt ſon, or the king himſelf. The women of the haram are alſo ſometimes married to clear the palace and leſſen the expence, when they grow too numerous: but they ſeldom ſend them out of the haram who have been with child by the king; which is one reaſon they are not very fond of his favours.

The guards of the haram conſiſt of three bodies: namely, 1. The white eunuchs, who guard the outward gate; theſe never come within ſight of the women, leſt it ſhould excite ſome amorous inclinations in them. 2. The black eunuchs; theſe come properly from the coaſt of Malabar in India: their ſtation is in the ſecond court; and the eldeſt and moſt deformed of theſe are picked out to attend the ladies, and carry meſſages backwards and forwards: the reſt are employed either in the gardens, kitchens, or other places remote from the womens' apartments. The third and innermoſt guard, it is ſaid, is compoſed of women who are commended by ſome antiquated matron that receives orders from the prince himſelf, and, by the eunuchs which attend, conveys his majeſty's commands to the guards without. The women of the haram are all lodged in ſeparate chambers, or two in a chamber at moſt, and then they put an old woman and a young one together. Thoſe ladies who delight the king moſt with their ſinging, their dancing, or their wit, are ſure to become the envy of the reſt.

The king is never formally married to any of his miſtreſſes, but takes which of the ladies in the haram he ſees fit to his bed, without any manner of ceremony. The miſtreſſes he is intimate with are but a ſmall number: the others indeed ſing, and dance, and play before him, and contribute to his pleaſures in another manner; but, from the diſtractions he meets with from a variety of conſorts, he generally fixes upon ſome one who may properly enough be ſtyled the queen of the haram.

The ladies in the haram paſs their lives in idleneſs and luxury, lolling almoſt the whole day on carpets, with their little ſlaves rubbing and chafing them, which is the moſt common amuſement in the eaſt. They ſometimes take opiate, or ſmoke their country tobacco, which is ſo mild, that it may be taken from morning till night without diſturbing their heads. Their food is dreſſed by their ſlaves, who alſo make and waſh their clothes. The ladies never viſit out of the palace, but they are viſited by their relations. Other ladies of the greateſt quality in Perſia ſcarce ever go abroad but upon ſome extraordinary occaſions, as to a wedding, a lying-in, or upon ſome feſtival: but their viſits uſually laſt ſeven or eight hours. They take with them their female ſlaves and eunuchs, and the huſband uſually ſends a governante and eunuchs of his own to obſerve their conduct till their return.

The king's ladies ſeldom ſet out from the haram but in the night: a troop of horſe uſually marches a hundred paces before them, and another troop in the rear, crying out, Courouc, courouc, by which every man underſtands he is to retire to a proper diſtance: the eunuchs with their battoons alſo on horſeback march between the guards and the women; and if any man is found in the way, or within the limits prohibited, he certainly loſes his life. If they march through a city, the men of the ſtreet they march through, and thoſe adjoining, are all obliged to leave their houſes and fly to ſome other part of the town, as thoſe of the villages in the country are for a league together on the right and left of the road through which they are to march; and a detachment of dragoons is uſually ſent half a day before to drive them away. They fire their muſkets at little intervals as they march, to give notice of their approach, and all men who hear it fly as faſt as they poſſibly can; and it is ſaid, there have been frequently inſtances of people being killed by the eunuchs, who have not been ſo wiſe, or rather ſo fortunate, as to get out of the way in time: for if a man ſhould be faſt aſleep, or dangerouſly ill, he is liable to be killed. We are told, that in the reign of Abbas II. one of the ſervants, whoſe employment it was to ſet up the tents, being weary with the march, after he had put the tent in order, laid himſelf down to ſleep, the king and his women being then at a conſiderable diſtance: but the fellow happening to overſleep himſelf, and being found there by the eunuchs, they wrapt him up in the carpet he lay on, and buried him alive.

There are a vaſt number of eunuchs diſperſed through the whole kingdom of Perſia, eſpecially in the king's palaces, and thoſe of the quality, where they have almoſt every thing of value intruſted to their care, and in a manner conduct the affairs of their maſters. The women never ſtir abroad without them, either on a viſit, or even to the baſh: but they are not permitted to interrupt their privacy in their chambers. The eunuchs alſo teach the children of the family to read and write, and inſtruct them in the principles of their religion, till it is thought fit to put them into the hands of the learned; and even then the eunuchs have the care of the young gentlemen, not ſuffering them to be at any time out of their ſight; and the king's children, who never ſtir out of the haram till they come to the throne, have no other maſters. Some few of theſe eunuchs are verſed in the liberal and mechanic arts; and it is happy where the prince who ſucceeds falls into the hands of one of them, for otherwiſe he comes as a mere novice to the throne.

In Perſia, an eunuch between eight and ſixteen years of age is ſold for a hundred pounds at leaſt; and ſometimes for two hundred, according to their capacities: they chuſe to buy them young, becauſe of breeding them up to their hands, and they ſeldom change their maſters while they live. The king does not entertain leſs than three or four thouſand eunuchs of one ſort or other: men of the firſt rank have uſually half a dozen; and thoſe of inferior quality, two or three in their houſes. They are generally very diligent in their reſpective employments, and faithful to their maſters. Their whole deſire and ſtudy ſeems to be, to procure the eſteem and confidence of their lord, which their prudent management ſeldom fails to obtain. But with all theſe good qualities, it is ſaid, they are found to be revengeful, deceitful, and unmerciful, and that it is very rare to find a man of true courage among them.

SECT. XII.

Treating of the Power and natural Strength of the Kingdom of PERSIA; its Situation with Reſpect to the circumjacent Countries, and the PERSIAN Manner of engaging their Enemies.

PERSIA is not a deſpicable kingdom, if we conſider its vaſt extent, ſituation, or the condition of its neighbours,

bours. As to its ſituation, it is defended on every ſide either by ſeas, deſerts, or lofty mountains, which render the approach to it extremely difficult; and with reſpect to their neighbours, they have none except the Turks that they need have any apprehenſion of. The Tartars on the north are divided into a number of little diſtinct principalities or hords, and only make incurſions on ſmall bodies, but will ſeldom ſtand a pitched battle. The Indians are a contemptible enemy, whom the Perſians have always beaten; and the Turks have been ſo taken up with their wars with the Chriſtians, that they have not been at leiſure to turn their arms againſt Perſia for many years. The wars between Perſia and Turky ended with the taking of Babylon, or Bagdat, by the Turks: Perſia has enjoyed a profound peace on the ſide ever ſince. This town was conſtantly the bone of contention between theſe two mighty powers; but the Perſians finding great difficulties both in taking and keeping this place, were at length contented to give it up.

The Perſian forces conſiſt of the troops of the ſtate, and the king's troops. Thoſe of the ſtate are entertained by the governors of the reſpective provinces, and paid out of certain lands appropriated for that purpoſe, and are divided into militia and regular troops. The regular troops are called courtchis: they were originally of Tourcomania, or Tartary; a ſtout hardy race of people who lived in tents. Theſe are the ſoldiers who are properly called cooſelbaſhes, or redheads, ſo ſtyled when they came to the aſſiſtance of the Chiek Sefi, the firſt prince of the late royal family; for which ſervice he allowed them the honour of wearing red caps or turbans of a particular form, like that he wore himſelf. They held the firſt rank in the kingdom till the reign of Abbas the Great, who endeavoured to diminiſh and ſuppreſs them, on account of the unreaſonable influence he obſerved they had in all affairs of ſtate, depoſing and ſetting up what princes they thought fit, like the Turkiſh janiſaries.

The muſqueteers, or troops of the crown, conſiſt of twelve thouſand men: though they march on horſeback, they fight on foot. Theſe uſed to be oppoſed to the Turkiſh janiſaries, and were of great ſervice in engagements. The other body conſiſts of ten thouſand horſe: theſe were called coulars, and, like the muſqueteers, carried fire-arms, inſtead of bows and arrows. They are tall and well made: and the king has a particular confidence in their courage and fidelity. They were called coulars, or ſlaves, to ſignify their particular attachment to their ſovereign; the term ſlave, in Perſia, as well as in India, being an honourable title, and preferable to that of ſubject; nay, we are told by a French author, that Coulam Shah, or king's ſlave, is equal to that of marquis in France, becauſe all that have that denomination are ſure to be preferred to ſome poſt, if they behave well.

There are two other ſmall bodies, the one antient, called ſophies, or ſephies, inſtituted for a guard to the king's perſon by Chief Sefi. They are not above two hundred men, and wear the Sophi's cap on their heads, and for their arms have a ſabre, a poniard, and an axe, which they carry on their ſhoulders. The ſecond body are called the ziezairi, or the ſix hundred, who are all of the ſize of grenadiers, and ſtout young fellows. The king finds all the troops with horſes, arms, and accoutrements, but every man provides himſelf with clothes according to his fancy: the ſoldiery have no particular livery, any more than the ſervants of the king's houſhold, or of any great man.

Conſidering the extent of the kingdom, the Perſian armies were never large; Abbas the Great had never more than one hundred and twenty thouſand men in his ſervice at once; but the ſoldiers have ſince that time been ſo ill paid, that many of them have entered into foreign ſervice, or applied themſelves to other employments: ſo that at this time it is ſuppoſed that all the troops in that vaſt kingdom do not amount to upwards of forty thouſand men.

The diſcipline of the Perſian troops is very unlike that of the Europeans, who excel them as much in the art of war as the Macedonians did the Perſians. Not being encumbered with artillery or baggage, they make prodigious ſwift marches, and frequently fall upon the enemy in his camp or quarters with incredible fury, when he leaſt ſuſpects ſuch a viſit. At other times they will cut off his proviſions, and turn their waters from their uſual courſe; and having ſufficiently harraſſed them in a long march through a deſart country, will fall upon him when he is fatigued and diſpirited. When an enemy makes head againſt them, they will fly till they have drawn him into ſome diſadvantageous ground, and then return to the charge again. They never throw up any entrenchments about their camps, which are commonly defended by ſome mountain, or difficult paſs; but they intrench in ſieges, and uſually take a place by undermining it, at which they are amazingly ſkilful. As they do not trouble themſelves with artillery, ſo neither have they any waggons or ſuttlers, their camp being ſupplied by the country people with proviſions, which chiefly conſiſt of rice and fruit.

The conſtant method of the Perſians is, when they are apprehenſive of an invaſion, to cauſe all the people to withdraw from the frontiers, and deſtroy the country in ſuch a manner, that the enemy ſhall find nothing to ſubſiſt on, not leaving ſo much as a blade of graſs or a tree upon the ground.

The Perſian colours are made of rich ſilk; for a device, they have ſome paſſages of the alcoran, or part of their confeſſion of faith; and ſometimes a lion, with the ſun riſing over his back, wrought in them. The great ſtandard-bearer, whom they call Alemdar Baſſa, is one of their principal military officers. The pay of the ſoldiers does not paſs through the officers hands; but every man receives it of the farmers of ſuch lands as are appropriated to that purpoſe; the officers pay is very good, the general of the muſqueteers, and the general of the coulars, have each of them upwards of three thouſand pounds a year. The Perſians are excellent markſmen, as well with their fire-arms as with their bows and arrows.

They uſually, in time of peace, keep a body of ſix or ſeven thouſand men in Chaldea towards Babylon, to prevent the incurſions of the roving Arabs. The governor of Armenia has about five thouſand men under his command, and the governor of Georgia a like number. In Choraſan, the antient Bactaria, they have uſually eight thouſand men, to bridle the Uſbeck Tartars; and another ſuch body in the province of Candahor towards India; and theſe troops, being the out-guards of the empire, and almoſt in conſtant action, are eſteemed pretty good; but the reſt who are cantoned in the inland country, they have enjoyed ſo long a peace, that they have not the air of ſoldiers.

Though the Perſians have a ſea-coaſt of three hundred leagues to the ſouthward, and the Caſpian ſea on the north, they have notwithſtanding no naval forces, or any ſhips or veſſels whatever. They formerly built ſome veſſels on the Caſpian ſea, to protect them againſt the Coſſacks; but they have none there or any where elſe at preſent. The Muſcovites generally tranſport the Perſian merchandize in their own veſſels to Aſtracan, and have the navigation of this ſea pretty much to themſelves, which has facilitated their conqueſts on that ſide; and it may be difficult for the Perſians to remove them, if they fortify the coaſt, and can be conſtantly ſupplied and ſupported by ſea from Muſcovy.

SECT. XIII.

Deſcribing the Revenues of the Crown of PERSIA; the different Tenures of Lands; alſo of the Lands belonging to the King, the Church, private Perſons, and unoccupied Lands, &c.

WE ſhall, in the firſt place, conſider the ſeveral tenures, by which the lands are held, and what kind of property the ſubject hath in his eſtate. The lands in occupation are of four kinds; viz. Firſt, the lands of ſtate. Second, the king's demeſne lands. Third, the lands of the church. And laſtly, thoſe belonging to private men. The lands of the ſtate are much the greateſt part of thoſe which are cultivated, and are in poſſeſſion of the governors of the provinces, who take their own ſalaries out of them, and aſſign the reſt for the payment of the officers and troops they maintain. The demeſne lands are the king's particular eſtate, for the payment of the officers of his houſhold, the troops he maintains, and other purpoſes. The church lands are the donation of their princes, or private men, and are accounted ſacred, being never taxed or confiſcated. The lands of private men are holden of the crown for the term of ninety-nine years, paying an inconſiderable annual rent; at the expiration of the term, it may be renewed for the ſame number of years on advancing one year's income. The unoccupied lands are let by the king's officers to perſons who chuſe to build on them, or convert them into gardens or plowed fields, on the ſame terms as thoſe laſt mentioned. The king's officers exact a third part of the annual produce of the lands let to huſbandmen; but the rent is ſometimes leſſened, according to the particular agreements of the parties, or an abatement made when any great deſtruction is made by hail, drought, locuſts, graſshoppers, or other inſects; and, if any diſpute ariſe, upon an appeal to court,

orders

orders are given to make ſuch allowance as the nature of the caſe requires. The king has likewiſe a third part of the huſbandmen's cattle, and a ſtill greater ſhare of the fruit. He has alſo the ſeventh fleece, and the ſeventh of the breed of the cattle in thoſe lands which are not appropriated to his uſe, which is a great addition to his revenue; for the ſhepherds of Perſia, like the antient patriarchs, poſſeſs vaſt flocks and herds, on which they continually attend. The people of the eaſt call theſe wealthy ſhepherds ſaranet chin, from whence we have the word ſaracen, meaning, an inhabitant of the fields. The king has an officer called Ichomban Baſhi, or chief of the ſhepherds, reſiding in every province, who takes the ſeventh of the cattle for the king's uſe, viz. of ſheep, aſſes, mules, camels and goats: the king is alſo entitled to every third colt, and to a third part of the ſilk and cotton.

The king of Perſia has the ſole property of minerals and precious ſtones, and two per cent. of all the money. The money raiſed by the waters is another conſiderable part of the revenue. A tribute of a ducat per head, is alſo paid to the crown by all people who are not of the religion of the country, whether natives or foreigners: and a tax of tenpence is impoſed on every ſhop of the working trades, and twenty-pence on the others.

As the Perſians have no conſiderable port except Gombron, conſequently their cuſtoms and port duties do not amount to much. The merchandizes carried into or out of Perſia, by land, pay only a ſmall ſum for a camel's load, and proportionably for every mule or ox.

The caſual part of the revenue exceeds all the reſt; it conſiſts in what ariſes from the confiſcated eſtates, and the preſents which are made by the great lords, governors of provinces, &c. and particularly thoſe which are made on new-year's-day. They preſent the king with wrought ſilks, horſes, aſſes, beautiful boys and girls, gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, perfumes, and every thing rich and curious, and which may ſerve for uſe, ornament, or pleaſure.

Several handicraft trades, ſuch as carpenters, maſons, and ſome others, pay no duties to the crown; but theſe are obliged to work for the king when he requires it, without any pay: whatever buildings or palaces the king erects or repairs, he has only the materials to find. The maintenance of ambaſſadors, and the providing them with carriages, is done alſo at the charge of the country they paſs through, and coſts the king nothing.

When the king has a mind to reward a perſon for any ſignal piece of ſervice, this is alſo done at the expence of another: he ſends him perhaps to one of the chans, or great courtiers, with the calaat or royal veſt; for which the chan uſually makes the meſſenger a preſent of ten times the value, or more, according to the poſt he is in. The king ſometimes expreſſes the very ſum he expects ſhould be paid; which is moſt commonly exceeded, as the perſon values the prince's favour.

The revenue of Perſia, one year with another, amounts to upwards of four millions ſterling of our money; which conſidering that their troops are moſt of them paid out of the lands of the ſtate, which are not reckoned into this account, is very conſiderable; but as the ſplendor and magnificence of the Perſian court is much beyond any thing we have ſeen in Europe, poſſibly very little of it may remain in the treaſury at the year's end.

We ſhall here take notice of the ſeals under which acts of ſtate are paſſed in Perſia: they have five ſeals which are uſed in five ſeveral branches of buſineſs; one is uſed in all ſuch affairs as concern the demeſne lands. A ſecond for commiſſions, letters patents, &c. The third only in military affairs. The fourth about the revenue. And the fifth in things relating to the houſehold. There are no arms engraven upon them; but on one of them there are the names of the twelve Imans or Patriarchs, on the others a ſcrap of the alcoran, or ſome pious expreſſion, ſhewing their dependance on God and his prophet Mahomet. The form of one of the ſeals is round, two others are ſquare, and the other two of an irregular form. The largeſt are of the ſize of a crown piece, and the others about half that bigneſs. They are made of turquoiſes, rubies, emeralds, or ſome other precious ſtones. The principal ſeal the king always wears about his neck.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Religion of the PERSIANS.

MAHOMETANISM is the Perſian religion, as explained and interpreted by Haſy, the nephew and ſon-in-law of Mahomet, and one of his ſucceſſors in the empire, and, according to the interpretations of the eleven Imans, the ſucceſſors and deſcendants of Haly in a right line.

The Perſians and Turks differ as much about the interpretation of the alcoran, as they do about the ſucceſſors of Mahomet; the Perſians hold that the comments made by Haly and his ſucceſſors the Imans, ought only to be regarded; while the Turks adhere to thoſe of Abubeker, Omar and Oſman, and theſe in many points are directly oppoſite to the other. The Perſian ſect, or the followers of Haly, are called Chia; and the Turks, who rely on Abubeker, Sunni. Neither of theſe ſects will believe that thoſe of the other can be ſaved, but hate one another to a greater degree than they do Chriſtians or Pagans, and ſeldom ſpeak of one another but with imprecations and curſes.

The Mahometans call their religion Iſlam, which ſignifies ſubmiſſion to the commands of God; but the ordinary appellation which they give themſelves is that of Muſſelmoon, which we pronounce Muſſelman, and ſignifies the being of the number of the faithful. In the beginning of Mahometaniſm, the diſciples of that religion were more cruel and ſanguinary than they are at this day, affording no quarter to thoſe who did not make a profeſſion of their faith in theſe words, namely, "There is no other God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet."

They have two articles of faith, and five of practice; 1. That there is no other God but God. 2. That Mahomet was ſent from God. 3. That they ought to obſerve their corporeal purifications. 4. That they pray to God at the appointed times. 5. That they give alms to the poor. 6. That they faſt all the month of Ramezan. 7. That they go in pilgrimage to the temple of Mecca, if they can. To which the Perſians add another article of faith, viz. 8. That Haly is the vicar of God. On theſe eight heads, therefore, I ſhall collect what the Perſians hold moſt material.

The Perſians hold, that good works are neither the cauſe nor the means of ſalvation; but that our good works are only a ſign we are intended for happineſs, and a mark of God's favour towards the performers of them; and, on the contrary, that wicked acts are a ſign of eternal reprobation. They alſo maintain, that all ſouls were created long before the world was made; and many of their doctors believe the metempſychoſis, or tranſmigration of ſouls; eſpecially in relation to the ſouls of the prophets, ſaints, and good men. The generality of them are of opinion that the creation was begun upon the firſt day of the week, as the Chriſtians do, and that then God created the earth in the form we ſee it, with mountains and valleys. That the ſecond day he created the trees, plants, flowers and herbage. On the third minerals, light and darkneſs. On the fourth the rivers, cattle, fiſh and fowl. On the fifth the heavens, with the ſun, moon, ſtars and angels. And that on the ſixth he created man, male and female.

They believe that both good and evil angels were made of the ſubſtance of light or fire; that they are compoſed of ſoul and body, and that their ærial bodies may be ſo condenſed as to become viſible. That the firſt time the evil angels diſobeyed God, the good angels fought with them, and brought them captives to heaven, where God pardoned them: but God afterwards creating man, and commanding all the angels to worſhip him, the evil angels, through pride, rebelled again; whereupon God curſed them, and precipitated them from heaven into that place which their deſpair and fury made a hell of.

As to what we call original ſin, they will not allow it to be a ſin in our firſt parents. They maintain that that act was only a deviating from perfection, or leaving the better for that which was not ſo good: and they found their opinion upon that ſuppoſition, that the prophets were impeccable and free from ſin, being ſanctified from their mother's wombs, and they eſteem Adam a prophet of the higheſt rank.

As to the day of judgment, they believe that there is a private judgment paſſed on every grown perſon ſoon after death. That in the mean time the ſouls of the faithful are filled with joy and comfort, while the wicked, on the contrary, ſuffer the cruelleſt pangs of remorſe. They ſay, the ſoul wanders from place to place till the body is interred; and that after it has undergone the firſt examination in the ſepulchre, it enters into a fine ærial body prepared for it, where it continues till the general reſurrection, when it will be reunited to its former body: for the ſoul, ſay they, can never act but by the mediation of ſome body: and they will by no means have it remain in a ſtate of inſenſibility till

till the laſt day. But the Perſians, it ſeems, are not all of one mind, either as to the place where departed ſouls ſhall remain, or their happineſs or miſery during this interval: but they have a middle ſtate for thoſe who have done neither good nor hurt as infants and fools; theſe, they ſay, ſuffer neither pleaſure nor pain, as they have deſerved neither the one nor the other.

They alſo believe, that in the reſurrection the ſoul ſhall be reunited to the very ſame body it parted with: but they ſay our bodies ſhall not be changed in any material point, they will neither be tranſparent nor aerial; they will not, indeed, be crooked or deformed, or ſubject to old age or infirmities, or troubled with excrements, &c. but, ſay they, if you deprive the body of all its ſenſes and appetites, and every thing that is material, with what propriety can you call it the ſame body? After the laſt judgment, they hold, that all men muſt paſs over a certain bridge no wider than a razor's edge: that unbelievers and the wicked will infallibly fall in their paſſage into hell, or the bottomleſs pit, as we call it, where they will be everlaſtingly tormented: but the faithful ſhall be ſo guided and ſupported, that they ſhall paſs over the bridge ſwifter than a bird flies through the air, and enter into heaven. Some believe that none can be ſaved but thoſe who believe in Mahomet; others, that good men of every religion may be ſaved; and a third ſort allow ſalvation to all thoſe who have been diſciples of true prophets, as the Jews and Chriſtians they acknowledge were: others believe that only atheiſts will be damned: and they ſay, that God will call to his aſſiſtance in judgment, Mahomet, Haly, and the Imans, his lawful ſucceſſors; and all other true prophets, who will every one intercede for their reſpective diſciples.

The Perſians differ among themſelves with reſpect to the beatific viſion: the general opinion is, that God will not be viſible, even to the happy, who will only behold a bright raviſhing light, ſuch a one as the imagination cannot at preſent conceive; but all their doctors hold, that there will be degrees of rewards and puniſhments, according as men have deſerved; and as the alcoran makes ſeven heavens for the bleſſed, according to the virtue they have attained to, ſo ſome of their doctors make ſeven hells for the wicked. Many of their doctors alſo take the promiſes and threatenings in the alcoran, relating to another life, in a ſpiritual and allegorical ſenſe; and that the happineſs of heaven conſiſts in being employed about ſuch objects as are proper for the ſoul, as in the knowledge of ſciences, and in the ſublime operations of the underſtanding; and after the body, it ſhall be furniſhed with pleaſures ſuitable to its nature, and receive as much ſatisfaction as it is capable of, but not by meats and drinks, and ſenſible enjoyments, as in this world. That hell alſo conſiſts in a cruel regret and deſpair for the loſs of paradiſe; and that the body will be afflicted with the moſt violent pains. If you demand of them whether they do not think that the beatific viſion will be a thouſand times more raviſhing and delightful than all the pleaſures of ſenſe: they anſwer, there can be no ſuch viſion, becauſe there muſt be ſome proportion between the power and the object; and that there is no proportion between a finite created thing and an infinite, and conſequently man can never ſee God. If you aſk them how they can ſuppoſe that in Paradiſe, where it is agreed on all hands that immortality reigns, we ſhould be taken up with corporeal things, which endure but for a time, and periſh in the enjoyment: they boldly tell us, that thoſe things are not made to ſupply any neceſſities of nature, but for pleaſure; and that all thoſe pleaſures we enjoy in this life, we ſhall enjoy in a much higher degree in heaven; for this world, they hold, is but a type of heaven, and all that we ſee came from thence, although it be extremely degenerated from the original.

If it be objected to them, that if we eat and drink in heaven we ſhall be ſubject to ſome neceſſities which follow eating and drinking: they anſwer, that thoſe delicious meats ſhall evaporate in a perfumed ſweat by the pores: and though it be generally ſaid that the Mahometan women are excluded heaven, this is only to be underſtood of the women of this world, who will not be in the ſame heaven with the men, but in another place will enjoy equal pleaſures: that there will be alſo other celeſtial women created for the faithful, far excelling any they have ſeen below. As to the duration of the world after the laſt day, the greateſt part of the Perſian doctors hold that it will not be diſſolved, but changed and purified; and ſhall afterwards be the habitation of bleſſed ſouls to all eternity.

As to the prophet Mahomet they teach, that God ſent him into the world unlearned and ignorant in every ſcience, to be his ambaſſador to all people, as well Arabs as Barbarians: and that this ambaſſador has abrogated all other religions, except in ſuch points as have been eſtabliſhed and ratified by him afreſh. That this unlearned prophet was divinely conſtituted Lord of all mankind, and that God has made the belief and profeſſion of all thoſe things which the prophet taught and commanded neceſſary to ſalvation.

The Perſians pretend that their prophet was bred up in ſuch ignorance that he did not know a letter; and this they make a great evidence of the divinity of his miſſion. They ſay alſo, that he was poor and friendleſs; and appear wonderfully ſurpriſed when they hear us ſay, that their legiſlator eſtabliſhed his religion by the ſword. And as our Saviour is ſaid not to have preached till he was two and thirty years of age, they ſay their prophet did not begin to preach againſt the worſhip of idols till he was forty years old. They tell us that God having intended from all eternity to ſend their prophet Mahomet into the world, he gave notice of it by all the prophets which preceded him: but that the Chriſtians on one hand have applied to Jeſus Chriſt, and the Jews to their Meſſias, thoſe things which were foretold of him, and which could not agree with any but Mahomet: and that they had ſuppreſſed and altered ſeveral other paſſages which treat of him: and this the Mahometans in general firmly believe. As to the common people, they admire that any one can deny Mahomet to be a prophet; but much more that he ſhould be thought an impoſtor. We, ſay they to the Chriſtians, acknowledge your prophet and honour him, and avow his miſſion, why then will you not acknowledge ours? and perſuade themſelves, that this can only proceed from pure malice: which is thought to be the occaſion they ſo much deteſt and abhor thoſe of our religion.

The third article of the Perſian creed is, 'that Haly is the Vicar and Lieutenant of God;' and indeed they exalt him ſometimes above Mahomet himſelf, and make him almoſt equal with God.

The Perſians never ſpeak with that deteſtation of any thing as they do of Abubeker, Omar, and Oſman, who were the rivals of Mahomet in power, and whom the Turks believe to have been the true ſucceſſors of their prophet, but the Perſians hold them to be no better than uſurpers: however the Turks do not equally abhor Haly, but acknowledge him to be the true ſucceſſor of the prophet after the three former, and frequently call them the four friends and companions.

The ſuperſtition of the bigotted part of the Perſians, reſpecting their purifications, is ſo extravagant, that if they were all equally affected with it, it would be impoſſible for people of another religion to live amongſt them; for they look upon themſelves to be defiled by the touch of a perſon of another religion, or by any thing that ſuch a one has touched, and by conſequence they will taſte no food dreſſed by one of another perſuaſion, or even drink out of the cup that he has uſed. Notwithſtanding the drinking wine is ſo expreſsly forbidden by their law, and their commentators are ſo very ſevere againſt the practice of it, ſeveral of them, and particularly the men of the ſword, will drink pretty freely of it; and when they are aſked by a Chriſtian how they do to diſpenſe with this precept; they anſwer, in the ſame manner as you diſpenſe with drunkenneſs and wenching, which is no leſs forbidden Chriſtians.

The bigotted Perſians lay much greater ſtreſs upon the ceremonial part of their law than the moral; their waſhings and purifications muſt be obſerved, whatever is left undone; having that maxim of their prophets frequently in their mouths, "that religion is founded in purity, that one half of religion conſiſts in keeping one's ſelf undefiled." They ſcarce perform any act of devotion without waſhing; their prayers are vain and criminal which are offered up with unwaſhed hands; and it is the higheſt profanation to touch the alcoran in ſuch a ſtate of uncleanneſs; which is the reaſon that there is frequently written on the cover of the alcoran and other books of devotion, theſe words, viz. "Touch not this book with impure hands." Their corporeal purifications are called reharet, which ſignifies all manner of purifications on account of religion, whether done with water or earth; for when they cannot meet with water, as in the deſerts ſometimes, then they are allowed to ſcour themſelves with earth: and as they are obliged to pray five times a day, ſo they are obliged to clean themſelves as often, unleſs they are ſure they have not polluted themſelves between one prayer and another.

Thoſe things which, in the opinion of the Perſian doctors, render a man unclean, are ſummed up together as follows: viz. The urine of any animal, the blood of any animal

animal but inſects, except what remains in the fleſh after it is dreſſed for food; the ſemen coitus of any animal; a dog and a hog are reckoned impure creatures, and all infidels; though many of the Perſians except Jews and Chriſtians, and do not look upon their touch as impure, becauſe they allow their religions to be of divine inſtitution: mead and beer are alſo reckoned impure, as being intoxicating liquors; but opium, becauſe it is not liquid, is eſteemed pure, though it intoxicates no leſs than wine. And laſtly, the touch of any dead animal, as well as a dead corpſe, defiles a man: but waſhing, it ſeems, will purify things inanimate that have been polluted, as if a dog have drunk out of a veſſel, or licked a diſh, if it be ſcoured firſt with ſand, and waſhed afterwards twice with water, it becomes clean again; but ſome of their doctors have ſuch an averſion to a hog, that they ſay, the veſſel he drinks out of ought to be waſhed ſeven times: if blood or urine happen to be ſpilled on any clothes or furniture, they muſt be well waſhed and ſcoured, at leaſt the places ſoiled, before they can be uſed: the eating out of gold and ſilver plate, is ſaid to defile the meat, but if the meat be taken out of a gold plate and put into a china diſh it is not unclean. And notwithſtanding gold and ſilver utenſils are prohibited, the king and court and other grandees of the kingdom uſe them frequently, which their doctors tell us they atone for by their alms: but great men in moſt countries ſeem to act as if they were ſuperior both to the religion and laws of the kingdom where they live.

The officers in Perſia declare the times of prayer from a terrace, and not from the tops of high towers or ſteeples, as other Mahometans do. On common days there is not more than one or two of theſe criers employed, but upon feſtivals there are ſometimes ten or a dozen of them, particularly on Fridays, their ſabbath, and in Lent; and it is not to be conceived how their voices are heard, for they rend their throats with all their might. When the people hear theſe criers call to prayers, every one riſes up and goes to his prayers, not to the moſque or temple, for they are not called thither, but in their houſes, or wherever they think fit: however, there are eight things ſaid to be requiſite towards praying acceptably, namely, application of the mind or attention, the affection of the heart, faith, modeſty, reverence, hope; and two outward qualifications, viz. purity of body, and of every thing one touches, or is ſurrounded by, and proper geſtures, as turning their faces towards Mecca, the motion of their hands, the proſtrating their bodies to the earth, &c. They divide their prayers into two kinds, 1. Thoſe which they are indiſpenſably obliged to offer up, and, 2. Thoſe which are adviſeable or expedient, in order to arrive at a greater degree of perfection, which are termed by ſome prayers of ſupererogation: however, theſe are not different forms, but only a repetition of the other. Every man is obliged to pray five times a day, reckoning from twelve at noon to twelve the next day; for the Mahometans begin their day at noon, as our mariners do. The firſt hour of prayer is exactly when the ſun is in the meridian. The ſecond is in the evening, viz. from the time the ſun is forty-five degrees above the horizon, till half the diſk appears. The third, when it is ſo dark one cannot diſtinguiſh colours. The fourth prayer is to be made on lying down to ſleep, for which no fixed time is limited. And the fifth in the morning, which may be performed at any time between the diſappearing of the ſtars and noon.

Though the Perſians are not at this time ignorant of the nature of eclipſes, yet they ſtill retain and uſe certain prayers at ſuch times, as if they ſtill thought they portended ſome dreadful calamity, or at leaſt that it is a mark of God's diſpleaſure, to be deprived of the light of the ſun or moon. They pray every man for himſelf, either in the temple or a private houſe, as they pleaſe; maintaining, that no perſon ought to read the alcoran or prayers in the temple to the congregation, but an Iman (a patriarch or prophet), or one lineally deſcended from him. They look upon it in general as an act of piety to commemorate their deceaſed friends at certain times, and ſome of them are of opinion that God will increaſe the happineſs, or leſſen the miſery of departed ſouls, at the importunity of their ſurviving friends, but they are not all agreed as to this matter. They do not pray to their ſaints, or even to Haly or Mahomet, as mediators to intercede for them; but believe they may receive ſome advantage from the prayers of holy men on earth, and that their own omiſſions may be ſuppoſed by others.

The Perſians lay out their alms chiefly in public buildings, as upon caravanſeras, or houſes of entertaintment for travellers in great towns, and on the road, where they are lodged gratis; in making bridges, cauſeways, ciſterns, and receptacles of water, moſques, colleges, and bagnios: but they have no hoſpitals for the ſick, as in Europe.

The derviſes and faquirs in Mahometan countries are a kind of begging friars, who extort the people's alms from them almoſt by force, looking upon themſelves to be much holier, and in many reſpects ſuperior to thoſe they demand an alms of: they travel in ſuch large companies, that it is hardly ſafe for people in villages to deny whatever they aſk, and they may be ſaid rather to levy a tribute, than to live upon charity. The alms which are aſcertained by their religion are a kind of tythes of corn, cattle, money, merchandiſe, &c. though they do not amount to near a tenth, and are only taken of the neat profits after all the rent and charges deducted; and theſe are not given to the prieſt, but applied to pious and charitable uſes, like the other, from whence they have received the ſame denomination of alms: the clergy live upon the glebe or revenues with which their churches are endowed, and what they got by the education of children; but they collect the tythes and have the diſtribution of them.

The tythes are applied to the maintenance of the Mahometan faquirs, or begging friars, to the redeeming ſlaves hardly uſed by their maſters; for the relief of inſolvent debtors; and for the relief of ſtrangers who happen to be in diſtreſs in their country. The reſt are employed in public buildings, in erecting temples, caravanſeras, colleges, &c. There is alſo the quantity of ſeven or eight pounds of rice, or other grain, or fruits, annually paid for every head, the day after their great faſt or Ramezan, which is applied to the ſame uſes the tythes are applied: their ſaints and devotees, who ſet up for an extraordinary piety, pay ſeveral other ſums to the uſe of the poor, beſides thoſe expreſsly commanded by law, and of ſpoils that are taken in war a fifth or double tythe is paid for the above purpoſes.

The Perſian religion does not expreſsly command any other faſt than that for the month of Ramezan, unleſs upon ſome extraordinary occaſion, as by way of penance, or to avert any calamity, or the like: but the diſciples of this religion are adviſed to perform many other faſts, which their zealots do not fail to comply with: this word Ramezan is the name of the ninth month of the year, and their Lent is ſo called, becauſe the faſt is obſerved from the beginning to the end of it: when this moon firſt appears, which is uſually in the evening immediately after ſun-ſet, it is proclaimed by the holy criers in great numbers, on the terraces of their moſques, who publiſh it as a moſt ſupriſing piece of news, and ſing certain hymns on the occaſion; the people anſwer in joyful cries, and illuminate the ſtreets, and from the terraces of the bagnios the horns ſound to give notice that the baths are ready: for they begin their faſts, as all other acts of devotion, with waſhing and purifying themſelves, which is ordinarily done at the bath: the end of the faſts is ſolemnized in much the ſame manner as the beginning; the criers give notice of the ſucceeding moon from the moſques, the people teſtify their joy by their acclamations, the ſound of muſical inſtruments, and the like.

The diſciples of the Perſian religion are required to make a pilgrimage once in their life-time to Mecca: this is the town in Arabia where their falſe prophet Mahomet was born: the principle end of the pilgrimage to Mecca is to viſit the kabba or chapel of the patriarch Abraham, and perform certain acts of devotion, in the courts that ſurround it, and not on account of Mecca being the birth-place of Mahomet, much leſs becauſe his tomb is there, for that is at Medina, above two hundred miles to the north of Mecca. The principal things the pilgrims perform, when they come to the town, are the following; namely, the going in proceſſion ſeven times round Abraham's chapel: the kiſſing a black ſtone there, of which more hereafter; the ſpending a certain portion of time at Mount Ararat; the ſacrificing a ſheep upon Mount Menah in remembrance of Abraham's going to ſacrifice his ſon; the drinking of the water of the well Zemzen; the taking ſeven turns between the little hills of Safa and Merva; and the throwing ſtones over their heads in the valley of Menah, all which, it is ſaid, they do in imitation of the patriarch Abraham, and which God has enjoined them as an indiſpenſable duty, particularly that of the ſacrifice.

The way the pilgrims go at preſent is by Boſſora or Bozra, ſeated near the bottom of the Perſian gulph: they were forced to endure a thouſand inſults in this paſſage; the Arabian princes, through whoſe territories they paſſed, extorting money from them almoſt every day, on one pre-

tence or other, and they had the leſs mercy on them on account of their being heretics: whereupon the court of Perſia for ſome time forbad the pilgrims to go by land to Mecca, ordering them to ſail round Arabia into the Red Sea, as the pilgrims of India: whereupon the Arabian princes, finding their revenues much leſſened, ſent embaſſadors to the Perſian court to aſſure them that all abuſes ſhould be regulated, and the pilgrims might have a free paſſage without thoſe exhorbitant exactions.

If any perſon dies in Perſia who has not gone in pilgrimage to Mecca, either in perſon or by proxy, the cadi or civil magiſtrate ſeizes on ſo much of his fortune, as the charges of the pilgrimage would have amounted to, for the good of his ſoul, and this he employs in ſending one to Mecca for him; but this is to be underſtood of men of ſubſtance, for the inferior ſort of people are not obliged to go in pilgrimage.

The caravan of pilgrims ſets out from Bozra on a certain day, in order to be at Mecca at the time the law requires, and is convoyed thither by the Arabs, who keep them in the deſerts forty or fifty days, though the journey might eaſily be performed in twenty; they are guided by the ſtars in their paſſage, and for that reaſon, as well as on account of the heats, they travel in the night time, and as the air is dry and pure, the ſtars afford them light enough: there are no inns or caravanſeras in this deſert, but the pilgrims lye in tents, as they do alſo till they have performed their devotions at the kabba; in the day time they pitch their tents near ſome well by the Arabs camp, where they have all neceſſary proviſions brought them by the natives.

The pilgrims, having paſſed the deſert, pitch their tents at a little diſtance from Mecca, and on the day appointed for performing the rites above-mentioned, which is always on the firſt day of the month Zilhah, they put off all their clothes, and perform the purifications required in a great baſon or receptacle of water; after which they wear no other clothing but a linen cloth about their middles, and another about their ſhoulders, intimating thereby, that they are dead to the world, having no regard to their ornaments, or reliſh for any thing but heavenly things.

Their principal religious feſtivals are, that in commemoration of Abraham's ſacrificing his ſon, and that of the martyrdom of the two Imans, Hoſſein and Haſſein. This latter feſtival is celebrated in memory of their patriarch Hoſſein, who, having loſt a battle, retreated with his broken troops into a deſert near Babylon, called Kerbele, where, having been purſued fourteen days, he fell at length into the hands of his enemies, and died fighting valiantly, having firſt received ſeveral wounds. It continues the firſt ten days of the month Maharam, during which time there are no trumpets, or muſical inſtruments, ſounded at the uſual hours; and thoſe who obſerve it ſtrictly, neither ſhave their head nor face, or go to the bagnio. They will never begin a journey, or undertake any thing of conſequence at this time; many of them rend their clothes, paint their ſkirts black, and appear with ſorrowful dejected looks, as in a time of public mourning: you will ſee from morning till night, in all the ſtreets, parties of the mob, ſome almoſt naked, others ſtained with blood, and others in armour from head to foot, with naked ſwords in their hands; ſome appear faint, and ready to periſh, with their tongues hanging out of their mouths, and all the ſigns of deſpair and anguiſh, crying with all their might, as they paſs by, Hoſſein! Haſſein! (Haſſein was the elder brother of Hoſſein, who loſt his life in the ſame war). What they endeavour chiefly to expreſs is, the heat and thirſt with which the legend relates Hoſſein was afflicted with in the deſert, to ſuch a degree, it is ſaid, that he became black, and his tongue hung out of his mouth. During this feſtival, the Perſians are extremely charitable: they look upon it as a crime to refuſe a poor man an alms at this time. Before the houſes of the great men alſo ſtand great veſſels of ice and water, that none may ſuffer thirſt, as their great ſaint Hoſſein did; and the king every day entertains at leaſt four thouſand people, who attend the proceſſions. There are abundance of machines and pageants carried at this feaſt, chiefly to move the compaſſion of the people, and excite their rage againſt their enemies the Turks.

We ſhall here take notice of ſome religions which are tolerated in Perſia. And firſt, of the Gaurs, or antient Perſians, generally ſtiled Ignicolæ, or worſhippers of fire, being diſtinguiſhed thereby from all other people. They are diſperſed throughout Perſia, and have colonies in the ſuburbs of ſeveral great towns, and particularly near Iſpahan there is a village inhabited only by Gaurs. Many of theſe people, who refuſed to ſubmit to the Mahometan religion, fled into India, and are ſettled about Surat. It is obſerved of the Gaurs, that they are neither of ſo good a complexion or make as the Mahometan Perſians, which is thought to proceed either from their not intermixing with the Georgians, &c. as the others do, or from their applying themſelves principally to huſbandry, and laborious employments, in which they are more expoſed to the weather. The men wear their hair and beards long, a ſhort cloſe veſt, and a cap not much unlike our hats; they are all of them either huſbandmen or mechanics, never applying themſelves either to the liberal arts or merchandize, and their language and characters are underſtood by none but themſelves. They regard agriculture not only as a uſeful and innocent profeſſion, but honourable and even meritorious: they hold that this was the firſt buſineſs men were employed in, and for which the gods themſelves have the greateſt regard: the prieſts teach them that, next to the begetting of children, the manuring the ground, and planting trees, are the moſt virtuous employments they can be concerned in: and this, ſome gentlemen obſerve, is the reaſon that Perſia was ſo much more fruitful under the dominion of the antient Perſians than it is at preſent; they encouraged nothing more than agriculture and huſbandry, planting and gardening, and their religion taught them that thoſe things were meritorious; while the Mahometan race look no farther than the preſent generation, and do not ſo much as aim at improvements.

The Gaurs, who are a remnant of antient Perſians, are an innocent harmleſs people, and allowed to live under their own laws and magiſtrates, confirmed by the preſent government; their religion allows them to drink wine, and eat all manner of fleſh, except beef; nor are they ſcrupulous about the dreſſing it, as the Mahometans and Pagans are, who would think themſelves polluted, if one of another religion or ſect was to cook their meat; they do not care, however, to mingle with another people, and eſpecially the Mahometans, but match always in their own tribe; neither a plurality of wives, or divorces, are ſuffered by their religion, unleſs the firſt wife has remained barren nine years, and then they are allowed to take a ſecond: theſe people are as ignorant as other ruſtics uſually are, and can give but a very poor account even of their own religion or hiſtory. Their principal temple is on a mountain near the city of Yezd, and there the high-prieſt of their religion reſides with great numbers of his clergy, who live in a kind of convent, or ſeminary. The prieſts are employed there in much the ſame ſervice the veſtal virgins were at Rome, namely, in keeping in the ſacred fire, that it may never be extinguiſhed; and, according to their traditions, this fire was lighted about four thouſand years ago on this mountain, by their great prophet Zoroaſter, and they live in hopes of his return, and of ſeeing their religion and antient government triumphant again in Perſia: they differ from other Pagans, in their averſion to certain animals, for they loook upon it as their duty to deſtroy all noxious vermin, and eſpecially ſuch as ſpoil the fruits of the earth.

We ſhall now take ſome notice of the religion of the Armenians, who form a conſiderable body in the Perſian empire, eſpecially if we include all thoſe other Chriſtians who have joined them on the account of the large privileges granted them by the Perſian government. The Armenians were originally of the Greek communion; but they are ſaid to differ of late in ſeveral particulars both from the Latin and Greek churches; they have two patriarchs of their own, who have under them many archbiſhops and biſhops, but the archbiſhop of New Julpha and his ſuffragans, it is ſaid, are not ſubject to either of them, and the Perſian government, though Mahometan, has as great an influence on the choice of their patriarchs and biſhops, as the Chriſtian princes have in the election of biſhops in this part of the world. The Popiſh miſſionaries have been indefatigable in their endeavours to procure the Armenian churches to acknowledge the Pope for their head, and in ſome few places, it is ſaid, they have prevailed; but for the generality, the Armenians of Julpha are not more ſet againſt the Mahometans, than they are againſt the Romiſh miſſionaries.

Their clergy conſiſts of patriarchs, archbiſhops, biſhops, prieſts, and monks of the order of St. Baſil. Simony is hardly looked upon as any crime among them: the patriarch, it is ſaid, obtains his confirmation from the government by bribes or preſents. The monks are the only part of their clergy that are prohibited marriage: but a clergyman is not ſuffered to ſay maſs for the firſt ſeven days after his marriage; and whenever he is ſuffered to adminiſter it,

it, he is ſhut up in the church for five days before, and five days after, and ſuffered to eat nothing but rice and herbs, nor is he permitted to go home to his wife and family. They receive their orders from the hands of the biſhops, and may be ordained at eighteen years of age. Both clergy and laity are obliged to keep ſo many faſts, that one half of the year is ſpent in faſting, when they abſtain from all manner of fleſh and fiſh: and ſo auſtere are the lives of ſome of their biſhops, that it is ſaid they ſcarce eat fleſh or fiſh more than four days in the year. At the communion, they give the bread dipped in the wine to all the congregation; when the prieſt, with the bread and chalice in his hand, ſays three times, the people repeating it after him, "I confeſs, I believe that this is the body and blood of the Son of God, who takes away the ſins of the world; and who is not only our ſalvation, but the ſalvation of all the world."

Before their four great feſtivals, of Chriſtmas, the Annunciation of the Bleſſed Virgin, Aſcenſion-day, and the feaſt of St. George, they faſt eight days without taſting fiſh, fleſh, eggs, butter, or oil; and their devotion is ſo great for their national St. George, that ſome of them, it is ſaid, will faſt three or four days ſucceſſively before that feſtival, without eating any thing. They faſt alſo every Wedneſday and Friday in the year, except between Eaſter and Aſcenſion-day.

When a child is baptized, the prieſt plunges it three times naked in a veſſel of water, pronouncing nearly the ſame words on the occaſion as are uſed here: he alſo anoints the infant with their holy oil, firſt on the head, then on the mouth, the ſtomach, neck, hands, and feet. This anointing is held as neceſſary as the baptiſm of water, or rather is baptiſm itſelf; for on the anointing the ſeveral parts, and making a ſign of the croſs, they repeat the words, "I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghoſt." This oil is made of ſeveral ſweet flowers and aromatical drugs, by one of their patriarchs, and as no baptiſm can be duly performed without it, they ſell the oil at an exceſſive rate to ſuch prieſts and biſhops as are ſubordinate to them, who alſo make a large profit of it on theſe occaſions.

They uſually give the child the name of the ſaint that ſtood in the calendar next before the chriſtening, or that which immediately follows; and if the ceremony happens to be performed at Chriſtmas, or on the feſtival of baptizing the croſs, the infant is dipped three times in the river Zenderhood, or ſome great water. The Armenian church keep to the old ſtyle in ſolemnizing their feſtivals as the Proteſtants do; the reject the doctrines of purgatory, but believe, however, that the ſouls of the juſt remain in a ſtate where they ſhall know neither joy nor ſorrow till the reſurrection, but what proceeds from a reflection on their paſt lives; and hold that the prayers of good men may be of ſome advantage to them. As for the wicked, they believe that they are ſent immediately to hell. Extreme unction is adminiſtered by them either juſt before or after death.

The Armenians believe but one nature in Chriſt: they do not ſay, however, that the human nature was ſwallowed up in the divine, as the firſt Entydians did; nor do they believe a confuſion of natures in Chriſt; but that the divine and human nature are united in his ſacred perſon, as the ſoul and body are in man, and ſo make but one: but the Roman Catholics glory much that they agree with them in the doctrine of tranſubſtantiation, and from thence infer, that it was once the doctrine of the univerſal church.

The Mahometan Perſians aſſiſt in great crowds at their great feſtival of the baptiſm of the croſs, in memory of our Saviour's baptiſm, and ſometimes the king himſelf has appeared at this ſolemnity. The Armenian biſhops and their clergy go in proceſſion on theſe occaſions to ſome great reſervatory of water, with a croſs carried before them; and having read prayers ſuitable to the occaſion, and ſung ſeveral anthems after their manner, to the ſound of the country muſic, the biſhop plunges the croſs into the water ſeveral times, after which, happy is the perſon that is ſprinkled by it; their own baptiſm, it is thought, can ſcarce convey greater privileges to them.

The Armenians marry their children uſually in their infancy to prevent their being carried into the harams of the great men; for either the Perſians are ſo juſt that they will not take any man's wife from him, or they are too nice to meddle with a woman who has been in the poſſeſſion of another: but though the parties are frequently contracted at four or five years of age, the marriage is ſeldom celebrated till they are eight or ten.

Some days after the wedding, the portion ſtipulated to be given with the bride, is ſent to the huſband's houſe, conſiſting of fine clothes, gold, ſilver, and jewels, according to the quality of the parties. They add alſo uſually ſome fruits and ſweet-meats, which are all carried in fine boxes and cabinets, attended by ſuch muſic as the country affords; ſometimes this is deferred till the birth of the firſt child, when a rich cradle is provided, and all other neceſſaries proper for a new-born infant.

When an Armenian dies, the perſon whoſe office it is, waſhes the body with conſecrated water taken out of the church, and puts on the corpſe a new white ſhirt, and other linen. Then having ſewed it up in a new linen bag, it is carried to the church on a bier, without a coffin, attended by the prieſts and relations, with lighted tapers in their hands; and having placed it before the altar, a prieſt reads the ſervice appointed, and then they leave the body in the church with the candles burning about it all night. In the morning after maſs is ſaid, it is carried to the archbiſhop or biſhop's gate, who ſays a prayer for the repoſe of the deceaſed's ſoul; after which it is carried to the burying-place, the biſhop and prieſts ſinging their prayers till it is laid in the grave; then the biſhop taking up a handful of earth, throws it on the corpſe, ſaying, three times, "From earth thou cameſt, and to earth thou ſhalt return, remain there till the coming of our Lord." Then they fill up the grave, and the relations and friends return to the houſe of the deceaſed, where they find a good dinner, and are ſplendidly entertained for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, if the relations are people of ſubſtance.

The Georgians who adhere to the diſcipline of the Greek church, are very numerous, but they are not found out of their own country of Georgia (the antient Iberia) which is the moſt northerly part of the Perſian empire: as for thoſe of them, which come to Iſpahan, they go under the general name of Armenians, and communicate with them; but of the Greek and Georgian churches I ſhall ſpeak more largely when I come to treat of Turky.

There is ſtill another people in Perſia, who go under the name of Chriſtians, whoſe religion ſeems to be a compound of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Mahometaniſm: they are called Chriſtians of St. John, and ſometimes Sabean Chriſtians, and inhabit near the gulph of Perſia, in the province of Chuſiſtan, where it is computed there are not leſs than twenty thouſand families of them. St. John Baptiſt is their great ſaint, from whom they pretend to derive their original, and they have a tradition that his ſepulchre is at Chuſter, the capital of Chuſiſtan, or Suſiana. They do not acknowledge Chriſt to be the Son of God, but eſteem him to be a prophet, as the Mahometans do; and the reaſon they are called Chriſtians, is ſuppoſed to be from their great veneration for the croſs, which they reverence even to idolatry. The Perſians hold that circumciſion is not abſolutely neceſſary to ſalvation; but, however, they do not omit it, if there be an opportunity of performing it according to the rites.

The Perſian moſques or temples are never conſecrated; but when they are built, the people are invited to perform their devotions there, which is all the ceremony uſed; but as their religion does not oblige them to pray in temples, the great men ſeldom come thither; and their mollas preach as frequently in the ſtreets and public places of reſort, as in their moſques; the common people, however, chuſe to perform their devotions in their temples, eſpecially on Fridays, their ſabbath, and upon the great feſtivals when there is uſually a ſermon, or a good moral diſcourſe delivered by ſome molla; but the people are not very attentive to theſe preachments, for ſome will be reading, others ſleeping, and perhaps others ſmoking or eating in ſermon time; every one does what he pleaſes, ſo as he does not diſturb the preacher: their mollas are never conſecrated, but take up the office of preachers, and lay it down again as they ſee fit: thoſe who deſign for the prieſthood, begin with clothing themſelves in a plain modeſt garb, a white turban, and a kind of caſſoc of camblet, reaching down to their heels; then they apply themſelves to ſtudy, and obtain the title of talebolm, or ſearchers after knowledge; they alſo live abſtemiouſly, and put on a grave phariſaical look; afterwards they go in pilgrimage to Mecca, or to the tombs of their Imans, if they can raiſe money enough to defray the charge, and at their return get themſelves regiſtered in the Sedre's books, in order to obtain preferment when it falls, either in ſome convent or endowed moſque, and they are advanced higher uſually according to their diligence or merit.

There are three principal officers in every great moſque: 1. The Montelevy, who takes care of the furniture and ornaments. 2. The Molla or Preacher. 3. The Moazem,

zem, who calls the people to prayers. The clergy of Perſia in general are not rich, receiving no dues from the people, but depending altogether upon the endowments of their houſes or churches, and what they get by the inſtruction of children, either as private tutors, or maſters of ſome public ſchool.

Beſides the mollas, there are ſeveral other ſorts of people in Perſia who paſs for eccleſiaſtics, as the mirs and the zeriffs, who are of the family of Mahomet by the male line; and the ſaieds, who are the deſcendants of Fatima, Mahomet's daughter; the mirs have the privilege of wearing a green turban, but are not ſo much honoured in Perſia as in Turky, becauſe they are looked upon to be in the Turkiſh intereſt: the derviſes and faquirs, which as far as I can perceive are but two names for the ſame profeſſion, are alſo looked upon as religious people; but, with all their pretences to a ſevere, abſtemious life in public, they are diſcovered to be profeſſed libertines in private.

The Jews are alſo diſperſed throughout Perſia: there are reckoned to be about twenty thouſand families of them, a poor miſerable people, many of them artificers, others of them pretend to magic, and telling of fortunes. Their women inſinuate themſelves into the good opinion of the ladies in the ſeraglios of the great, who it is ſaid, give great faith to their predictions; they alſo prepare love potions, and ſuch trumpery for the ſilly creatures, who ſtudy all ways to gain the affection of their tyrants. The Jews were formerly the uſurers of the country, but ſince the arrival of the Banians of India, they have had little to do with any thing of that kind, and are forced to take up with leſs beneficial employments; which brings me to ſpeak of the Pagan Indians in Perſia, who have now engroſſed almoſt all the ready money of the country. Theſe are diſperſed all over Perſia, and it is computed that there are not leſs than ſixteen thouſand of them in the city of Iſpahan. They are allowed the like liberty in the profeſſion of their religion, as the Jews and Chriſtians are. The Perſians endeavour indeed to gain proſelytes, by granting rewards and privileges to thoſe who will embrace Mahometaniſm; but in this country no reſtraint is laid on the conſcience reſpecting matters of religion.

SECT. XV.

Of the Marriages of the PERSIANS, &c. and of the Condition of their Children.

THE Perſians are allowed four legal wives, with whom they may enter into formal contract before the civil magiſtrate; but they have ſeldom more than one; for the reſt of the women, who wait upon her, have in like manner the honour of their maſter's bed, and their iſſue are equally legitimate; ſo that there is no ſuch thing as a baſtard in Perſia, thoſe born before and thoſe after marriage having the ſame privileges; nor is it any diſadvantage for a ſon to be born of a concubine, or even of a black ſlave, in regard to his inheritance.

Love is the leaſt motive for entering into a contract with a lawful wife, as ſhe is called, eſpecially among the great, nor does ſhe expect much of it, but it is the number of ſlaves, the cloaths, the equipage, and the figure the man makes in the world, which are great inducements for the woman, or her friends, to match into any family.

The Armenians marry their children in their infancy, when they meet with an advantageous match: this they do for a political reaſon, leſt their daughters ſhould be ſent to the haram; but the parties do not cohabit till they arrive at a ſuitable age.

The Perſian marriages are attended with the following ceremonies. When both the parties have given their conſent, and the terms ſettled by the mediation of friends, proof thereof is made before the cadi, or civil magiſtrate, who cauſes the ſame to be regiſtered: but as far as I can find, the parties themſelves do not appear in perſon before him, or go to the temple to ſolemnize the marriage, as with us: but the bridegroom the day before he takes home his bride, ſends her a habit, ornaments and jewels, ſuitable to her quality; and the next day, towards the evening, mounting on horſeback, with the richeſt furniture he can procure, and attended by his friends, the muſic and dancing girls, he goes to fetch home his wife, who meets him part of the way mounted alſo on a camel or horſe; but ſo veiled, that her face cannot be ſeen; ſhe is alſo attended by her friends and relations in their gayeſt equipage, with her ſlaves, cloaths, and baggage: both companies being joined, they march to the huſband's houſe, with lighted torches, the drums and trumpets ſounding, and muſic playing before them, the mob following with joyful acclamations, and wiſhes for the happineſs of the new-married couple.

When they arrive at the houſe, the bride is led to her apartment, where the huſband follows ſoon after, and this is the firſt view he has of her face: the company ſpend the remainder of the evening, and ſometimes ſeveral days ſucceſſively in feaſting and rejoicing at the bridegroom's houſe; but the men and women are in ſeparate apartments; the muſic, dancing girls and mob are alſo generally well entertained, if it happen to be the wedding of a man of quality.

Theſe are the only wives the Perſians have, according to the notion we have of a wife: but they have alſo a kind of wives or concubines, whom they agree with either for life or for a certain time, to ſerve them in the capacity of bedfellows. Theſe contracts alſo, it is ſaid, are regiſtered before a magiſtrate; and where a man parts with one of theſe, ſhe muſt remain ſingle forty days before ſhe contracts with another, to ſee if ſhe be with child; for in this caſe, the firſt man muſt keep her till ſhe is brought to bed, and her children afterwards. The laſt kind of wives are a man's ſlaves, whom he takes to his bed, and diſpoſes of as he pleaſes, without any ceremony: but the children of theſe are in as good a condition as the reſt, inheriting according to their ſeniority; ſo that if the ſon of a ſlave be the eldeſt, he has an elder brother's portion.

If a woman be divorced without any fault on her part, ſhe ſhall have the dowry her huſband ſtipulated to give her, which after her death will go to her children. Divorces are very eaſily obtained here, eſpecially wher both parties agree to it: the uſual ſuggeſtions for a woman to obtain a divorce, are that the huſband takes up too much time with his ſlaves and concubines, and does not afford her due benevolence, or elſe that the huſband is impotent; in either of which caſes the magiſtrate will grant a divorce, and both the man and the woman are at liberty to marry elſewhere.

By the Perſian law the girls are held to be of age at nine years of age, and the boys at thirteen, and no longer under the direction of their guardians; and where a guardian dies, the magiſtrate will ſometimes admit them to be of age ſooner, upon examination. The eldeſt ſon is always guardian to the younger children, and infants have that privilege, that their eſtates cannot be ſeized for the debts of the deceaſed till they come of age, and are able to plead for themſelves. Where a perſon dies inteſtate, there is an officer in every city and province, who takes care to ſecure the eſtate and effects of the deceaſed, and ſee them diſtributed among his relations, in ſuch proportions as the law requires.

With reſpect to the funeral rites of the Perſians, and their behaviour towards the dying and dead, we muſt here obſerve, that when a rich man is drawing towards his laſt hour, they ſet up lighted lamps, or make little fires on the terrace of his houſe, that the people in the neighbourhood, and thoſe that paſs by, may pray for him. They alſo ſend for a molla, or prieſt, who puts him in mind of reviewing his paſt life, and repenting of his ſins; to which the dying man uſually anſwers, Taube, or, I repent. When he can ſpeak no longer, they continue to read ſome chapters of the alcoran to him till he expires. His death is ſoon known by the diſmal groans and lamentations of thoſe about him: the relations immediately ſet up a great howl, rend their clothes, tear off their hair, beat their breaſts and act like people in the utmoſt deſpair, eſpecially the women, intermingling ſad complaints, and uttering the moſt tender expreſſions to the dead corpſe, as if it was really ſenſible of their grief. The corpſe is afterwards wrapped up in a new linen cloth, or winding ſheet; and if it be a man of figure, there are certain paſſages out of the alcoran, or out of ſome other of their ſacred books, written upon it: and they tell us of one of their great miniſters of ſtate, who was wrapped up in ſo large a ſheet, that the whole alcoran was written on it. In this condition the body is repoſited in ſome place at a diſtance from the houſe; and if it be to be buried a great way off, it is put into a wooden coffin filled up with ſalt, limes and perfumes to preſerve it; for they embalm their dead bodies no otherwiſe in Perſia, nor do they ever embowel them, as with us.

If they are buried near the place where they die, they are carried thither directly from the place where they are waſhed without much ceremony, the people who attend the corpſe following in no manner of order; indeed at the interment of people of diſtinction, the enſigns of the moſque are carried before them on long pikes, one has an iron hand at the end of it, which they call Haly's hand; others have creſcents; and on the reſt are written the names of Ma-

homet, his daughter Fatima, and his twelve ſucceſſors: they have alſo ſtreamers of ſilk, and led horſes, which carry the turban and arms of the deceaſed: there are no bearers appointed on purpoſe for carrying the corpſe to the grave, but the neighbours offer their ſervice, and if a perſon of faſhion meets a funeral, he will alight from his horſe, and help to carry the corpſe to the place of interment.

They lay the corpſe in its winding ſheet, without a coffin, with the face towards Mecca, and if it be a great man, they lay by him his turban, his ſword, his quiver, and his bow, and an arch is built on that ſide near the grave. The reaſon of making this arch is upon the ſuppoſition that the ſoul re-animates the body ſoon after the interment, and is examined by certain angels, concerning his faith and manners.

Their mourning uſually laſts forty days: it does not conſiſt in wearing black clothes (for black they deteſt, and look upon it to be the devil's colour, an infernal habit) but their mourning conſiſts in lamentations for the deceaſed in a torn and negligent garb, and the moſt lively expreſſions of grief and deſpair, which they repeat two or three times a week during the time above-mentioned; after which they bathe and ſhave, and dreſs themſelves in their uſual habits, and the mourning is finiſhed: their wives are the moſt inconſolable, for a widow ſeldom marries a ſecond time.

We ſhall now give a deſcription of the mourning of the Armenians at the graves of their deceaſed friends, annually, the night before the ſolemnization of the feſtival of the holy croſs.

The Armenian women, clothed in white linen veils, and ſo muffled up that nothing but their eyes could be diſcerned, about two or three hours before day, came to the Chriſtian burying-place, bringing with them wood, coals, tapers, and incenſe; there they made fires by the tombs of their reſpective relations and friends, and placed lighted tapers upon them, continually throwing incenſe on the fire, lamenting their loſs, and addreſſing themſelves to the deceaſed, in the moſt tender and affectionate expreſſions: then they threw themſelves on the graves, and embraced and bathed them with their tears. This was ſucceeded by the moſt diſmal groans and cries that can be imagined. At a little diſtance, the place where this was tranſacted looked like the ruins of ſome town juſt deſtroyed by the flames in a dark night, there being ſuch an intermixture of ſtones and fire, with the cries and lamentations of people in the utmoſt deſpair.

The men, it ſeems, remained at home while the women were employed in this ſolemnity, but ſent perpetually after their wives, under pretence of enquiring how they did, poſſibly leſt the darkneſs of the night ſhould give them an opportunity of purſuing their intrigues, inſtead of viſiting their departed friends. There were alſo a multitude of prieſts attending at the burying-place, to offer up prayers for thoſe who deſired it; and theſe being all clothed in black, as the women were in white, made an odd ſort of a ſhow. The prieſts were paid for the prayers they ſaid on this occaſion, ſome of them ſix-pence, others ten-pence, but none give them more than twenty-pence. There are ſeldom leſs than three thouſand Armenian women, who come from Julpha, to attend the graves of their deceaſed friends at this time, who ſo perfume the air with the incenſe and aromatic gums they throw into the fire, that the city of Iſpahan is ſenſible of it at more than a mile's diſtance. The ceremony being concluded about two hours after day-light, the common people continued to go thither moſt part of the day, not to mourn, it ſeems, and bewail the loſs of their friends, as thoſe in the morning had done, but to ſmoke and divert themſelves, as uſual at feſtivals, and on other joyful occaſions.

SECT. XVI.

Of the antient Structures, Ruins, Sepulchres, and other memorable Antiquities of the PERSIAN.

THE palace antiently called the houſe of Darius, which was the reſidence of the Perſian monarchs, is called, by the modern inhabitants of the place, Chil-mina, or the Palace of Forty Pillars. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, called the Royal Mountain. It extends three thouſand feet from north to ſouth; and from eaſt to weſt one thouſand nine hundred and ninety-five feet, to the mountain itſelf. But having before given a large account of this celebrated edifice, more generally known by the name Perſepolis, we ſhall omit ſaying any thing further of it in this place.

A great variety of ruins preſent themſelves to the eaſtward of the above-mentioned, which conſiſt of windows, avenues, portals, paſſages, &c. They extend about four hundred and fifty feet from eaſt to weſt; and about ſeven hundred and twenty-five from north to ſouth, and three hundred from the columns and mountains. The earth is covered with the fragments of ſeventy-ſix columns in the midſt of theſe ruins. And about one hundred and eighteen feet to the ſouthward of theſe is an edifice elevated above the reſt of the ruins, on an hill. The front is compoſed of a range of ſtones eight feet deep: it extends one hundred and thirteen feet from eaſt to weſt, but is not embelliſhed with any ornaments.

There are ſome ſubterraneous paſſages pretty far to the ſouthward of the laſt mentioned ruins; which, from a ridiculous notion that no light will burn in them, the natives will not enter, though it is ſuppoſed that immenſe treaſures are lodged in them; but ſome European travellers, having ventured to enter them with lights, which were not extinguiſhed by an inviſible power, as the natives abſurdly imagined, perceived that theſe paſſages terminated in a ſmall, narrow, and impaſſable kind of aqueduct.

There are two antient ſepulchres of Perſian monarchs near the mountains, the fronts of which are ornamented with various figures repreſenting men and different kinds of animals; and at about two leagues from theſe ſepulchres are four other tombs reſembling the others, only cut higher in the rock. This place derives its name from one Noxi Ruſtan, a fabulous perſon, who is reported to have been a potent prince of gigantic ſtature, that he was forty cubits high, and lived one thouſand one hundred and thirteen years. The figure of a man on horſeback, which, the people ſay, repreſents Ruſtan; he is in a Roman dreſs, and has alſo a bonnet riſing from a crown, with flowing hair, a long beard, and his left hand upon the hilt of his ſword; but notwithſtanding the report of his prodigious ſtature, both he and his horſe are of the common ſize. Before him is a woman with flowing hair, wearing a crown; ſhe is dreſſed like Minerva, and holds up part of her drapery with her left hand. A third figure repreſents a warrior with a tiara on his head, and his left hand placed on the hilt of his ſword. In another compartment is an imperfect appearance of men fighting on horſeback. All theſe figures are carved in the rock. This tomb of Noxi Ruſtan is ſuppoſed to have been erected by Darius Hyſtaſpes, as it correſponds with the deſcription given of it by Herodotus and other antient writers.

At two hundred paces diſtance, on the weſtern ſide of the mountain, are two tables cut in the rock. That to the left repreſents two men on horſeback, one of whom graſps a circle, of which the other has quitted the hold. Some imagine that the firſt is Alexander, and the other Darius, who by this action reſigns to him the empire.

Near the city of Seamachie, at a place called Pyrmaraas, are the tombs of Seid Ibrahim and Tiribabba his tutor, both which are viſited by a great number of pilgrims, who perform their devotions there; and near the city of Ardobil is the ſepulchre of Shah Sefi, which is viſited with great pomp by the Perſians on Whitſun-monday. This tomb is three feet in height, nine in length, and four in breadth, made of white marble, and covered with crimſon velvet; a great variety of gold and ſilver lamps hang down from the roof of it, and on each ſide are two very large candleſticks of maſſy gold, with wax candles in them. There is alſo a ſpacious arched gallery finely gilt, which is uſed as a library, containing a great number of manuſcripts in the Perſian, Arabic, and Turkiſh tongues, ſome written on parchment and others on paper, all ſuperbly bound, beautifully painted, and elegantly covered with plates of gold and ſilver. There are alſo above four hundred porcelain veſſels, many of them capable of containing ten gallons, in various niches on the ſides of the library. There is near this ſpot, another tomb erected to the memory of Seid Tzeibrail, who was only a peaſant, but the father of Shah Sefi. This tomb is ſix feet high, of an oval form, raiſed ten ſteps, adorned with glaſs of ſeveral colours, and ſurrounded with iron grates: the roof is of azure gilt, and in the midſt of it there is a large tower of blue and green ſtones; the floor is covered with rich tapeſtry; and round the walls are vaults or chambers for the education of children. The gold and ſilver lamps hang about it, in which there are lights every night. The tombs of many of Shah Sefi's family are contained in a ſmall chapel oppoſite to this.

CHAP. II.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE EMPIRE OF

CHINA.

SECT. I.

Treating of the Boundaries, Situation, Provinces, great Wall, Iſlands, Rivers, Canals, Inland Navigation, and Face of the Country.

THIS opulent and extenſive empire, which appears to be a world within itſelf, and which includes Chineſe Tartary, is bounded by the dominions of Ruſſia, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean on the eaſt; by the Indian and Chineſe ſea, on the ſouth; and by the kingdoms of Tonquin, Tartarian Thibet, Ruſſian Tartary, and part of Indoſtan and India beyond the Ganges, on the weſt. It lies between ninety-five and one hundred and thirty-five degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between twenty-one and fifty-five degrees of north latitude; being about one thouſand eight hundred miles in length, and one thouſand five hundred in breadth. It takes its name from a Chineſe word, which ſignifies central; as the natives, ſuppoſing the world to be flat, fancied it was ſituate exactly in the middle.

This country is divided into ſixteen provinces; viz.

1. Pe-ke-li,	9. Shan-ſi,
2. Kyang-nan,	10. Shen-ſi,
3. Kyang-ſi,	11. Se-chuen,
4. Fo-kyen,	12. Quan-tong,
5. Che-ky-ang,	13. Quang-ſi,
6. Hu-quang,	14. Yun-nan,
7. Ho-nan,	15. Quew-chew,
8. Shang-tong,	16. Ly-au-tong.

The northern, called the Tartarian provinces, are ſeparated from Proper China by a wall of brick and ſtone, ſtill almoſt entire, one thouſand five hundred miles in length, being carried over mountains and vallies from Mogul Tartary in the weſt, to the Kang ſea in the eaſt. This wall was built by the Chineſe, to prevent the incurſions of the northern Tartars, but is not of much uſe at preſent, ſince China and thoſe Tartarian provinces have been united under one prince.

Pe-king, Shan-ſi, and Shen-ſi, are the next three provinces which lie within the great wall. The three provinces of Shang-tong, Nan-kin, and Che-ky-ang, lie upon the eaſtern coaſt of the Chineſe ſea: Ho-nan, Hu-quang, and Kyang-ſi, are midland provinces; Fo-kyen, Quang-tong or Canton, and Quang-ſi, upon the ſouth-eaſt, are maritime provinces; and Se-chuen, Quew-chew, and Yun-nan, are ſituate in the ſouth-weſt, and adjoin to Tonquin and weſtern Tartary.

Thoſe iſlands in China, which are the moſt extenſive, are, Formoſa, near the weſt of Fo-kyen; Ay-nan, ſouth-weſt of Canton; Macao, a ſmall iſland in the mouth of Canton river, inhabited by the Portugueſe; and the Baſhee iſlands, which lie between Formoſa and the Philippines.

The chief rivers are, 1. Yamour, which divides Chineſe from Ruſſian Tartary on the north. 2. Argun, which divides Chineſe from Ruſſian Tartary, on the weſt. 3. Crocceus, or Ho-am-bo, which riſes in the confines of weſtern Tartary, and, running eaſtward through the kingdom of China, falls into the Kang ſea. 4. Kiam, which alſo riſes in weſtern Tartary, and, running eaſtward, diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Nan-kin. 5. Ta, which, riſing in the province of Quew-chew, runs ſouth-eaſt, and falls into the bay of Canton; on this river are the mountains and ſtraits of Sang-wan-hab. Of theſe, the rivers Crocceus and Kiam are vaſtly large, and not fathomable in ſome places, if we may credit the Chineſe account of them.

Beſides theſe rivers, ſpacious canals are cut through the country; and ſo many of them, that a traveller may go to every town almoſt by water. Over theſe canals are magnificent bridges, whoſe arches are of marble, and ſo high, that veſſels may paſs through them with their maſts ſtanding; but the moſt remarkable is the flying bridge, built between two mountains on the river Wang-ho.

Their towns ſtand ſo thick upon their rivers and canals, that a traveller is no ſooner paſſed through one town, but he comes in ſight of another; and wherever there is a town on ſhore, there is another of boats upon the water, inſomuch that it is ſaid, almoſt as many people live upon the water as upon the land.

Their veſſels are made as commodious as their houſes: many of the Chineſe are born, live and die in them, and keep their hogs and poultry on board. Beſides theſe veſſels, there are rafts or floats of timber perpetually going up and down their rivers and canals, upon which there are built little huts or cabbins, and here the people live till they have diſpoſed of their timber. Thus great quantities are conveyed upward of a thouſand miles, from the ſouthern provinces almoſt to Pe-king.

Though the provinces of Yun-nan, Quew-chew, Se-chuen, and Fo-kyen, are mountainous, yet China in general is a flat country. Che-ky-ang, indeed, the eaſtern part whereof is a plain, fruitful country, hath high mountains towards the weſt. The country of Quang-tong and Quang-ſi, which are admired for their fertility near the ſea-coaſt, are encumbered with rocks and barren mountains at a diſtance from the ſhore. The provinces of Kyang-ſi, Shan-ſi, and Shen-ſi, have more mountains than valleys.

SECT. II.

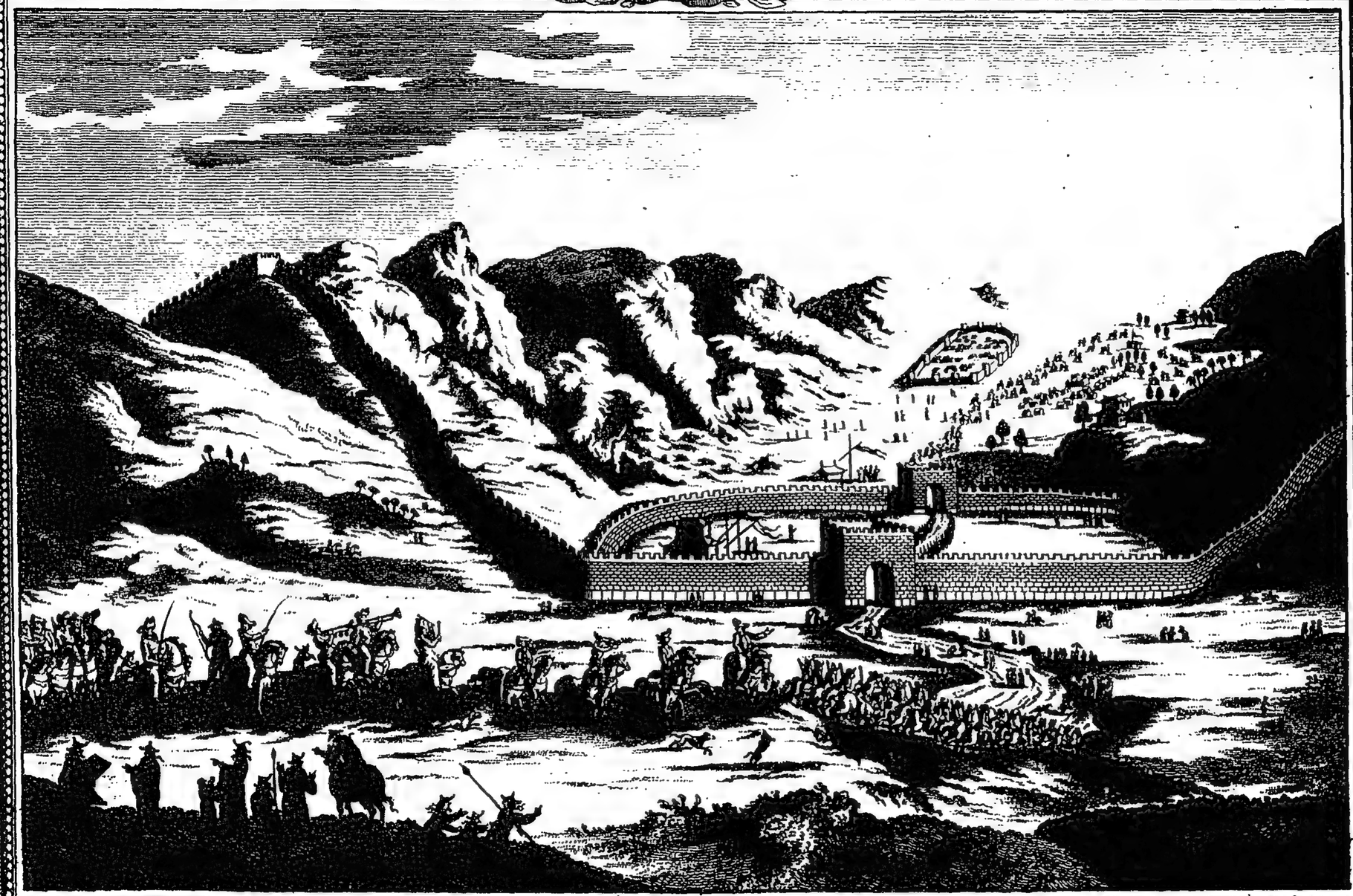
Treating of the principal Towns, Palaces, Temples, Cities, and Number of People, in CHINA.

THE Chineſe towns are uſually built in one form, that is ſquare, where the ground will admit of it; and the principal gates open towards the four cardinal points, eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth; and ſpacious ſtreets, croſſing each other, run the whole length of the town. We ſhall here mention the chief towns of every province, and give a particular deſcription of thoſe which have been thought beſt deſerving the notice of travellers.

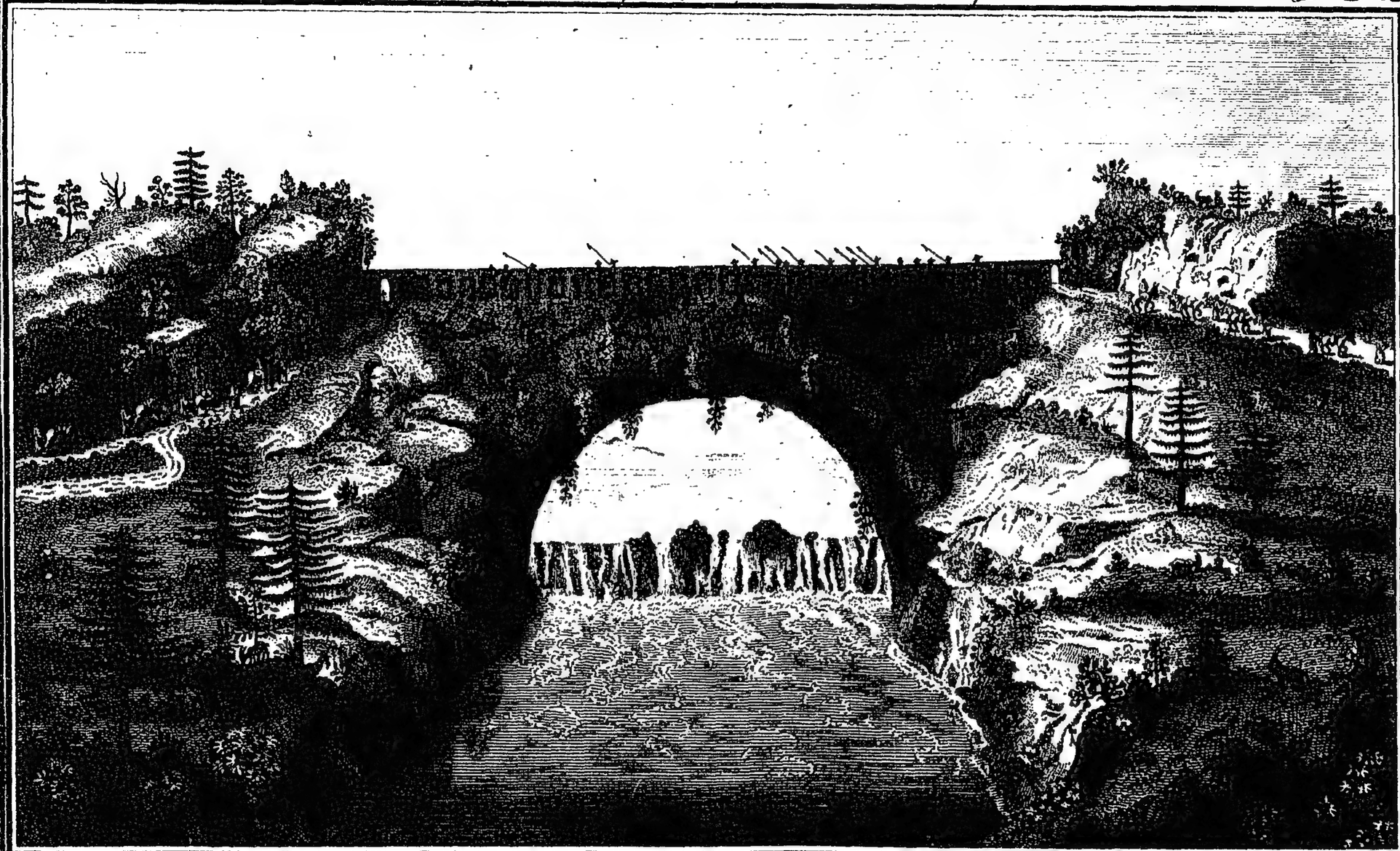
Niuche is the capital of the province of the ſame name. Pitehee is the capital of Corea, and Chin-yan of Lea-tonge. Theſe are ſituated without the wall.

The capital of the province of Pe-king, and of the whole empire, is of the ſame name. It is ſituate in one hundred and eleven degrees of eaſtern longitude (making London the firſt meridian) and in forty degrees of north latitude. It ſtands in a fruitful plain, not far ſouth of the great wall. The town conſiſts of two cities joined together, one called the Tartar city, and the other the Chineſe city; for when the Tartars conquered this country, about one hundred and ſixty years ago, they drove out the Chineſe, but gave them leave to build another city contiguous to the old town, which was then pretty near the form of a ſquare, but ſince the addition of the other, makes an irregular figure. Theſe cities are twenty miles in circumference, beſides the ſuburbs: the whole contains two millions of people. The emperor's palace, including the parks and gardens, is near four miles round, and ſtands in the middle of the Tartar city.

Pe-king is ſurrounded with a wall and ditch; the principal ſtreets are one hundred and twenty feet broad, and three miles in length. Every tradeſman ſets up a board before his ſhop painted and gilded, on which are written the names of the goods he ſells; and, being adorned with colours and ſtreamers on the top, make a very gay appearance. The walls of the Tartar or royal city are above ſeventy feet high, and perfectly cover the town, for the houſes are very low, being built no higher than the ground



A View of the celebrated GREAT WALL of CHINA,
by which divides that Empire from Tartary, & was originally built to prevent the Incursions of the Tartars.



View of the FLYING BRIDGE, over the RIVER WHANG-HO in China.

Rowlandson sculp.

Engraved for MILLAR's New Complete & Universal SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY.

WESTERN TARTARY

EASTERN TARTARY

CHINESE MANCHEWS

DESERT of SHAMO

Kabbin Kobi

MONGOL

MANCHIA

QUANTONG or LIAUTONG

KAULIQUA

SEA OF KOREA

KINGDOM OF KOREA

Liaotong Bay

Whang Hay

Yellow Sea

CHINESE SEA

ORTUS

TARTARS

SHEN SI

SHAN TONG

PE-CHE LI

HONAN

KIANG NAN

HOU QUANG

QUEYCHEW

SE CHUEN

YUN NAN

KOEI CHEW

KIANG SI

FO KIEN

CHE KIANG

Formosa

Pescadores

LAOS

TONKIN

SIAM

GULF OF TONKIN

HAI-NAN ISLE

Liquejos Islands

Explanation.

Ching, a Borough	Kow, a Gate, or Mouth of a River.
Wey, a Walled Place	Hay, the Sea
Quan, Gher, So, Chin, Fau, Fu,	Hu, Nor, a Lake
Char, different kinds of Forts	Ho, a River
Shan, a Mountain or Island	Kyang, a River
Men, a strait Passage	Chuen, a Torrent

N.B. The Names of all the Cities of the first Rank, are Engraved in CAPITAL and New Print Characters.

SCALES.

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.

25 50 100 150 250 350

Common Lys of China 250 to a Degree.

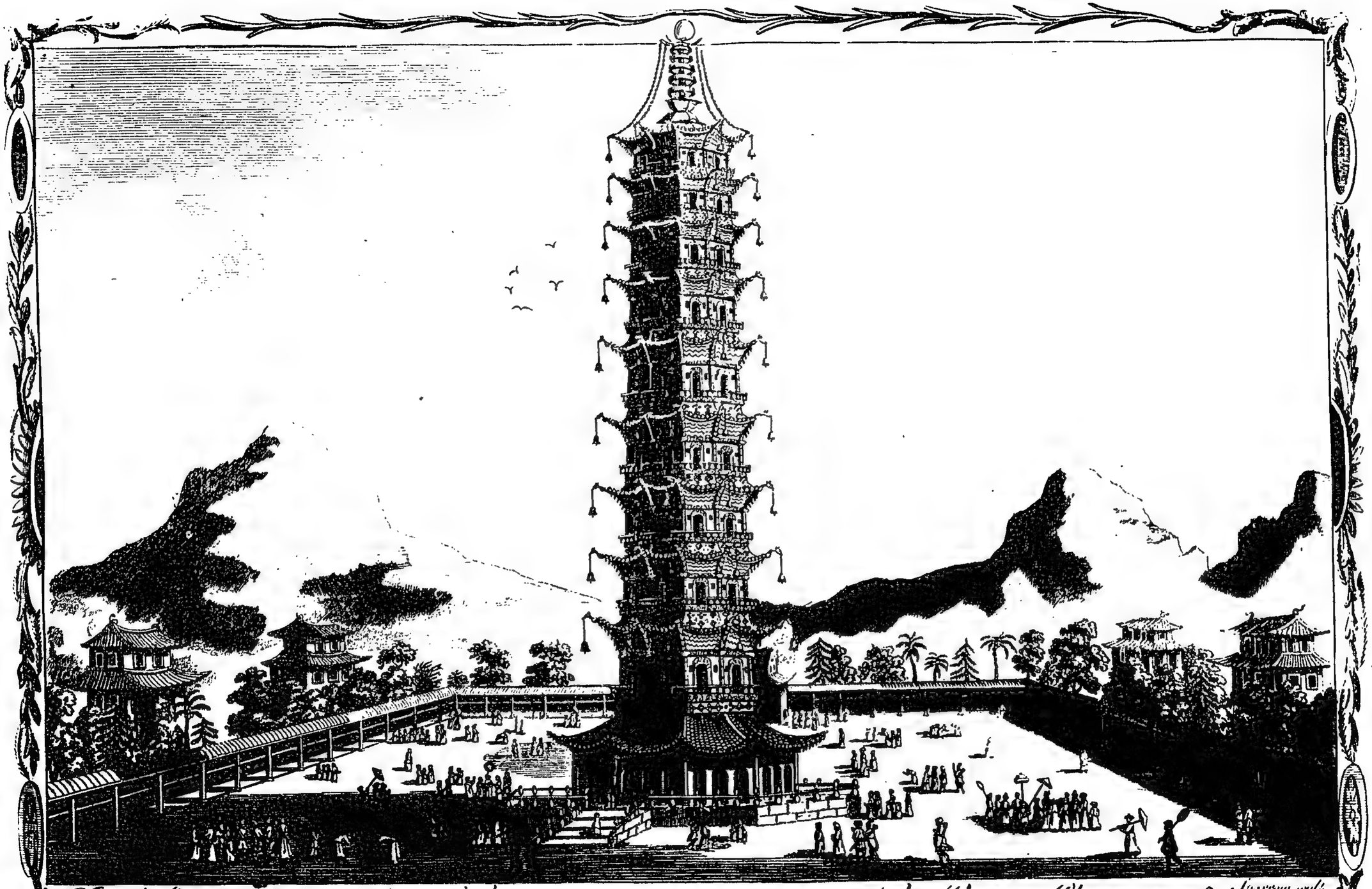
100 200 300 500 700 900 1100 1300

A New Map of CHINA, Drawn from SURVEYS made by order of the EMPEROR

Engraved by T. KITCHIN Geographer to his MAJESTY

Longit. East from Ferro. 150

Longit. East from London



A Prospect of the PORCELANE TOWER at Nan-King in China.

floor, becauſe Pe-king has ſuffered much by earthquakes, which are frequent here.

The gates of this city are ſtill higher than the walls, and have a fort of equal height built before them: the arch of each gate is built with marble, but the walls are of brick: they have no outworks beyond the walls, but there are ſquare towers in them at proper diſtances from each other.

The ſtreets of Pe-king are perpetually crowded, though a woman is ſeldom ſeen in them, the reaſon whereof may be that all proviſions are brought thither by land carriage, no river or canal coming within three miles of the city, which occaſions the ſtreets to be filled with carts, camels, horſes, and other beaſts of burden, with their drivers, inſomuch that it is difficult paſſing the gates in a morning or evening. The artificers or handicraft traders alſo contribute to increaſe the croud, as they work in the houſes of thoſe that employ them, and are perpetually looking out for buſineſs. The magiſtrates alſo have their guards when they appear abroad, and all people of diſtinction a numerous attendance, which makes the town appear ſtill more populous and thronged.

The emperor's palace is three miles in circumference, and conſiſts of nine vaſt courts, in the fartheſt of which he reſides. This apartment is ſupported by large marble pillars, the roof covered with gilded ſhining tiles, which look like gold. It is aſcended by white marble ſteps; the rooms, adorned with carvings and paintings, make a very grand appearance, and three or four thouſand mandarins or great officers are always attending when the prince gives audience on public occaſions.

The chief mandarins have very magnificent palaces, which take up a great extent of ground, as they have but one floor; they conſiſt of ſeveral open courts, in which the buildings are not contiguous; they are ſo fond of privacy, that they have no windows towards the ſtreet; and will not ſuffer their neighbours to have any, that can look in upon them; and within the gate is always a ſkreen, to prevent a ſtranger's looking in: the furniture of their houſes conſiſts of pictures, japan cabinets, chairs, tables, and varniſhed ſkreens, and their beds are exceeding fine. In ſummer their curtains are ſilk, finely wrought, or the fineſt gauze to defend them againſt the gnats; in winter their curtains are of thick coarſe ſilk, and their counterpanes of the ſame. They have no feather-beds, but lie upon quilts or mattraſſes.

This great city is guarded both day and night by ſoldiers, who patrole the ſtreets, with their ſwords; they alſo carry whips in their hands, with which they laſh without diſtinction all perſons concerned in any riot or outrage, to the diſturbance of public tranquillity; there is, beſides, in this city, a garriſon of ſixty thouſand men, to preſerve good order, and prevent irregularities. No clubs, balls, or other nocturnal meetings are permitted here. In the principal ſtreets they found the five watches of the night on a drum of an extraordinary ſize, or elſe on a large bell, ſuppoſed to be the largeſt in the world, except the great bell of Moſcow. This great bell of Pe-king was caſt near four hundred years ago, and weighs twenty thouſand pounds; but the Chineſe bells affords a very dull ſound, having only wooden clappers. A watch conſiſts of two hours.

Nan-kin, the capital of the province of that name, and heretofore of the whole empire, is called the ſouth court, as Pe-king is the north court, ſituate in one hundred and eighteen degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-two degrees of north latitude. It is ſtill more populous than Pe-king, ſtanding on the river Kiam, which is here three miles broad, and forms a very commodious port. Here ſilk, and all other Chineſe manufactures, may be purchaſed at the beſt hand. Beſides the river, there are abundance of navigable canals, which bring the merchandize of every province thither.

Before the gates of this, and almoſt every other great town, are two magnificent towers erected, and near them a pagod, or idol temple, dedicated to the genius, or guardian angel of the place. Triumphal arches alſo are erected to the honour of ſuch great men as have been eſteemed ornaments to their country. Temples alſo are erected to the memory of Confucius, the philoſopher; and other benefactors. The grandeſt of all the Chineſe buildings, is the porcelain tower, which ſtands before one of the gates of Nan-kin, being above two hundred feet high, of an octangular figure, containing nine ſtories, each ſtory benching in, and decreaſing in breadth, as it increaſes in height, forming a kind of pyramid; it is faced with porcelain, or china-ware, from whence it has its name; above the eighth ſtory is a cupola, which riſes thirty feet higher than the tower, with a gilded ball over it; this tower has ſtood upwards of three hundred years, and is eſteemed the moſt elegant building in the eaſt. Near this city is the moſt famous temple of Paulin-Shi, in which are ten thouſand images.

The capital of Quan-tong is Canton, ſituate in the ſouth of China, near the mouth of the river Ta, and is the moſt reſorted to by foreign merchants of any part of China. It is almoſt the only town the Europeans trade to at preſent, and conſequently is immenſely rich; it is ſaid to exceed all the cities of Aſia in the number of pagods or idol temples, palaces, or public buildings, and there are in it no fewer than thirteen magnificent triumphal arches. The ſtreets are paved, but narrow; the ſhops make a fine ſhew; and thoſe tradeſmen, who deal in the ſame kind of goods, uſually ſtand in the ſame quarter of the town. Their windows, in ſummer, are of cane, to let the air through; but in winter, of oyſter-ſhells, ſcraped till they are tranſparent, which however give but a feeble light. They have charcoal fires in the middle of their rooms in winter. The walls of their rooms, inſtead of hangings, are covered with thin white paper. There is a market held almoſt in every ſtreet, for all manner of proviſions. Frogs are eſteemed the moſt delicious food, and bear a much greater price than any other meat, though they are of a blackiſh hue. Viper broth was in reputation here long before it was in London. Here is the remarkable water-caſtle, which is ſo much admired by travellers. We may here remark, reſpecting the diet and dreſs of the people of this empire, that the Tartars and Chineſe, by their intermarriages, are become in a manner the ſame people: they are not to be diſtinguiſhed either by their ſtature or features, any more than by their habits, in which the government requires both nations to be uniform.

The town of Macao is ſituate on a ſmall iſland at the mouth of the river Ta, or Canton. The Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of the iſland in their firſt voyage to China, and had a vaſt trade here: but were at length forced to ſubmit to the dominion of the Chineſe: however they are permitted to govern their own people by the laws and cuſtoms of Portugal. The Romiſh miſſionaries, when they are perſecuted and driven out of China, uſually retire to this place.

Fu-chew is the capital of the province of Fo-kyen.

Amoy, or Emoui, is a port-town in the province of Fo-kyen, oppoſite the iſland of Formoſa. The Engliſh had a factory here; but were obliged, by the unfair dealings of the Chineſe, to diſcontinue their voyages thither.

Nimpo, which is another large city in the province of Che-ky-ang, has a commodious harbour, and a very great foreign trade, eſpecially wih Japan, from which it is diſtant but two days ſail.

Nan-yang is a city on the river Kiam. Tong-chew, a city one hundred and eighty miles north-weſt of Canton. Kiew, Hew-kew-hien, a city on the river Kiam. Shaw-chaw, a city one hundred miles north of Canton.

The town of Chuſan is ſituated on an iſland near the coaſt of Che-ky-ang and Nankin, north-eaſt of Nimpo, where the Engliſh once had a factory; but not finding the advantage in trade they expected, retired to Canton, which, as we before obſerved, engroſſes moſt of the European trade.

The reſt of the chief towns of the ſeveral provinces are Tay-ven, capital of the province of Shan-ſi; Sin-gan, capital of Shen-ſi; Koyſong, capital of Ho-nan; Hang-chew, capital of Che-ky-ang; Nan-chang, capital of Kyang-ſi; Vu-chang, on the river Kiam, capital of Hu-quang; Ching-try, capital of Se-chuen; Quew-yang, capital of Quew-chew; Yun-nan, capital of Yun-nan; Quew-lin, capital of Quang-ſi. In the whole it is computed, there are one hundred and fifty capital cities; one thouſand three hundred and twelve of the ſecond claſs; two thouſand three hunnred and fifty-ſeven fortified towns; ten millions of families, and upwards of fifty millions of people. Some compute there are fifty-eight millions of people in China, which, it is ſaid, may be eaſily known by the poll-tax; every man being obliged to hang a little table over his door, ſpecifying the number of ſouls he has in his houſe, the truth of which is from time to time examined by an officer appointed for that purpoſe.

SECT. III.

Of the Perſons, Habits, and Genius of the People of CHINA.

THE Chineſe men are not very handſome in their perſons; their ſtature is rather low: nor are their complexions to be admired, eſpecially in the ſouthern provinces of the empire, which lie near the tropic, where the heat of the ſun muſt neceſſarily make them tawny; but in the northern

northern provinces, both their ſtature and complexion are much mended. They have flat, broad faces, black hair, little dark eyes, ſhort noſes, and thin beards; pulling moſt part of them off with tweazers, inſtead of ſhaving, reſerving only whiſkers and ſome long hairs on the bottom of their chins. The nail on the little finger of their left hand is ſuffered to grow a great length beyond the finger, and ſcraped and poliſhed with abundance of care; by people of condition, this being looked upon as one of the diſtinguiſhing marks of a gentleman in this part of the world.

The Chineſe were mighty proud of the hair of their heads, and uſed to tie it up as our women do in a roll; but the Tartar ſovereigns have compelled them to ſhave their heads, leaving only one lock on the middle of the crown, over which they wear a cap ſhaped like a bell, which does not come ſo low as their ears, and therefore they carry a fan in their hands, to ſcreen them from the ſun. The Chineſe who left their country on the Tartar conqueſt, and fled to the neighbouring iſlands, ſtill wear their hair.

The men wear a veſt, with full, long ſleeves, which come down to their fingers ends. Over the veſt they wear a looſe coat, ſhorter than the veſt, with ſhort ſleeves; and when they viſit, or receive company, they have a gown thrown over all; they wear alſo ſhirts and breeches, or rather trowzers, which reach down half way of their legs, theſe are made of ſattin quilted; they werr alſo ſilk boots, or buſkins quilted, an inch thick, and over the foot put on a ſlipper, with a thick ſole, for the boots have no ſole: men of faſhion are never ſeen without their boots, in company, either at home or abroad. But though the Chineſe men are thus cloathed, when they are in company, the natives of the ſouthern provinces throw off their caps, gowns, veſt, &c. when they are with their families, or intimate friends in private, and wear nothing but a thin pair of drawers; and the common people, mechanics and labourers, go about the ſtreets with only a pair of drawers on, and are exceeding tawny.

Great coats are worn by the Chineſe in rainy weather; which are covered with a kind of green oil-ſkin; and they have boots made of good ſtrong leather, when they ride out. At their girdles, they hang their pouch of tobacco, their pipe, which is braſs, their handkerchiefs, and the little chop-ſticks they eat with, and their knife, for they have no other pocket. In winter, people of diſtinction wear rich furs, lamb-ſkins, or quilted cotton. Their ſcymetars, or broad ſwords, are worn on the left thigh, with the point bending forward.

Officers of ſtate and magiſtrates, have ſome animal embroidered on their cloaths, either in gold or ſilver, which expreſſes the nature and dignity of their reſpective offices. The military men chuſe lions, dragons, or tygers; and the civil magiſtrates, birds; which may not be improperly ſtiled their arms, as they diſtinguiſh the ſeveral degrees of honour they have been advanced to, though theſe are diſuſed when they are out of place; honours not being hereditary in China.

The women, who are kept at home, and not expoſed to the ſun, are fair enough; and, except that they have little eyes and ſhort noſes, may vie with our European beauties. Their features are, in other reſpects, tolerably engaging. Their principal beauty is thought to lie in their little feet. As ſoon as a girl is born, her feet are bound up ſo hard, that they cannot grow to their natural ſize; which makes them walk a little aukwardly, the foot of a grown woman not being bigger than that of a child of three years of age. They wear embroidered ſilk ſhoes, in ſhape much like our womens, except that they are turned up at the toes, and that the heels are round and of an equal bigneſs from top to bottom: theſe they make themſelves, and are very proud of ſhewing their fine feet when they have an opportunity.

The ladies uſually dreſs in their hair, part of which is made up in a roll, and faſtened with a bodkin: the reſt is divided into two locks, which fall gracefully upon the neck. In the northern provinces they wear a ſort of caul of thin ſilk over their hair; and in cold weather, in Pe-king, they wrap a kind of cornet, or black hood, about it. They wear, as the men do, a long veſt of fattin, red, blue, or green; the elder women chuſe black or purple; over this they have a looſe gown with wide ſleeves, ſo long that they would reach the ground, if they were not held up.

The Chineſe youth, being bred up under a ſtrict diſcipline, and taught to pay the profoundeſt reverence to their parents and ſuperiors, they ſoon get the command of their paſſions, or at leaſt, find means to conceal them. When they have an intereſt to manage, no people know better how to inſinuate themſelves into the good opinion of thoſe they deal with, or improve an opportunity when it offers; nor will they decline the moſt hazardous undertaking, where they have any gain in view: Throngs of people are perpetually in motion upon their rivers, on their coaſts, and upon the roads; trade and commerce ſeem to be the ſoul of that people, and the ſpring of all their actions; nor do they much ſcruple impoſing on thoſe they deal with, of which many of them are ſo far from being aſhamed, that they will laugh at the man they have bubbled. A foreigner goes in great danger of being cheated, if he truſts to his own judgment, and if he employs a Chineſe factor, as is uſual, both factor and merchant will ſometimes combine together to deceive the ſtranger.

They continually apply themſelves to diſcover the inclinations, humours and tempers of thoſe they have any commerce with; and keep up a fair correſpondence even with their greateſt enemies. However, there do not want inſtances of fair dealing, and open generous uſage, and fidelity not to be corrupted.

There are no duels amongſt them; all their revenge is ſecretly managed, and they cannot only diſſemble their malice, but ſeem patient even to inſenſibility, till they have a favourable opportunity to ſtrike home. Their great men are engaged in a perpetual purſuit of places and great poſts, and carry on their deſigns by bribes and preſents, as in other courts: yet as the laws prohibit theſe practices, and refer all to the merit of the candidate, the moſt ſubtle and deſigning amongſt them ever put on the greateſt appearance of modeſty and ſelf-denial; but however the Chineſe may excel in cunning, it is obſerved, that their courage is not extraordinary.

SECT. IV.

Of the Diet, Liquors, Ceremonies at Table, Saluts, Viſits, &c. of the CHINESE.

THE Chineſe are far from being nice or ſuperſtitious in their diet; they do not only eat all kinds of fleſh, fiſh and fowl as the Europeans do, but horſe fleſh is in great eſteem among them; nor are dogs, cats, ſnakes, frogs, or ſcarce any ſort of vermin refuſed; but rice, roots, pulſe and garden-ſtuff are the common food. Broths and ſoups they have alſo made either of fleſh or fiſh, which they mix with their rice. Salt and pepper are never brought to table, the meat being ſeaſoned in the dreſſing. They eat their fleſh boiled, fryed, and broiled; but it is cut into little ſquare pieces, like dice, before it comes to table. They uſe neither cloth, napkins, knives, ſpoons or forks, but two little round ſticks of ebony, or other wood, ſometimes tipped with ſilver at the ends, with which they take up their meat very dexterouſly; and for their rice and broth they hold the cup to their mouths and lade it in with their little ſticks. They uſe high chairs and tables, contrary to all the people of the eaſt beſides, who ſit croſs-legged upon the floor. Every perſon almoſt has a little lacquered table to himſelf at an entertainment, on which is ſet meat and rice in little china diſhes or ſaucers, and ſometimes their diſhes are of ſilver.

Their principal liquor is tea; they ſeldom, if ever, drink cold water; poſſibly their water is not wholeſome till it is boiled, and ſettled, for it is very foul, eſpecially that of all the rivers, which carries with it a blue or yellow ſlime: and the original cauſe of their drinking tea probably was to refine the water, and make it more palatable. They have ſtrong liquors alſo, particularly hockſhue, which is brown beer made of wheat, and ſamſhue, as they call it; ſpirits, but have no wine, though the country abounds in fine grapes.

They are exceedingly ceremonious at entertainments; every one handles his little chop-ſticks, and carries the meat to his mouth when the reſt of the company do. They drink alſo all at once; taking the cup in both hands they firſt carry it as high as their heads, and then drink without ſpeaking a word. There ſtands a man to keep time, that one may not eat or drink before another; to begin firſt, or make another wait, is reckoned extreme rude. When a freſh diſh appears, they flouriſh their little ſticks again, and having taken two or three mouthfuls the maſter of the ceremonies makes a ſign for them to lay down their arms, which they do exactly in the ſame order they took them up. Then the liquors are preſented the of which they ſip a little, but no man drinks more than he cares for; if he makes the motion it is ſufficient

thus they ſit ſilent at table three or four hours, till the maſter gives the ſign to riſe. Then they walk into the garden, and at their return they find a deſert prepared, conſiſting of dried fruits and ſweetmeats, which they eat with their tea, and a ſet of players are brought in to act a comedy for their diverſion.

Theſe ceremonies required at their entertainments are eſteemed very ridiculous and troubleſome by ſtrangers, but they are looked upon in another light by the natives; they obſerve they are part of the conſtitution, and contribute towards civilizing their people: that thoſe outward condeſcenſions and obliging expreſſions, required of all ſorts of people, in high or low life, tend to promote peace and good order in the ſtate, as well as in every neighbourhood; that the prohibiting coarſe and ſcurrilous language prevents a great many quarrels, and as for oaths and obſcene diſcourſe, theſe are never heard of amongſt the Chineſe. They ſalute one another by laying the right hand on the breaſt, and bowing a little; and when they approach a prince, or great man, they kneel upon one knee, till they are bid to riſe; but it would be an affront, it ſeems, to ſalute a great man as he paſſes along the ſtreets, unleſs the perſon has particular buſineſs with him; but the people ſtand up when ſuch a one paſſes by, fixing their eyes upon the ground, and with their arms acroſs.

When a gentleman deſigns to viſit another, he ſends a ſervant to meet him with a note, intimating his intention; and being informed he is at home, he ſets out, and is received according to his quality. If the perſon he goes to viſit is much above him, the perſon viſited does not ſtir out of his chair; if they are equal, he receives his gueſt at the hall door; and if the viſitor be much his ſuperior, he goes out into the ſtreet to meet him, where they embrace each other with a great deal of ſeeming affection, and a ſet of ſhort compliments paſs, which are preſcribed them; the one knows what he is to ſay, and the other what he is to anſwer, and they ſtop at every door, where their bows and cringes are repeated; one ſays, "Pray walk," and the other anſwers, "It muſt not be;" which being repeated three or four times, the ſtranger ſuffers himſelf to be overcome, and goes on to the next door. If there be more gueſts than one, when they come into the room where they are to be entertained, the next diſpute is who ſhall ſit uppermoſt; and after a great deal of cringing, every one takes the place which belongs to him, according to the poſt or employment he has in the government; they are obliged to ſit upright, with their eyes fixed upon the ground, their hands ſtretched out on their knees, and their feet even; they are to look grave and compoſed, and muſt not be too talkative; and ſometimes there is not a word ſpoken more than the compliments preſcribed. When they do ſpeak, it is with all the ſubmiſſion imaginable, and never in firſt or ſecond perſon; for inſtance, inſtead of ſaying, "I am obliged to you for the favour you have done me," they will ſay, "The favour my lord has done me, who am ſo much beneath him, has laid his ſervant under the higheſt obligations." And inſtead of ſaying, "I preſent you with this curioſity which my country produces," they will ſay, "Permit the ſervant to offer his lord this curioſity which his poor country affords." Again, whatever comes from his lordſhip's noble province is well wrought, or extraordinary fine. And never ſay, "I" or "You," but "Your ſervant" or "Your ſcholar" did ſuch a thing; The doctor, or My lord, ſaid this or that; and not, You ſaid, or You did it; this would be reckoned the height of incivility, and a manner of ſpeaking only to be uſed to ſlaves.

Tea is the uſual liquor drank upon a viſit; and much ceremony is there uſed in taking the diſh, carrying it to one's mouth, and ſetting it down, or returning it to the ſervant; and when they take leave, much the ſame cringes are repeated as when the gueſts arrive. Ambaſſadors are allowed maſters of the ceremonies to inſtruct them forty days before they are admitted to their audience, that they may commit no blunders, and many of the Chineſe will be offended with ſtrangers, if they omit to cringe and fawn, according to the rules preſcribed them.

The Chineſe are ſo far from putting off their caps when they ſalute one another, that it is reckoned very indecent to appear before their betters bareheaded: and upon this account, in conformity to the cuſtom of that country, the Pope thought fit to diſpenſe with the miſſionaries appearing bareheaded in the Chriſtian churches in China.

Gaming, though prohibited by the Chineſe laws, is much practiſed amongſt them, and there are inſtances of thoſe who have followed it ſo immoderately, that they have played away their eſtates, wives, and children; which they will ſometimes hazard upon a card, or a ſingle caſt of a die.

SECT. V.

Giving a Deſcription of the Highways, travelling, and Carriages of the CHINESE.

HIGHWAYS are thrown up from one end of the kingdom to the other, though more people travel by water on their canals, than by land; and their grand canals are faced with ſtone, the veſſels being drawn by the ſtrength of men.

Their highways are conſiderably raiſed over vallies and low grounds; and they cut paſſages through mountains and rocks, that travellers may the more eaſily paſs them. Their roads are about twenty yards wide; and at proper diſtances they have little wooden buildings, thirty feet high, called mercuries, erected upon them, to direct the traveller; they are not unlike their triumphal arches, and ſtand at about a mile and a half diſtance from each other; over them are written, in large characters, the names of the towns whither the roads lead, and their diſtances, which are exactly meaſured at the charge of the public. The country militia keep guard here, and have a guard-houſe, for the ſecurity and protection of travellers, and forward all expreſſes and diſpatches that are ſent to or from court. The guards examine people that go armed, and, if they cannot produce a paſs, detain them. Such care is taken, that a robbery is ſeldom heard of: another reaſon that ſo few robberies happen is, all people are employed; for it may be ſaid, with a great degree of certainty, that there is not an idle hand to be found from one end of the empire to the other.

Their roads are conſtantly in good repair; which is attributed to the emperor's annually viſiting the different provinces; and whether he goes, or not, it is given out that he deſigns to make a progreſs through ſome part of his dominions; and if he finds the roads bad, the governors and magiſtrates of the places through which he paſſes are in danger of loſing their heads. It is, however, very inconvenient travelling by land in a dry ſeaſon, the ſoil being light and beaten to powder by conſtant trampling and the numerous carriages, inſomuch that they travel all day through clouds of duſt; which is one reaſon why many people chuſe, in ſummer-time, to go by water.

The Chineſe have horſes, mules, and camels to ride on, but they chiefly travel in litters carried on men's ſhoulders, or by mules. Some gentlemen travel in vehicles, which they denominate chariots, with two wheels, not unlike poſt-chaiſes. Their travelling chairs are made of cane, but have no windows, only the upper part of the front is open; the chairmen carry the poles on their ſhoulders, and not in their hands as with us. The Tartars uſually ride on horſeback both in towns and upon the roads; their ſaddles are made like thoſe in Turky, and, like the Turks, they ride very ſhort, with their knees almoſt as high as the top of the ſaddle; and when they engage an enemy, they riſe up and ſtand on their ſtirrups, to give the greater force to the ſtroke they make.

Goods are frequently carried by porters on their backs; the roads are full of them: the boats are drawn by men almoſt naked, both driven hard and uſed almoſt as barbarouſly as beaſts of burden are in this part of the world.

Upon all the roads are houſes for the entertainment of the governors and officers, going to and returning from their poſts, where they live at the public expence, and have horſes and carriages provided for them at every ſtage: and here all other travellers may have the ſame conveniencies, that can procure an order for it, which is not difficult to obtain; and if they have not ſuch an order, may be accommodated with every thing they want at a reaſonable price. A book of the roads is publiſhed by authority, wherein the diſtances of towns are aſcertained, and the ſtages proper to reſt at; and the men that carry chairs or litters, it is ſaid, will travel five miles in an hour.

SECT. VI.

Containing an Account of the Nature of the Soil, its Produce, their Huſbandry, Plants, Animals, Mines, &c.

AS China, like other countries, of a large extent, conſiſts of hills and vallies, we muſt therefore naturally expect to meet with a great variety of ſoils, grain, fruit,

plants and animals. The mould or vegetable earth is exceeding light and porous in moſt provinces, ſo that a ſingle ox or buffalo will draw the plough, and in ſome places the ploughs are drawn by men. The mountainous provinces of Shen-ſi, Ho-nan, Quan-tong, and Fo-kyen indeed are not very fit for tillage, but they are covered with excellent timber. In the provinces of Pe-king, Shan-ſi, Shang-tong, and Fo-kyen, wheat and barley thrive well; and in Hu-quang, Nan-kin, and Che-ky-ang, which are low countries, and frequently flooded, they have great plenty of rice.

When they have cleared a field of weeds, that is intended for rice, they turn the water into it, and reduce it into a perfect hotch-pot; and having ſown the rice firſt in beds, where it comes up too thick to yield much, they tranſplant it into their fields, when it is grown ſix or eight inches high, and ſupply the fields with water, in which it grows till the rice is almoſt ripe; after which the water being dried up in the fair ſeaſon, they cut and threſh it out, uſually in the fields where it grows, and in ſeveral provinces have two crops in a year. The rice is more like oats than any other grain; the ſtraw hard and ſolid, of which whiſks are made; and we frequently find ſome grains of rice left in the ſtraw. There needs no dung to render the land fruitful which is ſown with rice; the water ſupplies the place of dung, as well as rain; but for wheat and barley, they uſe all manner of compoſt, and frequently burn the turf, the aſhes whereof are eſteemed a good manure. In the corn fields we ſee neither trees, hedges, or ditches; they do not loſe an inch of ground that will produce corn.

This country, extending from the tropic of Cancer to the latitude of fifty degrees and upwards, has all the fruits proper to hot and cold climates, and ſome plants that are not found in any other part of the world. They have moſt of the fruits that are known in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, apples, pears, walnuts, cheſnuts, and olives, but make no oil of the laſt; there are alſo cocoas, mangoes, guavas, plantains, ananas or pine-apples, which they have brought from India; they have, likewiſe, pomegranates, melons, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, and other tropical fruits; and from hence the Portugueſe tranſplanted thoſe fine ſweet oranges, called China oranges, which come to as great perfection in Portugal as in China. There is a great variety of ſweet oranges, beſides thoſe imported by the Portugueſe; ſome of them are preſcribed to ſick people, being roaſted in the embers; others are ſqueezed flat, and converted into a wet ſweet-meat, of which jars are frequently brought to England.

They have alſo ſome fruit which do not grow in Europe, particularly the fruit lichi is in great eſteem among the Chineſe, and is peculiar to the country. It is a kind of plum of the ſize of a large walnut, the meat is ſoft and wateriſh, and has a moſt delicious flavour, and has a long ſtone; this fruit, being dried, turns black and wrinkled like a prune: they preſerve them all the year to eat with their tea, to which it gives a ſharpneſs much more agreeable than ſugar.

The largeſt fruit that grows in China is the jaka, which has within it a great many yellow nuts, and afford a delicious kernel. This fruit grows to the body of the tree, for, it is ſaid, the tree is too weak to bear it.

There are trees in the province of Quang-ſi, which inſtead of pith, have a ſoft pulp, of which they make flour of a pretty good taſte.

The varniſh-tree, whoſe leaf and bark reſemble the aſh, ſeldom grows more than fifteen feet high. When it is about a foot in compaſs, they make inciſions round it with a pruning-knife, and hang veſſels underneath them in the evening, and find a conſiderable quantity of the liquor in them the next morning; but the people who draw the varniſh, or work in it, are forced to cover themſelves from head to foot, or they endanger their healths, if not their lives. This varniſh preſerves the wood, beſides giving a beauty to cabinets.

An oil is alſo drawn from another tree almoſt like varniſh, which has not thoſe ill effects which the former has: this is ſometimes called lack, from whence things waſhed with it are called lacquered ware; but the words lack and varniſh are moſt commonly mixed together, and uſed indifferently for each other.

China is remarkable for a ſort of white wax, not made by bees but gathered from trees, which they have in ſuch abundance, that it ſerves the whole empire. It is found chiefly in the provinces of Hu-quang and Shang-tong: it is produced by an inſect not bigger than a flea, which has a ſting ſo ſharp, that it pierces the bark, and even the body of the trees. The country people gather the eggs of this inſect in the ſpring, from whence proceed worms, which they place at the foot of the trees that are proper for them: they creep up and diſperſe themſelves through all the branches, and penetrating to the very pith, convert their nouriſhment into wax as white as ſnow, which they work out of the hole they have made; it hangs congealed in drops about the tree, and the people gather it and make it into cakes for the market. Their tallow, which is produced by a certain tree, will be mentioned under the next head of plants. Neither cloves, nutmegs, mace, or cinnamon, grow in China.

There is another fruit peculiar to them called louyen, or dragon's eye, it is exactly round, yellowiſh when it is ripe, full of juice, and very cool and inoffenſive. Of all their trees, their tallow-tree is the moſt remarkable: it is of the height of a cherry-tree, the leaf ſhaped like a heart, and of a lively red; the fruit is encloſed in a rind divided into three ſegments, which open when it is ripe, and diſcover three white kernels as big as a ſmall nut; theſe trees being planted in a ſtraight line chequerwiſe, this mixture of white and red makes them look like a parterre of flower-pots at a diſtance; but what this tree is moſt valued for is the kernel, which has all the qualities of tallow, both in ſmell, colour, and conſiſtency, and they make their candles of it; but the wick being made of ſmall dry ſtick, inſtead of cotton, they cannot poſſibly burn ſo clear as ours, and create a very offenſive ſmell.

They have alſo a tree like the walnut-tree peculiar to this country, which bears a ſeed about as big as a pea, much like pepper, and which the inhabitants uſe inſtead of it. Their kitchen gardens abound in all manner of herbs and ſallads, roots, peas, and beans, and a variety of other pulſe.

No fountains are to be met with in any part of China, except in the emperor's gardens.

Tea or tcha, is a plant peculiar to this country: it uſually grows at the foot of ſome mountain, and the beſt upon a ſtony ſoil: the root reſembles that of a peach-tree, and its flower that of white wild roſes. The tree is of all ſizes, from two feet to an hundred in height, and ſome of them are ſo thick, that two men cannot graſp them according to the Chineſe herbal. But though there may be ſome very high and large trees, as thorns will ſometimes riſe to a great height, it is accounted but as a buſh or ſhrub, and generally grows about as high as a roſe-tree. It is planted upon little hills, each plant about three feet diſtance from another, and does not commonly grow wild. A judicious traveller tells us, he ſaw this plant in the province of Fo-kyen, where it grew upon the ſide of a little hill, and the plant was not above five or ſix feet high; that ſeveral ſtalks an inch thick a-piece were joined together, and dividing at the top into ſeveral little branches, formed a kind of cluſter like our myrtle: that the trunk ſeemed dry, but bore green branches and leaves; the leaves are narrow, ending in a point, and were an inch, or inch and a half long, and indented; that the oldeſt were white and brittle, and taſted bitter; the young ones were ſoft, ſmooth, reddiſh, and tranſparent, and pretty ſweet to the taſte.

The three ſorts of tea commonly brought to Europe, are all from the ſame plant, and only the ſeaſons of the year when it is gathered, the different manner of curing it, and the ſoil makes the difference. Bohea or voiij, ſo called from ſome mountains in the province of Fo-kyen, where it grows, is the very firſt bud gathered in the beginning of March, and dried in the ſhade: the imperial or bing tea is the ſecond growth in April; and ſingle or common green tea the laſt, in May and June, which are both dried in little pans over the fire. The tea ſhrub is an evergreen, and is in the flower from October to January. The ſeed is ripe in September and October following; but for one freſh and full ſeed there are a hundred naught. Its ſeed veſſels are tricapſular, each capſula containing one nut or ſeed; but though there be the veſtiges of ſeveral only one comes to perfection. It may be neceſſary to obſerve further, that we are aſſured the bohea is cured by laying the leaves on hot copper-plates, and the other is dried in the open air, and both the green and bohea have ſome ingredient mixed with them, which may contribute to produce the ill effects complained of; for though all tea be naturally green, yet that colour is heightened by ſome ingredient; and the bohea is changed yellow by another ingredient; but how or with what drugs this is done, the Chineſe have hitherto concealed from us. We ſhall only add, that this ſhrub does not grow either in the coldeſt or



Engraved by Thos. Medley.

) CHINESE HUSBANDMEN *with their manner of* TILLAGE

A NEW and Correct MAP of NORWAY, SWEDEN and DENMARK. from the Latest GEOGRAPHICAL IMPROVEMENTS.

British Statute Miles

GERMAN OCEAN

NORTH SEA

BALTIC SEA

GULF OF BOTHNIA

GULF OF FINLAND

LAPLAND

SWEDISH LAPLAND

RUSSIAN LAPLAND

Lapland of Torneå

Lapland of Pithea

Lapland of Lulea

Dalecarlia

Helsingia

Medelpadia

Angermania

Jemptia

Herjedalia

Jamtia

Westrogothia

Smaland

Upland

Finland Proper

Nyland

Carelia

Ingria

Livonia

Esthonia

Courland

Samogitia

Prussia

Polish Prussia

Poland

Russia

Sweden

Denmark

Germany

Great Britain

Norway

Part of White Sea

Part of Ladoga Lake

Part of Onega Lake

Shetland Isles

Mainland I.

Pomona I.

Orkney Isles

Edinburgh

Berwick

Holy I.

Humber R.

Hull

Yarmouth

Heligoland I.

Ysselmonde I.

Texel I.

Vlie R.

Ems R.

Weser R.

Elbe R.

Eyder R.

Trave R.

Oder R.

Vistula R.

Memel R.

Niemen R.

Duna R.

Gulf of Riga

Gulf of Finland

Gulf of Bothnia

Aland I.

Gothland I.

Oesel I.

Dagden I.

Bornholm I.

Zeeland I.

Funen I.

Rugen I.

Wardhus

Vardoe

Hammerfest

Tromsoe

Loffoden or Loffoen Isles

Iles Weroe

Reyt I.

Dorver I.

Troeneygh I.

Lewand I.

Isles Heyligeland

Nomendal

Grip I.

Drontheim

Marstrand

Gothenburg

Carlscrona

Calmar

Stockholm

Upsal

Abo

Wasa

Christinestad

Biorneborg

Tornea

Kola

Kandalax

Umbolo

Kemi

Kiddi

Kuusamo

Archangel

Kolguero I.

Kandanoss I.

Korelskoi

Revel

Riga

Memel

Konigsberg

Dantzick

Colberg

Rostock

Lubeck

Hamburgh

Bremen

Embden

Amsterdam

Helder

Flushing

Ostend

Calais

Dover

Yarmouth

Hull

Humber R.

Edinburgh

Berwick

Aberdeen

Peterhead

Fraserburgh

Buchan Ness

Pentland Firth

Orkney Isles

Shetland Isles

Mainland I.

Pomona I.

Cape Wrath

Murray G.

Stavanger

Bergen

Berghen

Christiansand

Skagen

Lindesnes

Fleckeren I.

Royal I.

Hitteren I.

Frieschem

Diechim

Ruy R.

Ilhuick

Fanoe I.

Ryper

Slit I.

Nordstrand I.

Heyligeland I.

Reff

Lubeck

Wismar

Rugen I.

Bergen

Colberg

Dantzick

Daunick G.

Konigsberg

Memel

Windau

Libau

Pinangen

Pinjoki

Carlogrod

Tornea

Kemi

Kiddi

Kuusamo

Archangel

Kolguero I.

Kandanoss I.

Korelskoi

Revel

Dagden I.

Oesel I.

Riga

Pernau

Ilmen

Ladoga Lake

Onega Lake

Wasa

Biorneborg

Abo

Aland I.

Christinestad

Gothland I.

Bornholm I.

Zeeland I.

Funen I.

Lindholm I.

Malmoe

Helsingborg

Gothenburg

Marstrand

Grip I.

Nomendal

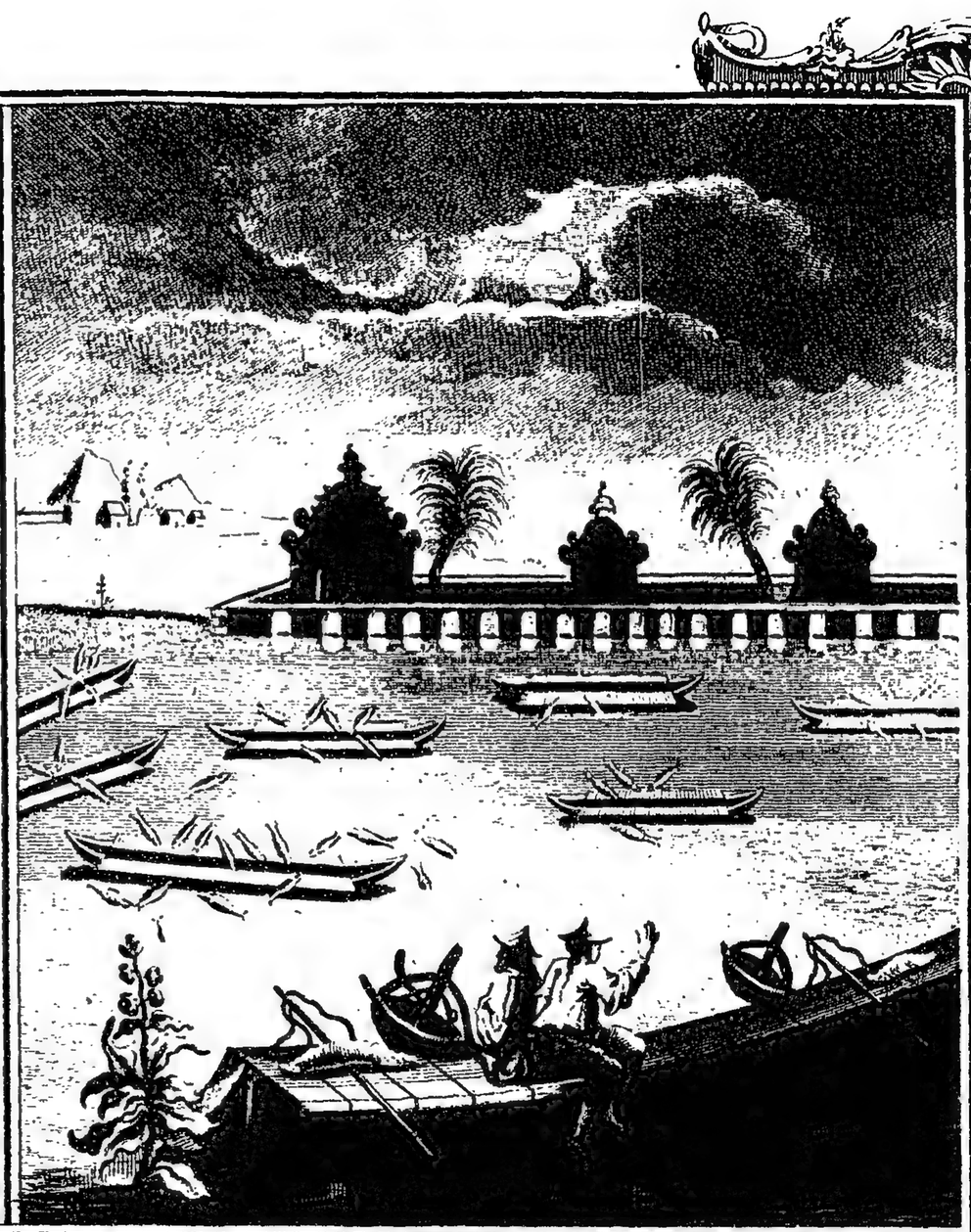
Drontheim

Trondhem

Throndhem

Helgoland





Rennoldson sculp.

CHINESE, *method of taking* WILD-DUCKS. *Also their way of* CATCHING FISH, *and a famous* WATER CASTLE.

the hotteſt parts of the country, but between twenty-five and thirty degrees of north latitude, and more in the province of Kyang-ſi than any other; and though this plant will grow almoſt in any climate, it degenerates, and is good for little, if it be tranſplanted and carried to any country, though lying under the ſame parallel.

Ginſeng, or man-plant (ſo called, becauſe the root divides into two branches, reſembling a man's thighs) is uſed as a tea by the Chineſe, who for that purpoſe infuſe the leaves, and ſometimes the root in boiling water. The natives aſcribe the virtue of every other ſimple to this plant; but it is ſo ſcarce, and conſequently dear, that none but the court, and people of condition, can afford to purchaſe it. A ſingle diſh is enough to drink at a time: more would produce ill effects. This is gathered in Tartary, and the provinces bordering upon it: the natives call it the plant which diſpenſes immortality, beſides other pompous names.

The weeping-willow tree is much admired by the Chineſe, who plant it on the ſides of all their canals and rivers, and near moſt of the ponds in their gardens; they deem its ſhade the moſt pleaſing of any, and their paſtoral poets mention it with peculiar reſpect.

The iron-tree is alſo a native of this country: its wood is ſo extremely hard and durable, that anchors are formed of it, which, the Chineſe affirm, will laſt longer than thoſe which are made of iron.

The bamboo or cane-tree, is pretty high and thick: the bud has an excellent flavour, and the pith is very agreeable eating; it grows in marſhy grounds, is uſed in buildings, and the tubes of it are often converted into water-pipes.

The herb of a thouſand years alſo grows in China. This, the natives pretend, never dies: and they have a flower called mu-tang, much admired, which opens like a roſe; and it is of a purple colour, ſtreaked red, white, and yellow, which grows upon a ſhrub in their gardens; but this country does not produce a great variety of flowers.

Some of the Chineſe emperors have not thought huſbandry below their care. Their hiſtories relate that the Emperor Ven held the plough himſelf; and that his empreſs planted mulberry-trees, bred ſilk-worms, and cloathed her family with the ſilk they produced; and they have a yearly feſtival at the vernal equinox, when the governors of towns and provinces, march in proceſſion, with the inſtruments of huſbandry carried before them. The Emperor Hiaen, it is related, applied himſelf to the ploughing and ſowing the ground three years ſucceſſively, and ſent perſons ſkilled in huſbandry to the moſt diſtant provinces, to teach the people how to improve their grounds: and many books have been wrote by their princes on the ſubject of tillage.

Their animals are, camels, horſes, oxen, ſheep, hogs, ſome few elephants, and all manner of wild beaſts. Their beſt horſes are brought from Chineſe Tartary: thoſe in the ſouth of China are a ſmall breed, not fit for draught, or to carry burthens. The black hogs, with bellies that touch the ground, come from this country. Their ſheep are like thoſe of Turky, having great tails that weigh ſeveral pounds. Here are alſo rabbits and hares in great numbers. They have all manner of poultry, and hatch their eggs in ovens, heated with horſe-dung, as in Egypt; and here is an odoriferous ſtag, which produces muſk.

They abound alſo in ſea and river fiſh; and beſides the common way of taking fiſh in nets in their rivers and canals, they make uſe of a large fowl, or cormorant, which ſtands perched on the ſide of a boat, and when the maſter gives the ſignal, the bird takes its flight, and looks out for game, and having ſeized a fiſh, brings it to its maſter: ſome fly great numbers of theſe birds at once, and they will divide a river or lake amongſt them, and return to their maſters with the fiſh they have taken; and if the fiſh are large they will help one another to bring it to the boat, after which they take their flight again in ſearch of more: having ſtrings about their necks which prevent their ſwallowing any, till their maſter leaves off, and then they are ſuffered to prey for themſelves. Beſides the fiſh we have, there are ſome ſorts we want, particularly the gold and ſilver fiſh, which gentlemen keep in baſons in their gardens. They are not much larger than a man's finger: the male is of a fine red to the middle, and the reſt, with the tail, of bright yellow or gold colour: the female is of a ſilver white; the tail of either gathered thick like a noſegay: but theſe need no further deſcription, as ſome of them have been brought alive, and are now to be ſeen in England.

The Chineſe have mines of copper, lead and iron; and a mineral called tutenag, which has the reſemblance of tin; and it is ſaid there are gold mines. It is certain, gold is more plentiful in China than in any other country, which is the reaſon that private merchants, when they have made their fortunes by trading in India, bring home their wealth in gold duſt, which they purchaſe in China; and indeed all the gold found there is duſt waſhed down from the hills into rivulets, which being almoſt dry in the hot ſeaſon, the natives employ themſelves in taking up the ſand in ſieves and baſons, and ſeparating the gold from it. There is this further reaſon that private men bring home in gold duſt the amount of the riches they have acquired in India, namely, becauſe they are not permitted to bring to England any of the goods imported by the Eaſt India Company.

SECT. VII.

Containing an Account of the Manufactures and Traffic, Silk, Porcelane or China-Ware, &c. of the CHINESE.

THE chief manufactures of China are, ſilk, porcelain or china-ware, and cabinet-work. The Chineſe ſilk is reckoned the fineſt in the world. That which the natives eſteem the beſt is produced in the provinces of Nankin and Che-ky-ang: but foreigners ſet a great value on that of Canton. Great quantities of raw ſilk are imported from thence at preſent, as the duties (which were lately ſo high that they amounted to a prohibition) have been reduced by act of parliament. Wrought ſilks are alſo imported from China by the Engliſh Eaſt India Company; but theſe are exported again, being prohibited to be worn here. Both plain and flowered ſilks are brought over, but the figures are not raiſed, conſiſting only of different colours and ſhades: the principal figure is uſually a dragon, being the imperial arms which Fo-hi, the founder of the empire, gave, it is ſaid, four thouſand years ago. They work another dragon in their ſilks, called mam, with four claws, which every one is permitted to wear.

They have alſo manufactures of velvets, crapes, druggets, ſerges, and tammies; but they make no cloth, though they have exceeding good wool. In the northern provinces they ſet a great value upon Engliſh cloth, of which the India Company have been obliged to ſend over a great deal, and it was dearer than ſilk in China; but ſince ſo many other European nations have traded to India, the demand for the Engliſh cloth has greatly decreaſed.

There is a very great manufacture of cotton linen in this country, and another ſort of linen made of a plant called lo, which grows the bigneſs of a man's finger, and is found no where elſe. When it is dry, they bind it up in ſheaves, and water it like flax or hemp. The firſt ſkin being peeled off and thrown away, they divide the fibres of the next into ſmall threads, and, without beating or ſpinning, make a kind of linen of it, which is tranſparent, and exceeding cool and light. The common people uſually wear coarſe blue linen quilted with cotton, or lined with ſheep ſkins in the winter; and people of condition line their veſts and gowns with the ſables or fox-ſkins in cool weather: they only turn up their ſleeves, or border their veſts with ermines, which are very ſcarce here.

The Chineſe have two ſorts of raw ſilk; one is made by wild worms in the fields and upon the trees of the foreſt, which has no gloſs, is of a grey colour, very ſtrong, and waſhes like linen; it is highly valued, and coſts more than ſattin: for the other ſilk, they feed the worms in their houſes, with mulberry-leaves, forty days, and manage it as in Europe. They are ignorant of the art of wire-drawing, and conſequently have no gold and ſilver thread: to ſupply this defect, they roll their ſilk in thin wire plates, to give it the tinge; and ſometimes, inſtead of gilding the thread, they apply the leaf gold to the ſilk in the piece. This ſplendid finery ſoon tarniſhes, and is worn only by mandarins of high rank, and the ladies of their family.

Another very conſiderable manufacture in this country, is the porcelain or china-ware. It is made of a very ſtiff clay, or rather, ſoft white ſtone, found in the quarries of the province of Kyang-ſi; the pieces whereof being waſhed, and ſeparated from the other earth wherewith it is mixed, are beaten to a very fine powder, which they make into a paſte, and knead and beat it a long time afterwards, that the water may the better incorporate with it. They uſe a particular water, which is not to be found in the ſame part of the country the earth is: it is impregnated with a peculiar ſort of ſalt which purifies and refines the clay more than any other. When the paſte is ſufficiently kneaded, they

they form their veſſels and expoſe them to the ſun morning and evening; but take them in when the ſun is too hot, or it will warp them. Thus they dry the veſſels by degrees, and paint them as they find the earth proper to receive it. They alſo waſh over the cups with a ſort of lye or varniſh made of the ſame matter the porcelain is compoſed of, which gives them a particular luſtre. After this they bake them in a furnace, which they heat with a gentle uniform fire, and, for fear they ſhould receive any damage from the air, they do not draw them out immediately after they are baked, but let them cool gradually before they expoſe them to the air; from whence it appears that it requires a great deal of care and patience to bring this neat ware to perfection: but it is a great miſtake to think it takes up a hundred years, as ſome have reported; nay, it is evident that it is not many months about; for we ſend them the patterns of ſeveral veſſels from Europe, which they imitate, and return us the kinds we propoſed in a very ſhort time. The voyages which formerly took up nine months, is now accompliſhed in about five.

Their china-ware is of three different ſorts; and is diſtinguiſhed by the different colours: the firſt is yellow, and though this is coarſer than either of the other, yet, it being the imperial colour, is always uſed in the Emperor's court, and is not allowed to other people. The ſecond ſort is grey, with abundance of ſmall irregular lines in it croſſing one another; theſe are the moſt beautiful, but very rarely brought to Europe. The laſt, and moſt common ſort, is white, painted with flowers, trees, and birds, of a pure blue, which our merchants principally buy up. This ware is valued according to its fineneſs, its whiteneſs, the ſmoothneſs, the painting, and faſhion. The fineneſs is diſcovered by the tranſparency, which may be judged of by the edges where it is thinneſt. The whiteneſs is not to be judged of by the outward varniſh, but the earth itſelf is to be examined; and this appears the whiter the older it is, when the varniſh is in ſome meaſure worn off. If there be the leaſt wharl or roughneſs upon the ſurface, it is accounted a very great fault; it ought to be perfectly ſmooth and even throughout.

Their red painting, it is obſervable, are ſeldom very lively upon theſe veſſels, though they do not want very fine reds in China; but their blue is excellent; however, if care is not taken by the workmen, the whiteneſs of the porcelain will be ſullied by a blueiſh water which flows from the colour. Their flowers, it is obſerved, are pretty juſt in their painting; but their human figures monſtrous: and the reaſon of it is ſaid to be, becauſe regular pieces are not ſo taking in China as the miſ-ſhapen ill-proportioned pictures they ſend us.

The proceſs of painting the porcelain is ſomewhat tedious, and employs a great number of hands; it is the buſineſs of one to make the coloured circle near the edge; another traces the flowers, which are painted by a third; a fourth is employed in the formation of birds and other animals; a fifth forms rivers, rocks, &c. and a ſixth is engaged in the figures of men and women. Though they acquit themſelves tolerably well in drawing flowers, and in ſome other imitations, yet their repreſentation of animals are for the moſt part very aukwardly executed; which muſt be either the effect of ignorance in the rules of ſymmetry and proportion, or muſt proceed from an affectation of the groteſque.

They dip a pencil into the varniſh, when they paint in gold or ſilver, and draw the flowers and birds they deſign, and, letting it lie till it begins to dry, they lay on thin leaf gold and ſilver, or pin-duſt. Japan being the country we firſt received the fine cabinets from, we give this name to the lacquered ware we import from China and Tonquin; and perhaps it is all denominated Japan ware, becauſe the Japaneſe are the greateſt maſters in this art.

Paper in China is made of the inward bark of the bamboo, or large hollow knotted cane, which they beat, and make their ſheets ten or twelve feet long; it is mighty thin and ſmooth, and waſhed over with a ſort of varniſh, to prevent the ink's ſinking: but it is not ſo laſting as the paper of Europe; for being made of the bark of a tree, the worm is apt to take it; and this is the reaſon they have no ancient manuſcripts in China: their libraries conſiſt only of copies of authentic originals, being forced to tranſcribe or reprint their books in the ſpace of a few years.

The Chineſe ink is compoſed of lamp-black, extracted from ſeveral materials; but the beſt is made of hog's greaſe burnt in a lamp; they mix a ſort of oil and perfumes with it, which gives it an agreeable ſmell; having made it into a paſte, they form it into little long ſquare ſticks with a mould, and dry them; when they write they rub this ſtick in a little water, and it will make a ſhining black ink, which never ſpreads beyond the ſtroke of the pen or pencil, though the paper is ſo fine that it ſometimes ſinks through, and diſgraces the writing.

The making of ink is eſteemed a very reputable employment in China; and is even ranked among the liberal arts, from its utility to the ſciences, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe. In the city of Hoei-tcheou, famous for the fineſt ink, the ink-makers have ſeveral ſmall apartments lighted up both day and night with lamps, where they manufacture this uſeful article.

The Chineſe carry on a very extenſive trade with foreigners, moſt of the nations of Europe importing the produce of their country: but they never make any long voyages themſelves. All their merchandize is tranſported to Europe by European ſhips; but with all the nations of India the Chineſe trade in their own bottoms, but no people are more induſtrious, or will run greater hazards to increaſe their fortunes than theſe people will in the Indian ſeas: they have alſo a vaſt inland trade, from one province to another, by their canals, every province being ſupplied by water-carriage, with the merchandize of thoſe that lie the moſt diſtant from them. The profit they make of the ſilks, china-ware, and other produce of their country, is immenſe: as few countries produce the ſame articles, they ſet what price they pleaſe upon them, and receive chiefly ſilver in return: and yet ſo cautious they are, that they will not ſuffer the nations that bring them all this wealth to enter their towns.

Canton is the only port we traffic with, and there we are admitted no further than the ſuburbs. They ſee how the Dutch have depoſed many of the Indian princes, and uſurped the dominion of their reſpective countries: they know that their forces are not equal to European armies: and, to ſay the truth, it is only their great diſtance from Europe, and the vaſt extent of the Chineſe dominions, that ſecures them in the poſſeſſion of their country. If China lay as near France as Germany does, the grand monarch would long ago have made a conqueſt of it, and monopolized all its rich produce. The Dutch would, no doubt, have done it, if they could have ſent colonies ſufficient to have kept ſo large a kingdom in ſubjection to them. The ſame pretences would have ſerved them to have invaded China, as they made uſe of for attacking Java, Macaſſar, and the Spice iſlands, which would have been acquiſitions equally valuable to them.

If the foreign merchants do not ſettle ſome preliminaries with the hippos, or commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Canton, before the ſhips ſail up the river, they will be notoriouſly impoſed upon in China. The ſupercargoes and captains, therefore, are adviſed to remain at anchor at the Portugueſe iſland of Macao, till the meaſure of the ſhip, and the licence for a free trade are adjuſted; and when they come up the river, preſents muſt be made to the Cuſtom-houſe officers, or they will be very troubleſome; but it is more adviſeable to give them from time to time ſmall preſents, than to advance large ſums; for if they are ever ſo large, they will be forgot, if their memories are not frequently refreſhed. An even temper and mild language, it is obſerved, are qualifications very neceſſary for our ſupercargoes; they will do well to imitate the Chineſe in theſe articles, who are greater proficients in the art of diſſimulation.

Very little is gained by any merchandize ſent to China; the profit ariſes by the goods imported from China; and there is the greateſt care in the world required in the ſupercargo to prevent his being impoſed on. If he does not view the goods with all imaginable caution, and examine their weights and meaſures, he muſt expect to be cheated: and at laſt they have ſo many tricks, that it ſeems neceſſary to weigh the goods in Engliſh ſcales after them. Where men have truſted to their package, they have been as much deceived as in their weights. They have found cheſts, boxes, and caniſters, ſo exactly counterfeited and marked, that they have not doubted of their being their own, when they have been changed for others, filled with damaged goods, in the room of thoſe they brought with them.

Our merchants, beſides china-wares, tea, ſilks, and lacquered ware, bring home quickſilver, copper, camphire, fans, pictures, ſoy, borax, lapus lazuli, galingal and tutenag; and, notwithſtanding the exportation of gold is prohibited, their governors themſelves will ſell it clandeſtinely, and our merchants may gain near fifty per cent. by it. Pieces of uncoined ſilver are taken away by weight, inſtead of money. When payments are made in plate, ſuch as diſhes, bowls, tankards, baſons, &c. they will cut a piece out of them, and try the fineneſs of the ſilver.

Goods carried to China, beſides plate and bullion, are cloth, perpetuanas, camlets, red, black, blue and violet colours, which do little more than pay the duties, and bring the prime coſt. Lead turns to the beſt account of any thing ſent thither by the company. A private trader may carry coral in branches, amber-beads, horſe-piſtols with gilt barrels, ſword-blades of about fourteen ſhillings a dozen; clocks and watches that look well, but are of a ſmall price, and any new toy, which if he can carry on ſhore, without paying the duty, he may make a better voyage than with all ſilver; otherwiſe his charges will exceed his profit. Theſe ſmall articles laſt mentioned, the company do not concern themſelves in; but permit the officers and private men to try their fortunes with them. We muſt obſerve here, that the watches ſome years ago exported from England to theſe parts, being of ſuch indifferent workmanſhip, our rivals the French have in a great meaſure undermined us in that branch of trade.

In the laſt century, the charters for monopolizing the India trade were once looked upon as a national grievance, and in the reign of Charles II. ſeveral eloquent ſpeeches were made in parliament againſt monopolizers in general, and this of the India trade in particular, but without the deſired effect. It was however, expected at the Revolution, that this trade would have been laid open. But the company, by their powerful intereſt among ſome leading men in the ſtate, procured an act of parliament for an excluſive trade; which was farther ſecured to them by the vaſt ſums of money they advanced for the ſervice of government; and the immenſe quantity of wealth that has accrued to the company of late years from their trade and poſſeſſions in various parts of the Indies, together with the emolument ariſing from it by loans and otherwiſe, has moſt ſtrongly cemented their former good underſtanding, and eſtabliſhed their commerce on an immoveable baſis.

SECT. VIII.

Of the CHINESE Arts and Sciences, Language, Learning, Method of Education, Laws, &c.

THE reaſon that the Chineſe fall ſhort of the Europeans in the ſpeculative ſciences, does not proceed from any defect in their capacities or intellects (for they are acknowledged by all to be a very ingenious people) but from their ſituation; being ſeparated ſo far from the reſt of the learned world, and converſing with none but people ſo much inferior to themſelves, it is rather to be admired they have made ſuch great advances in arts and ſciences, than that they have gone no further, conſidering they have had no advantage by travelling, or any foreign aſſiſtance; their knowledge being very defective when the Europeans firſt came amongſt them.

Their knowledge of phyſic is but trifling: which is not to be ſurprized at, ſince they are ignorant of natural philoſophy, phyſics, and anatomy, which are the foundation of it; but pretend to mighty ſkill in pulſes, and will pronounce what diſtemper the patient is afflicted with, how long it will laſt, and whether it be like to prove fatal, after they have duly conſidered the pulſe. They are not always to be relied on, the Jeſuits obſerve, but their ſkill in this particular is wonderful, though they can much eaſier reſolve what the diſtemper is, than aſſign a remedy for it. They have no apothecaries, but every phyſician prepares his own medicines, which are generally made up in pills, but ſeldom purge, nor do they ever let blood or give a clyſter; they imagine that diſeaſes generally proceed from a malignant corrupt wind, which they endeavour to diſſipate by applying red hot needles or irons like buttons to that part; and thus they torment and cauterize their patients upon the ſlighteſt indiſpoſition. And ſome diſeaſes, eſpecially that called the mordechin, which is a violent cholic and vomiting, occaſioned by indigeſtion, is cured by applying a red hot iron plate to the ſoles of the feet; but nothing is more frequently preſcribed than cordials, which are extracted from herbs and roots. They abound in ſimples, which have their different virtues. Their frequent drinking of tea is ſaid to preſerve them from the ſciatica, as well as the gout and ſtone, with which they are never afflicted. The root ginſeng, which has been mentioned among their plants, is eſteemed one of their beſt cordials: and the root called pao china is an excellent ſudorific, and purges the humours and corrupted blood. Every man is permitted to practiſe phyſic in China; no degrees or qualifications are required but a good aſſurance, ſo that their phyſicians are generally no better than thoſe pretenders to phyſic which diſgrace this country.

They have long diligently applied themſelves to aſtronomy, and made above four hundred obſervations, as well of eclipſes and comets as conjunctions: however in this they were not exact, but have regulated many things ſince the Jeſuits came amongſt them, and ſuffered them to reform their calendar; but however the Chineſe may have failed in the mathematics, they are perfect aſtrologers, there being little more requiſite to render one maſter of that ſcience, than the being an expert juggler, and knowing how to lie artfully, in which the Chineſe are ſaid to excel. There are, it ſeems, pretenders there as well as here, who by the ſtars foretell all events, and in their almanacs ſhew the lucky and unlucky days for marrying, undertaking journies, voyages, or any buſineſs of conſequence. The Chineſe divide their day into twelve parts, whereas we make twenty-four; and begin their day from the hour of twelve in the night. They had no clocks or watches till the Europeans carried them thither; but they had ſun-dials, which were divided into four parts, each part containing twenty-four ſubdiviſions, which added to the four larger diviſions made the whole to conſiſt of one hundred parts. But they have of late regulated their dials, and reckon their time almoſt as we do.

The months in their almanacs are lunar; and in theſe are ſpecified the times when the ſun enters into every ſign, together with the equinoxes, ſolſtices, the courſes of the planets, and their places in the ecliptic, their oppoſitions, conjunctions and neighbourhood to ſome remarkable fixed ſtars; but before the miſſionaries taught them, their tables of eclipſes were very incorrect. The people imagined, when there happened an eclipſe of the ſun, that there ſtood a great dragon in the heavens, ready to devour him; and therefore beat upon their brazen pans and drums, to drive him away; and ſtill it is ſaid, the magiſtrates and great officers at Pe-king, when the ſun is eclipſed, fall upon their knees, and looking towards the ſun beg the dragon to have compaſſion on them, and not deprive them of the beneficial influence of this glorious luminary.

Inſtead of letters, the Chineſe uſe characters, which compoſe a kind of ſhort hand, where one letter ſignifies a word or a ſentence; and though they have a different dialect in different provinces, ſo that the people do not underſtand each other, yet the characters in writing are underſtood by every one, as a figure of 3 or 6 is underſtood in every country in Europe. There are more than twenty thouſand of theſe characters; and he is eſteemed a very learned man that is maſter of fifteen thouſand. Indeed great part of their lives is taken up in acquiring their own language, which is thought to be one reaſon of their not being better proficients in the ſciences; but there are ſeldom more than two or three hundred of them underſtood by the common people.

The method of printing in China is very different from that practiſed in Europe. The author of a book in this country firſt gets it fairly tranſcribed; then the engraver glues each leaf upon a ſmooth board, and cuts through the written paper; ſo that the character perfectly reſembles the original copy, nor is there any difference between the print and written hand. Hence the boards uſed in printing a book of an ordinary ſize would fill a large room: whereas we ſet a ſheet with the twenty-four letters, and having made an impreſſion, diſtribute the letters, and ſet another ſheet with them; but then their way of printing has this advantage of ours, that they can have as many impreſſions as they pleaſe; there is no occaſion to ſet the preſs again, and there can be very little occaſion for a corrector; for the author having his copy fairly tranſcribed, the engraver ſpreads the leaves on a board, and cuts through the paper, and, conſequently, the copy perfectly reſembles the manuſcript.

Where men ſtand candidates for preferment, they are required to have ſuch learning as the country affords. Money will not do alone, where a perſon is perfectly unqualified to execute the office he deſires; though where two are equally qualified, a preſent, judiciouſly applied, will have its weight. When a young fellow has made himſelf, in ſome meaſure, maſter of the language, and been examined by the magiſtrate of the place where he reſides, he is admitted a ſtudent in ſome college. For a ſecond degree, he paſſes an examination before the chief magiſtrate of the province. On taking a third degree, he is examined by the emperor's commiſſary. And the laſt degree is taken at the capital city of Pe-king, their travelling charges being borne by the government. Here the emperor frequently examines the candidate in perſon, for the dignity of the prince is not thought any reaſon for exempting him from a learned education; and, conſequently, he is generally qualified to

judge of the merit of another. When the doctors, as they are termed, have paſſed this examination, garlands of flowers or other tokens of the emperor's favour are conferred on the moſt deſerving; ſome of them have places aſſigned them in the royal academy, and uſually ſucceed to the beſt poſts in the government, as vacancies happen.

The Chineſe have no hereditary nobility, or any other diſtinction of quality but what the office a man executes gives him; ſo that, except the deſcendants of Confucius, the whole kingdom is divided into magiſtracy and commonalty. There are no baſe tenures, their lands are properly their freeholds, having no ſuperior lord but the emperor, and he can by his own authority tax all the lands both of prieſts and people as he pleaſes. There being no ſuch thing as quality or nobility, the whole nation apply themſelves to trade or huſbandry, and have no idle hands among them, or drones that live intirely upon the labour of others. One of their emperors uſed to ſay, that if he knew a ſlothful perſon in his dominions, who refuſed to work, he ſhould think another of his ſubjects would ſuffer on his account.

Some writers affirm, that the Chineſe had the compaſs long before us; but if they had, they made but little uſe of it, never venturing out of their own narrow ſeas; and, indeed, they were very indifferent mariners and ſhipwrights. They had no topmaſts, nor did they ever go up the mainmaſt to furl the ſails, which conſiſted of matting, but let the yard down upon the deck before they took it in: and their ſhips were built with flat heads and ſterns, and could only ſail before the wind.

They had alſo gun-powder and guns when the Europeans came amongſt them, but hardly knew how to uſe them till the miſſionaries inſtructed them: and it is ſuppoſed, they were inſtructed in the uſe of the compaſs, as well as in making gun-powder, by the Arabians and Egyptians, who learnt theſe things of the Europeans, and had colonies in the iſlands in the Chineſe ſeas when the Portugueſe arrived there, if they had not on the continent of China.

A gentleman who travelled to the Eaſt Indies in the reign of his late majeſty George II. has given the following character of the people of China. The Chineſe, ſays he, are a very ingenious and induſtrious people, as is evident from the great number of curious manufactures eſtabliſhed among them; but though ſkill in the handicraft arts ſeems to be the moſt valuable qualification in this people, yet their talents are but of a ſecond rate kind, for they are much outdone by the Japaneſe in thoſe manufactures which are common to both countries; and they are in many inſtances incapable of rivalling the mechanic dexterity of the Europeans. Their principal excellency is in imitation, and they accordingly labour under that poverty of genius which conſtantly attends all ſervile imitators. This is conſpicuous in works which require great truth and accuracy, as in clocks, watches, fire-arms, &c. for in all theſe, though they can copy the different parts, and can form ſome reſemblance of the whole, yet they never could arrive at ſuch a juſtneſs in their fabric as was neceſſary to produce the deſired effect. In ſtatuary and painting, they ſeem ſtill more defective; their painters, though in great eſteem, rarely ſucceed in drawing or colouring human figures, or in the grouping of large compoſitions; and though in flowers and birds their performances are much more admired, yet even in theſe, ſome part of the merit may be imputed to the native brightneſs and excellency of their colours, rather than to the ſkill of the painter, ſince it is very unuſual to ſee the light and ſhade juſtly and naturally handled, or to find that eaſe and grace in the drawing, which are to be met with in the works of European artiſts: there is a ſtiffneſs and minuteneſs in moſt of the Chineſe productions, which are extremely diſpleaſing; and it may be truly aſſerted, that theſe defects in their arts are intirely owing to the peculiar turn of the people, amongſt whom nothing great or ſpirited is to be met with.

This people are remarkable for their thieviſh diſpoſition; an inſtance of which we ſhall here inſert: ſoon after Commodore Anſon arrived at Canton, he perceived that ſome perſon or perſons had ſtolen a topmaſt from the ſhip's ſtern. A reward being offered to any one that would diſcover where it was, the ſhip's mandarin thereupon informed the commodore, that ſome of his attendants had found the topmaſt, deſiring that he would ſend his boat for it; whereupon Mr. Anſon gave the mandarin's linguiſt a ſum of money to deliver to his maſter as a reward; which the linguiſt thinking fit to conceal, Mr. Anſon diſcovered his roguery, and the mandarin ſeized all that the linguiſt had gained in the commodore's ſervice, which was near two thouſand dollars; and he was ſo ſeverely baſtinadoed, that he was in danger of being killed. The fellow afterwards came a begging to Mr. Anſon, and being upbraided with his knavery, ſaid, "Chineſe man be very great rogue," but intimated his betters were as great villains as he was. This writer proceeds to relate, that the Chineſe ſelling every thing by weight, they crammed the ducks and fowls they ſold to the commodore with ſtones, and they died ſoon after he received them. And the hogs he bought, killed by the Chineſe butchers, were full of water; and if they were bought alive the people gave them ſalt to make them drink, and found means to prevent their diſcharging it by urine. Other hogs they ſold, which died not long after, and, when they were thrown overboard, the Chineſe were ready, with their boats, to take them up, a hog which had died a natural death being as valuable with them as a living one.

SECT. IX.

Treating of the CHINESE Monarchy, the Conſtitution of their Government, Succeſſion of the Crown, Courts of Juſtice, Magiſtrates, Laws, &c.

THE monarch of this great empire rules with an abſolute ſway. Among the reſt of his titles, the emperor is ſtiled, Son of heaven, Sole Governor of the earth, Great Father of his people, &c. His throne is hereditary unleſs he thinks fit to paſs by the next heir, and appoint another to ſucceed him. If he alters the ſucceſſion, the act muſt be ratified by his great council, conſiſting of the princes of the blood and great officers of ſtate, who ſometimes take upon them to oppoſe his deſigns, and attempt to ſet aſide thoſe whom he deemed to be his next heirs. If he cannot prevail with them to agree with him, he diſplaces them till he gets a majority that will comply with him; but this, it ſeems, is ſuch a deſperate experiment, that he ſeldom proceeds to ſuch extremes.

Notwithſtanding the emperor and moſt of the Tartars, in the grand council, were ready to allow the Chriſtians a toleration, yet there being a majority againſt it, the motion was dropped: and as there are boards or councils for every branch of buſineſs, the prince ſeldom acts arbitrarily, but refers all matters to the deciſion of the courts to which they reſpectively belong; neither does he apply the revenue to any particular uſe, until his orders are ratified by the commiſſioners of his treaſury. His forces are not ſent on any expedition, without the concurrence of a council of war: but notwithſtanding it is related of theſe emperors, that they are indefatigable in buſineſs, they are ſurrounded, like other eaſtern monarchs, it appears, by crouds of ladies, and ſeldom ſhew themſelves to the people above once a week; perhaps they retire, that they may be more at leiſure to conſider the complaints of their ſubjects. And he has attendants or agents in every court to overſee the proceedings of the judges and officers, of whom, it is ſaid, the greateſt princes ſtand in awe.

Governors of provinces or towns are obliged to ſend faithful accounts of their adminiſtration to court, and a miſrepreſentation, it is ſaid, would be fatal; but they are ſo dextrous in blinding the eyes of thoſe whoſe buſineſs it is to be a check upon them, that their adminiſtration is very ſeldom diſapproved; and indeed, unleſs the prince is a ſuperior genius to his miniſters, and can penetrate into their dark ſchemes, the beſt laws and regulations that can be made will be evaded, and they are evaded with a witneſs in China. Every thing is carried by bribery. They may have good laws, but they are ſcarce ever put in execution; the magiſtrates, as well as people, act in open defiance of them; a circulation of bribery runs through every court.

Large ſums of money are frequently extorted from the governors of provinces by the great officers and preſidents of the ſuperior courts; and thoſe governors no leſs oppreſs and fleece the governors of the towns in their provinces; who are obliged to do the like by their inferiors, in order to make up the ſums required of them; and whoever complains, runs the hazard of being ruined: a general connivance prevails among the officers. The emperor, probably, is the only perſon that is not acquainted with their extortions.

Some of the children of viceroys and great men are always kept about the court, on pretence of giving them a good education; and this, indeed, is one very good reaſon; but it is ſuppoſed they have a better, namely, the ſecuring the fidelity of their parents.

There are courts of juſtice in every province, reſembling thoſe in the capital; but no ſentence of death is executed till the caſe is reported to the emperor, and he ratifies it.

No law is more religiouſly obſerved among the Chineſe than that of ſubmiſſion to parents. If a father complains his ſon is diſobedient, there needs no further evidence to put him to death; if a man ſhould deride or ſtrike a parent, the whole neighbourhood is immediately alarmed, and riſe to bring the criminal to juſtice; he is ſentenced to be cut in pieces, and afterwards burnt, his houſes and lands deſtroyed, and to remain ſo to deter others from committing the like crime. The ſovereign himſelf is under a neceſſity of giving obedience to this law. It is related, that one of their emperors having baniſhed his mother for ſome gallantries ſhe had been guilty of, the people never left petitioning him, till they had compelled him to recall her. They would not deſiſt, though he had cauſed ſeveral of them to be beheaded for their inſolent advice; ſo tenacious are the people of this tenet of their law.

The Chineſe puniſh treaſon and rebellion with the greateſt rigour; the criminal being condemned to be cut in pieces, the executioner ties him to a ſtake, and firſt fleas his forehead, letting the ſkin hang over his eyes; for a very wiſe reaſon, as ſome pretend, namely, that he may not ſee how barbarouſly he is mangled; and having cut and tormented the offender till he is weary, what remains of him is torn in pieces by the mob: and where the crime is very great, the children of the offender ſuffer with him.

They puniſh murder by death, which is inflicted different ways: the meaner ſort are beheaded, as being deemed the moſt ignominious puniſhment: and perſons of quality are ſtrangled, which of all deaths is looked upon to be the moſt reproachful with us.

Theft or adultery are not puniſhed to death, unleſs ſome great violence is done to the party, but by the baſtinado; or the offender has a thick board hung about his neck, and expoſed every day, the crime being written on the board.

As no criminal is executed but by the emperor's expreſs order, malefactors are conſumed in priſons: the priſons in the great cities are ſo large, that they conſiſt of ſeveral ſtreets with market-places. In Canton alone, it is ſaid, there are not leſs than fifteen thouſand priſoners. The offenders are allowed to work in the day time for their livings; the Chineſe not being much given to acts of charity, and the emperor's allowance but mean.

A very common puniſhment among the Chineſe is the baſtinado, or ſeveral blows of a cudgel on the buttocks as they lie on their faces on the ground, from which the mandarins are not exempt, nor is it reckoned very ſcandalous among them. The offender, if he be able, after this diſcipline falls down before the magiſtrate and thanks him for his kind correction, though one blow is almoſt enough to lame him, if the executioner be not bribed, which it is ſaid he frequently is. It is a common thing for men to let themſelves out to be baſtinadoed in the room of the criminal; which, if true, diſcovers no ſmall weakneſs or corruption in their magiſtrates, thus to defeat the intent of the law.

In China, courtezans are allowed by public authority, and are under the regulation of the ſame officers who take care of the temples and the emperor's ſacrifices.

They have no lawyers or advocates, but every man manages his own cauſe: for we are told, that the plaintiff having drawn up his caſe or plaint in prayer, in ſuch a form as cuſtom requires, comes to the tribunal; and having beat on a drum at the ſecond gate, falls on his knees, raiſing his hands as high as his head; after which he delivers his paper to an officer, who carries it to the mandarin. If the ſuit appears to be frivolous and vexatious he is ſeverely baſtinadoed; but otherwiſe it is given to the proper officers to examine, who having made their report, it is either confirmed or altered by the judge. But theſe writers are not pleaſed to inform us, whether the defendant be ſummoned to anſwer, or in what manner he makes his defence, which is ſuch an omiſſion as can hardly be forgiven: but as it is impoſſible to determine juſtly in any cauſe without hearing both ſides, we muſt conclude that no man is forejudged without being permitted to offer what he has to ſay in his defence, among ſo polite a people as the Chineſe are repreſented to be. There is a liberty of appeal, it ſeems, to the ſuperior tribunals, or a man may paſs by the inferior courts and bring his cauſe before the higher judicatures at firſt, if he apprehends juſtice will not be done him at home.

The laws of China are ſo plain, and their policy ſuch, that the emperor may diſpatch all the buſineſs relating to the empire by applying himſelf to it but two hours in a day; this to any one who conſiders the multitude of people under his government, and conſequently the great variety of buſineſs here, muſt be looked upon as impoſſible; neither a few hours or a whole day can be ſufficient to read over the petitions only that may be ſuppoſed to be preſented him in this vaſt empire. He muſt certainly be informed of the purport of them by his officers, and determine as they are pleaſed to repreſent facts to him. Thus it is in all kingdoms in Europe, and cannot be otherwiſe in China, which is much larger than any of them. The moſt that can be expected of a prince whoſe dominions are not exceeding ſmall, is to make choice of able miniſters, and to preſerve his people from notorious oppreſſions: as for reading all petitions, and determining of all cauſes which come by appeal to the ſuperior courts himſelf, the Jeſuits may as well tell us he works miracles, which they themſelves alſo pretend to in that part of the world, and they will be equally believed.

The emperor of China, attended by a multitude of the great officers in their robes, the prince of the blood, and tributary kings, who fall proſtrate on their faces before him, gives audience to ambaſſadors in a large room of ſtate, ſupported by four rows of varniſhed pillars, where the throne is placed, and the roof is covered with ſhining yellow tiles. The throne is about three or four feet high, in the faſhion of an altar, and covered with ſables, on which the emperor ſits croſs-legged, after the manner of the Tartars.

When the Czariſh ambaſſador had his audience of leave, the emperor was ſeated on his throne, and a herald called aloud to the lords of the court to ſtand up and bow to the earth; which they did three times; and in the mean time the drums beat, the bells rung, and the muſic played; and the ambaſſador being brought within eighteen feet of the throne, was placed within two Tartar princes, while he made his compliments to the emperor. As he returned, he obſerved the emperor's guards ſtood in the fourth court, clothed in red callico, with figures as big as a crown printed upon them; and that they had little caps with yellow feathers, being the emperor's colour, and were armed with ſcymitars and lances. The ambaſſador was conducted by one of the emperor's chariots drawn by an elephant, from the palace to his apartment.

The emperors of the preſent Tartar family ſhew themſelves to the people about four times a month; whereas thoſe of the Chineſe race ſeldom appeared in public.

The emperor viſits the frontiers of Tartary almoſt every year, at which times thirty or forty Tartar princes attend to do him homage. He commonly rides poſt when he viſits the provinces, with a few of his officers, guards being planted along the road for his ſecurity. But the emperor never appears in that ſplendor, we are told, as when he goes to ſacrifice in the idol temples. Upon this occaſion there marches firſt four and twenty trumpets with golden coronets, and as many drums; then twenty-four men with gilded truncheons, after whom come one hundred ſoldiers with fine halberts; after theſe an hundred ſerjeants at mace, who are followed by four hundred fine lanterns, and as many gilded flambeaus; after theſe come two hundred lances, followed by four and twenty banners with the ſigns of the zodiac, and fifty-ſix more with the conſtellations painted upon them; then four and twenty magnificent umbrellas, with a cupboard of gold plate borne by the officers of the court; after theſe the emperor follows on horſeback glorioufly dreſſed, his houſen and furniture covered with gold and precious ſtones, and he is ſhaded with gilded umbrellas held over his head by the pages of honour: he is followed by the princes of the blood, viceroys, and miniſters of ſtate in their robes; after whom come five hundred young gentlemen, attended by a thouſand footmen dreſſed in carnation ſilk, and worked with ſtars of gold and ſilver: after them is carried an open chair, like a triumphal chariot, by thirty-ſix men, and another follows it carried by a hundred and twenty men, ſo large, that it would ſerve for an apartment: after theſe come two chariots drawn by elephants, and two more by horſes, each chair and chariot having a guard of fifty men; and the proceſſion is followed by two thouſand mandarins, and as many officers of the army richly dreſt.

The emperors of China do not in general live in that ſplendor and luxury to which other eaſtern monarchs are ſo much accuſtomed; but content themſelves, except on public occaſions, with a moderate attendance, a decent frugality at their tables, and a well regulated œconomy in all their public expences. They divide with their miniſters the cares of government, not laying the whole burden on their ſhoulders, while they indulge themſelves in eaſe and pleaſure; they are indeed obliged, by the laws of their country,

country to take a conſiderable ſhare of the trouble upon themſelves, and to read and anſwer petitions and remonſtrances. The neceſſity of juſtice in him tends to make him wiſe and intelligent, and render him the idol of his people: he does not poſſeſs his authority as a conqueror or a legiſlator, but as a father; as a parent he reigns, governs, rewards, and puniſhes. His two ſovereign councils are, 1. The extra council, compoſed of the princes of the blood royal; and 2. The council in ordinary, which conſiſts of thoſe princes, and ſeveral miniſters, who jointly inveſtigate matters of ſtate, and make report to the emperor of their proceedings.

The revenue of the emperor is immenſe, amounting to upwards of twenty-one millions per annum; and his army conſiſts of ſeven hundred and ſeventy thouſand men. He has an unlimited power to declare war, proclaim peace, or conclude treaties. How the Chineſe pay their civil liſt and five millions of ſoldiers (computed to be the whole number of towns in the empire) with about twenty millions of money, is not eaſy to determine.

The public revenues are not farmed, nor do they paſs through the hands of ſeveral under receivers; but the chief magiſtrates of each city regulate and collect the levies, and remit them to the treaſurer-general of the province, who tranſmits the ſurplus to Pe-king, after the reſpective governors, officers and ſoldiers of the province, have received their pay, and defrayed other neceſſary charges of government.

With reſpect to the Chineſe money, copper and ſilver are their only current metals, as there is no gold coin in the kingdom: that metal paſſes in trade as a commodity, and even ſilver is not coined, but cut in pieces for particular payments; and in that caſe it is eſtimated by its weight alone, and not by any mark or device ſtamped by royal authority: they pay capital ſums in ingots or bars of ſilver. Moſt trading people carry with them a balance. This balance reſembles the ſtilliards, and will give the preciſe weight of the minuteſt thing, to the thouſandth part of an ounce. Their foot is much about the length of ours. Their copper money is the only ſort that is ſtamped with any character or inſcription; but they do not impreſs it with the head or image of the emperor.

SECT. X.

Treating of the Religion, Temples, and Superſtition of the CHINESE; alſo of the Progreſs of the Chriſtian Religion in CHINA.

IT is remarked by writers of undoubted credit, that of all idolaters upon the face of the earth, the Chineſe have fallen into the feweſt abſurdities; for that being fully convinced of the being of God from the works of creation, they have ever adored and worſhipped the deity as the one ſupreme God, the King of heaven and earth, or rather that eternal mind which they imagine animates both heaven and earth. Though there are ſeveral inferior deities which they worſhip, as the firſt inventors of arts, mountains, rivers, &c. yet they never ſacrificed to vice, or worſhipped ſuch impure deities as the Egyptians, Grecians, and Romans did.

Religion in China is divided into three ſects: firſt, the followers of Lao-kium, who lived, as they ſay, above five hundred years before Chriſt. He taught that God was corporeal, and had many ſubordinate deities under his government; his diſciples ſtudy magic, and pretend to make that drink which will give men immortality. The ſecond are the ſect of the learned, who are the diſciples of the ſo much celebrated Confucius, who left many admirable precepts of morality, and inſtructed the people in philoſophy. He ſpeaks of God as a moſt pure and perfect principle, the fountain and eſſence of all beings; and though we are told he prohibited idolatry, he has temples and images erected to him, and is worſhipped with the profoundeſt adoration, as appears from the Pope's decree againſt the Jeſuits for allowing in their converts this idolatrous worſhip. There is a third ſect much more numerous than either of the former, who worſhip the idol Fo, or Foe, whom they ſtyle, the only god of the world. This idol was imported from India about thirty-two years after the death of our Saviour; his prieſts, the bonzes, teach ſeveral moral precepts; and that there is a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments after this life. They alſo inculcate into their followers, that it is not lawful to kill any living creature, or to drink wine; and do not forget to inſtruct them how much it is their duty and intereſt to entertain and nouriſh their prieſts, and to build them temples and monaſteries, and perform the penances they enjoin. If they neglect theſe things they threaten them with the greateſt torments after death; or that their ſouls ſhall animate ſome vermin or beaſt of burden.

We are told of one whom the bonzes had prevailed on to believe that his ſoul ſhould go into one of the emperor's poſt-horſes, and that they had adviſed him to eat little, and endure it patiently, and God might be induced the next remove to let him poſſeſs ſome perſon of quality; but the man was under ſuch horror at the apprehenſion of being a poſt-horſe, that his being a man of figure afterwards gave him but little ſatisfaction. He could not ſleep day or night, but hearing that the Chriſtians did not undergo thoſe changes, and were men as well in the other world as here, he ſent for the father to baptize him, who aſſures us that he died a very good Chriſtian. The doctrine of Confucius is the religion of the emperor, the princes of the blood, and all people of learning and diſtinction in the empire.

The bonzes, who are the prieſts of that ſect who worſhip the idol Fo, undergo the ſevereſt penances, by which they imagine they merit much, and can apply their merits to whom they pleaſe. In their temple is an image of immortality, repreſenting a fat man, ſitting croſs-legged; another called the image of pleaſure, twenty feet high; and between them another image thirty feet high, with a crown on his head; beſides which, they have a great number of little images in their houſes, which they worſhip as well as Confucius and their anceſtors. The ſun, moon, and ſtars are alſo the objects of their adoration.

A living man, whom they ſtyle, the Great Lama, is worſhipped by the Tartars; his prieſts are from him called lamas: he is alſo called, the eternal father; and is never ſeen by day-light, but in his temple by the light of lamps: he ſits on a raiſed floor, dreſſed in the robes of a ſovereign prince; and thoſe that approach him fall proſtrate on the ground, kiſſing his feet; and his diſciples believe that he lives for ever. The Tartar princes do not think themſelves ſettled on their throne until they have obtained his bleſſing; and the emperor of China goes annually into Tartary to adore him: however, the emperor, on a political account, pays an equal regard to the prieſts of both religions. He honours Confucius, and ſacrifices in the Chineſe temples; and the miſſionaries pretend, that it was only reaſons of ſtate that prevented his profeſſing the Chriſtian religion, though at other times they are pleaſed to confeſs that he declared he could not believe, much leſs embrace it.

It is a received opinion among the great men in China, and even ſome of their emperors, that it is poſſible for men to obtain immortality even on earth. Innumerable books have been written on this ſubject; nor can the daily inſtances of mortality, even among thoſe who have the greateſt opinion of the preſcription which is to effect this change, and preſerve them from all corruption and decay, convince them of the folly and abſurdity of their opinion.

One of their emperors, who was confident he had purchaſed the immortal draught, was cured of the whimſy by one of his favourites in the following manner: The emperor having a cup of this water of life before him, and declaiming upon the virtues and excellency of it, while he turned his back, the favourite had the aſſurance to drink off part of it; whereupon the emperor in a rage threatened him with immediate death: to which the wiſe miniſter calmly replied, Do you ſuppoſe you can deprive me of life now I have drank of the immortal cup? If you can, what have you loſt? if you cannot, I am become equally immortal with you. This ſhort way of reaſoning, it ſeems, reduced that prince to his ſenſes, when all other arguments ſeemed to be ineffectual.

Mahometaniſm has obtained a great footing in China, ſome of the Tartar tribes on the frontiers being of that religion, and there were reaſon to imagine that the emperor of China was a Mahometan. There are alſo great numbers of Jews in China.

Without the gates of every city almoſt there is an idol temple, and others on the ſides of highways far from towns, where travellers are hoſpitably entertained; and near every temple is a tower erected to the memory of ſome ſaint or hero, filled with images, and lamps that burn continually. To every temple belong a ſociety of prieſts, who offer liquor, rice and other proviſions to the genii of the place, of whom people come frequently to inquire what ſucceſs they may expect in their undertakings. There are cloiſters alſo of religious devotees, who undergo unheard of penances to obtain the name of ſaints among the people, and merit the happineſs of another ſtate.

The Chineſe have as great faith in their aſtrologers and fortune-

fortune-tellers as in their gods: they govern all their affairs by the direction of these people, and will not undertake a journey, or any business of moment, without first consulting when will be the most fortunate day or hour to begin it. These fortune-tellers also pretend to calculate nativities, and, by knowing the day of a man's birth, will tell him what shall hereafter befal him in the world: nor does it affect their credit, how often soever the people are deceived; for, like their brethren on this side the globe, they still follow the deceiver, and will not be persuaded they are imposed on.

The Christian religion was first introduced into China by the Portuguese, who about the year 1498 made several settlements, and planted several colonies, on the coast of the farther India, and in the Spice islands, and arrived at Canton, in China, in the year 1517, where they were permitted to traffic, and fix a colony on the little island of Macao, at the mouth of the river of Canton, which the Portuguese possess at this day; but as subject to the crown of China. Their missionaries were not permitted, however, to go over to the continent, till some years after Francis Xavier, from his indefatigable labours stiled the apostle of the Indies, who died in the year 1552, and was never suffered to set foot ashore upon the continent of China: The Portuguese laboured for more than thirty years after, in vain, to get their missionaries admitted into that kingdom.

It is universally allowed by historians, who have treated of the affairs of China, that Roger and Riccii, two Jesuits, were the first that were permitted to reside on the continent, who became very acceptable by their skill in the mathematics; but the Chinese were amazed, when they saw them produce a map of the world, to find that China was so very small a part of it. These Jesuits were permitted to compose a catechism, and explain the Christian doctrines, and gained great numbers of converts among people of figure; but at the same time were insulted by the mob. They continued their mission, however, for seven years, till a new viceroy came to Canton, and obliged them to retire to Macao; however, they were soon after recalled, and, being joined by other missionaries, obtained leave to reside in the capital city of Pe-king, whither they carried presents for the emperor, among which were a clock and repeating watch; but a little before they arrived at Pe-king, they were stopped by an eunuch, a commissioner of the customs, and imprisoned, on pretence that a crucifix, which they carried in a portmanteau, was a charm, which might affect the emperor's life: however, an order soon after arrived for bringing those foreigners up to Pe-king, where they were well received by the emperor, and their presents accepted, and a house and maintenance were assigned them, with the liberty of making what proselytes they could; among whom, they relate, were many princes of the blood, and the converts increased so fast, that in the province of Kiang-si alone, there were ninety churches, and forty-five oratories.

The bonzes raised several persecutions against them; but nothing proved more fatal to them than the opposition they met with from the dominican friars at Macao; one of this order declaring, that the Jesuits had a design to depose the emperor, and usurp his throne; that the places they were settled in, between Canton and Pe-king, favoured their design; and that the Dutch fleet which was then upon the coast, was intended to protect them; that the governor of Pe-king was in their interest, and that the Christians of Japan were ready to join them when a favourable opportunity offered.

When the intelligence of the pretended conspiracy was brought to the viceroys and governors of the provinces, they were exceedingly alarmed: and one of the missionaries, passing through Canton before the forgery was discovered, was condemned to the bastinado, under which he died; but Riccii was protected by the emperor at Pe-king, and the falsity of the report being proved, he lived in that capital in peace till the year 1610, when he died, aged eighty-eight years, twenty-seven of which he had resided in China; and the emperor had such a regard for him, that he ordered a piece of ground to be set apart for building him a tomb, which was afterwards the burying-place of the Jesuits.

In the year 1617, a persecution being raised against the Jesuits and their proselytes, they were all obliged to retire to Macao; but there happening a war with the Tartars in the reign of the succeeding emperor, he recalled them, knowing they would be very useful to him in the management of his artillery, and they lived unmolested in the kingdom till the year 1628. Two years after the Jesuit Adam Shaal, resorted to the court of Pe-king, and was highly caressed by the emperor and his ministers, on account of his skill in the mathematics; and the same year the dominicans and franciscans were admitted into China, where they and the Jesuits boasted of having made a great number of converts; and, notwithstanding the revolution that happened in 1640, when Xun-chi, king of Nou-tche made a conquest of China, the Jesuits maintained their ground, and were no less in favour with the emperors of the present Tartar race, than they were with those of the Chinese.

Adam Shaal was made president of the society of mathematicians by the emperor Xun-chi, which had been under the direction of the Mahometans for three hundred years before. He reformed the calendar, which increased his interest at court; and the emperor was so sensible of the service the learned Europeans were capable of doing him, that he sent for fourteen more of the missionaries to court, among whom was father Verbiest; and the Jesuits insinuate, that they should have made a convert of the emperor, if the ladies of the court had not prevented it, on his reproving that prince for entertaining one of them; but the more probable opinion is, that the emperor was offended, on their advising him to part with his women; that being a subject which few princes will bear to be touched upon; however, it is said, this emperor professed great friendship for Adam, and sent for him when on his death-bed. Father Verbiest, who had served the successor of this emperor in quality of mandarin, and also instructed him in the mathematics, dying during his reign in 1688, he caused him to be buried with great funeral pomp, allowing two hundred golden crowns for that purpose, and, at the tomb, expressed his acknowledgments of the great services he had contributed to himself and the state, the great affection he had for him, and how much he bewailed his death.

When Kang-hi, the son of Xun-chi, the first Tartar emperor, ascended the throne, Adam Shaal was made preceptor to the young monarch, who was then but eight years of age, and the bonzes (priests of Fo) were expelled the palace; whereupon they presented a petition to the regents, setting forth, that the Jesuits had been banished their country for their disaffection to their natural princes, and would infallibly raise a rebellion in China: that they had introduced a number of foreigners into the empire, who travelled through the provinces, and made plans of their strong towns, and that they only waited a favourable opportunity to raise a rebellion. To this petition they annexed a book published by Adam, containing a list of their churches, and of the converts they had made, which the bonzes suggested was the muster-roll of an army, which they could bring into the field on the first signal; that their beads were marks whereby the conspirators knew one another, and shewed, in the popish books they distributed, the picture of Christ crucified, saying, "Behold the God of the Christians nailed to a cross, "for attempting to make himself king of the Jews; this "is the God they invoke to favour their treasonable "conspiracies against the government." This charge against the Jesuits being brought before the tribunal of rites, they were imprisoned and laid in irons, and the Christian religion was declared to be a false and pernicious doctrine.

Adam Shaal was condemned to die, and though the sentence was never executed, he died under the hardships he suffered in the year 1666; twenty-five of the missionaries were banished to Macao; but four were still permitted to remain at court, who some time afterwards procured an order for recalling the rest of their brethren, and procured a declaration from one of the principal tribunals; "That the Christian law had been un-"justly condemned, and that it taught nothing incon-"sistent with the welfare of the state." The Christians were thereupon tolerated, and put into possession of their churches again, in the year 1671. Father Verbiest, as we observed before, taught the emperor mathematics, and caused light brass cannon to be cast, which gained the emperor great advantages in his wars, by which he became so much in favour, both with prince and people, that multitudes of converts were daily made, and Verbiest wrote to Europe for more missionaries, whereupon Lewis XIV. sent over six Jesuits from France, among whom was Le Compte, who resided in the Chinese court many years, and wrote the best history of that kingdom which has been published. These Jesuits arrived at Nimpo in China, in the year 1688; Verbiest being dead before their arrival, they were presented to the emperor soon after, who always

kept ſome of them near his perſon, who improved him ſo far in the mathematics, that he wrote a book upon that ſubject. Some of the viceroys in the diſtant provinces, however, raiſed a perſecution againſt the Chriſtians, in which they were countenanced by ſome tribunals, and it was as much as the emperor could do to protect them; he adviſed them to be very circumſpect in their conduct, and give as little offence as poſſible, or his appearing their protector might endanger his throne.

The miſſionaries having received great encouragement from the emperor, more of them were ſent over from France; and the French King, Lewis XV. ſettled an annual revenue of nine hundred livres a year upon twenty of them that were ſent to China and India. The fathers Gerbillon and Bouret having cured the emperor of an ague, he gave them a large ſum towards building a church, which they finiſhed, and made it one of the fineſt temples in that part of Aſia.

Such was the complaiſance of the Jeſuit miſſionaries to the Chineſe Chriſtians, in ſuffering them to retain the worſhip of Confucius, their anceſtors, the heavens, &c. that they might have remained in China, and made proſelytes to this day, if the Dominican and Franciſcan friars had not oppoſed this practice, and charged the Jeſuits with countenancing idolatry, which created great feuds among the fathers; ſo that they perſecuted one another in the courts of China with great violence, repreſenting their opponents as diſaffected to the government, and ſeveral of them were impriſoned, and ſeverely uſed by the Chineſe magiſtrates. At length both parties appealed to the Pope. The Jeſuits repreſented, that unleſs they complied with the Chineſe in theſe articles, the Chriſtians would infallibly be expelled the country; and inſiſted, that theſe compliances, when they proſtrated themſelves before his image, were only to pay their reſpects to him as a legiſlator; that the libations and ceremonies obſerved before the images of their parents, only expreſſed the veneration and affection they had for their deceaſed relations; and this they procured the emperor of China to certify to the Pope. Whereupon his holineſs deputed the Cardinal de Tournon his vicar in China, with full authority to examine and determine this matter.

The cardinal having admoniſhed the miſſionaries to lay aſide their animoſities and diſputes, which had given great ſcandal to the infidels, as well as to thoſe who had been converted to Chriſtianity, he decreed, and commanded all the miſſionaries, eſpecially the Jeſuits,

1. That in their writings and ſermons they ſhould diſapprove and condemn only ſuch doctrines and cuſtoms of the Chineſe as were inconſiſtent with the Chriſtian faith.

2. That they ſhould declare, that the offerings made by the Chineſe to heaven, the moon and other planets, to ſpirits and inventors of arts, were only due to God, the creator of all things; that they ſhould condemn particularly the offerings to Confucius, and the adoration of the pictures of deceaſed men, as inconſiſtent with the ſervice of the true God, and with the declaration of the Pope, the only infallible guide of the Chriſtians in all matters that concern religion. This decree was dated at Nan-kin, 28th June, 1707, and ſigned Charles, Patriarch of Antioch, Cardinal, &c.

The Jeſuits and miſſionaries of other orders continued to wrangle on theſe heads until the year 1720; during which time the Jeſuits were careſſed at court, while the others were thrown into priſons and ſeverely proſecuted. At length a deputation being ſent to the Pope, to know if he would admit of no alteration in the decree of Cardinal de Tournon, Cardinal Meſſabarba was firſt ſent over with the Pope's anſwer; but the Jeſuits ſo managed matters, that he was not permitted to ſee the emperor for ſome time, and could only read the anſwer of his holineſs to the mandarins. The following is the explanation of the decree,

1. The miſſionaries may tolerate in private houſes the uſe of tablets, containing only the name of the dead perſon, putting on the ſide of it a convenient explication.

2. They may tolerate all the Chineſe ceremonies towards deceaſed perſons, which are not ſuperſtitious, but merely civil.

3. They may render to Confucius a worſhip merely civil, adding a convenient explication; and it may be lawful to light candles, burn incenſe, and offer meat, by way of oblation before the tablets.

4. They may permit the reverences of genuflexion and proſtration before the corrected tablets, the tombs, or the dead bodies themſelves.

5. They may permit tables to be ſet with all manner of meats and fruits before the tombs of the deceaſed, as a civil honour and act of piety towards them, without obſerving any ſuperſtitious rite.

The decree was ſigned, "CA. Alexandrinus & Legatus Apoſtolicus."

Theſe articles having been ſubmitted to the judgment of the mandarins, they declared, that the emperor would be ſatisfied with this anſwer; but Suarez the Jeſuit obſerved to them it was all a trick, for the words, "This is the ſeat of the ſoul of the deceaſed," were to be omitted; however, the Jeſuits and mandarins being of another opinion, the anſwer was tranſlated, put in writing, and carried to the emperor.

The legate was admitted to an audience on the 20th of Nov. 1720, and directed to appear in the ſame eccleſiaſtical habit he wore in Italy; but the emperor preſented him with his own robe at the audience, put it over his European habit, and after an entertainment, at which his majeſty gave him a glaſs of wine with his own hand, he proceeded to aſk the legate ſeveral queſtions, particularly, whom thoſe pictures repreſented, which the miſſionaries brought from Europe? He anſwered, They might be the pictures of the Lord Jeſus, the bleſſed Virgin, or of ſome ſaints or angels. "But why," ſays the emperor, "do you put him on wings? This is what the Chineſe cannot underſtand: it is abſurd to give wings to men." The emperor then taking up three pieces of ſilk off the table, one white, the ſecond red, and the third yellow, and addreſſing himſelf to the aſſembly, ſaid, "If any one ſhould maintain that the red was white, and the white yellow, what would any of you think of it?" intimating, that the miſſionaries required them to believe inconſiſtencies, in their pretended explanation of the Chineſe rites, as well as in the doctrines they taught. The legate anſwered, Chriſt being aſcended to heaven, had conſtituted the Pope and his ſucceſſors his vicars on earth, to determine controverſies; and that Clement II. enlightened by his Spirit, could not be deceived. The emperor replied, "Can the Pope judge of the rites of China, which he has never had any perſonal knowledge of, any more than I can judge of the affairs of Europe?" The legate anſwered, "He does not pretend to be judge of the affairs of China, but of what cuſtoms and uſages the Chriſtians ſhould be allowed to practiſe, and what ought to be prohibited, as inconſiſtent with Chriſtianity." The emperor told the legate, that he had tried to unite all the miſſionaries of different nations, Portugueſe, French, Italians, and Germans; but they were always quarrelling among themſelves, and even the Jeſuits could not agree together; he was ſurprized at their diſunion, as they all profeſſed to propagate the ſame religion. And he wondered the Pope could give any credit to them, ſince ſome affirmed what the other denied: From ſuch contradictory repreſentations, how can the Pope take upon him, ſays his majeſty, to judge of the affairs of China? the legate anſwered, He was aſſiſted in his determinations by the Holy Spirit, who never ſuffered his holineſs to err in religious matters. His majeſty anſwered, "I love your religion much, I adore the ſame God you do; and if there be any thing you do not underſtand in our rites, I will explain it to you;" intimating again, that the Pope could be no judge of them, for want of ſufficient evidence; adding, that the decrees concerning the Chineſe rites, had not been made with a view to religion, but were levelled purely againſt the Jeſuits. At another audience, the emperor ſaid, he ſhould not ſuffer the Pope to determine any thing concerning the Chineſe rites; that belonged to him, his viceroys and governors: and when Meſſabarba deſired he might remain ſuperior of the miſſionaries in China, he received no anſwer to that, and the emperor confirmed the decree of the tribunal of rites, "That no Europeans ſhould for the future be ſuffered to propagate their law," which he apprehended might produce fatal effects: and the legate was ſoon after inſulted by the mandarins in a moſt outrageous manner, for maintaining the authority of the Pope's bull, and declaring his determinations infallible; and ſeveral of the Dominican and Franciſcan miſſionaries were ſent to priſon; Meſſabarba, however, obtained the releaſe of the priſoners, and then retired to Macao, where he reſided ſix months, and in the year 1722 returned to Europe; about which time the emperor Kang-hi died, and, being ſucceeded by Yong-tchin, all the miſſionaries were baniſhed to Macao in 1723, and upwards of three hundred churches were either raſed to the ground, or converted to profane uſes. Some European mathematicians, who were uſeful to the court (namely the Jeſuits) were ſuffered to remain at Pe-king; but the Chineſe converts who refuſed to apoſtatize, and

return

return to their antient ſuperſtition, amounting to about three hundred thouſand ſouls, were uſed with great rigour: one of the princes of the blood, in particular, with his family, amounting to three hundred of both ſexes, were baniſhed to the deſerts of Tartary. Many converts were impriſoned, underwent the baſtinado, and other puniſhments: but the Chineſe had more mercy on them, than Chriſtians in this part of the world have on one another, for few of them were condemned to die for the religion they profeſſed.

The Jeſuits were the chief promoters of the proſecution of Cardinal Tournon, formerly the Pope's vicar in China, for they did not ceaſe to accuſe him to the emperor, till they effected his ruin; and however the Jeſuits may apologize for their conduct in this and other inſtances of the like nature, it appears that the late Pope Benedict confirmed the decrees of his predeceſſors againſt the worſhip of Confucius, reproaching the general of the Jeſuits with the practices of their order in China, and prohibited his ſending any more miſſionaries thither without his leave; from whence and ſeveral other circumſtances, we may conclude, that the Jeſuits have never been intirely expelled from China, but are ſuffered to make a kind of half Chriſtians ſtill; that is, ſuch as worſhip both Popiſh and Chineſe idols; which has probably given birth to the aſſertion, that Chriſtianity is tolerated in China; whereas, on the contrary, we are informed, that ſince the above-mentioned fatal period, the Chriſtian religion hath been ſo far from gaining ground there, that it is more perſecuted now than ever, and that thoſe are expoſed to the moſt ſevere cruelties, who have courage enough to appear in its defence.

SECT. XII.

Of the CHINESE Marriages and Divorces.

THE union of the ſexes by marriage, or rather the bringing them together, is thought of ſo much advantage to the ſtate, by increaſing population, that it is diſgraceful for a man to live ſingle twenty years; but theſe matches are very improperly termed marriages, becauſe the conſent of the parties is never aſked; the parent or guardians enter into a contract, when both the boy and girl are infants in a literal ſenſe; and when they come to years of maturity, the young gentleman ſends the lady a preſent ſuitable to her quality; a ſplendid cavalcade is made, the bride is conveyed to the houſe of her ſpouſe, and this is all the ceremony that is uſed on theſe occaſions. Her ſpouſe never ſees her till ſhe enters his doors; then he unlocks the chair that brings her, and is either ſurprized with her beauty, or ſhocked with the ſight of ſomething he does not like. However, he is at liberty to return her to her friends that moment, if he is content to loſe the preſents that have been made her, with which he may be ſaid to have purchaſed his wife; for he never receives any fortune with her, beſides her cloaths. The lady has not the like option; if her huſband will keep her, ſhe is not allowed to retreat, how much ſoever he proves to be her averſion, and how many wives and concubines ſoever he may have beſides. Thus it is in all eaſtern nations, where a plurality of women is allowed by law. There ſeems, however, to be one, who may properly be ſaid to have her huſband's heart, to whom he gives the command of all the reſt; ſo that the lady inſtead of being his companion, if ſhe is not the favourite, may more properly be ſtyled his ſlave than his wife: nor are her children in a better condition than the children of his concubines, who have all an equal title to his eſtate. If it be demanded, where they find females ſufficient to let every man have a number of wives, ſince the Chineſe do not follow the practice of the Turks and Perſians, by importing them from other countries? it may be conſidered, that as the men marry at twenty, and the girls at twelve years of age, all the females between thoſe ages are ſupernumeraries; beſides, the poor people in moſt countries, who are much the majority, are forced to content themſelves with one wife apiece, and then it will be no difficulty to furniſh their ſuperiors with a variety of females, out of thoſe that are above twelve, and under twenty, notwithſtanding it is admitted that there are as many men born as women in every nation.

The friends of the parties, before every marriage, enquire of ſome prieſt or pretended conjuror, whether it is likely to prove a happy match, and which is the luckieſt day or hour for conſummation: when the man has once received his wife, he cannot turn her off, unleſs it be for adultery, or ſome notorious crime; but in theſe caſes he may ſell her, and purchaſe another with the money, notwithſtanding the Chineſe women are uſually guarded with great ſtrictneſs, and not ſuffered to ſee their neareſt male relations; yet ſome huſbands have given their gallants free liberty to viſit them; and there are women who have prevailed on thoſe that have the diſpoſal of them, to inſiſt on the liberty of having her admirers reſort to her after marriage; but this is ſo much abhorred by the generality of the Chineſe, that their iſſue are not allowed the privileges that other children have. As to the common people they ſeem to be ſo much aſhamed of living ſingle after the age the cuſtom of their country requires them to marry, or they have ſuch a ſtrong propenſity towards matrimony, that they will ſometimes conſent to become ſlaves, on condition they may have a ſlave in a family for a wife, when they are not in circumſtances to purchaſe one.

The Chineſe ladies being ſeldom ſuffered to appear in company, either within doors or without, never have any concern with trade, but amuſe themſelves with painting or needle-work, or with birds, dogs, or other animals, as ſome of the ſex do here.

It is cuſtomary in China to give three names to their ſons: 1. The common name of the family, or ſurname: 2. A proper name; and a third when they are advanced to any preferment or employment. The daughters are called by their father's ſurname, even after marriage, and diſtinguiſhed only by their ſeniority, being called the firſt, ſecond, or third daughter of their father.

There being a great number of eunuchs in the emperor's court, and in the families of the great, who have not only the care of the women, but the management and direction of moſt of their affairs; the poor women frequently caſtrate their ſons, in order to qualify them for preferment; which is almoſt as barbarous a cuſtom as expoſing them in the ſtreets and highways: or ſtrangling them with their own hands, as they ſometimes do, if they find they are not able to maintain them; for poverty ſeems to them worſe than death.

SECT. XIII.

Containing an Account of the Feſtivals, Funerals, and Tombs of the CHINESE.

THEIR two principal feſtivals are celebrated, one in the beginning, and the other about the middle of January. The former is celebrated by viſiting, feaſting, making preſents, &c. The other is called the feaſts of the lanterns, when every family, both in the city and country, on the ſea-coaſt and the rivers, light up large painted lanterns ſtuck full of wax candles or ſmall lamps, which repreſent cavalcades, ſhips under ſail, armies engaging, horſes galloping, ſpectres, and other objects: theſe repeſentations or figures are ſet in motion by perſons concealed, by means of ſtrings or pullies that cannot be perceived at a diſtance. Some Chineſe doctors have aſſerted, that this feaſt of the lanterns originated from the hanging up lanterns in the ruins of the palace of Ki, emperor of China, who, being an effeminate prince, erected a lofty tower adorned with guns, for one of his concubines, where living for ſome time in ſhameful eaſe and indolence, his ſubjects cauſed him to be depoſed by a neighbouring prince; and the magnificent palace being afterwards pulled down, lanterns were hung up in every part of the city to perpetuate the event. Others derive it from the following circumſtance: A certain mandarin, who was greatly careſſed by the people, having an only daughter drowned by falling into a river, he looked for her a whole night by the light of lanterns, all the inhabitants of the diſtrict following him with lanterns and torches to aſſiſt in ſearching for the lady. The particular affection which the people had for their mandarin, or elſe the ſingularity of the adventure, ſet them to work with their lanterns the ſame night of the following year, and this cuſtom gradually ſpreading, occaſioned a public annual feſtival to be obſerved in the manner above-mentioned.

At a third feſtival, the emperor himſelf always attends. After the example of his anceſtors, the prince goes every ſpring in great pomp and ſolemnity into a field, and plows up a few ridges of land. This is in order to encourge and animate the peaſants in the buſineſs of agriculture; and the mandarins, in their reſpective provinces, go through the ſame ceremony.

Another feſtival is alſo kept by the Chineſe, the chief ceremony of which conſiſts in carrying about the country a monſtrous cow with gilded horns: this cow is formed of

clay; and behind it walks a little child, with one foot bare, beating the cow with a rod, as if to drive her forwards. A company of comedians attend them, playing all kinds of antics. Thus they proceed to the palace of the mandarin or governor of the diſtrict, where they break the cow in pieces, and take out of her belly a great number of little cows formed alſo of clay, which they diſtribute to the multitude; and the ceremony concludes with a ſpeech in praiſe of agriculture, pronounced by the mandarin himſelf. Some of theſe cows, which are conſidered as emblems of labour and induſtry, are ſo large and heavy, that forty men can ſcarcely ſupport them. This feſtival is celebrated by country-people and labourers, who drag after them their ſeveral implements of huſbandry.

With reſpect to the funeral ceremonies of the Chineſe, we muſt obſerve, that no ſooner do theſe people come to years of diſcretion, than they make proviſion for their deaths: every man furniſhes his houſe with a coffin, among other moveables, to put him in mind of his mortality: and wealthy people incloſe a piece of land for a burying ground, where they erect a tomb, and a magnificent temple over it, to which they are brought when they die, though at never ſo great a diſtance from home: but ſuch tombs are generally erected in ſolitary places, or by the highway ſide, at a diſtance from towns. None are ever buried within the walls of a city. The poor have a common burying-place, alſo, at ſome diſtance from the town they die in. Their coffins are made of a very laſting wood, ſeven or eight inches thick, which makes them appear much larger than ours: but they are of the ſame form, and finely japanned without, which very much preſerves the wood, and makes it the more durable, as well as beautiful. The Egyptians, as well as the Chineſe, we find endeavoured to preſerve their remains as long as poſſible, imagining, we are told, that as long as any part of the body is left, the ſoul continues about it.

The death of a gentleman is no ſooner known to his relations, but they meet and perfume the corpſe, dreſs it in the beſt cloaths, and, having placed the body upright in a chair, his wives, children, and friends, ſucceſſively fall down before him, and lament their loſs. Three days after, a large room is hung in mourning, that is, with white linen; and the third day, the corpſe, being put in the coffin, is laid there in ſtate, an altar erected before it, and an image of the deceaſed placed upon the altar. The relations then attend again, bringing lighted wax-torches and incenſe, which they burn, and proſtrate themſelves before the corpſe: the ſons then place themſelves on one ſide of the coffin, cloathed in white, and his wives and daughters ſtand on the other, behind a curtain, bewailing themſelves in moſt moving ſtrains; the prieſt at the ſame time ſinging mournful hymns, ſuitable to the occaſion: diſhes of meat are ſerved up for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, and placed upon a table, and at night the prieſts divide the meat among them. The coffin being very thick and cloſe, no offenſive ſmell can be perceived. The funeral is frequently put off for ſeveral months, and ſometimes years, a paper being ſet over the gate of the houſe, reciting the virtues and commendable qualities of the deceaſed; the ſons ſleeping upon mats about the coffin ſeveral nights, and eating no fleſh, or drinking any ſtrong liquors, or having any commerce with their wives; nor can the ſon enter upon any office or employment for three years after the death of his father: and it is reckoned impious even to laugh, or take any manner of pleaſure, during the time of mourning.

The friends and relations of the deceaſed, being invited by the ſon to attend his father's corpſe to the grave, the proceſſion begins with thoſe that carry the images or pictures of men, women, beaſts, and birds, attended with a great number of torches; trophies, triumphal chariots, pageants and tables, with diſhes of meat, alſo are carried before the corpſe. Then follow the prieſts with drums, muſic, and jingling bells, and next the coffin, under a large arched canopy carried by twenty or thirty men, the ſons follow the coffin on foot, ſupporting themſelves with crutches, as not able to ſuſtain themſelves without. The women then advance in cloſe chairs, covered with white ſilk, rending the air with their cries; and beſides theſe, are other women, who are hired to make a diſmal mournful noiſe on theſe occaſions. Being arrived at the tomb, which may be taken for a palace, the company enter it by a grand portal, having a leſs gate on each ſide of it; and the corpſe being depoſited in it, an altar is erected before it, and lights left burning on the altar; the friends of the deceaſed viſiting the tomb at certain ſeaſons, and proſtrating themſelves before it, with their faces to the ground. They burn incenſe, pour out wine, and offer diſhes of meat to the deceaſed, which they are not ignorant becomes an entertainment for the prieſts when they are gone. The character of the deceaſed being engraved on marble, is placed before the altar. Every man alſo has a tablet in his houſe, whereon are engraved the names of his great grandfather, his grand-father and father, whom they worſhip; and their great men have temples erected to their memory, and a yearly ſacrifice offered to them.

Both men and women, during the firſt year of mourning, wear white coarſe linen, almoſt torn to rags; the ſecond year their cloaths are ſomething better, and the third they are allowed to wear white ſilk.

A widow mourns three years for the death of a huſband, and the man one year for his wife, and one for a brother.

Great men, whoſe circumſtances will allow it, erect temples to the memory of their anceſtors, when a yearly ſacrifice is offered. The emperor ſacrifices to ſeven of his anceſtors, the tributary kings to five, and a mandarin to three.

SECT. XIV.

Containing the Hiſtory of CHINA, from the earlieſt Accounts, to the Conqueſt of that Empire by the TARTARS.

WE were, about three hundred years ago, as little acquainted with this country, as with the continent of America, or the new world. As we owe the diſcovery of both to navigation, or the knowledge of the compaſs, China might with as much propriety have been denominated a new world, as America; for though it was ſituate on the ſame continent with Europe, neither the Egyptians, Greeks, or Romans, give us the leaſt intimation, in their hiſtories, that there was ſuch a country on the face of the globe. It is amazing, that when the Egyptian and Phœnician fleets ſailed as far as India, and brought home the fine ſpice, that they ſhould never meet the Chineſe ſhips, or hear of this country when they viſited thoſe very ſeas that border upon China: but ſo it is in fact: we can expect no light, therefore, from any nation but their own, of what happened before the fifteenth century; and what the Chineſe call their hiſtory, is little more than ſome ſhort minutes, containing the names of princes that probably never had an exiſtence; we may be aſſured that the firſt part of their pretended hiſtory is fabulous, and for the reſt, by their own confeſſion, their records have been loſt or deſtroyed; and their paper is ſo ſubject to the worm, that it will not laſt many years. What they have recorded therefore of later years, are only copies of copies; there are no originals to be found.

If we might credit thoſe who pretend ſuch care has been taken to preſerve an impartial hiſtory, as never was obſerved by any other people, the hiſtory of China would exceed all others; for they relate, that there are a certain number of regiſters appointed by the government to record all material tranſactions, and daily to minute down the words and actions of their princes, with their reſpective remarks upon them; and that without conſulting one another, they throw their ſeveral papers into an office, which is never opened while the reigning prince, or any of that family remain upon the throne; but when the crown devolves on another houſe, the doors are opened, and all theſe records are put in order and examined, out of which the hiſtory of the preceding reigns are compoſed, and the examples of their beſt princes recommended to their ſucceſſors, whilſt the conduct of others is ſeverely animadverted upon. Thus their princes, like thoſe of Egypt, undergo a kind of formal trial after their deaths, for the inſtruction of their ſucceſſors.

Our time would be employed to little purpoſe, were we to take notice of any facts which are ſaid to have been tranſacted above four thouſand years ago, becauſe they admit that huſbandry, and all manner of arts and ſciences, were introduced within that period. If the world had continued more than one hundred thouſand years, as ſome of their hiſtorians relate, no doubt but planting, ſowing, cloathing, and other uſeful and neceſſary arts, muſt have flouriſhed much ſooner; but the Chineſe, however, appear ſomething wiſer than many of the antient philoſophers, who held that the world was made by chance.

Moſt legiſlators and founders of kingdoms having judged it neceſſary to derive their origin and authority from heaven, to induce their ſubjects to ſubmit to their dominion; in like manner, their firſt monarch, Fo-hi, who is ſuppoſed to have lived about the time of the flood,



The Dress, Agriculture, Encampment, &c. of the TAGURI-TARTARS

Bennett Woon sculp.

than their Chineſian neighbours in the ſouth; and their horſes, and other cattle, are ſuperior to theirs. The Chineſe troops are ſupplied with horſes chiefly from this country; and from hence comes that valuable herb ginſeng, and the rhubarb root. The air of the country is exceſſively cold, though they lie under the ſame parallel as we do; as it is obſerved with reſpect to the weſtern continent of America, that it is as cold in the latitude of fifty, as it is with us in ſixty: the ſame is obſerved of that part of Chineſe Tartary, which lies in the latitude of fifty, which is occaſioned by the wind blowing over a long tract of frozen country in the winter.

The Tartars eat all manner of meat, except hogs-fleſh; but delight moſt in the fleſh of wild horſes, which they hunt as they do other game. Their drink is water or mare's milk. They have very little wheat or rice: oats is almoſt the only grain they have, of which they make both bread and drink. Their religion is Paganiſm; and, beſides the Chineſe idols, they worſhip the great Lama. Theſe people formerly burnt their dead; but they now bury them, like the Chineſe.

The weſtern Tartars live in tents, and remove from place to place for conveniency of paſture, their herds of cattle, and what they get in hunting, being their principal ſubſiſtence. The eaſtern Tartars live in towns, but are neither ſo numerous or ſo regular and beautiful as the towns of China; many of them lie in ruins, and are perfectly deſerted for warmer ſeats and a more fruitful country: for, as has been obſerved already, upon the conqueſt of China, their emperor invited all the little Tartar clans to join him, and tranſplant their families to Pe-king, in order to eſtabliſh himſelf and ſecure his conqueſt; and from that day to this, all men of any ſpirit, who are not deſtitute of ambition, have reſorted to the court of China, where they have almoſt a certainty of meeting with preferment, and conſequently their native country is abandoned and left in a more wretched condition than before their union with China. They had the honour indeed of being conquerors, and ſetting a prince of their nation upon the throne; but are notwithſtanding become a province to the kingdom they conquered: they are governed by a military force, and garriſons placed in all their ſtrong towns; the manners and cuſtoms of the Chineſe alſo prevail more and more among the Tartars every day. However, the Tartars that remain in their own country, and do not attend the court, muſt be allowed to differ from the Chineſe in many reſpects: They are neither ſo effeminate or luxurious as their more ſouthern neighbours, nor do they apply themſelves to traffic near ſo much; hunting, horſemanſhip, and other manly exerciſes take up great part of their time. They would be aſhamed to be ſeen in chairs or litters, like the ſoft Chineſe, but eſteem it much more glorious to be found at the head of a troop of horſe. Like other northern countries, they alſo allow their women all innocent liberties, and both ſexes converſe together with freedom; and poſſibly it will be found a very juſt obſervation, that the braveſt people have been ever the leaſt troubled with a ſpirit of jealouſy, and kept their women under the leaſt reſtraint.

The Tartars are not famous for arts and ſciences; nor do we hear much of their laws: the will of the prince ſeems to be the only meaſure of their obedience; nor have they any books or hiſtories among them, which give any light into their original.

SECT. XVII.

Treating of the CHINESIAN TARTAR Kingdoms and States.

HISTORIANS have divided the Tartars into innumerable tribes or hords, but we ſhall here give ſome account of the neighbouring kingdom of Thibet, and the Uſbeck Tartars.

The kingdom of Thibet is bounded by the Calmucks land on the north, by China on the eaſt, by India on the ſouth-weſt, and by Uſbeck Tartary on the weſt. This country is ſituate in an excellent climate, between thirty and forty degrees of north latitude; but is very mountainous, which probably obſtructs the paſſage between India and China by land: and ſeems to have been one reaſon that we had no communication with the Chineſe, before the Portugueſe found out the way to China by ſea. It is certain they are a very potent people, and more dreaded by the Chineſe than any other nation. They are governed by a cham or chan, which ſignifies a ſovereign prince in that part of the world; but whether they are abſolute or limited monarchs, hiſtory does not inform us, though the former is moſt probable. Part of them are Pagans, and part Mahometans. Thoſe that border upon China have the ſame idols and bonze prieſts as the Chineſe have; and thoſe are for the moſt part Mahometans which lie next to Mongalia and Uſbeck Tartary.

Uſbeck Tartary is bounded on the north, by the country of the Calmucks; on the eaſt, by Thibet; on the ſouth, by India; and on the weſt, by Perſia and the Caſpian ſea. The moſt conſiderable rivers are thoſe of the Oxus, which divides it from Perſia; and the Sihun, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea. It is a fine fruitful country, lying between thirty-five and forty-five degrees of north latitude, and carries on a briſk trade both with the eaſtern and weſtern countries of Aſia. The chief town was Samarcand, ſituate in ſixty-ſix degrees of eaſtern longitude, and forty degrees of north latitude, once the reſidence of the great Tamerlane, and the metropolis of his empire.

The preſent capital is Bochara, ſituate on the river Oxus, about ſixty miles ſouth-weſt of Samarcand, and frequently gives name to the country. The people here, as in other Tartar countries, are divided into a great many hords or tribes, but ſubject to one monarch, their grand cham. This is a polite nation; and their ſtature, features, and complexion not to be found fault with, eſpecially if compared with the Calmucks, their northern neighbours. The religion of the Uſbecks is Mahometaniſm, and their rites and cuſtoms much the ſame as thoſe of their brethren in Turky. Their great leader, or great Cham, Tamerlane, was the ſon of Zam, Cham or Chan, the chief of all the Mogul tribes: he firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf by repulſing the Ruſſians, who had invaded his country, and having given them a total defeat, obliged them to ſubmit to ſuch terms as he thought fit to impoſe. He married the daughter of his uncle, another cham or chan of the Moguls, whoſe dominions he ſucceeded to on his uncle's death: the Chineſe invading his country, he was not content with repulſing them, but carried the war into their own country, and demoliſhed part of the wall they had erected for the defence of it, made himſelf maſter of the capital city of Pe-king, and the Chineſe emperor tributary to him: the fame of his actions having reached the weſtern kingdoms of Aſia, they ſent ambaſſadors to him, to implore his protection againſt the furious Bajazet, emperor of the Turks; whereupon he aſſembled moſt of the Tartar tribes, and being joined by a body of Ruſſians, it is computed his army amounted to near a million of men, with which he marched through the countries north of the Caſpian ſea, and then bending his march to the ſouthward, paſſed mount Caucaſus, continuing his march through Circaſſia and Georgia, and the countries ſituate between the Caſpian and Euxine ſeas: theſe countries being in alliance with him, and furniſhing his army with proviſions in their march, and as they were Chriſtians, looked upon Tamerlane as their deliverer from Turkiſh tyranny; he did not, however, rely entirely on his confederates to furniſh ſo vaſt an army with proviſions; but his fleet on the Caſpian ſea, attended the army in their march with all manner of neceſſaries, inſomuch that his ſoldiers were not ſuffered to plunder, or take any thing by violence in the countries through which they paſſed: if a ſoldier took but an apple or bowl of milk, without paying for it, he was put to death. Sebaſtia, in Armenia, was the firſt city that oppoſed his march, the garriſon returning very inſolent anſwers, when they were ſummoned to ſurrender; whereupon he inveſted the place, but did not make any attack for a week; in the mean while, the inhabitants looking upon the town to be impregnable, on a ſudden their walls and towers fell down, having been undermined; and the garriſon ſeeing themſelves laid open to the enemy, were forced to ſurrender at diſcretion; according to the Turkiſh account, Tamerlane cauſed the ſoldiers of the garriſon to be bound hand and foot, and thrown into pits that were dug for that purpoſe, where they were buried alive; but though this does not ſuit with the character of this humane conqueror, yet the ſtory ought not to be totally rejected, for it is evident many great generals have done the like on the firſt invaſion of a country, in order to ſtrike a terror into their enemies; and if that was his deſign he had his end, for few towns refuſed to ſurrender to him afterwards at the firſt ſummons.

When Bajazet had received advice of Tamerlane's ſucceſs, he advanced towards him with an army of one million of ſoldiers, when a bloody battle was fought in the plains of Stella, in which the Turks were totally defeated; and Bajazet, being taken priſoner, was at firſt treated by Tamerlane with great humanity; but afterwards behaving with inſolence, was confined by the conqueror in an iron cage, and carried with him wherever he went; but the haughty

haughty Turk, not being able to brook this ignominious kind of puniſhment, daſhed out his brains againſt the bars of his moveable priſon. As for Tamerlane, he ſoon after ſubdued the greateſt part of Leſſer Aſia, took the city of Perſia in Bythinia, conquered Syria, and reduced Egypt; after which he returned back to his own country, and died in the year of our Lord 1404. But as theſe tranſactions have a more immediate reference to Turky, we ſhall treat of them more largely when we come to that part of our work.

CHAP. III.

THE KINGDOM OF COREA.

THE kingdom of Corea, or Korea, which is a large peninſula, is ſituated between China and Japan, and lies between the thirty-fourth and forty-third degrees of north latitude. It is about four hundred and fifty miles in length from north to ſouth, and about two hundred and twenty-five in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into eight provinces, has two hundred cities, with many caſtles and fortified places.

In the northern parts of the kingdom the climate is exceeding ſevere; and the ſnow ſometimes falls in ſuch quantities, that the people are forced to work a paſſage under it, in order to get from one houſe to another, fixing a ſmall board to their feet, to keep them from ſinking into the ſnow. The inhabitants, in the northern part, live upon barley, having no rice, and clothe themſelves in ſheep-ſkins and coarſe hempen cloth; but the ſouthern parts produce every neceſſary of life. The Japaneſe have lately taught them to plant and dreſs tobacco, which is ſmoked by both ſexes. They have alſo ſilver and lead mines; all ſorts of cattle, tame and wild fowl, horſes, wolves, and tygers, but no elephants; and there are many crocodiles in their rivers, the moſt conſiderable of which are Ya-lu, and the Tu-men.

The Coreans are in general well-ſhaped, of a comely aſpect, friendly to ſtrangers, but treat barbarouſly thoſe who are ſo unfortunate as to be ſhip-wrecked on their coaſts. They are at the ſame time effeminate, much given to pleaſure, and of a timid diſpoſition. People of condition dreſs in a purple-coloured ſilk gown with long and wide ſleeves, and a ſaſh; they alſo wear fur caps and linen buſkins. The common people wear cotton or hempen cloth. In the country, the houſes are mean, except thoſe belonging to people of diſtinction, which are handſome and ſpacious.

Contracts for marriage are made at the age of ſeven or eight years; but are prohibited to the third degree of kindred; the females are in that caſe brought up by the father-in-law, except an only daughter. A man is allowed to have ſeveral wives, provided he keeps only one at home; but the grandees are permitted to keep three or four at their houſes, one of whom acts as ſupreme miſtreſs. They in general treat their wives as ſlaves, and divorce them at pleaſure. The moſt conſiderable part of the father's ſubſtance devolves to his eldeſt ſon, and the reſt among the other male children, the daughters being excluded.

The Coreans bury their dead only in ſpring and autumn, and in the mean time place the corpſe in a kind of hut made of ruſhes, raiſed upon four ſtakes in their courts or gardens. The deceaſed lies in a double coffin, cloſely cemented together, dreſſed in his beſt apparel, with ſome toys lying near him. They ſet out in proceſſion with the body at day-break, the bearers ſinging all the way, keeping exact time with their ſteps and voice, while the reſt of the company fill the air with doleful lamentations. The graves for the common people are five or ſix feet deep, but people of rank are depoſited in ſtone vaults, as with us. After the funeral is over, they make their offerings to the deceaſed monthly, at the full of the moon. Children mourn three years, with great ſolemnity and abſtinence, for their fathers; their dreſs, during this time of ſadneſs, being very mean.

They do not much concern themſelves about religious worſhip, the whole of which conſiſts chiefly in external ceremony. But here are ſome of the followers of Confucius, and others who eſteem the religion of Foe, there being many temples conſecrated to this deity. Moſt of them believe the doctrine of tranſmigration, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments: they have alſo a great number of monks amongſt them, who go bareheaded, and refrain from any connection with the female ſex: neither are they allowed to eat the fleſh of any animals. There are alſo two monaſteries for religious women: one for daughters of the nobility, and the other for young women of inferior rank.

The Coreans are exceedingly ignorant of geography, ſuppoſing the globe to conſiſt only of twelve kingdoms, and extend their maps no farther than Siam. Their language has a ſet of characters peculiar to itſelf; but the literati adopt the Chineſe, whoſe method of printing they follow. The education of their children is free from all ſeverity: they implant into their tender minds a ſenſe of honour: the principal part of their learning conſiſts in the knowledge of moral philoſophy, taking the great Confucius for their model.

Their chief trade is with the Japaneſe, particularly with the iſlanders of Tſaſſima ſubject to Japan, who bring to their factory, at Pouſan in Corea, ſweet-ſcented wood, alum, paper, pepper, buffaloes horns, &c. and receive cotton and ginſeng in exchange.

The only ſpecies of money uſed by the Coreans are called caſis, which are current no farther than the frontiers of China: in other parts they make their payments in unſtamped wedges or ingots of ſilver.

Though the king of Corea is no more than a vaſſal to the emperor of China, he rules with abſolute ſway, keeps a great number of houſhold troops in his ſervice, which guard his palace, and attend him wherever he goes. When his majeſty is paſſing, none muſt preſume to look at him. He is lord of all the lands in the kingdom, and beſtows them on whomſoever he pleaſes, and for whatever term of years he thinks proper: he has a council of ſtate compoſed of ſeveral miniſters; but none may give his opinion till firſt aſked by his majeſty, nor meddle in any ſtate concern without his permiſſion. If they behave well, they are continued in office during life.

The Coreans chuſe their magiſtrates of cities, and governors of fortified places every third year. Theſe are either baniſhed, or ſentenced to ſuffer death, if found guilty of mal-practices.

The revenues of the crown conſiſt principally in the rents of land granted to the people: the king has, beſides, the tythe of every thing productive of profit, either by land or ſea.

In Corea, the penal laws are extremely rigorous. Rebels and traitors, together with their whole families, are cut off without the leaſt mercy, and their habitations levelled with the ground. If a wife kills her huſband, ſhe is placed up to her ſhoulders in the earth in ſome high road, and a hatchet is placed cloſe to her, with which every one except thoſe of noble family, is obliged to give her a chop as he paſſes by her; and where a murder of this kind is committed, the magiſtrates of the place are ſuſpended from the execution of their office. But though a woman is ſo ſeverely puniſhed for murdering her huſband, yet the laws juſtify and protect the man who kills his wife detected in adultery; or if he gives her up to juſtice, ſhe is condemned to die, but is allowed to chuſe the mode of her ſuffering death, in which caſe they generally cut their own throats. It is aſſerted by ſome writers, that huſbands, eſpecially if they are of ſuperior quality, are puniſhed with death for adultery. If an unmarried man be detected in criminal converſation with a married woman, they puniſh him by ſtripping him down to the waiſt, and leaving him only a pair of drawers on; after which, they ſmear his face with lime, pierce an arrow through each of his ears, and tie a kettle on his back, which is beat upon as he paſſes through the ſtreets, and laſt of all he receives the baſtinado. The perſon who kills a free-man is obliged to ſwallow a quantity of vinegar with which the body of the murdered perſon has been waſhed, then the criminal is trampled under foot, and kicked on the belly till he dies. Nearly the ſame puniſhment is inflicted for theft.

The baſtinado here is generally given on the poſteriors, and ſometimes on the ſhins and ſoles of the feet. When on the ſhins, they bind the ſufferer's legs to a couple of benches, the one at his feet, and the other under his hams; and in this poſture they ſtrike him on the legs with a ſort of

of laſh, but not more than thirty ſtrokes at a time, which they repeat two or three hours afterwards, till the whole of the ſentence is executed. When an offender receives the baſtinado on the ſoles of his feet, they compel him to ſit down on the ground, and then tying his two great toes together, fix them in a wooden frame, and thus inflict the puniſhment. Women and apprentices generally receive the baſtinado on the calves of their legs. Perſons in arrears to the king, or who refuſe to pay their debts, are baſtinadoed on the ſhins every fifteen days till they pay the money. State criminals are tried by the grand royal council.

The military government in Corea very much reſembles the civil. Each province has a general, or chief of the militia, with four or five colonels under him, each of whom commands a regiment; and that the king may know the exact number of ſoldiers he has in pay, the inferior officers are obliged to keep an accurate liſt of all the men belonging to their reſpective corps, which they tranſmit at ſtated times to their ſuperior officers.

Their ſhips of war have commonly two maſts and about thirty oars, with five or ſix men to each oar, which, with the marines, make about three hundred men in each ſhip: their ſtores chiefly conſiſt of cannon and pot-granadoes; and every province has its particular admiral, who is obliged annually to review the ſhips of war belonging to his province. They have always a number of ſhips in commiſſion, every city being compelled to fit out one complete ſhip.

Corea was originally inhabited by different people, who each had their reſpective princes, law maxims, and cuſtoms; but they afterwards became one nation. The moſt conſiderable of theſe early natives were deſcended from the Tartars, and named Kau-kiu-li.

The firſt king of Corea is ſaid to have been a nephew of Gheon, Emperor of China, who for ſome miſdemeanour, ſeized and threw him into ſome Chineſe priſon; but Gheon, being afterwards dethroned by Vou-vang the founder of the thirteenth family or dynaſty, the nephew, whoſe name was Ki-tſe, was reſtored to his liberty. He retired to Corea, where he introduced the Chineſe laws, civilized his people, and conducted the public affairs with great wiſdom and prudence; but at the ſame time harboured the reflection that Vou-vang was an uſurper, and had deprived his family of the imperial crown. This event took place in the year before Chriſt 1120.

Ki-tſe's ſucceſſors enjoyed the throne of Corea near nine hundred years; but Tchuang-ſiang-vang, emperor of China, at length ſubdued the Coreans, and reduced the title of their king to that of hean, or count, with a very limited authority. A prince of the family of Ki-tſe, named Chun, aſſumed the title of king, but was ſoon after dethroned, and the race of Ki-tſe became extinct at his death.

Vey-nan, who was a native of China, then forced his way to the throne of Corea; and, in order to ſecure his uſurpation, courted an alliance with the emperor of China, and obtained the title of vang or king: but the ſovereignty did not long continue in the family of Vey-nan; for his grandſon was maſſacred, and the Chineſe profiting by the confuſion ariſing from this event, conquered Corea a ſecond time. In proceſs of time it was reſtored to its ancient monarchical form of government; and the king ſubmitted to pay a tribute to the emperors of China. Since that period, Corea has undergone various revolutions; being ſometimes under vaſſalage to the Chineſe, at other times tributary, then independent, and almoſt always at war with that nation. It is tributary at this time; and the king of Corea, on his acceſſion to the throne, receives his confirmation upon his knees from the emperor of China.

CHAP. IV.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

INDIA.

SECT. I.

Diviſion of TONQUIN, its Situation and Boundaries, Rivers, Climate and Provinces; Deſcription of the Natives, their Habits, Manufactures, Produce of the Country, Animals, Language, Sciences, Government, &c.

GEOGRAPHERS uſually divide India into two parts; namely, India beyond the Ganges, and India on this ſide of it. We ſhall firſt enter upon the deſcription of that diviſion which lies beyond the river Ganges, becauſe it adjoins to China, which we have laſt treated of.

This country comprehends, 1. The kingdom of Tonquin. 2. Cochin-China, and Chiampa. 3. Siam, including Malacca, Cambodia, and Laos. 4. Pegu and Martaban. 6. Ava, Arracan, Tipra, and Acham, excluſive of the iſlands; the whole lying between ninety-two and one hundred and nine degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between one and twenty-eight degrees of north latitude.

The kingdom of Tonquin, which is the firſt of theſe diviſions, is bounded by China on the north and eaſt; by the bay of Cochin-China, on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, and by the two ſmall kingdoms of Laos and Bowes (bordering on Siam) on the weſt: it is ſituate between one hundred and one hundred and nine degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between twenty-one and twenty-ſeven degrees of north latitude; it is about five hundred miles in length, and about four hundred in breadth. It is divided into eight provinces, viz. eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth provinces, Tenay, Tenhoa, Ngeam, and Cachao. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands at the extremity of it.

In ſailing up the river Domea, a fine level fruitful country preſents itſelf to view; in which there are no trees, except about the villages, but an agreeable variety of rice ground and paſtures. Further within land, on the north, it riſes into hills. The air, in dry ſeaſons, is generally healthful.

The ſouthern part of this country lies in the form of a creſcent, about a ſpacious bay of the ſea, near one hundred miles wide; the depth in the middle, is about forty-ſix fathom, and there is good anchorage in every part of it. The rivers Rockbo and Domea run into this bay, which riſing in the mountains on the north-weſt, take their courſe to the ſouth-eaſt, and, running almoſt parallel, diſcharge themſelves into the bottom of the bay, at about thirty leagues diſtance from each other. The Europeans trade with the natives, up the river Domea, which is near two miles over at the mouth; but there are ſo many ſands at the mouth, that a ſhip cannot be carried over the bar without the aſſiſtance of a pilot.

In this country, the year is divided into the wet and dry ſeaſon, as in thoſe places which lie between the tropics. The wet ſeaſon begins in April or May, and laſts till the beginning of September; in which time, however, there are conſiderable intervals of fair weather, eſpecially in the mornings; the three firſt months of this ſeaſon are very unhealthy. In September the rain and wind are generally moderate; and yet in that month and October happen the Tuffoons (Typhones), which are ſuch violent ſtorms, that no ſhips venture out of the harbour during that time. The tuffoons happen uſually about the new or full moon; it is fair, pleaſant weather, and little wind twelve hours before the ſtorm begins. The wind having blown very fiercely for twelve hours from the north-eaſt, and attended with thunder and lightning and heavy rains, it grows calm on a ſudden; but in the ſpace of an hour changes to the ſouth-weſt, and blows with equal violence from that quarter. They have the faireſt weather when the ſun is at the greateſt diſtance, which is the caſe in moſt countries between the tropics. The rains are heavieſt when the ſun is vertical, but the ſeaſons are not always alike: ſometimes they have not rain enough for their rice, which commonly grows in water, or a very moiſt ſoil.

Cachao, or Kecchio, the capital city, is ſituate about one hundred miles up the river Domea, in one hundred and five degrees of eaſt longitude, and twenty-two degrees

thirty minutes north latitude, on an elevated ſituation, having neither wall or moat about it. There are about twenty thouſand houſes in it, moſt of them low thatched cottages, and ſome few built of brick; their ſtreets wide, but ill paved, and ſeveral muddy ponds, which are very offenſive in the dry ſeaſon.

In the middle of the city ſtands the king's palace, which, with the parks and gardens that ſurround it, is eight or nine miles in circuit. There is another palace meanly built, in which the chova or general reſides; before it is a grand parade for exerciſing the ſoldiers, and a houſe where the train of artillery, conſiſting of fifty or ſixty iron guns, are lodged, and ſome mortars. There is alſo a ſtable of war-elephants, and another of the king's horſes near the parade.

The town of Domea is ſituate about ſixteen or eighteen miles up the ſame river, where the Dutch ſhips, which trade to this country, uſually lie; but the Engliſh ride three miles higher. The Dutch have a factory at Domea.

Upon the ſame river, about eighty miles from the ſea, ſtands Hean; it conſiſts of about two thouſand houſes, and has a garriſon of ſoldiers in it. The Chineſe, who trade between this place and Japan, have factors here.

In the flat country there are abundance of villages, which are ſurrounded with walls or banks of earth, to defend them againſt the annual floods.

The natives of Tonquin are of a middle ſtature, tawny complexion, black long hair, which falls down on their ſhoulders; they have black eyes, and their teeth are dyed black. They wear the nail on the little finger of the left hand as long as the finger, as the Chineſe do. They are very faithful and diligent, ſubmiſſive to their ſuperiors, and fairer dealers than the Chineſe.

Their proviſions are dreſſed and ſerved up in an elegant taſte; and they perfume both their tables and their diſhes. Their uſual fare conſiſts of rice dreſſed various ways, eggs, pulſe, roots, fowls, fiſh, buffalo, pork, beef, and frogs. They have neither table-cloths or napkins; and inſtead of forks, uſe ivory or ebony ſticks as the Chineſe do, and eat nearly in the ſame manner. The food of the common people is rice, dried fiſh, and pulſe, and tea is their uſual drink; but the higher claſſes mix arrack with their tea, and often become intoxicated with it. The grandees have halls in their houſes, for the diverſion of ſinging and dancing in the evenings; and every villa hath its houſe of mirth and paſtime, where the people aſſemble, eſpecially on their feſtivals, and cauſe plays to be acted. They have ſeveral kinds of muſical inſtruments, ſuch as kettle-drums, trumpets, violins, guitars, and hautboys. The actors are generally about half a dozen in number; and the dances are performed by the women, who ſing at the ſame time. They have likewiſe merry-andrews, to excite the laughter of the ſpectators.

The tonquneſe, is a gown girt about with a ſaſh: the ſexes are ſcarce diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs. People of condition wear Engliſh cloth, red, blue, or green, or elſe ſilk of their own manufacture; their caps made like the crown of a hat, of the ſame materials as the gown; the common people wear cotton or calicoe; the ſoldiers the ſame, but ſhorter, and all of them wear cotton breeches, or drawers, which reach down below their knees.

The common people are good mechanics; but their lords, who are owners of the lands, keep them ſo miſerably poor, that they are frequently forced to remain idle, for want of materials to work upon. The Dutch, who marry temporary wives in this country, employ them as their factors to buy the materials; and ſet the poor people to work, and have their goods ready againſt the ſhipping arrives.

Silk and lacquered ware are their chief manufactures, the country produces alſo turpentine, lignum-aloes, fine perfumes, and wood for dying, reſembling logwood.

The principal grain that grows here is rice, but they have cocoa-nuts, guavas, mangoes, plantains, oranges, and all other tropical fruits: their ſoil alſo produces betel and arek root, which they are extremely fond of.

There are great numbers of elephants in this kingdom, and the reſt of the peninſula, alſo ſome horſes, oxen, buffaloes, and the ſame kind of hogs we meet with in China. They have ſcarcely any ſheep or wild beaſts; but plenty of fiſh and poultry.

They have no mines of gold or ſilver; but there are iron and lead mines in abundance. Silk worms are alſo here in ſuch plenty, that ſilk is almoſt as cheap as cotton. Sugar canes likewiſe thrive well in this country; and they have a ſort of tea which they call Chia bang, the leaves of which they boil; as alſo another kind called chia way, the leaf of which is not fit for any uſe; but the flower, when dried before the fire, makes a very agreeable liquor by infuſion. The oranges of Tonquin are ſaid to excel all others for richneſs of flavour: here are alſo various kinds of flowers, and among others, very beautiful lilies and jeſſamines, though the Tonquineſe do not diſcover much taſte for this elegant ornament of nature. They have commonly two crops of rice yearly, which being their chief food, the cultivation of it is the peaſant's whole employ.

Snakes, ſcorpions, and other reptiles and inſects, are as troubleſome here as in other hot countries; but none more ſo than the ants, which march in large bodies, and devour every thing they can penetrate; they will eat through a bale of ſilk in a few hours time.

Tonquin having been a province of China, their language is a dialect of that nation, and their characters the ſame; their learning conſiſting chiefly in underſtanding theſe characters, they are examined what progreſs they have made in this ſtudy, when they ſtand candidates for any place, as in China. In the mathematics, aſtronomy, and other ſciences, they equal the Chineſe, and have been improved like them in theſe ſciences, by the Popiſh miſſionaries who viſited this country from Europe.

The ſovereign or bova, has barely the title of king: he has no ſhare in the government. The general is veſted with the regal power; he makes the king a kind of priſoner in his own palace, but allows him to appear at certain times, and receive the homage of his ſubjects, and the general himſelf ſeems to adore him before the people, declaring, he takes upon him the adminiſtration of the government, only to eaſe his ſovereign of the trouble of it, and that he may enjoy his pleaſures without interruption. His majeſty's ſervants are all appointed by the general, and have orders not to ſuffer any of the reſt of his ſubjects to come near him. The general diſpoſes of all offices, civil and military; has a guard of two hundred elephants, beſides his horſe and foot guards, and uſually has a ſtanding army of thirty thouſand men in and about the capital city, and ſixty or ſeventy thouſand men in other parts of the kingdom, particularly on the frontiers of China, which is the power they ſtand moſt in fear of. When the army marches, the generals and great officers are mounted upon elephants; a caſtle or rather a great room being fixed upon the back of this monſtrous beaſt, in which a dozen men may be accommodated, and diſcharge their muſkets or ſhoot their arrows. They have no naval force, only ſome little coaſting veſſels, with which they never venture far out to ſea. They have no ſails, but make uſe of oars only.

Among a great number of feſtivals celebrated by the Tonquineſe, two of them are kept with more than ordinary ſolemnity. The firſt is held at the beginning of the year, which with them commences with the new moon neareſt to the end of January, and ſometimes three or four days ſooner; this feaſt continues about twelve days; but the firſt days are rather ſpent in lamentation than rejoicing; for then they ſhut up their habitation, and keep within-doors, for fear, as they pretend, of meeting with ſome unlucky object in the ſtreet, which might prove to them an omen of ill fortune the enſuing year. On the following day they begin their feſtivity, when booths and ſtages are erected in the ſtreets, in which are repreſented different kinds of ſhows; nothing is then heard but the ſound of muſical inſtruments, and the wild uproar of riot and licentiouſneſs. The ſecond grand feſtival is kept in the ſixth moon, with the ſame kind of mad merriment. Excluſive of theſe, they obſerve two monthly feaſts, in which religion has ſome ſhare, it being cuſtomary at theſe feaſts to ſacrifice to their anceſtors, by oblations of proviſions at their tombs. Another of their ſolemn feaſts is called can-ja, on which their king gives his public benediction to the country, and plows two or three furrows with his own hands for the encouragement of agriculture. The natives practiſe faſting and prayers by way of preparation for this feſtival; which cuſtom they have undoubtedly borrowed from the Chineſe; as may be ſeen, in our account of that people.

The officers of ſtate and chief magiſtrates in Tonquin are generally eunuchs, who are an imperious ſet of people, difficult of acceſs, and exceedingly covetous, though they have none but themſelves to make proviſion for; and indeed it is a common obſervation, that they who have the leaſt occaſion for money, covet moſt; and whatever an eunuch has ſcraped together, falls to the government, when he dies; he has not even the power to diſpoſe of any part of it by will; and this is the reaſon that their extortions

tions and oppreſſions are ſo much connived at: but to theſe mal-practices are imputed the extreme poverty and want of trade in the lower claſs of people, who have no encouragement to work, poſſeſſing nothing they can call their own.

The religion of the people of Tonquin differs but little from that of the Chineſe, Confucius is adored with equal veneration by one part of them; while others are worſhippers of Foe; but they have other images that are not met with in China, particularly the elephant and the horſe. The temples or pagodas are very ſmall, ſome of them but juſt big enough to contain the image. Their prieſts have cells about the temple, where they attend to offer up the prayers of the devout, who bring them their petitions in writing, which the prieſt reads aloud before the image, while the diſciple lies proſtrate on the ground in a ſupplicating poſture. People of figure ſeldom come to the pagoda, but perform their devotions before an image placed upon an altar in one of the courts of their own houſes; ſome dependant reading the petition inſtead of a prieſt, while his maſter proſtrates himſelf on the earth. On the paper are enumerated the ſeveral inſtances of the petitioner's good fortune, for which he returns his thanks to heaven, as for riches, honours, preſervation, &c. concluding with a prayer for the continuance of them: after which, the paper is burnt in a pan of incenſe, and then the poor neighbours and dependants are called in, and made to partake of an entertainment the maſter has provided for them. Whenever they make their addreſſes to heaven, the poor are ſure to be relieved; the devout ſupplicant looking upon this as the readieſt way to obtain a favourable anſwer to their requeſts.

The Tonquineſe are as much addicted to ſuperſtition as their neighbours. They, like the Chineſe, conſult the aſtrologer, or pretended fortune-teller, whenever they are about to undertake any thing of moment, and have their lucky and unlucky days; and as every hour of the day has the name of ſome animal, as the horſe, or the like, the beaſt who marks the hour a man is born upon, is always carefully avoided by them.

It appears from the relation of a late traveller, that the court of Tonquin ſhewed no inclination to embrace Chriſtianity, but he ſuppoſed that many of the poor people had been induced to profeſs it, on account of the rice the miſſionaries diſtributed among them: that the fathers lived as merchants at Hean, and thought proper to conceal their miſſion; apprehending, probably, they were not acceptable to the court, who made no other uſe of them, than to learn ſome branch of the mathematics.

Young people are not ſuffered here to marry without the conſent of their parents; and females are ſeldom diſpoſed of in marriage before they are ſixteen years of age. When a youth is diſpoſed to marry, he firſt applies to the father of the maiden, and makes him a preſent. After the articles are agreed upon, the man ſends to the houſe of the young woman ſuch preſents as have been ſtipulated; and on the wedding day the fathers of both parties, accompanied by their friends, conduct the bride to the houſe of the bridegroom, where the ceremony is performed in great haſte. They have always a feaſt, which laſts for three or more days, on theſe occaſions.

Here, as in moſt other Pagan countries, a plurality of women is allowed, and very little difference is made between a wife taken upon contract, and a concubine. Their children are equally entitled to inherit, and the natives are ſo far from being diſturbed by jealouſy, that it is ſaid, they will offer their women to the European merchants, or rather let them out, for they expect ſome conſideration for the favour. Here men are allowed to take temporary wives, as the Dutch do, to tranſact their affairs in their abſence. And by this commerce the women ſometimes raiſe fortunes, and afterwards become matches for the moſt conſiderable men in the country. The men are alſo at liberty to divorce their wives for any trifle almoſt, but then they muſt reſtore the effects ſhe was poſſeſſed of at the time of the marriage, and keep the children; but the wife cannot obtain a divorce unleſs the huſband is charged with ſome very notorious crime. The puniſhment of a woman convicted of adultery, is to be thrown to an elephant bred up for ſuch executions; who, taking her up with his trunk, toſſes her up in the air, and when ſhe falls, tramples her under his feet, cruſhing her to pieces with as much eaſe, as one might kill a moth. A man may ſell both wife and children here, which makes a divorce very unneceſſary on the man's part; for this amounts to ſomething more than a divorce. In a ſcarcity, the poor people ſell their children with very little reluctance; for by this means, they frequently ſave their children's lives, as well as their own. And in this part of the world, we ſee people very ready to part with their children, to any one that will maintain them, without demanding any conſideration for them: and why is this more unnatural than the Tonquineſe ſelling their children to preſerve themſelves?

Their funerals differ very little from thoſe of the Chineſe: we ſee the like proceſſions and the like mourning, only they burn the corpſe, and put the aſhes into an urn: they carry proviſions to the tomb where the urn is depoſited, which is diſtributed among the prieſts and poor people, after they have been offered to the deceaſed, and the idol placed on an altar before the corpſe; over the tombs of people of condition, they erect a wooden tower four or five and twenty feet high, and the prieſt aſcending to the top of it, makes a funeral oration, enumerating the virtues and good qualities of the deceaſed: after which, he comes down and ſets fire to the tower, which is ſoon conſumed to aſhes, being built of very ſlight materials; and then the people ſit down to an entertainment, which is provided for them. Fifty hogs have been dreſſed and diſtributed at a funeral, with the greateſt quantity of fruit that ever was ſeen together.

When the king dies, he lies in ſtate ſixty-five days after his deceaſe, and his table continues to be ſerved every day as if he was alive; the meat being diſtributed every evening among the prieſts and poor people. After which a very ſplendid proceſſion is begun towards the royal burying-place, which is about two days journey from Cachao: but they ſeldom reach the tombs under ſeventeen days. The mandarins, great officers, and magiſtrates, are obliged to mourn three years for the prince, the gentry ſix months, and the common people three, and no diverſions are allowed for three years after the funeral.

There is great emulation among the opulent, in providing coffins for themſelves; in framing theſe coffins, they cement the boards together; but make no uſe of nails, leſt that ſhould have the appearance of laying a conſtraint on the deceaſed.

With reſpect to the origin of the Tonquineſe, and the revolutions in their kingdom, little can be ſaid with certainty, as they were for many ages ignorant of the art of writing. One of the firſt kings mentioned in their hiſtory was Ding, ſaid to have reigned 200 years before Chriſt, and to have been raiſed to the throne by a troop of lawleſs robbers; but as he proved a tyrant, his ſubjects revolted, and murdered him. Long wars enſued; after which, Le-day-han was elected king, in whoſe reign the Chineſe invaded and over-ran the kingdom. This prince, however, defended himſelf with great bravery, and defeated them ſeveral times, but could not drive them out of the country. On the death of Le-day-han, Li-hal-vie was placed on the throne, who vanquiſhed the Chineſe, and drove them out of his territories. The poſterity of this prince reigned peaceably for ſeveral generations; and the laſt king of this family leaving behind him but one daughter, this princeſs ſhared the throne with a nobleman whom ſhe eſpouſed; but another grandee, named Ho, conſpired againſt the queen, ſubdued her huſband in battle, put both of them to death, and took poſſeſſion of the crown; which treachery and cruelty occaſioned a revolt of his ſubjects, who applied to the Chineſe for aid, and thereby occaſioned their entrance into the kingdom with a numerous army, which drove away the tyrant, and as a reward for their ſervices, poſſeſſed themſelves of the government, obliging the Tonquineſe to accept of a viceroy from China, who introduced the Chineſe laws and cuſtoms, and intirely changed the form of the conſtitution.

In proceſs of time, however, the Tonquineſe headed by Li, who was a man of a moſt intrepid ſpirit, revolted from the Chineſe; and, taking up arms, put them all to the ſword, and compelled the emperor to conſent to a diſhonourable peace. Li was then crowned king of Tonquin; and all that the Chineſe were able to obtain, was, that the kings of Tonquin ſhould hold the crown in fealty under the emperors of China, and pay them a triennial tribute. This treaty was concluded about the year 1200 after Chriſt, and both nations have faithfully obſerved the articles ever ſince. When the emperor of China ſends his ambaſſadors to Tonquin, to collect the tribute, they behave with the utmoſt haughtineſs; inſomuch that when the king has occaſion to treat with them on any matters of importance, he is obliged to wait upon them, inſtead of their attending on him: and a prince of Tonquin muſt previouſly obtain a confirmation from the hand of the emperor of China, before he can aſcend the throne of his anceſtors. The deſcendants of Li ſat upon the throne for two centuries, after which enſued many revolutions.

About the year 1400 of the Chriſtian æra, a ſimple fiſherman, named Mack, uſurped the crown, but was dethroned by Tring, the uſurper, who coloured his uſurpation with the pretence of reſtoring the family of Li to the throne, and accordingly cauſed a young prince of that houſe to be crowned; but he reſerved to himſelf the regal power, under the name of chova, or general of the realm, only beſtowing on the prince the bare title of ſovereign. This uſurper, Tring, had a brother-in-law, whoſe name was Hoaving, ſon of a governor of the province of Ting-wa, to whom Tring lay under ſome particular obligations; for this governor had not only ſhewn great friendſhip to him, in aſſiſting him in his enterpriſe with the troops of his province, but likewiſe gave him his daughter in marriage; and, beſides, on his deathbed, entruſted to him the guardianſhip of his only ſon, who was the above-mentioned Hoaving. Reflecting with great concern on the conduct of his brother-in-law and guardian, in having employed his father's forces to ſet any other than himſelf on the throne of Tonquin, Hoaving conceived on the occaſion ſuch a ſpirit of reſentment, that he not only refuſed to do homage to the new king, but openly took up arms, made himſelf maſter of Cochin-China, antiently a province of Tonquin, and, after the example of his brother-in-law, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed chova at the head of his army.

Theſe two generals governed with abſolute authority, the one in Tonquin, and the other in Cochin-China, and waged war with each other as long as they lived, with nearly equal ſucceſs on both ſides. They tranſmitted the title of chova to their ſucceſſors, and their deſcendants enjoy it to this preſent period of time in both kingdoms. But we ſhall here confine ourſelves to the chova of Tonquin, where indeed are at preſent two ſupreme magiſtrates or ſovereigns, the one titular, the other real; the former has the name of bova; but in the chova are veſted all the powers of government. The authority of the bova principally conſiſts in giving the form of ratification to the decrees of the chova. The dignity of the latter is hereditary, and his eldeſt ſon ſucceeds him; but the ſucceſſion of bovas is uncertain; for when a bova leaves ſeveral ſons, the chova chuſes which of them he pleaſes, and may even raiſe a collateral branch to the dignity. The chova keeps a great number of concubines, it not being cuſtomary for him to marry till his advanced age affords him but little hope of his having any more children; when he always eſpouſes a princeſs of the royal family, who ranks above his concubines, and bears the title of mother of the kingdom. The concubine who bore the king his firſt ſon, takes place next to the queen, and is treated with diſtinguiſhed honour.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of the Situation, Boundaries, Towns, Produce, Inhabitants, &c. of COCHIN-CHINA.

THIS kingdom, which includes Chiampe, is ſituate between one hundred and four and one hundred and ten degrees of eaſt longitude, and between ten and ſeventeen degrees of north latitude; it is bounded by Tonquin, on the north; by the Indian ocean on the eaſt and ſouth; and by Laos and Cambodia, on the weſt, being about four hundred miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth. It was originally a province of Tonquin, but has formed a diſtinct kingdom for upwards of three hundred years. It is tributary to China, like Tonquin.

The Kemois mountains run the whole length of it from north to ſouth, dividing it from Cambodia; but towards the ſea the country is generally level. The air of this country is not ſo hot as that of Tonquin, though it lies nearer the equator, for which ſeveral reaſons may be aſſigned, as the advantages of the ſea breezes, of which Tonquin has not ſo great a ſhare; Tonquin lying upon a bay where the winds have not ſo free a courſe, while this country lies open to the ocean. It is alſo obſerved, that the countries which lie near the tropics, as Tonquin does, are much hotter than thoſe that lie near the equator; for the countries which lie under either tropic have the ſun over their heads near three months, whereas the ſun paſſes ſwiftly over the countries near the equator, and does not return thither again for near ſix months; and it may add to the heat near the tropics, that the days are an hour and half longer at the tropic than they are at the equinoctial, and the rains and cloudy weather continue longer there alſo than at the tropic.

This kingdom is divided into five or ſix provinces, and is well-peopled. The king reſides at the capital of Kehue. Along the coaſt are ſeveral iſlands ſubject to this kingdom, which produce many uſeful fruit trees. This country produces great plenty of rice and ſugar; and they have gold and ſilver mines. Eagle-wood, calambac, an ordinary ſort of tea, and ſeveral kinds of drugs grow here.

An inundation happens regularly every year in Cochin-China, about the middle of autumn, leaving behind it a kind of ſlime, which fertilizes the land. In this wet ſeaſon, the people ſail about the country in barks: and, in order to be ſecure in their houſes, are obliged to erect them on piles, that the water may flow beneath them. They build their houſes chiefly with the bamboo cane, one ſtory high; the window frames are cloſed up with Japan paper, or ſhells ground tranſparent: the partitions of their chambers are formed of ſcreens, and their floors covered with mats, which ſerve them for ſeats and beds; but the rooms of the rich are more elegantly furniſhed. They have no kitchens in their houſes, for fear of accidents by fire, but dreſs their proviſions by the river-ſide: they are obliged to extinguiſh their fires on hearing the beat of a drum, whenever the wind blows from the ſea.

They are a temperate people, and live chiefly on rice and fiſh, which they have in great plenty. Though they are but imperfectly civilized, yet they poſſeſs that felicity which might excite the envy of more poliſhed ſocieties: they have neither thieves nor beggars; and are remarkable for their hoſpitality. Though they do not encourage pride and luxury, yet the wealthier ſort entertain friends in a ſumptuous manner.

At public feſtivals, the common people meet in the ſtreets, where in a circle they eat their proviſions on mats, while tumblers and merry-andrews divert them with their antic tricks. The monarchs of Cochin-China are deſpotic, and very difficult of acceſs. He gives audience at his palace-gate in a ſort of ſtate-litter, ſuperbly gilt, and reſembling a cage. No perſon muſt approach nearer to him than at the diſtance of eighty paces. He keeps his ſeraglio at his palace, where it is guarded by eunuchs. He rides ſide-ways on an elephant, when he goes abroad, and is accompanied by guards; he wears a turban of the fineſt callico on his head, pendants of the richeſt brilliants in his ears, and bracelets on his arms: but his body is almoſt bare, having only a covering round his middle, and in his left hand he holds a ſpear, or rather a long javelin.

All the provinces in the kingdom, and courts of juſtice, are governed by mandarins, who, if convicted of mal-adminiſtration, are ſure to be puniſhed with death. The king has the intire diſpoſal of all the offices of ſtate, and even the lives and fortunes of the people. Treaſon and rebellion are not only puniſhed with the moſt dreadful tortures, but very ſevere penalties are likewiſe inflicted on all the kindred of the traitors. Other heinous offences are puniſhed with death, or the loſs of a limb: though it muſt be acknowledged, that the almoſt irreſiſtible influence of money too often ſcreens the guilty from puniſhment.

Notwithſtanding the Cochin-Chineſe are intirely ignorant of the ſciences, they are very ſkilful mechanics; and far ſurpaſs the Tonquineſe in the manufacture of ſilk. They make ſugar-mills and water-engines, but can make no ſort of fire-arms. Their foreign trade is not very conſiderable; the chief articles they export, are, ſilk, cotton, betel, aloes, wax, japan-wood, caſſia and ſugar; the chief part of which are purchaſed by the Chineſe, who have ingroſſed almoſt the whole of this trade to themſelves.

The only money current in Cochin-China conſiſts of pieces of copper ſtruck by the Chineſe, which reſemble thoſe uſed by the Tonquineſe. Silver is extremely ſcarce with them; for a man who is poſſeſſed of eighty or a hundred piaſtres, is deemed wealthy.

With reſpect to the religion, marriages, funeral ceremonies, mourning for the dead, &c. of the Cochin-Chineſe, they are the ſame as in the neighbouring kingdom of Tonquin.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of the Situation and Extent of the Empire of SIAM, the Provinces it is divided into, their chief Rivers, Monſoons, Winds, Tides, Climate, Mountains, capital City, royal Palace, and principal Towns.

THE Malayans call this empire Tſiam; but the name Siam was given it by the Portugueſe, which, in the Peguan language, ſignifies free, though they have not at preſent much liberty to boaſt of. Under Siam we may comprehend not only Proper Siam, but Malacca, Cambodia, and Laos; for theſe were lately provinces, and are great part of them yet tributary to this kingdom: and

though the Dutch have encroached on the dominions of this prince, particularly in Malacca; and other remote provinces, have rebelled and thrown off their allegiance, and are now ſet up for petty ſovereigns, this cannot be ſuppoſed to have extinguiſhed the right of the lawful prince. There is this farther reaſon alſo for treating of them together, namely, that their religion, laws and policy, perſons, manners and cuſtoms, have very little to diſtinguiſh them.

Siam extends from the firſt degree of north latitude to the twenty-fifth, if we reckon from the ſouthernmoſt point of Malacca to the northernmoſt part of Laos; the longitude is not altogether ſo certain; this city of Siam heretofore being reckoned to be in the one hundred and forty-fifth degree of longitude, and by late obſervations in one hundred and twenty-one: and ſtill greater miſtakes have been diſcovered in the ſituation of China, which is now found to be five hundred leagues nearer us than former accounts made it.

Siam including Malacca, Cambodia and Laos, is bounded by Tonquin and Cochin-China, towards the eaſt, by the gulph of Siam, and the Indian ſea towards the ſouth, by the bay of Bengal towards the weſt, and by the kingdoms of Pegu and Ava, towards the north and weſt.

Siam in its full extent, is ſaid to reſemble a creſcent, of which Proper Siam and Laos may be reckoned the body, and Malacca and Cambodia the two horns; but then Malacca, or the weſtern horn, is much the longeſt, extending ſeveral degrees farther ſouthward than Cambodia, or the eaſtern horn.

There are alſo ſeven provinces in Proper or Upper Siam, which receive their names from their reſpective capital cities, viz. Proſelouc, Sanguelouc, Lacontai, Campengpet, Coconrepina, Pechebonna and Pitchia.

Porſelouc includes ten little diſtricts or counties, Sanguelouc eight, Lacontai ſeven, Campengpet ten, Coconrepina five, Pechebonna two, and Pitchia ſeven; and beſides theſe, there are in the Upper or Proper Siam one and twenty other diſtricts or counties, which are not ſubject to the former, but are under the juriſdiction of the capital city and province of Siam.

There are reckoned ſeven provinces in Lower Siam, viz. Jor, Patana, Ligor, Teneſſerim, Chautebonne, Petelong or Bordelonge, and Tchai. The province of Jor contains ſeven counties or diſtricts, Patana eight, Ligor twenty, Teneſſerim twelve, Chautebonne ſeven, Petelong eight, and Tchai two; but geographers do not take upon them to deſcribe the bounds of the reſpective provinces. We ſhall proceed therefore to deſcribe the ſituation and extent of Cambodia and Laos, which, being inconſiderable in themſelves, are included under the general name of Siam.

Cambodia extends from north to ſouth upwards of three hundred miles, and is about two hundred miles broad. It is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the gulf of Siam, and bounded on the weſt by Cochin-China; by the Indian ocean on the ſouth; and by Laos and the Kemois mountains, on the north. Its chief town is Cambodia, ſituate on the river Mecon, in about the twelfth degree of north latitude; Laweck or Ravecca is ſomething higher up the river Mecon. The poſt towns of Terrana, Langor, and Caiol lie on the ſouth-weſt of Cambodia. The iſland of Pula-Condore lies off the coaſt of Cambodia; it is between four and five leagues long. The natives of this iſland are well ſhaped, and their complexion ſwarthy: they have ſtrait black hair, ſmall eyes, high noſes, thin lips, and white teeth, and go almoſt naked. This iſland, as well as Cambodia, is very fertile; producing various kinds of grain, particularly rice and corn; alſo ſeveral other rich commodities, and precious ſtones; wild elephants, and boars, lions, tygers, wild cattle and buffaloes, horſes, and deer, are very numerous in Cambodia. They worſhip the ſame deities as the Siameſe.

Laos is likewiſe a very plentiful country; being bounded on the eaſt by Cochin-China and Tonquin; on the weſt, by Brama; on the north, by the lake Chamay; and on the ſouth, by Cambodia and Siam Proper; but its boundary towards the north, is not agreed upon. It is about fifty miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt, though it is reckoned to be ten degrees in length from north to ſouth: the capital city is by ſome called Lanchang, and by others Lanjeng. It is a ſovereign ſtate, whoſe king preſerves an unlimited power. He conſiders himſelf as ſuperior to all other ſovereigns; and the characteriſtic, by which he diſtinguiſhes himſelf from other princes, is from the length of his ears, which hang upon his ſhoulders. But to return to Siam.

The vallies which lie at a diſtance from the ſea, are exceſſively hot, and the mountains cool; but that part of the country which lies near the coaſt, is refreſhed great part of the day by the ſea-breezes. The annual rains alſo contribute to cool the air, or this part of the world would be ſcarely habitable.

The Menan and the Mecon are the two chief rivers in Siam; but there is a third, called the Tenaſerin, which falls into the bay of Bengal, forming the iſle of Merguy, which has a moſt excellent harbour. The Menan riſes in Tartary, and, running from north to ſouth, paſſes by the city of Siam, falling into the bay of the ſame name, in thirteen degrees of north latitude. The Mecon alſo riſes in Tartary, and running from north to ſouth, through Laos and Cambodia, diſcharges itſelf into the Indian ocean, in nine degrees of north latitude.

The periodical winds, called the monſoons, prevail here, as well as in the hither India; the rains, which accompany theſe winds, are heavieſt about midſummer. The faireſt ſeaſon is in December, when the ſun is at the greateſt diſtance from them: the moſt ſtormy weather is at the ſhifting of the monſoons, which uſually happens about the equinoxes, or within a month ſooner or later, when the ſhipping runs the hazard of being daſhed to pieces, unleſs it gets into the harbour.

The metropolis or chief city of Siam, ſometimes called Odioa, and by the natives Siyothiya, is in fourteen degrees north latitude, and one hundred and one degrees five minutes longitude. It is ſituate on the river Menan, and is three leagues in circumference, fortified with a wall and towers, and ſurrounded by ſeveral branches of the river Menan, which render it almoſt an iſland, except towards the eaſt, where there is a cauſey to paſs out of the town by land, without croſſing the water: that which is properly the town does not take up above a ſixth part of the ground within the walls. On the reſt of it are built between two and three hundred temples or pagodas, ſurrounded by as many convents of talapoins; alſo their burying places, with pyramids erected over them, which with their ſpires and the towers of the pagodas make a very agreeable proſpect.

The ſtreets are large and ſtrait, and ſome of them paved with brick, and canals cut through them, over which are ſeveral high ill-built bridges, which has occaſioned the comparing this city to Venice. The houſes are moſt of them built of bamboo, or over-grown cane, and ſtand upon pillars of the ſame, thirteen feet above the ground, the lower part underneath the houſe being put to no manner of uſe: the houſes are not contiguous, nor do all the family, if it be large, lodge under one roof, but every man's ground is paled in with bamboo; and within this incloſure are ſeveral little tenements erected on pillars, according to the quality of the perſon and the number of his dependants and ſlaves: their cattle are alſo kept in upper rooms, it is ſaid, to prevent their being carried away in the time of the inundation: there are ſome few houſes in the town built by foreigners with brick; and the king has erected others of the ſame ſort for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors.

The royal palace at Siam is a mile and a half in circumference; it is a moſt ſplendid edifice; ſituate on an eminence, and, for its extent, reſembles a city. It ſtands on the north ſide of the city of Siam, has ſeveral grand pyramids, towers, &c. and is incompaſſed with three walls, with large courts or ſpaces between the ſeveral walls. The king reſides in the innermoſt court, which is called the Vang, and contains ſpacious gardens, groves, and pieces of water; whoever paſſes in or out of the Vang falls down on his face before the gate. The Siameſe never build above one ſtory high; but then as you paſs from one room to another in the king's palace, both the floor and roof of every room is raiſed: the firſt room is the loweſt, from whence you aſcend by ſeveral ſteps to the ſecond, and ſo on to the third, &c. There are ſeven ſuch rooms in the royal palace, and in the houſes of perſons of diſtinction there are three floors, in paſſing to every one of which we aſcend by ſteps. The grand room where ambaſſadors are entertained, is open on all ſides, for the benefit of the air, and the roof is ſupported by ſlender pillars; it is ſurrounded alſo by water and ſhady groves. There are ſeveral ſuch rooms in the gardens of the palace, where the mandarins, or great officers attend, while they are in waiting. The hall of audience, beyond which foreigners are ſeldom admitted, is wainſcotted, varniſhed, and painted red, with pannels of looking-glaſs in it, and the floor covered with rich carpets. The guards have orders to admit no man into the palace who is armed, or has drank any arrack or ſpirits; the officer therefore ſmells every man's

breath before he ſuffers him to paſs the gate. The ſtables for the king's elephants and horſes are within the firſt enclosure of the palace. In a gallery at the upper end of the hall of audience the king uſually ſhews himſelf to the people.

The apartments of the king and queen are in the innermoſt court of the palace, where there are handſome halls. None but ladies attend his Siameſe majeſty in his bed-chamber, who dreſs and undreſs him, except putting on his night-cap, which he does himſelf, as no body muſt touch his ſacred head. His women alſo dreſs his meat, and wait on him at table: the proviſion is carried in to the eunuchs, and they deliver it to the females; but the king has nevertheleſs gentlemen of the wardrobe, to the moſt diſtinguiſhed of whom the care of his majeſty's golden cup is committed.

Having given an account of the city and palace of Siam, we ſhall next proceed to deſcribe the ſituation of the reſt of the conſiderable towns of this kingdom; and, of theſe, Menangfang lies the moſt northerly of any town in Proper Siam, being ſituated in the twenty-ſecond degree of north latitude, upon the river Menan. 2. Lacontai ſtands upon the ſame river, in about the twenty-firſt degree of north latitude. 3. Proſelouc is ſituated upon the ſame river, latitude twenty. 4. Campengpet about the eighteenth degree. 5. Prabat about the ſixteenth, and 6. Louvo about the latitude of fifteen, thirteen minutes, where the king uſually reſides in the hunting ſeaſon: theſe all, except Louvo, lie upon the ſame river, above the city of Siam. 7. Bancook, which lies about fifty miles below Siam, on the ſame river, and may be accounted the port town to Siam: here all ſhipping receive their permiſſion to trade, and their diſcharges when they leave the country. 8. Martaban, ſituated on the bay of Bengal, in about the ſixteenth degree of north latitude. 9. Teneſſerim, which lies on the ſame bay, at the mouth of the river Teneſſerim, in about the latitude of thirteen north. 10. Ligor, ſituate on the weſt ſide of the gulf of Siam, in the eighth degree of north latitude. 11. Cantebon or Liam is ſituated at the mouth of a river of the ſame name in the twelfth degree of north latitude, on the eaſt ſide of the gulf of Siam. 12. Patane, which lies on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, in ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude. 13. Queda, lies on the weſtern ſide of Malacca, in about the ſeventh degree of north latitude. 14. The town of Malacca, which gives name to the peninſula, lies in the latitude of two degrees, thirty minutes north. It was taken from the Portugueſe by the Dutch, October, 1640. When it was in the poſſeſſion of the crown of Portugal it was a place of great trade, and frequented more than any other town in India, except Goa, here being the rendezvous of their ſhipping from China, Japan, the Spice iſlands, &c. They built the caſtle, and fortified the town with a wall, and it had five parochial churches, a college of Jeſuits, and was a biſhop's ſee, but the Dutch have let all the churches run to ruin, except one; and the trade is removed to Batavia: it is now inhabited by two or three hundred families of Dutch, Moors, Portugueſe, and Chineſe, with ſome Malays, who live in the ſuburbs, and has a garriſon of two or three hundred ſoldiers. This place is naturally very ſtrong, and by its ſituation commands the ſtreights of Malacca: the Dutch, who are maſters of it, over-awe all the little princes on thoſe coaſts, and compel them to deal with them on their own terms; they look upon themſelves to be lords of that part of the world, and almoſt exclude all other Europeans from any ſhare of the trade, as will be obſerved in treating of the trade of this country. 15. Sincapora is ſituate in the firſt degree of north latitude, at the moſt ſoutherly cape of the continent of Aſia; and gives its name to the eaſtern part of the ſtreights of Malacca. 16. Johr, which lies to the eaſtward of Sincapora in about one degree, thirty minutes. This town, and the province it gives name to, have thrown off their allegiance to the king of Siam; but the Dutch have power to give laws to them when they pleaſe. Cambori and Corozena lie to the north of Siam.

SECT. IV.

Containing a general Account of the King of SIAM, his Queen, Guards, Annual Proceſſions, Army, Navy, Revenues, Nobility, Officers of State and Ambaſſadors.

THE king, when he goes abroad, either rides upon an elephant very richly capariſoned, or is carried in a grand chair. He paſſes through the city once a year, with a numerous train of elephants, and bands of muſic. The people fall proſtrate at the ſight of his majeſty, during the proceſſion, and riſe to gaze at him, after he has paſſed. He alſo once a year ſhews himſelf on the river in a grand balcon or barge covered with a rich canopy.

The queen is attended with great pomp wherever ſhe goes, and has her elephants and batons. She is always in a chair incloſed with curtains, and never ſeen by any body except her female attendants and eunuchs.

Daughters never inherit the throne; nor does the eldeſt ſon of the queen always ſucceed to the crown, but generally the eldeſt ſon of the king by the firſt concubine that brings him a child.

The king is attended by two bodies of horſe-guards, who are natives of Laos and Meen; and a third, compoſed partly of the natives of Chineſe Tartary and Indoſtan. Theſe horſe-guards always accompany his majeſty when he goes abroad.

Every perſon in Siam is enrolled, that none may eſcape the perſonal ſervice he owes his prince ſix months in the year: they are divided firſt into right and left, and theſe bodies are again ſubdivided into bands or companies, which have each their nai or governor. Every commander of a barge has alſo a certain number of rowers or pagayeurs under him, who are marked with a hot iron on their wriſts: theſe their nai or commander diſmiſſes, if he thinks fit, ſix months at a time in every year, or by ſingle months.

The Siameſe armies conſiſt chiefly in elephants, and a naked half-armed infantry. When they go to war, their order of battle and manner of fighting is as follows: They draw up in three lines, each line conſiſting of three ſquare battalions; and the general poſts himſelf in the centre of the middle battalion, which is compoſed of their beſt troops: the reſt of the commanding officers place themſelves in the centre of their reſpective bodies; and where theſe nine battalions are thought too large, each battalion is again ſubdivided into leſſer bodies: each battalion has ſixteen male elephants in the rear, and two ſhe elephants to attend every one of them, without which it would be difficult to govern them. Their artillery is carried in waggons drawn by oxen or buffaloes, having no carriages for it; with theſe the fight begins and uſually ends; if not, they draw ſomething nearer and make uſe of their ſmall ſhot in the manner already obſerved, but hardly ever come to a cloſe fight; and if there is a neceſſity of making a ſtand, they are forced to place officers behind their men, and to threaten them with immediate death if they turn their backs.

The Siameſe do not, like ſome other Indians, take opium to inſpire them with courage; they will run no ſuch hazards, death they think is equally to be dreaded whether drunk or ſober; and he that drinks to raiſe his courage, or rather to commit a raſh extravagant action, is acceſſary to his own death. When their body is broke they fly into the woods, whither the other ſide is ſeldom ſo hardy as to follow them; and as the armies are very numerous, and conſequently find it difficult to ſubſiſt, the conqueror is ſoon forced to retreat, and then the vanquiſhed rally again, and perhaps return his viſit. The elephants are their greateſt ſtrength; but then as they cannot be managed with bit and bridle as a horſe is, when they are wounded they will often turn back upon their maſters, and put the whole army into confuſion; and it is almoſt impoſſible to make them proof againſt wild-fire, though they fire ſhort guns upon their backs, about three feet long, which carry a ball of a pound weight.

The armies of Siam, and indeed all the neighbouring countries who hold the metempſychoſis, are chiefly deſirous of making ſlaves; and their uſual method of making war, is, to invade each others dominions in different parts at the ſame time, and to carry off whole villages into captivity. They are wholly incapable of carrying on ſieges; but they will ſometimes ſtarve a place, or ſurpriſe it when they have a correſpondence with the treacherous inhabitants.

As their religion inſpires them with a horror of blood, they never ſhoot directly at each other, but higher, and never kill their enemy, but when forced to it by neceſſity, or in their own defence, in order to repulſe them; and thoſe who are ſlain, they deem guilty of their own death, by approaching too near.

The navy of the king of Siam conſiſts of but about half a dozen large ſhips, the crews of which are foreigners; however, excluſive of theſe, he has about ſixty ſmall armed gallies, with only one man to an oar, which being very ſhort, he is obliged to row ſtanding, to make it touch the water. He has about one hundred and fifty

royal

royal balons, or pleaſure-barges, which are very magnificent. In his naval expeditions, the king only makes repriſals on ſuch of his neighbours as injure him in his commerce.

The king's treaſury is immenſely rich. His revenues ariſe from cultivated lands, exports and imports, veſſels, gardens, fruits, fines, confiſcations, &c.

In Siam, nobility is conſtituted by the prince's favour, or by opulence, and not by birth. People of the meaneſt extraction are ſometimes ennobled by the king, if they happen to have any particular ſervices to recommend them. He gives to theſe a gold or ſilver bouſſette, to hold their betel, as a mark of diſtinction.

The nobility conſiſt of five degrees; namely, 1. The Oyas, who poſſeſs the higheſt places, and whoſe golden bouſſete or box is much better wrought than thoſe of the inferior claſſes. 2. The Okpras, which are conſiderably more numerous than the Oyas. The king's ambaſſadors extraordinary are choſen from the Okpras. 3. The Oklouans, which have only ſilver bouſſettes, chaſed with feſtoons and branches. The Okkowns and Okmunes are the fourth and fifth orders: their bouſſette is quite unornamented; out of theſe the king chuſes his judges, governors, &c.

The king of Siam has many lords, who are peculiarly attached to his perſon: theſe always live within the palace. Others are employed without, to govern affairs, and preſerve good order among the people.

There are eight great officers of ſtate in Siam, viz. the Maha Ommarat, who is the next to the king in authority, and ſits in his preſence; the Chakri, who regulates the affairs of war and juſtice; the Aahoon, who is generaliſſimo both by land and ſea; the Okya-Vang, who ſuperintends the affairs of the palace: the Okya Prackland, who has the care of foreign affairs and the royal magazines; the Okya Pollatep, who has the charge of the king's revenues; the Okya Jombarat, who is head judge of all criminal matters; and the Okya Pakdi, grand treaſurer. Theſe prime officers, with the king's approbation, diſpoſe of all other poſts of the realm, and are reſponſible for all errors that may be committed in them. All officers of government, reſiding in the capital, muſt daily attend in ſome part of the palace, except they have leave of abſence, on pain of being whipped with ſplit rattans, which make deep inciſions in the body.

It is an eſtabliſhed rule in this kingdom, that no officer preſume to come into his majeſty's preſence without leave; nay, the great officers are not allowed to viſit one another but at weddings and funerals; and then they are obliged to ſpeak aloud, and in the preſence of a third perſon, to prevent all conſultations againſt the ſtate; and every one is obliged to turn informer upon pain of death, if he hears any thing that may endanger the government: numbers of ſpies alſo there are, to inform the prince of what is ſpoken in all companies. On the other hand it is dangerous, being the bringer of ill news, or to let his majeſty know the weakneſs of his government; nor dare any officer tell him, it is impoſſible to execute what he commands, but they do what they can, and endeavour to excuſe the miſcarriages afterwards; and when there is a neceſſity of acquainting the king with ill news, they do it gradually, and in as ſoft terms as poſſible; for he ſeldom fails to puniſh whoever offends him, with the extremeſt rigour; and where the proofs are doubtful, will ſometimes order both the informer and the party accuſed, to be thrown to the tygers in his preſence, and inſult over their dead carcaſes.

At Siam, an ambaſſador is regarded no otherwiſe than as a royal meſſenger; the letter he carries has much greater honour paid it, than his perſon: the French ambaſſadors obſerved, that while their king's letter and preſents were carried in the body barge, with ſeveral others of the ſame claſs to attend it, they themſelves were carried up the river of Siam in ordinary veſſels. The Siameſe never ſend ambaſſadors to reſide at any court, but only to diſpatch ſome particular buſineſs, which uſually relates to trade; and upon theſe occaſions, they ſend three, though the firſt has the direction of the affair, and on his death is ſucceeded by the ſecond, and the ſecond by the third.

On the arrival of a foreign ambaſſador at Siam, he muſt not ſet forwards towards the court, till the king is appriſed of his coming; and if he is accompanied with Siameſe ambaſſadors, as the French were, the Siameſe ambaſſadors go up to court firſt, and acquaint his majeſty with their arrival: the foreign ambaſſadors are lodged and maintained at the king's charge, and are allowed to trade during their ſtay, but they are not ſuffered to enter the city, or tranſact any affairs till they have had their public audience, or to continue there after their audience of leave; and on the evening before, the king demands if they have any thing farther to propoſe: and at the audience of leave, if they are ſatisfied. All public audiences are in the metropolis, when the court appears in all its ſplendor: thoſe audiences which are given at the Louvo and other places, are accounted private audiences, where the guards and attendants are not numerous. Thoſe ambaſſadors who come from the neighbouring ſovereigns, that are dependent on, or connected with the emperor of Siam, are obliged to proſtrate themſelves before him, and advance towards him creeping upon their hands and knees. But the European ambaſſadors are exempted from many of the ceremonials, which the others are obliged to obſerve: they muſt, however, not attempt to open their lips till the emperor has firſt ſpoken; and, when they do ſpeak, are required to be exceeding laconic, a long harangue being deemed an egregious inſult. Ambaſſadors from independent Aſiatic monarchs are alſo treated with ſome degree of reſpect.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Genius and Diſpoſition, Stature, Complexion, Shape, and Dreſs of the SIAMESE: alſo of their Ceremonies, Viſits, Entertainments, Food, Diverſions, &c.

THE people of Siam have a ready and clear conception, and their repartees in converſation are quick and ſmart: it is ſaid they can imitate any thing at ſight, and in one day become tolerable workmen. They are naturally kind and complaiſant, but are apt to be haughty when too much ſubmiſſion is ſhewn them. They abhor drunkenneſs and adultery; and a ſincere affection ſubſiſts between men and their wives, who bring up their offspring to be modeſt, temperate, obliging, and affectionate. They are, however, timorous, and indolent; and have an averſion to ſhedding blood, very ſeldom come to blows, moſt of their quarrels ending in ill language.

When they profeſs the ſincereſt friendſhip, they do it by drinking of the ſame cup. It is obſerved of them, that their minds are as calm as their heaven, which changes but twice a year; and that they have the good fortune to be born philoſophers, having naturally the command of their paſſions.

The Siameſe are of ſmall ſtature, but well proportioned, which is imputed to their not being ſwaddled and bound up in their infancy like our children; and no other inconveniency attends the women's going without ſtays, but their breaſts hanging down to their girdles as the women of Siam do. Their complexions are ſwarthy enough, and the faces both of men and women are of the broadeſt, with high cheek-bones, and their foreheads ſuddenly contract and terminate in a point as well as their chins: they have dark ſmall eyes, not very briſk, their jaws hollow, large mouths and thick pale lips, and their teeth dyed black; their noſes are ſhort and round at the end, and their ears large, which they account a beauty; long nails growing an inch or two beyond their fingers ends is looked upon alſo as an ornament. They have thick lank hair which both men and women cut ſo ſhort that it reaches no lower than their ears, and the women make it ſtand up on their foreheads: the men ſhave their beards, and do not leave ſo much as whiſkers. They bathe themſelves two or three times a day, or oftener, and never make a viſit before they have bathed; ſometimes they go into the water as we do, but at others they have water poured on their heads, which they will continue an hour together; they afterwards perfume their bodies, and uſe a ſweet pomatum which makes their lips look paler than they naturally are.

A perſon of condition wears a piece of callico or ſilk about two ells and a half long, which reaches to his knees; this is called the pagne. He has alſo a muſlin ſhirt without a collar, with a wide ſleeve and no wriſt-bands, and the boſom open. In winter they wear a breadth of ſtuff or painted linen over their ſhoulders like a mantle, and wind it about their arms. The king of Siam wears a veſt of brocaded ſattin with ſtrait ſleeves, which reach down to the wriſt, under ſuch a ſhirt as is deſcribed above, and it is not lawful for any ſubject to wear this veſt, unleſs the king preſents him with it. Slippers are worn with picqued toes turned up; but ſtockings they are ſtrangers to. To the generals the king ſometimes preſents a military veſt, which is buttoned before and reaches to the knees, the ſleeves whereof are wide and come no lower than the elbows: and either in war or hunting the prince and all his retinue are clothed in red. The king wears a cap in the form of a ſugar-loaf ending in a point, with a circle

or coronet of precious ſtones about it; and thoſe of his officers have circles of gold, ſilver or vermilion gilt, to diſtinguiſh their quality, which are faſtened with a ſtay under the chin. Theſe caps are only worn in the king's preſence, or when they preſide in courts of juſtice, and on other extraordinary occaſions; but their ſlippers are always left off when they enter a perſon's houſe for whom they have any reſpect. They have hats alſo for travelling; but very few people will be at the trouble of covering their heads though the ſun ſhines with that ſcorching heat. The women alſo wrap a cloth or pagne about their middles, which hangs down to the calf of their legs; the men bring up the end of this cloth ſtrait between their legs and tuck it into their girdles, which makes it ſomething reſemble a pair of breeches

The inferior people cover no more of their bodies than modeſty requires, and have neither ſhoes nor ſlippers on their feet.

The Siameſe ladies bathe in the rivers, and ſwim as the men do, but never without their pagne about them, and are much commended for their modeſty, as a greater affront cannot be offered them, than the introducing in their hearing lewd ſongs or obſcene converſation, Their pagnes are of fine linen, and make a great ſhow: thoſe made of embroidered ſilk are only worn by ſuch perſons as the prince preſents them to. The women wear as many rings on the three laſt fingers of each hand as they can keep on, and bracelets or rings of gold, &c. upon their wriſts and ancles, with pendants in their ears faſhioned like a pear.

Theſe people are extremely ceremonious, like the Chineſe. The way of ſalutation here, as in moſt Indian nations is the Salam, that is, the lifting up one or both hands to their heads, and bowing their bodies. If any one addreſſes another, who is much his ſuperior, he falls down upon his face before him. To ſtand upright when we attend a great man, is the higheſt piece of inſolence: the uſual poſture is, ſitting on their heels, with their heads a little reclined. They have an uncommon reſpect for their heads and ever for their caps, when they have been authorized by their ſovereign to wear them. The cap is a badge of authority, and ſeldom worn but on public occaſions, or when a magiſtrate ſits in a court of juſtice; and as it is eſteemed the rudeſt thing in the world to touch or ſtroke a man's head, ſo his cap is treated with uncommon reſpect. The ſervant carries it above his head, and puts it on a cane made for that purpoſe.

The principal food of the Siameſe is rice, and fiſh: the ſea affords them good ſmall oyſters, turtles or tortoiſe, and lobſters, and ſeveral other excellent kinds of fiſh, unknown in Europe: they have alſo great plenty of river fiſh, eſpecially eels, but they make no great account of them. Balachaun, which is made of ſmall fiſh, corrupted and reduced to a maſh, has been already deſcribed in Tonquin, and is in much eſteem amongſt them. They chuſe to eat dried ſalt-fiſh, though it ſtinks, rather than freſh; nor will they refuſe rats, mice, locuſts, lizards, or almoſt any inſects, any more than the Chineſe. A pound of rice will ſerve a Siameſe a whole day, which may be bought for a farthing, and with as much ſalt-fiſh as he can purchaſe for a farthing more he is very well ſatisfied, and a pint of arrack or ſpirits is not worth above two-pence; ſo that the meaner ſort of people have but little care to take for a ſubſiſtence, nothing but ſinging is heard in their houſes of an evening. Their ſauces are made only of water, with a little ſpice, garlic and ſweet herbs, or cupi made of decayed ſhell-fiſh, the ſame with the nukemum of Tonquin. Their liquor is river-water, rain-water, and tea.

Mock-fights of elephants is one of the diverſions of the Siameſe. They were formerly very fond of cock-fighting, till their prieſts procured an order againſt that cruel ſport, eſteeming the killing thoſe animals almoſt as wicked as the killing a man. Comedies are another part of their diverſions, and a kind of martial dances, in which they act a battle, being armed and maſked, and in their ſongs repeat part of the hiſtory of their country. Their grand annual feſtival is when the waters retire; then they ſail down the river ſeveral evenings ſucceſſively, their barges being illuminated with painted paper lanterns. They have another feſtival or thankſgiving for the fruits of the earth after harveſt, when their ſtreets as well as their boats are illuminated, and a grand fire-work is played off on the occaſion. Here are races alſo, not of horſes but oxen; and they row races alſo upon their rivers, and are ſo bewitched by the games of chance, that they will not only play away their wives and children, but ſet their own perſons and liberties on the caſt of a die; and become ſlaves, if they loſe. The new and full moon are ſo far from being feſtivals, that they keep a ſtrict faſt, and will admit no manner of diverſions on theſe days; at this time it is they make their offerings to the prieſts in their convents, and give alms to the poor. The offerings are preſented by the prieſt to the idol, and ſome time after the prieſts apply them to their own uſe.

SECT. VI.

Containing an Account of the Trade, Manufactures and Mechanic Arts, Weights, Coins, &c. of the SIAMESE.

NO man learns any particular trade in this country; but every perſon acquires ſome knowledge of all, and they work half a year by turns for the king; when, if any of them ſhould be found perfectly ignorant of the buſineſs he is ſet about, he would undergo the baſtinado: nor does any man endeavour to excel leſt the king ſhould keep them in his ſervice as long as he lives. The tyrannical government they live under, is another great diſcouragement to induſtry, for the king ſeizes on any man's money and effects whenever he pleaſes.

Their carpenters work is faſtened together with wooden pins inſtead of nails: they know how to caſt metals, and cover the hilts of ſwords, and other things with gold, ſilver, or copper: they have not the art of tanning leather, or of making any ſtuffs of ſilk or wool, and weave only cotton cloth. Their painting is rather worſe than that of China, they being very indifferent workmen; which obliges them to give great wages to the European artiſts; for as the Siameſe do not affect finery in their dreſs, and deſpiſe ſuperfluous ornaments, they therefore neglect a great many mechanic arts, which the Europeans are employed in. They appear to be the honeſteſt and faireſt dealers in the world: their weights and meaſures may be depended on: they are the very reverſe of the Chineſe.

The king is the chief merchant in this country; no man may traffic with a foreigner, till the king's factors have had the refuſal of all the goods; and theſe factors deſcend ſo low as to ſell them by retail again. The ſubjects are obliged to buy all their cloathing of them, which is chiefly cotton cloth. He obliges his ſubjects to ſell him all their ivory and arrack at a certain price, which he ſells again to foreigners. In his magazines are ſalt-petre, lead, ſapan-wood, gunpowder, ſulphur, and arms, which his majeſty monopolizes, not ſuffering his ſubjects to deal in theſe articles. The king alſo purchaſes ſkins and furs of the people at his own price, and diſpoſes of them to foreigners; but by theſe practices he has ruined the trade of the country, which was formerly very great.

Their meaſure for grain and liquors is the cocoa-nut ſhell which are very unequal; nor are their weights more certain than their meaſures. They have but one ſort of ſilver coin, called a tycally, which is worth three ſhillings and three half-pence: they are all of the ſame faſhion, and have the ſame ſtamps, but ſome are leſs than others; they have the form of a cylinder, or roll bent both ends together, and have a ſtamp on each ſide, with odd characters upon it. They have no gold or copper-money: gold is reckoned among their merchantable commodities, and is twelve times the value of ſilver.

The ſhells called coris ſerve to buy little matters; they are found chiefly at the Maldive iſlands, to the ſouth of India, and are current in all the countries thereabouts; they differ in their price as they are plentiful or ſcarce; but the value of them at Siam is generally eight hundred for a penny.

The principal trade of the Engliſh in this country is at the port of Malacca, in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch: hither the Engliſh ſend ſeveral country ſhips yearly from the coaſt of Coromandel and bay of Bengal, with callicoes, ſlight ſilks, opium, &c. and make profitable returns in canes, rattans, benjamin, long pepper, ſugar, ſugar-candy, ſapan-wood, and ſometimes gold may be had at a reaſonable rate; but this is a trade prohibited by the Dutch, and carried on by the connivance of the governor, council and fiſcal.

SECT. VII.

Of the Soil, Huſbandry, Gardening, Plants, Animals, Minerals, and Manner of Travelling in SIAM.

THE ſoil of Siam has been gradually formed by the clay and other earth which the floods waſh down from the mountains; they have very little ſtoney ground, and there is hardly a flint to be found in the country. It is

is the mud which the river leaves behind which makes the earth fertile, as far as it extends: all the higher grounds are dried and burnt up by the ſun, ſoon after the rains are over; and though their lands, ſome of them, are naturally fruitful, yet they are ſo ſubject to droughts, inſects, and other inconveniencies, that they are ſometimes deprived of their harveſt ſeveral years together, and ſuch years are generally ſucceeded with peſtilential diſtempers.

Upon the land which the inundation does not reach, they ſometimes ſow wheat, and water it like a garden, by little channels cut through the fields: they have two crops yearly, but not on the ſame ground.

They uſe oxen and buffaloes in plowing, and guide them with a rope run through their noſe. Their plough is plain, and without wheels; they have a ſhare and a ſtaff to hold it by, and it is not much unlike our foot-ploughs in other reſpects, only inſtead of nails, the pieces are faſtened together with thongs and pins.

The chief grain uſed here is rice, which they begin to ſow in the flat country, when the flood has moiſtened the earth, and as the water increaſes the rice grows, and keeps its head above water till the dry ſeaſon approaches, and the ſun has exhaled all the water, and then is the time of their harveſt. Sometimes it is ripe before the waters retire, and then they go in boats to reap it.

Their kitchen-gardens afford them herbs for ſallads, pulſe and roots, and the cucumbers and melons, which the poor people eat in the dry ſeaſon, are eſteemed very innocent food.

The only European fruits almoſt they have, are limes, oranges, and lemons, but they abound in plantains, bananas, mangoes, guavas, jaques, durians, tamarinds, ananas, cocoa nuts, and ſugar canes.

Here are ſome European flowers, as the tuberoſe, gilliflower, and ſome few roſes, jeſſamine, and amaranthus, and other natives of the country valuable for their colours and ſcent: but it is obſerved, that in the heat of the day, they do not ſmell near ſo ſtrong, as they do in the morning and evening; and the European flowers tranſplanted thither do not afford near ſo ſweet a ſmell there, as they do here.

There is plenty of good timber on the hills, of which the bamboo is of great uſe in building; it is a hollow knotted cane, of an enormous ſize, very ſtrong and hard to cut. The cocoa nut, which grows on the low lands by the ſea-ſide, affords them meat, drink and oil; the body of the tree is uſeful in building boats and other veſſels, and of the fibres of the bark and nut they make cordage; the leaves ſerve to write on, and the branches for covering for their houſes. The cotton tree is very common here; it bears a fruit of the bigneſs of a walnut, which opens when it is ripe; within it they find the cotton; from other trees they draw lacque and other gums: they have alſo the ſapan, and other woods, proper for dying, and ſome lignum aloes or aquila.

In this country are tygers, elephants, horſes, oxen, buffaloes, ſheep, and goats; ſome hares, no rabbits, but great plenty of deer. Here are to be found, in great abundance and variety, peacocks, doves, pigeons, partridges, ſnipes, parrots, ſparrows, and various other birds; amongſt which the noktho is a very remarkable one: it is larger than an oſtrich, and hath a bill near three feet in length. They have great quantities of inſects and reptiles, ſuch as lizards, ſnakes, ſcorpions, millepedes, &c. and their white ants and gnats are extremely troubleſome.

This country was antiently rich in mines; and the great number of idols and other caſt-works that are found amongſt them, as well as the old pits that are daily diſcovered here, ſhew that there have been more wrought than there are at preſent. The great quantity of gold with which their images, and the walls and roofs of their temples are adorned, make it evident alſo that a great quantity of that metal has formerly been extracted out of the mines. An European phyſician diſcovered to them a mine of very good ſteel, alſo a mine of cryſtal, one of antimony, and another of emery, with a quarry of white marble. They have alſo tin and lead mines; and near Louvo there is a mountain of load-ſtone, and another in the iſland of Jonſalam on the Malacca coaſt; but the latter ſoon loſes its virtue. In their mountains are alſo found ſome ſapphires, diamonds, and agate; but the people have no encouragement to ſearch for theſe, as things of this nature are always ſeized by the officers for the king's uſe.

Beſides the elephant, they have the ox and buffalo to ride on; but they uſe neither horſes, aſſes or mules; the Moors have ſome camels which are brought from other countries; they uſe the female elephants chiefly for carriage; the males are trained to the war: every one is at liberty to hunt elephants, and take them to uſe, but not to kill them.

The chairs which the Siameſe travel in, are placed on a kind of bier, and carried by four or eight men on their ſhoulders, one or two to each pole, and others run by to be ready to relieve them: thoſe chairs have ſometimes a back and arms like our dreſſing chairs, and ſometimes are only encompaſſed with a rail or balliſter about half a foot high; they are generally open at top, and the Siameſe ſit croſs-legged in them. It is only ſome few of the great men whom the king ſuffers to ride in chairs; and the Europeans are permitted the uſe of palanquins, or couches, carried on men's ſhoulders, with a canopy over them.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Language, Learning, Characters, Hiſtory, and Chronology of the SIAMESE.

THE Siameſe have two languages, namely, the Baly and the Siameſe. In the Baly they have thirty-three letters, and in the Siameſe thirty-ſeven, all conſonants; and there are a great number of vowels in both languages, for which they have particular characters, ſome of which are placed before the conſonant, and ſome after, and others are placed above or underneath. Their pronunciation depends much on the accent, and, like the Chineſe, they ſeem to ſing when they are ſpeaking.

Arithmetic is their favourite ſtudy, in which they uſe ten characters, like the Europeans, and they are pretty ready at accounts.

They have no orators among them; and are ignorant of printing, their books being engraved with an iron pencil. They underſtand nothing of philoſophy; nor do they ſtudy the laws of their country, till they are preferred to ſome poſt, when they have a copy of inſtructions to be obſerved in that office put into their hands. Their aſtronomy is very imperfect; nor do they underſtand any thing of the true ſyſtem of the world; they believe with the Chineſe, that the eclipſes are cauſed by ſome dragon, who ſtands ready to devour the ſun and moon; and make a great noiſe with pans and kettles to drive him away from thoſe planets. But as to aſtrology, no concern of conſequence is ever entered upon till ſome ſecond-ſighted aſtrologer is conſulted. They are very ignorant of phyſic or anatomy: their phyſicians ſeldom let blood or preſcribe emetics, but have a great opinion of ſudorifics, and ſometimes purge their patients: but their beſt recipe ſeems to be conge, or water-gruel made with rice, to which diet they uſually confine the patient till he recovers. If a medicine fails of producing the deſired ſucceſs, the phyſician imputes it to the magic of ſome evil ſpirit, and are very dextrous in deceiving their patients.

They have as little ſkill in muſic as in any other ſcience; for they neither play or ſing by notes; and moſt of their inſtruments are very harſh and ungrateful to the ear: they beat upon little ill-ſounding drums, and have a trumpet ſtill worſe: they have ſome ſhrill hautboys, and a little ugly violin with three ſtrings. They have alſo braſs baſons to beat upon. When the king goes out, or upon other ſolemn occaſions, all theſe ſound together, and no doubt make very delightful harmony.

We cannot depend on any hiſtory of Siam before the year 1500. It is only ſuppoſed to be the golden Cherſoneſe of the antients: and this there ſeems to be but little foundation for, becauſe gold is not the produce of this country. It is ſaid alſo, this and the neighbouring countries of the farther India were formerly tributary to China: and this is pure conjecture; for the Siameſe have no ſuch tradition, much leſs hiſtory. They have had the uſe of letters ſome time, but they do not ſo much as pretend to have any ancient records. When the Portugueſe took the city of Malacca in the year 1511, Mahomet an Arabian was ſovereign of that city, and the territory about it, independent of the king of Siam. For the Arabians and Egyptians had certainly driven the original inhabitants, the Malays, from this coaſt, as they had the natives of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Macaſſar, the Moluccas, Banda, &c. from the coaſt of the Indian iſlands, and poſſeſſed themſelves of the rich produce of thoſe countries, viz. of the cloves of the Moluccas, the nutmegs and mace of Banda, the camphire of Borneo, the gold of Leuconia and Sumatra, and the gums, perfumes and ſweet woods that were to be found in moſt of theſe countries; and the city of Malacca was the great mart, where this merchandize was to

be met with, when the Portugueſe made themſelves maſters of it. We cannot doubt of the Egyptians and Arabians being poſſeſſed of this trade, till the Portugueſe found the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope; for we find the Grand Signior, who was then ſovereign of Egypt, the coaſt of Arabia, and the Red Sea, fitting out fleets, and engaging the Portugueſe in ſeveral battles in the Indian ſeas, to prevent their ſettling themſelves in India, which, he was ſenſible, would deprive his ſubjects of the rich trade they had enjoyed for many hundred years: and very probably, the Arabians traded in theſe ſpices, before the Iſraelites went down into Egypt; inaſmuch as we find them carried through Arabia into Egypt, when Joſeph was ſold to the Iſhmaelite merchants, who were trading thither with their camels in a caravan: and though the people of Siam and the adjacent countries, have no hiſtories nor records, that give an account of this antient traffic; yet it is ſtrange that the Phœnicians and Arabians have no hiſtories relating to their Indian expeditions; or, if ſuch hiſtories have been deſtroyed, that there are no copies or extracts from them, except what we meet with in the ſcriptures.

With reſpect to their modern hiſtory, we are told that the kingdom of Siam and that of Pegu have frequently been engaged in wars; that ſometimes, Siam has been tributary to Pegu, and at others Pegu has been conquered by Siam; but at preſent they are independent of each other. The Portugueſe were in a manner ſovereigns of Malacca and the coaſts of Siam both north and ſouth, from the year 1511 to the year 1640, when the Dutch took that city, and now remain ſovereigns of it and of the ſea-coaſt, and particularly of the ſtreights of Malacca; and by their men of war ſtationed here and at Batavia, can prevent all other nations trading to China, through the ſtreights of Malacca and Sunda. After the above-mentioned period, namely, in 1688, the general of the Siameſe troops being popular among the ſoldiers, and having the army at his devotion, quarrelled with his ſovereign in order to dethrone him. This he effected, and deprived his maſter of life, as a royal criminal, by pounding him to death in a large iron mortar with a wooden peſtle. The ſecretary of ſtate was kept confined three years with the Siameſe pillory about his neck, and was never, during that time, permitted to quit his dungeon, except when he was taken out to be ſeverely laſhed, in order to make him accuſe ſome of the principal people of having accumulated riches by clandeſtine means, that the uſurper might have ſome pretext to plunder them. This uſurper, however, enjoyed but little ſatisfaction from reigning, being continually tortured with the ſtings of a guilty conſcience, and ſuppoſing his ſecurity depended on the blood of thoſe he ſuſpected would prove his enemies, he daily multiplied his crimes; and became at length a terror to himſelf and all thoſe who were ſubject to his tyranny. This revolution occaſioned the ruin of the factory which the French had erected at Bancock. We ſhall only add in this place, that in 1717 the king of Siam invaded Cambodia by land with fifty thouſand men, and by ſea with twenty thouſand, but was unſucceſsful in his attempt to ſubdue it.

SECT. IX.

Laws of the SIAMESE, and the Puniſhments inflicted by them for Crimes.

BY the laws of Siam, an unlimited obedience to parents and governors is as ſtrictly required as by thoſe of China, and the aged are much reverenced here. Lying is puniſhed, and deemed as great a crime in Siam, as perjury is in this part of the world; and theft is ſo much deteſted, that one who is guilty of it, is at once abandoned by all his friends, none will intercede for him, or give him any aſſiſtance; and an unjuſt poſſeſſor of lands is puniſhed as a robber.

They do not permit any man to proſecute another, either in a civil or criminal cauſe, without giving ſecurity to make the charge good; every man is allowed to plead his own cauſe, or any of his relations may ſpeak for him; but the law is not a profeſſion of a particular ſet of men.

Where the truth of the charge is doubtful, the juſtice of the proſecution is tried various ways. But the proſecutor and the defendant are ſometimes commanded to walk over burning coals, and he that eſcapes by dextrous management, is held to have the right on his ſide. Another method is by diving into deep water; the man that continues longeſt under water is adjudged innocent.

Emetics is a third method of trial. The prieſt gives each of the parties a pill, and the teſtimony of the perſon who keeps the pill in his ſtomach without vomiting, is believed. They throw both the plaintiff and defendant ſometimes to a tyger, and he that comes off unhurt is held to be in the right; and they will frequently offer themſelves to undergo this laſt trial, though they appear to be extremely timorous when they are to engage an enemy. Theſe trials are in the preſence of the king and magiſtrates.

For treaſon and murder criminals are thrown to an elephant and trampled to death; and puniſhments are uſually adapted to the nature of the crime. A perſon convicted of robbing the public has melted metals poured down his throat; they ſew up the liar's mouth, and for little crimes they faſten a ſquare pillory board about the offender's neck; ſome are ſet in the ground up to the ſhoulders, and every one authorized to buffet him, which is the greateſt indignity a Siameſe can ſuffer, eſpecially to have his head buffeted by women. Perſons guilty of rebellion are ripped up alive.

They allow appeals from inferior courts to the ſuperior; the preſident of the tribunal at Siam can reverſe a judgment given in any other province; and there is an appeal from him to the king; ſo that where the parties are rich and able to bear the charge, there is no end of the ſuit; but the poor are condemned with as little formality as they are in Europe; and where they meet with a potent adverſary, innocence is but a very ſlight protection: judgment of death is never executed in any of the provinces, but by the king's ſpecial commiſſion; but the baſtinado and other puniſhments, on which death frequently enſues, are inflicted by every governor: but one thing ſeems peculiar to the Siameſe, that he who unjuſtly poſſeſſes himſelf of another's lands, is deemed no leſs guilty of robbery than he who robs on the highway; and the perſon lawfully convicted does not only reſtore the lands but forfeit the value of them, one half to the party diſpoſſeſſed, and the other to the judge, as all other pains and forfeitures are divided; but then the king has half the governor's moiety, and where there is not an hereditary governor, the king has one entire half, and the party grieved the other. There is an officer of the crown in every province, who ſhould be ſome check upon the governor, and report to the king what paſſes in the province, and particularly in the courts of juſtice; but it ſeems there is ſuch a general connivance among the officers at each others extortions, that the people receive very little benefit from this inſtitution: every officer ſqueezes what he can out of his inferiors, and the nai, or commander of a band, compels thoſe under him to do double duty who have nothing to bribe him with; while others who preſent him handſomely, are entirely excuſed.

Though their greateſt men are ſometimes puniſhed in a very ſevere manner, yet as this is ſaid to be done only for their reformation, they are afterwards reſtored to their poſts, and none are permitted to upbraid the delinquent with his offence, after he has ſuffered the law.

Officers are frequently puniſhed for the faults of thoſe who act under their authority; and parents and maſters of families for the offences of their dependents and children.

SECT. X.

Of the Marriages, Funerals, and Religion of the SIAMESE.

THIS people, like their neighbours, diſpoſe of their daughters in marriage, when very young. A great many preliminaries muſt be adjuſted in Siam, before a contract of marriage is made: an aſtrologer is to be conſulted, and the nativities of the young couple are to be calculated. From this cunning man alſo, they are to learn, whether it is likely to prove a happy match, and whether the family they are about to marry into be rich; it not being eaſy for any man, who is not a conjurer, to know this; all people that have wealth endeavouring to conceal it, leſt the government ſhould borrow it. When the parties have gained the beſt information they can in theſe particulars, and are ſatisfied with them, the lover is permitted to viſit his miſtreſs three times, and the relations being preſent at the third, the portion is paid, and then the marriage is eſteemed complete, without any religious ceremony performed, and it is ſoon after conſummated. The talapoin is prohibited to be preſent on thoſe occaſions; however, he viſits the married couple, in a few days, ſprinkles them with water, and repeats a prayer for their proſperity. The Siameſe are allowed more wives than one, but ſeldom make uſe of this privilege, except their great men, who take theſe liberties in moſt countries, whether their religion or laws prohibit it or not.

They

They have but one wife in reality, who is ſo by contract; the reſt are concubines purchaſed with their money, andmay be ſold again; nor can their children inherit. The fidelity of the Siameſe wives is much applauded, they ſeldom give their huſbands occaſion to be jealous, and are exceeding diligent. They work and maintain the family, when the huſband is in the king's ſervice, as he is obliged to be one half of the year. Divorces are allowed, but thoſe happen very ſeldom, and when they do, the man returns the wife's fortune, and the children are divided between them.

As the women carry on all the trade, there is a neceſſity of allowing them greater liberties than they do in other hot countries, and they are ſo far from abuſing their liberty, that they avoid every thing that may give any occaſion for ſcandal. There have been ſome inſtances of tranſgreſſions, however, among the royal concubines: one of theſe offenders, the king ordered to be covered by a horſe, and then put to death. And Loubiere relates, that another offender being thrown to the tygers, which refuſed to ſeize her, the king offered her a pardon, but ſhe would not accept it, chuſing rather to be torn in pieces, than return to the drudgeries of the palace, the king being preſent at this terrible execution.

When a Siameſe dies, the corpſe is immediately put into a coffin lacquered and gilded; and to prevent any ſtench, it is ſaid, they endeavour to conſume the bowels of the deceaſed with mercury, and have ſometimes leaden coffins: they place the coffin upon a bedſtead or table, and it remains in the houſe till the preparations are made for the funeral, and the head of the family can attend the ſolemnity: in the mean time they burn perfumes before the corps, and ſet up lighted tapers. The talapoins alſo range themſelves round the ſides of the room every night, and entertain the family with hymns and diſcourſes ſuitable to the occaſion; for which they are rewarded with money as well as good proviſion. In the mean time a ſquare ſpot of ground is encloſed with a bamboo pale near ſome temple; round which are hung the painted and gilded papers which the family make, repreſenting houſes, goods, animals, &c. In the middle of the ſquare ſtands the funeral pile, which, beſides other woods, has yellow ſanders, lignum aloes, and other ſweet woods in it, according to the ability of the family; and the pile is built of earth as well as wood to a great height. The corpſe is always carried to the pile in the morning, with the ſound of ſeveral kinds of inſtruments, attended by the family of the deceaſed, both men and women clothed in white, and with white vails, bewailing themſelves all the way, according to cuſtom; after them follow the reſt of his friends and relations, and they chooſe to go in their barges by water towards the burying-place as far as they can.

When the company arrive at the place, they take the body out of the coffin, and lay it on the pile; the talapoins of the convent ſing doleful hymns a quarter of an hour, and then retire; after which, a fire-work is played off. There are always ſhows and plays exhibited on the occaſion, attended with a kind of feſtival, at which the prieſts are forbidden to be preſent. The talapoin's ſervant ſets fire to the pile about noon; which having burnt about two hours, the corpſe is rather ſcorched than conſumed; though it is uſually reported to be burnt to aſhes; this being thought to derive ſome honour on the deceaſed. The poorer ſort do not burn the bodies of their deceaſed relations; but either expoſe them on a ſcaffold in the open field, where they are devoured by birds of prey, or elſe inter them privately.

With reſpect to the religion of the Siameſe, they do not believe the ſoul to be a pure ſpirit, but that it conſiſts of matter ſo ſubtil as to be free from touch, and that after death it retains the human figure, and the ſame ſolid and liquid ſubſtances our bodies are compoſed of; and that if a perſon die by a wound given him it may be ſeen in theſe aërial bodies, with the blood flowing from it, agreeable to the notions of the antient Greeks and Romans; but though the ſoul be material in their opinion, they will not admit that it is periſhable, but that it animates ſome other creature, and knows pain or pleaſure according to its demerits, till it enters a human body again; whoſe circumſtances they hold will be ſuitable to the behaviour of the ſoul in its ſeveral tranſmigrations. They hold alſo, that departed ſouls do not only animate plants and animals, &c. ſucceſſively; but that there are alſo certain ſpaces beyond the viſible world, where they ſhall be rewarded or puniſhed; that the happy aſcend far above the ſtars, while the miſerable are doomed as far beneath; and they uſually aſſign nine different regions both of happineſs and miſery, every one differing in degree, the higheſt and loweſt being moſt exquiſite in their kind. And as they do not imagine that ſouls paſs immediately from one ſtate to another, but are new-born into whatever place they happen to go; ſo they believe they ſtand in need of the ſame things they did in this life; and for that reaſon, as the Pagans did of old, in ſome places they burn their moſt valuable moveables, and even animals and ſlaves with them; their wives alſo in the hither India uſed to offer themſelves to be burnt with their huſbands, in hopes to enjoy them in the other world; and it is ſaid, they have not wanted inſtances there of the huſband burning himſelf with his beloved wife. But Loubiere obſerves, that neither the Chineſe or Siameſe, or any nation beyond the Ganges, ever permitted the wife to burn herſelf with her huſband; and are ſo wiſe, that inſtead of real furniture and treaſure, they burn there only gilded or painted paper reſembling thoſe things; giving out that theſe are converted into real goods, and though the Chineſe burn ſome goods, yet they burn much more in paper. They alſo maintain, that the ſoul reſides in the blood, and therefore deem it improper to open a vein or make any inciſions in the fleſh, to extract the blood.

They pray to their departed friends, and do them all the honours they can contrive at their funerals, eſpecially to the manes of their anceſtors, as high as their great grandfathers; imagining that thoſe beyond have ſuffered ſo many tranſmigrations, that they can hear them no more; but the eaſtern nations do not addreſs their devotions to any but thoſe of their own family, profeſſion, or neighbourhood; nor do they, like ſuperſtitious Europeans, hope or fear any thing from the departed ſpirits of ſtrangers.

The true Indian paradiſe is thus deſcribed: that if a ſoul, after ſeveral tranſmigrations, by the good works done in each new life arrrive at ſuch a degree of merit, that there is not, in any of the worlds, any mortal condition which is worthy of it, then they ſay it enjoys the hireupan; that is, it had diſappeared, and will return no more to any world, but will remain in a ſtate of eternal impaſſability and happineſs.

When a perſon has happily merited heaven, before he is tranſlated thither, (for ſuch a ſoul is ſuppoſed to be incapable of dying any more) they attribute to him an invincible ſtrength of body, and a perfect ſkill in all ſciences, and believe he becomes a moſt powerful preacher of righteouſneſs to mankind: after which he diſappears, or is taken out of their ſight, like a ſpark (as their expreſſion is) which is loſt in air: and to the memory of ſuch as theſe, they dedicate their temples. But the perſon they ſuppoſe has ſurpaſſed all men that ever lived, in holineſs, and whom therefore they worſhip with the higheſt devotion, is Sommona Codom; Sommona ſignifies a talapoin of the woods, Codom was his proper name; and, as has been obſerved already, virtue, according to them, is only to be found in the order of talapoins, and chiefly in the talapoins of the woods.

Sommona Codom's father, the talapoin books relate, was the king of Ceylon, that delicious iſland where the true cinnamon only grows, and is now ſubject to the Dutch. Sommona Codom beſtowed all his eſtate in charity, pulled out his eyes, and killed his wife and children, and gave them to the talapoins to feed on. They relate alſo, that another Sommona Codom will hereafter ariſe; who will alſo kill his children for the talapoins; for which charity he will arrive at the higheſt pitch of virtue.

They believe, that Sommona Codom, before he entered into this ſtate of bliſs, acquired a prodigious ſtrength of body, and had the power of working miracles; that he could enlarge his body to what ſize he pleaſed, and then reduce it to ſo ſmall a point, as perfectly to diſappear.

It is further to be obſerved, that they do not look upon their Sommona Codom as the perſon who firſt inſtituted their religion, or gave them the above-recited precepts; but that he reſtored and re-eſtabliſhed them, after mankind had ſwerved from the rules originally enjoined them.

We ſhall now proceed to give ſome account of the talapoins and talapoineſſes, who as well as the doctrine they profeſs, the people believe to be as ancient as the world itſelf: but they themſelves are ignorant of the founder of their order.

Any learned perſon may become a talapoin, on applying properly for admiſſion. The habit conſiſts of four pieces of cloth; the one is the angſa, a kind of ſhoulder belt, five or ſix inches broad; they wear it on the left ſhoulder, and button it with a ſingle button on the right hip. Over this belt they have another called the paſhivon, reaching to the ground both behind and before, and leaving the two arms, with all the right ſhoulder free. Over this

this is the papat, which reaches low behind, as well as to the middle before, and is generally red. They gird the whole with a piece of yellow cloth called rappakod, which completes the four pieces that compoſe their habit.

There are two ſorts of talapoins; one of the woods, and the other of cities. The education of youth is committed to them, and they are ſerved by their ſcholars. Theſe talapoins are a ſort of begging friars, who live upon the alms of the people, and every one eats what he begs, or has given him, by himſelf, and not in a common room. They are very hoſpitable to all ſtrangers, Chriſtians as well as others, and have lodgings for them on each ſide their gate. Theſe prieſts vow celibacy, and lead very auſtere lives; the penalty of deviating from their rules, is no leſs than burning, which the king takes care ſhall be rigorouſly executed, to prevent too many of his ſubjects turning talapoins, ſince they pay no duties, and contribute nothing to the defence or ſupport of the ſtate. They preach every new and full moon, and during the inundation, every day, from morning till evening, the preacher ſitting croſs-legged on a raiſed floor, and is relieved when he is weary by one of his brethren; the people expreſſing their aſſent to the reaſonableneſs of the doctrine, and bringing their alms to the preacher, by which bounty many of them grow rich. The time of the rains is their annual faſt, when they eat nothing but a little fruit in the evening.

The talapoins are obliged to watch as well as pray, eſpecially after harveſt, when they go into the fields in night-time, and return into the towns in the morning; and though others are apt to think themſelves in danger of wild beaſts when they are abroad in the night-time, the people are made to believe, that a tyger will not touch a talapoin, they are ſo ſanctified a generation.

The people waſh the talapoins at every new and full moon; but at theſe times the ſuperior always ſhaves himſelf, becauſe no man is worthy to touch his head, and the elder always ſhave the younger; but when he is grown too old, a young talapoin is permitted to ſhave him, who aſks pardon firſt, and declares himſelf unworthy of that honour.

They waſh every morning, as ſoon as they can ſee, and not ſooner, for fear they ſhould deſtroy ſome inſect. After waſhing, they perform their devotions in the temple, which they ſing as in choirs, their books cocoa-nut leaves, on which they write, or rather engrave; for they have not yet the art of printing: they ſing their devotions ſitting upon their heels: but both prieſts and people, at their going in and out of the temple, proſtrate themſelves three times before their idols.

After the morning devotion, they go into the city, and ſtanding at the doors of the houſes they expect any thing from, their food is brought them, but they never aſk for it, though there does not ſeem to be much occaſion for theſe alms; for they have lands and gardens appropriated to their convents, and ſlaves to cultivate them, and they are exempt from taxes. The talapoins have ſervants, as well as ſlaves, who wear a white habit, and receive the money given their maſter, it being a ſin for the talapoin to touch money himſelf: the talapoineſſes wear white, and if they are taken with a man, are delivered to their relations to chaſtiſe; for it is againſt their rules for a talapoin to ſtrike any one.

Theſe talapoineſſes who are nuns, live in the ſame convents with the talapoins; the convents are a number of ſingle houſes ſtanding upon bamboo pillars at a ſmall diſtance from each other. Perſons who go to a convent, enter it intirely by their own choice, and are at liberty to quit it whenever they pleaſe.

We ſhall only add here, under this head, that the Indians not being prejudiced againſt any religion, but allowing a univerſal toleration, we may preſume that the reaſonableneſs of the Chriſtian doctrines might have induced them to embrace them, if the ambition, avarice, injuſtice, and tyranny of the European nations, who have ſettled there, had not contradicted the doctrines they taught, and raiſed, in the Indians, an abhorrence of their perſons and practices.

SECT. XI.

Deſcribing the Kingdoms of AVA, PEGU, ARRACAN, TIPRA, ACHAM, and BONTAN, with their Boundaries and Extent, Rivers, Towns, &c. alſo an Account of the Inhabitants, their Genius, Temper, Diet, Food, Religion, &c.

THESE countries may be comprehended under the name of the kingdom of Ava, for the king of Ava and Pegu is ſaid to have reduced all the reſt under his power.

This kingdom or empire of Ava, including the countries aboveſaid, is bounded by Aſem or Acham towards the north, China and Siam towards the eaſt, and the country and bay of Bengal towards the weſt and ſouth; and extends, according to the beſt maps we have of thoſe countries, from the latitude of ſixteen to twenty-ſeven north, ſo that the whole length from north to ſouth, may be reckoned between ſix and ſeven hundred miles, and the breadth about half as much.

The principal rivers in this country, are the Arracan, the Capoumo, the Menam, the Ava, and that of Pegu, which running from north to ſouth almoſt the whole length of the country, and overflowing their banks annually, render it no leſs fruitful than Bengal and Siam, which lie on each ſide of them; and the lake of Chamay is placed in our maps at the north eaſt part of this country.

The chief towns are, Tipra, Ava, Arracan, Lactora, Prom, Mero, Pegu, and Siriam; Tipra is the capital of the kingdom or province of the ſame name, and lies in the latitude of twenty-four degrees north, or thereabout. Arracan ſtands near the mouth of the river of the ſame name, which a little lower falls into the bay of Bengal, it lies in twenty-one degrees of north latitude. Ava lies to the eaſtward of Arracan, upon a river of the ſame name, which a little lower falls into the Menam; and Lactora ſtands between Ava and Arracan upon the river Capoumo. Prom, or Porcom, ſtands on each ſide of the river Menam in the latitude of nineteen degrees, and Mero to the ſouthward of it on the ſame river, latitude ſeventeen north. Siriam lies on the weſt ſide of the river Menam, near the mouth of it, almoſt againſt Martaban. Pegu ſtands about eighty miles up the river of the ſame name, in the latitude of ſeventeen degrees ſome odd minutes; it is divided into the old and new city, which together make the town almoſt ſquare; it is defended by a wall or moat, and has on every ſide five gates; the court and people of condition take up that part which is called the new city, which is ſeparated from the other by a wall and ditch, the ſtreets are ſtrait, and wide enough for fifteen men to ride a-breaſt; and they have trees planted before their houſes for ſhade, as in many other Indian towns. In the middle of the new city ſtands the palace, which is fortified with walls and towers like a caſtle. Travellers tell us it is very magnificent; Le Blanc gives us the following deſcription of it: in one of the courts ſtands the figure of a tall man, all of ſolid gold, with a crown on his head, enriched with rubies of a conſiderable value: round this figure ſtand four other golden ſtatues. In another court is repreſented a giant, all of ſilver, ſitting with a crown of ſilver on his head, ſet with rich jewels; and in other courts are other rich ſtatues, formed of various kinds of metal, with crowns on their heads, adorned with rubies and ſapphires. The king of Ava and Pegu has ſeveral neighbouring ſtates tributary to him.

Pegu, which is within the tropics, is flooded when the ſun is vertical; but the ſlime, left by the waters, gently fertilizes the low grounds. The higher land is parched with intenſe heats after the rains have ceaſed; and the natives are obliged to water their fields by the communication of ſmall channels from reſervoirs or ciſterns.

The hills of Pegu are cloathed with fine wood, and the natives derive great advantage from the bamboos. Their fruits are oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, pomegranates, bananas, durians, mangoes, goyvas, cocoa-nuts, pine-apples, &c.

Rice they have in great plenty, and ſome wheat; alſo garden-ſtuff, which they chiefly live upon. They have alſo various kinds of pulſe, good poultry, and variety of excellent fiſh.

They plough with oxen and buffaloes. They have few horſes or ſheep; but deer are exceedingly numerous. This country alſo abounds in elephants; and produces rubies, ſmall diamonds, and other precious ſtones; alſo iron, tin, lead, ſalipetre, wood-oil, oil of earth, ſugars, &c.

The monſoons, winds and ſeaſons, are the ſame here as they are in Upper Siam, to which it is contiguous: they build their houſes alſo on poſts by the river ſides, like the Siameſe. And as to the genius and temper of this people, their courage and manner of making war, their habits, food, entertainments and ceremonies, their huſbandry, produce of the ſoil, learning, religion, &c. from all that we can collect, there is not any material difference between them and the Siameſe. What our ſailors moſt take notice of is the complaiſance of their women, who will contract with them for as long or as ſhort a time as they pleaſe, and behave themſelves in all reſpects like good wives while their temporary huſbands remain in the

country: nor do their friends look upon this kind of commerce as any diſgrace, but receive them kindly when they return to them again. The Engliſh from Fort St. George drive a profitable trade with Pegu and Arracan, from whence they import rubies, ſapphires, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones: ſkins and furs alſo are another very conſiderable branch of this trade.

The Peguan temples, and the idols in them, are ſuperbly embelliſhed. A temple near Siriam has the name of Kiakiack, or God of gods: in this edifice is a large figure lying as though it were ſleeping, and is pretended to have lain in this poſture ſix thouſand years. There is another temple near Siriam, which they call Dagun; but only the prieſts muſt enter it. The prieſts ſay this idol reſembles nothing human, and refuſe to deſcribe the ſhape or form of it. There is in one of their tempies a ſilver idol, of gigantic ſize, which, as an oracle, anſwered queſtions, and predicted what was to happen. They have alſo an idol called Trokogue, of the ſame ſtature as the former, though of different compoſition: this idol, they pretend, intercedes with Kiakiack for the wicked, and once a week they ſacrifice a hog and three pullets to it. There are ſeveral very ſingular circumſtances attending their ſacrifices. They worſhip dæmons, in order that they may not be afflicted by them. They begin their feſtivals with dancing and muſic; perſons of high rank attend them, cloathed in their richeſt apparel, and adorned with jewels; but they are often changed to doleful lamentations, and conclude with plaintive ſtrains in praiſe of their anceſtors. After which they recruit their ſpirits with mirth and good food and liquors.

They ſtyle the emperor of Ava the ſovereign of the white elephant. He is almoſt worſhipped by his people: he calls himſelf the king of kings, and his ſubjects ſtyle him a god. He is reckoned ſuperior to all other ſovereigns, as being allied to all the planets; the ſun is his brother, and the moon and ſtars his ſiſters. When an ambaſſador approaches this great prince, he is attended by ſound of trumpet, while heralds proclaim aloud the honour and happineſs he is about to receive. The king is at this time attended by all his miniſters, and two hundred guards, ſome with daggers, and others with ſteel bows finely poliſhed.

This monarch holds the reins of government entirely in his own hands, and puniſhes with great rigour ſuch officers as are guilty of mal-practices. When he hears of the commiſſion of any enormous crime, he iſſues his royal mandate for ſuch offence to be tried by judges of his own chuſing; and if the perſon be convicted, he fixes the particular puniſhment to be inflicted, which is, the being trampled to death by elephants, or ſome other cruel mode of puniſhing the delinquent.

A kind of ariſtocratical government prevails in every town of theſe dominions. When a perſon cannot or will not pay the debt for which he is committed to priſon, the creditors may diſpoſe of him for a ſlave.

In caſe of war, the heralds proclaim their ſovereign's will with flaming torches in their hands, and the governors of provinces are obliged to raiſe ſuch a number of troops as the ſtate wants, in addition to the accuſtomed military eſtabliſhment. A troop, perhaps, of one thouſand elephants are ſoon ſeen in full march, the king being ſeated on his throne upon the back of one of the whiteſt, attended by all his nobles, and march to the field of war by the ſound of trumpets and other military muſic.

The kingdom of Arracan is bounded on the eaſt by Ava; on the weſt by the bay and country of Bengal; and on the north by Tipra; it extends about four hundred miles in length, and contains a great number of places, many of which are uninhabited, from the great number of wild beaſts that infeſt it.

The inhabitants of this country are diſtinguiſhed by their broad and flat foreheads, red noſes, and wide noſtrils: they have ſmall eyes, but a very quick ſight. The people are in general very robuſt. The common people generally wear a dark purple habit: but thoſe of diſtinction wear veſtments of white cotton, with an apron before them, and a kind of bag behind their backs formed in plaits. Their hair is divided into locks, each of which is tied, and ornamented with knots of fine cloth. The women are much fairer than the men, but proportionably robuſt. They wear a cotton garment, which is bound ſeveral times round the body, and reaches down to the ancles: they have a kind of handkerchief made of flowered gauze over their necks and ſhoulders. The better ſort wear a ſilk ſcarf on one of their arms, and decorate their hair with a variety of ornaments. They have glaſs rings in their ears, which are ſo large as to hang on the ſhoulders; and their arms and legs are ornamented with bracelets and rings of ſilver, copper, ivory, &c.

Their houſes are made with branches of palm-trees, or canes placed on pillars, and covered with leaves of the cocoa-tree, and are exceeding ſmall; but the better ſort have more ſpacious buildings. They are obliged to dreſs their victuals without doors in earthen pots, as they have no chimnies, or any convenience for firing in their houſes.

They are exceeding temperate in their diet, though they have great plenty of proviſions. Their common drink is made from the leaves of a tree reſembling the palm-tree, which if drank new, is very ſweet, but in a few days will turn ſour. They uſe rice inſtead of bread.

The country produces all kinds of fruits with various ſorts of grain. The climate is very healthful and pleaſant in ſummer, but much otherwiſe in winter, for the inhabitants are ſubject to agues, from the prodigious quantity of rain that falls during that ſeaſon. Here are great numbers of buffaloes and elephants.

The king of Arracan generally reſides at the capital; he is as powerful as any of his neighbours, and has twelve princes under him, whoſe reſidences are in the chief cities of the kingdom; and they are permitted to aſſume the title of kings. The king himſelf is ſtyled, "Emperor of Arracan, poſſeſſor of the white elephant, with the two caniques, rightful heir of Pager and Broma, and lord of the twelve kings, who lay the hair of their heads under the ſoles of his feet," &c. He is ſeen by his ſubjects but once in five years, at which time the palace is ſurrounded with buildings and ſcaffolds erected on the occaſion. The king comes from the palace dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous manner, ſeated in an elegant tent placed on the back of an elephant richly capariſoned. He is followed by his courtiers riding on elephants, whoſe harneſs and trappings are richly adorned with diamonds and other precious jewels. Then the king, with his attendants, rides through the principal ſtreets of the city; after which, he returns to the great ſquare before his palace, where his ſubjects renew their oath of allegiance to him, and the evening is concluded with the greateſt feſtivity by all ranks of people.

This country abounds with temples and other ſacred places, which are built like ſteeples, and contain many idols worſhipped by them. They hold an annual feaſt in commemoration of the dead, at which time they carry one of their idols in proceſſion, attended by a number of prieſts dreſſed in uniform, conſiſting of a long garment made of yellow ſattin. The idol is placed in a large heavy chariot, and ſuch are the ſuperſtitious notions of the vulgar, that many will throw themſelves under the wheels, and others will tear their fleſh with iron hooks faſtened to the carriage for that purpoſe: they take great pains to colour theſe hooks with their blood; and they are afterwards preſerved and hung up as ſacred relics in their temples.

There are three orders of prieſts among them, the higheſt of which is diſtinguiſhed by wearing a yellow mitre; but the other two always go bare headed: they are all prohibited marrying, on pain of degradation. When any perſons are ill, they ſend for the prieſts, who pray with them, in return for which the patient offers ſacrifices of fowl, &c. according to their ability. If the patient recovers, the cure is attributed to the prayers uſed by the prieſt, but if he dies, the prieſt tells the relations that their ſacrifices are accepted, but God deſigns the deceaſed a greater favour in the other world. The prieſt thinks it charity to drown the patient if he appears incurable.

On the death of a perſon of diſtinction, the body is burned, but the poorer ſort are thrown into the river. They believe in tranſmigration, and therefore ornament their coffins with the figures of ſuch animals as they think the moſt noble.

Every family has ſome peculiar animal, by which they ſwear, and whoſe figure they mark with a hot iron on different parts of their body. Their nuptial ceremonies are performed in the preſence of this animal, and, before they eat, they always offer him part of their proviſions.

The principal people that trade with the inhabitants of this kingdom are the Moors, and the commodities they purchaſe conſiſt of elephants teeth, tin, lead, and timber for building. The ordinary money is ſhells, or ſmall pebbles, eighty of which are valued at nine-pence, but they have a ſilver coin eſtimated at two ſhillings.

The capital of this kingdom, called alſo Arracan, is large and well-fortified: it is ſituated in a valley, and is fifteen miles in circumference. It is incloſed by very high

ſtone walls, and ſurrounded by a ridge of ſteep, craggy mountains, ſo artificially formed as to be almoſt impregnable; beſides which, there is a caſtle within, ſtrongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river that paſſes through it in different ſtreams, and at length forms into two channels, which empty themſelves into the bay of Bengal.

It is eſtimated, that the number of inhabitants in this city amount to one hundred and ſixty thouſand, excluſive of foreigners. The houſes in general are ſmall, and built of bamboos; but thoſe of the richer ſort are ſpacious and handſome: there are upwards of ſix hundred idol temples in it, moſt of which are ſpacious buildings, elegantly ornamented. The palace is exceedingly magnificent, being decorated with the moſt coſtly embelliſhments. The apartments are lined with various kinds of wood that yield the moſt agreeable fragrance; and the roofs of thoſe belonging to the king are covered with plates of gold. In the centre of the palace is the grand hall, which contains a canopy ornamented with wedges of ſolid gold, reſembling ſugar-loaves. Here are likewiſe ſeveral idols of the ſame metal, as large as life, and adorned with diamonds and other coſtly jewels. In the centre of the hall is a cabinet of gold, ſupported by a large ſtool of the ſame metal, and overlaid with diamonds and other precious ſtones. This cabinet contains the two caniques, or famous pendants of rubies, by which the king preſerves a ſuperior authority over his vaſſal princes, and which he alſo wears at his coronation.

There are ſpacious ſtables adjoining to the palace, for the king's elephants, tygers, horſes, &c. and there is a conſiderable lake with ſmall iſlands near it, inhabited chiefly by prieſts. This lake is ſo ſituated, as to be a ſecurity to the inhabitants of the city, ſhould they be reduced to the neceſſity of flying from the attack of an enemy; for, by cutting a bank which ſurrounds it, they might overflow the city, and retire to the iſlands adjacent.

This city has very extenſive ſuburbs adjoining to it, and the ſurrounding countries are delightfully pleaſant. The villages, mountains, &c. are beautifully diverſified with fields of different kinds of grain, intermixed with pieces of water. Their flocks of cattle are very numerous.

In the neighbourhood is a factory belonging to the Dutch; and ſome of the richeſt commodities in Aſia are to be purchaſed in many of the ſhops in the city. The Moors often obtain conſiderable poſſeſſions by purchaſing diamonds, rubies, and other coſtly jewels; and indeed they are the principal people that trade here.

There are many other cities of conſiderable note in different parts of this kingdom; as alſo many capital towns remarkable for traffic; the moſt material of which, are,

Orietan. This is one of the twelve capital cities, and is governed by a viceroy, who aſſumes the title of king, and receives a crown from the king himſelf. It is ſituated on a branch of the river, to the ſouth-weſt of the city of Arracan. In the neighbourhood of this city is a large mountain, on which is a fortified place for the confinement of ſtate priſoners, or other diſtinguiſhed criminals. There is another mountain called Pora, on the top of which is placed the principal idol, which is worſhipped by the king himſelf on a certain day once in the year. Between the cities of Arracan and Orietan is a ſpacious river, the banks of which are delightfully ſhaded with tall trees, that form as it were an harbour; the pleaſure of ſailing under which is conſiderably heightened by the multitude of peacocks that are continually moving from one tree to another.

Another city of conſiderable note is Rama; but the paſſage to it either by land or water being dangerous, it is little reſorted to; for the mountains are infeſted with a great number of wild beaſts, and the ſudden tempeſts that ariſe make the getting to it by water very perilous.

The next we ſhall take notice of is Dobazi, which is a large and populous city, but chiefly remarkable for its commodious harbour, and a ſpacious river by which great trade is carried on with the neighbouring places.

Dianga is alſo a large town, ſituated one hundred and twenty miles north of Arracan; the inhabitants are chiefly Portugueſe fugitives, and they have very conſiderable privileges allowed them.

Another town of great trade is Pereom or Prom, which has a very convenient harbour. It is the reſidence of a governor, who exerciſes the abſolute authority of an eaſtern monarch, and keeps a grand court here.

Tipra, or Tipoura is a tributary kingdom, ſubject to the king of Arracan. It is bounded by the empire of Ava, and part of China, to the ſouth and eaſt; by Independent Tartary, to the north; by Arracan, to the ſouth-weſt, and by Indoſtan, to the weſt. It is ſaid to require fifteen days to croſs it. Being under the tropic of Cancer, it is exceedingly hot, the air is nevertheleſs ſalubrious and pure; but the water is ſo bad, that it occaſions the throats of the inhabitants to ſwell to a prodigious ſize.

The ſovereign and the nobility ride upon elephants, or are carried in palanquins; but the common people, when they travel, make uſe of horſes or oxen indiſcriminately. The accommodations for ſtrangers are bad; and the behaviour of the natives rude and unpoliſhed.

The ſubjects of this kingdom pay no taxes, but in lieu thereof labour annually once a week for the king, either in his mine or his ſilk-works, from whence alone he derives his revenues. He exports gold and ſilver to China in ingots, and in return receives ſilver, which is coined into ſpecies of currency of twenty pence and twenty-two pence value each: gold is coined into aſpers, which are worth about five ſhillings a-piece. Geographers ſay, that the river Cuipoumo runs from Chiamay lake through this and ſeveral other kingdoms, till it diſembogues itſelf into Bengal bay.

The kingdom of Acham, Aſem, or Azem, is bounded by China, on the eaſt; Indoſtan on the weſt; Tipra on the ſouth; and Boutan, with part of Independent Tartary, on the north.

This country, in the reign of Aureng-zebe, was conquered by the Moguls, who diſcovered it by navigating the river Lacquia, which has its ſource in the lake Chiamay, and diſcharges itſelf into the Ganges. The above-mentioned celebrated lake lies in twenty-ſix degrees north latitude, and is one hundred and eighteen leagues in circumference.

Beſides being one of the moſt fertile in the univerſe, this country is alſo rich in mines, which produce the nobleſt and moſt uſeful metals, ſuch as gold, ſilver, ſteel, iron, lead, &c. Here is plenty of the moſt delicious animal food, but dog's fleſh is deemed the greateſt dainty. They make no wine, though they have excellent grapes, which, when dried, are uſed in making brandy. The lakes of this country are of a ſaline quality, and they convert into ſalt the ſcum which riſes to their ſurface. Another kind of ſalt is extracted from the leaves of what they call Adam's fig-tree; and a ley is made, which renders their ſilks admirably white.

The king exempts his ſubjects from all kinds of taxes to government, as he contents himſelf with the ſole property of the valuable mines contained in his country; nor are thoſe mines worked by the natives, but by ſlaves which he purchaſes in the neighbouring countries.

In this country, every ſubject hath a houſe allotted him, with a large piece of ground contiguous thereto, and an elephant to carry his wives, of whom he is permitted to have four. Previous to marriage, the Aſchamians inform the women minutely of what they expect them to do. The females being thus previouſly inſtructed in their duty, ſeldom diſoblige their huſbands.

The inhabitants towards the north have good complexions, but thoſe who dwell ſoutherly are rather ſwarthy. All have very large holes bored in their ears, from whence deſcend heavy pendants of gold and ſilver. They wear their hair long, have a cap upon their heads, and go naked except about their middles. They adorn their arms with bracelets, which are buried with them when they die. Their gold is current in ingots, but they have pieces of ſilver coin of two ſhillings each in value. They have great plenty of gum lacque, which they export to China and Japan, to varniſh cabinets, cheſts, and other pieces of furniture.

Kemmerouff, or Guergon, is the metropolis of this kingdom, and the reſidence of the king; it lies in twenty-five degrees thirty-three minutes north latitude, and the city of Azov is the royal burial-place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried alſo; this always being of gold or ſilver, the vaults are filled with immenſe treaſure.

The people imagine, that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they deſire; but that the wicked ſuffer all the miſeries of hunger and thirſt. Full of this notion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of eatables, great riches, ſeveral of their wives, officers, elephants, ſlaves, &c. leſt they ſhould fare worſe in the other world, than they did in this.

The Chineſe are ſuppoſed to have received the invention of gunpowder from the people of Aſem, though they have not been ingenuous enough to acknowledge it.

The

The following places near the coaſt of Ava are reckoned in the Pegu dominions. 1. The iſland of Dola, which has a good harbour, and where twenty houſes are appropriated to the purpoſe of taming elephants for the uſe of the king of Pegu. 2. Coſmin is a fertile iſland; the houſes of the natives are built on frames of wood, and aſcended to by ladders, on account of the furious tygers with which the country abounds. The inhabitants go from hence to Pegu in boats, in which whole families reſide all the year. This country produces figs, oranges, cocoa-nuts, wild boars, parrots, aſſes, and other animals. 3. Meden, a tolerable town, where a market is kept on the water in boats, the commodities being ſhaded from the ſcorching heat of the ſun by umbrellas. 4. Negrais, a town and cape on the coaſt due weſtward from Pegu, from whence it requires about ten days to ſail. The harbour is good, but a ſhelving bar renders its entrance diſagreeable and dangerous. 5. Diamond iſland, near cape Segrais, is celebrated for two Pagan temples: the one called the temple of the "god of the afflicted;" and the other the temple of the "god of the atoms of the ſun." This iſland is low, barren, and rocky; but the chief eccleſiaſtic of the kingdom reſides here. He is greatly venerated by the people, and takes the right hand of the king; who, on his demiſe, is obliged to attend his funeral with his whole court, and defray all expences incurred thereby.

Martaban, or Martavan, is a province in the kingdom of Pegu, eight miles ſouth of it, and lying in the gulph of Bengal. It is ſituate in ninety-ſeven degrees fifty minutes eaſt longitude, and fifteen degrees thirty-five north latitude. It is three hundred miles long, and one hundred and fifteen broad. The capital town is of the ſame name, and was a rich trading place before they ſunk ſhips at the entrance of the harbour, to choak it up, which it has effectually done. It produces corn, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, cheſnuts, medicinal plants, oil of jeſſamy, gold, ſilver, ſteel, iron, lead, copper, rubies, lacque, benzoin, &c. It was formerly ſo fertile, as to have annually three harveſts, and is bleſſed with a pure and wholſome air; but the whole country has been ruined by the terrible wars between the kings of Pegu and Siam; the former having been taken and killed by a people called Barmais, who conquered the whole kingdom and brought it into ſubjection.

SECT. XII.

Treating of the Peninſula of MALACCA, the Kingdoms of CAMBODIA and LAOS, JOHOR, TIBET, &c.

MALACCA is a large peninſula beyond the Ganges. It is ſituate between the ſecond and eleventh degree of north latitude; and is bounded by Siam, on the north; by the ocean, on the eaſt; and by the ſtreights of Malacca, which ſeparates it from Sumatra, on the ſouth-weſt, being about ſix hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. It is ſeparated into ſeveral ſmall kingdoms; namely Malacca, from which it derives its name, Johor, Patana, Sincapour, Pahan, Trangano, Pera, Queda, and Ligor. Some of theſe are independent ſtates; but the king of Siam has made the others tributary to him. This country is ſaid to have been the Aurea Cherſoneſus of Ptolemy.

The coaſts of the kingdom are flat, marſhy, and unhealthful; and the inland parts of the country conſiſt of ſcarce any thing but barren hills and dreary deſerts; ſo that it produces few commodities for trade, except tin and elephants teeth. The common neceſſaries of life are produced in gardens; and ſmall quantities of peaſe and rice are raiſed in ſuch parts of the mountains as appear to have any tolerable ſoil. The natives have a ſupply of proviſions from Sumatra, Bengal, Java, Siam, and Cambodia. Here is, however, a variety of fruit, particularly the manjoſtain, which is a delicious fruit, in the ſhape of an apple, with a thick and red ſkin. Here are cocoas in abundance, and a great plenty of aloes; and as to pine-apples, thoſe produced here are the beſt in the world. The ramboſtan is of the ſize of a walnut, with a very agreeable pulp; and the durian has a very agreeable taſte, though it is not pleaſant to the ſmell. There is but little corn, and ſheep and bullocks are ſcarce; but pork, poultry, and fiſh, are pretty plentiful. There are many tygers, wolves, and other wild animals in this country.

The inland inhabitants are a ſavage, barbarous people, who take great delight in doing miſchief to their neighbours. The natives, who are called Malays, are of a tawny complexion. The men go naked, except having a piece of cloth round their waiſt. The women, who have their hair very long, and are extremely proud, wear a looſe ſilken garment embroidered with ſilver or gold. Both ſexes have jewels in their ears. Notwithſtanding the natural ferocity of the greater part of theſe people, we muſt in juſtice acknowledge, that ſome of them are poliſhed, well-bred, and humane, who diſtinguiſh themſelves by their talents, and particularly in the uſe of a language, eſteemed the moſt pure, nervous, harmonious, and copious of any ſpoken in the Eaſt Indies; they ſtudy it with great care; and many of them by their elegant poetic compoſitions, do honour to its natural graces. The religion of the natives is a mixture of Mahometaniſm and Paganiſm, and they are greatly addicted to juggling, which ſome miſtake for conjuration.

We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the city or town of Malacca, which is ſaid to have been founded upwards of two hundred years before the arrival of the Portugueſe in 1509. In the year 1511, Alphonſo Albuquerque ſubdued the city, after it had made a moſt vigorous defence; he plundered it of immenſe treaſures, vaſt magazines, and whatever could contribute to the elegancies and conveniencies of life, and then put the prince to death. The king of Siam, however, enraged at this cruelty, being aſſiſted by other princes equally incenſed againſt the murderer, afterwards took the city by ſtorm, and built churches, monaſteries, a caſtle, and a college for the Jeſuits. In 1606 the Dutch, in conjunction with the king of Johor, began to be very troubleſome to the Portugueſe, and, after a ſeries of hoſtilities for the ſpace of thirty-five years, in 1641 intirely wreſted it out of their hands; which they effected in the following manner: finding that conſiderable diſputes had ſubſiſted between the king of Johor and the Portugueſe inhabitants, the Dutch formed a deſign of attacking and reducing the place. Accordingly they fitted out a formidable ſquadron of ſhips at Batavia, and entered into an alliance with the king of Johor, who attacked the city by land, while the Dutch inveſted it by ſea; but the invaders finding there was no poſſibility of reducing it, the Dutch at length by means of a conſiderable bribe, prevailed on the ſordid governor to ſurrender the fort to them. But the baſe and faithleſs bribers, having entered the place, murdered the governor, to ſave the payment of the premium. This city is built on a low level ground cloſe to the ſea-ſide, on the eaſt ſide of the city there is a river, which at a ſpring tide will admit of ſmall veſſels; and on the eaſt ſide of this river ſtands a ſtrong fort, between which and the town, there is a communication by a draw-bridge: this fort is built at the foot of a little ſteep hill, and is of a ſemi-circular form, like the adjacent hill: the walls are founded on a rock, very thick, and are carried up to a conſiderable height: and the lower part of them is waſhed by the ſea at every tide: on the other ſide of the hill, there is a large moat cut from the ſea to the aboveſaid river, which makes it an iſland; and that part next the land is ſtocked with great trees: on the hill ſtands one little church which ſerves the Dutch inhabitants; and it is to be preſumed, the Portugueſe, who are pretty numerous, may have a chapel in the town; but travellers do not mention any temple for the reſt of the inhabitants.

There are between two and three hundred families of Dutch, Portugueſe, Chineſe and Moors, and two or three great Armenian merchants in it. The Chineſe have the beſt ſhops, which are filled with the manufactures and produce of their country, and ſuch other goods as there is any demand for there: the houſes in the town are generally built with ſtone, and the ſtreets are wide and ſtrait, but not paved: the native Malays, who inhabit the ſuburbs, live in poor mean cottages, and are kept in great ſubjection by their haughty Dutch maſters; but it is obſerved, they ſtill retain a deſperate ſullenneſs in their looks; and the Malays of the neighbouring provinces have frequently revenged themſelves on the Dutch, for the tyranny and oppreſſion exerciſed on them, and that reſtraint the Hollanders put upon their trade all along the Malayan coaſt by the guard-ſhips, inſomuch that it is very difficult for this people to trade with any but the Dutch.

The city of Malacca is healthful, conſidering the climate, and is neither ſubject to the hot winds of the coaſt of Coromandel, or thoſe chilling ones in Sumatra. It is not a place of any great trade at this day; but as the Dutch are maſters of the ſtreights of Sundy to the ſouth of Sumatra, and this town gives them the command of the ſtreights, which bear the name of Malacca, to the north, while they are in poſſeſſion of this place, they have in a manner engroſſed to themſelves the whole trade of China and Japan.

There are many ſpacious and handſome ſtreets in this city,

city, which are ſhaded with trees on both ſides; the houſes ſtand pretty cloſe to each other, and are built chiefly of bamboos, though ſome of them are of ſtone. The governor's houſe is large and commodious, and is ſituated on the fort, garriſoned by two hundred Europeans. The harbour is one of the beſt and ſafeſt in that part of the globe, and receives veſſels from moſt parts of the Indies. When poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, the city was remarkably opulent, being a grand mart for precious ſtones and gold; and before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their reſidence, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, Siam, Banda, and other countries.

The kingdom of Laos is a rich, plentiful country, but little viſited by Europeans. It is bounded on the north by China; on the eaſt, by Tonquin and Cochin-China; on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Cambodia; and on the weſt by the kingdom of Siam. It is ſuppoſed to extend from the fifteenth to the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude.

The produce of this country is benjamin; that which grows here is eſteemed the beſt in the Indies, and brings a conſiderable revenue to the king, who has prohibited the exportation of it. The gardens alſo produce a great variety of fruit, and they have exellent rice in abundance; alſo great plenty of wax, honey, cotton, amber, and muſk. They have a great number of elephants among them, which makes ivory ſo little valued, that their teeth are uſed for making fences to their fields and gardens: beeves and buffaloes are alſo very numerous here; and the rivers abound with all kinds of fiſh, ſome of which are very large. Gold and ſilver duſt is found in the rivers; and mines of iron, tin, and lead, in ſeveral parts of the country; great quantities of ſalt are alſo produced here, part of which they export to foreign parts: this is formed by a white froth left on the rice-fields after harveſt, which the heat of the ſun hardens.

The inhabitants of Laos, who are called Langians, are affable, ſtrictly honeſt, and ſtrangers to avarice. They are well-ſhaped in general, and, though of an olive complexion, yet are much fairer than their neighbours; the women are very modeſt in their carriage. Their food principally conſiſts of rice, the fleſh of the buffalo, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe. They ſometimes eat fowls, which they dreſs with the feathers on; they kill them by ſtriking them on the head with a ſtick; the ſhedding of blood being conſidered as one of the greateſt crimes. Their employment conſiſts principally in huſbandry and fiſhing; but they are naturally of an indolent diſpoſition.

As the religion, marriage-ceremonies, feſtivals, funerals, cuſtoms, laws, puniſhments, &c. of this people, bear a near reſemblance to thoſe of the Siameſe; we ſhall therefore, for a fuller deſcription of them, refer the reader to our account of Siam; and only add here, that the power of the ſovereign is unlimited, and he is in a manner adored by his ſubjects. His principal officers are ſeven viceroys, who are governors of the ſeven provinces into which the kingdom is divided: he has a militia of horſe and foot, who are maintained at the expence of that province to which they belong. The palace is the moſt diſtinguiſhed edifice in the city, extending, with the offices and other buildings, above two miles in circumference. The architecture is exceeding grand, and the apartments within are furniſhed in the moſt ſumptuous manner: the baſſo-relievo's are very richly gilt. The houſes of the richer ſort are built of wood, and are lofty and handſome; but thoſe of the common people are very low and mean, and chiefly made of dirt and clay. No perſons, except the talapoins, have liberty to build their houſes of brick or ſtone. The houſes of the quality are very elegantly furniſhed: they line the walls with mats beautifully wrought, inſtead of tapeſtry, and ornament them with a great variety of very curious foliage and figures.

The kingdom of Cambodia, or Camboya, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the gulf of Siam, being bounded, on the weſt, by Cochin-China; by the Indian ocean on the ſouth; and by the kingdom of Laos and the Kemois mountains, on the north. It extends from north to ſouth upwards of three hundred miles, and is about two hundred and ten miles in breadth. The ſpacious river Mecon runs through it, and falls by two channels into the ſea. Where it firſt riſes, it is called Longmu; after which, it takes the name of Mecon; and, continuing that name for a conſiderable ſpace, at length changes it to Ochequane. This river has an annual ſwell, which begins in the month of June, and continues till Auguſt, when it generally riſes ſo high, as to overflow the neighbouring countries. It runs the ſame way for ſix months together, owing to the ſoutherly winds, which drive the ſands in ſuch ſhoals, that the bar is entirely ſtopped up, and the current is by that means driven back, till the wind ſhifts and removes the ſands, when the current is reſtored.

This country produces various kinds of grain, particularly rice and corn. Here are alſo great variety of fruit-trees, as oranges, citrons, mangoes, cocoas, &c. alſo ſeveral kinds of wood, as the ſandal, aquila, and japan, ſtick-lack and lack for japanning. Rice is exceedingly plentiful and cheap, as are fleſh and fiſh; theſe laſt are the only articles allowed to be purchaſed without a permit from the king. A fine bullock is frequently purchaſed for a dollar; and the common value of rice is one ſhilling and ſix-pence for one hundred and forty pounds weight. Poultry is very ſcarce; becauſe the few that are bred, retire, when young, to the woods, where they ſhift for themſelves, and the people take no pains to bring them back. Several rich commodities are alſo produced here, particularly gold, cambogia of a gold colour or a deep yellow, in rolls, raw ſilk, and elephants teeth; likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of valuable drugs; alſo amethyſts, garnets, ſapphires, cornelians, chryſolites, and blood-ſtones. Wild elephants and boars are exceedingly numerous here, particularly in the woods; alſo tygers and lions, wild cattle and buffaloes, many horſes, and a prodigious number of deer; all of which every perſon has free liberty to kill for themſelves.

The Cambodians are in general well-ſhaped, and the women very handſome. The men wear a long veſt, which reaches from the ſhoulders to the ancles, but their head and feet are bare. The women wear a thin garment, which ſits quite cloſe to the body and arms; and have a kind of petticoat that reaches from the waiſt to the ancles. Both ſexes have long hair, which they diſplay to the greateſt advantage. Their heads have not any covering; but their hair is dreſſed, and curiouſly decorated. Their religion is the ſame as that of the Siameſe, and they worſhip the ſame deities. They believe that all animals, as well as human beings, will be hereafter rewarded or puniſhed. Their prieſts are choſen from among the laity, and are little reſpected by the people in general; their maintenance and ſupport depends intirely on the benevolence of the public.

In different parts of the country, they have manufactories for making callicoes, muſlins, dimities, and other curious pieces, which are ſuperior in quality to thoſe made in Holland and elſewhere. The poorer ſort of people are employed in making beads, ſmall idols, bracelets, necklaces, &c. They alſo weave ſilk, and work curious tapeſtry, with which the chairs and palanquins of the quality are lined.

Cambodia is the chief city in this kingdom, worth notice; it is ſituated on the river Mecon, and built on a riſing ground, in order to avoid the annual overflowings of the river: it principally conſiſts of one large ſtreet. The palace for the reſidence of the ſovereign is ſituate about the centre of it. It is ſurrounded by a kind of wall, with ramparts, on which are ſeveral pieces of artillery; but it is a very inſignificant edifice. The power of this prince is deſpotic, like that of the other eaſtern monarchs.

Johor is about one hundred leagues long, and eighty broad. It is the next country to the north of Malacca, and is waſhed eaſt and weſt by the ocean: it lies in one degree north latitude. The country, which is woody, abounds with tin, pepper, elephants teeth, gold, aquila-wood, canes, citrons, and lemons; deer, cows, wild boars, and buffaloes, are among the quadrupeds.

The inhabitants of this country are reported to be cruel, treacherous, lazy, and laſcivious. The common people wear only a piece of ſtuff round their waiſt; the females in a ſuperior degree of life wear callico garments faſtened with a ſilken girdle: they paint their nails yellow, and the longer they are, the more genteel. The iſlanders live principally upon ſago, fruits, roots, and poultry, but thoſe who reſide on the coaſt ſubſiſt for the moſt part upon fiſh and rice brought from Cambodia, Siam, and Java. The natives, who are a mixture of Mahometans and Pagans, have prieſts ſent to them from Surat.

Among theſe people there are about one thouſand four hundred Chineſe families, who carry on a conſiderable traffic, and are diſtinguiſhed for their induſtry.

Patana is about ſixty miles long, and lies on the eaſtern coaſt of the gulf of Siam: its port had once a conſiderable traffic with Coromandel, Malabar, Goa, China, Tonquin, and Cambodia: but the traders unhappily finding no reſtriction put upon the commiſſion of piracies and murders, were under a neceſſity of withdrawing their commerce, and turning it into another courſe, highly beneficial to Siam, Malacca, and Batavia.

This country abounds with grain and fruits: here are

Engraved for MILLAR's New Complete & Universal SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY.

New Map of INDOSTAN OR EAST INDIES agreable to the latest Authorities

By T. KITCHIN Geog.r Hydrographer to his MAJESTY

Longitude East from Ferro

Longitude East from London

TIBET or BOUD-TAN

PERSIA

SCINDI

ARABA

MULTAN

DELLI

BANDO

AZMIR

SIAM

RAJAH

SORET

GUZURAT

MALVA

KHANDISH

BEDR

BERAR belonging to

MAHRATTAS DOMINIONS

RAJAHS and POLYGARS

Little known

ROHILLAS

Independant Chiefs

VECBAL

BUTTAN

PURNEA or PURNEE

BRAHMSONG

ASEM

CHAMDARA

GIROWS

KASHAR

TIPERA

CHITTAGONG

INDEPENDENT RAJAHS

MAVA

BAY OF BENGAL

CARNATE

MESSAVR

MALABAR

CORAMANDEL

ORISSA

Gulf of Cambay

Gulf of Scindi

Tropic of Cancer

Channel of Mamala

Gulf of Manar

Channel of Sindal

Coral Bank

Kimey's Bank

Bank of Padua

Head of the Isles

Cape Comorin

ZELOAN or CEYLON I.

Great Andaman

Lit. Andaman

ANDAMAN ISLES

NICOBAR ISLES

Nicobar I.

SUMATRA I.

INDIAN OCEAN

SCALES.

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.

25 50 100 200 350

Marine Leagues 20 to a Degree.

10 20 40 60 80 100

Jeribi, the Great or Measured Cofs 33 to a Degree

20 40 80 120 165

alſo buffaloes, fowls, and ſome very beautiful doves; tygers, monkies, elephants, &c. are ſome of the wild animals in it.

The king has more veſſels than any of the other neighbouring ſovereigns, and can bring eighteen thouſand troops into the field. The Chineſe bring hither a variety of articles in trade, and take conſiderable returns for them.

The natives are remarkable for their ſobriety, and, though proud, are nevertheleſs kind and obliging.

To the ſouth of Patana lies Pahan, on a river of the ſame name, in which there is much gold duſt found. People of fortune reſide in the capital of Pahan, ſituated about one hundred and fifty miles north-eaſt of Malacca: in the ſtreets of the city, which is but ſmall, there is a great number of cocoa and other trees planted, which gives it the appearance of a garden.

The palace of the king of Pahan is a wooden ſtructure, and the other buildings in general are compoſed of ſtraw and reeds.

The foot of Malacca hill is waſhed by the river here, and pepper is planted along its ſides. The adjacent country is low, woody, and well ſtored with game: aquila and calamba wood, coarſe gold, camphire, nutmegs, &c. are alſo produced here.

Pahan is ſaid to be well peopled, and carries on a conſiderable traffic: but the natives are reported to be the moſt arrant cheats in the world: they conſiſt of Pagans and Mahometans.

Next to Pahan is ſituated Trangano. This is a fine healthy country: its hills produce a greater variety of rich fruits, ſuch as oranges, lemons, limes, darians, mangoſtans, mangoes, &c. and the vallies teem with ſugar-canes and corn: gold and paper are likewiſe produced here; but the Chineſe, who reſide in this country, produce the principal part of the two laſt mentioned articles.

The palace where the ſovereign of this country chiefly reſides, ſtands on the banks of a fine river near the ocean.

Pera is a mountainous, woody country, famous for the quantity of tin it produces, there being more found here, than in any part of India. The capital city, which bears the ſame name, lies at the bottom of a bay about one hundred and fifty miles north-weſt of Malacca. There are ſome hideous deſerts in this country, abounding with elephants, tygers, and other wild animals.

The natives of this country are mere barbarians, and very treacherous and deceitful.

Queda is three hundred miles north of Malacca, near the ſtreight, and one hundred and forty miles from Patna: it lies in ninety-nine degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, and ſix degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude. The principal town, which is of the ſame name, contains about eight thouſand inhabitants, and has a good harbour. When a foreign merchant comes here, the king pays him a viſit in perſon, not to compliment him on his arrival, but to receive preſents from him: the preſents, however, are not made, till the viſit is repaid; and then the king honours the merchant with a ſeat near his royal perſon: his majeſty at the ſame time chews betel, and, putting it out of his mouth on a ſmall golden plate, the merchant takes it with great reſpect, and puts it into his own mouth: this is an eſtabliſhed cuſtom, and muſt always be ſtrictly complied with.

Some of the natives of this place are Mahometans, and others Pagans; they are in general very treacherous and cruel in their diſpoſitions.

This country produces tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and damar: they make pitch and tar of the latter, which is of excellent uſe for that purpoſe.

CHAP. V.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

INDOSTAN.

SECT. I.

Of the Name, Situation, Extent and Boundaries, principal Mountains, Seas and Rivers of INDOSTAN, or the MOGUL Empire.

THIS country alone was known by the name of India to the antients, and is by the natives called Mogulſtain, or the empire of the Great Mogul; though the moderns have given the name of India to all thoſe countries which lie between this and China; and Columbus gave the name of India to America, imagining that the country which lay weſt of the Atlantic ocean, extended as far as India, or rather was a part of it; but when this was found to be a miſtake, the name of Eaſt India was given to this country, and that of Weſt India to the other.

India Proper, or Indoſtan, received its name from the river Indus, or from the Hindowns, the moſt antient inhabitants of the country, and is ſituate between ſixty-ſix and ninety-two degrees of eaſt longitude, and between ſeven and forty degrees of north latitude, being bounded by Uſbeck and Thibethian Tartary on the north; by Acham, Ava, and the bay of Bengal on the eaſt; by the Indian ſea on the ſouth; and by the ſame ſea and Perſia on the weſt, being two thouſand miles long and one thouſand five hundred broad in the broadeſt place.

The chief mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus, which divide India from Uſbeck Tartary on the north; thoſe of Naugracut, which divide India from Tartarian Thibet, and the mountains of Gate or Baligate, being a long chain of mountains which run through the middle of India from north to ſouth, ſo high that they ſtop the periodical wind called the weſtern monſoon, and the rains it brings with it, for a month and more, the fair ſeaſon continuing a month longer on the coaſt of Coromandel, or the eaſtern coaſt, than it does on the Malabar or weſtern coaſt.

The chief bays in the Indian ſeas are the bay of Bengal and that of Cambaya or Guzarat. The principal cape is that of Comorin, the moſt ſouthern promontory of India; and the moſt remarkable ſtrait is that between the ſouth of India and the iſland of Ceylon, called Ramanakoiel.

The chief rivers of Indoſtan are, 1. the Ganges, which riſing in mount Caucaſus runs ſouth-eaſt, and dividing into ſeveral branches falls into the bay of Bengal, the moſt eaſterly branch dividing this country from the farther India. This river is in ſuch eſteem among the Indians, that it is worſhipped as a God, and happy is the man that can procure any of its water to drink before he dies: the common paſſage up this river is by the weſtern, or Huegley branch. This river runs a courſe of about three thouſand miles. 2. The Indus, a river as large as the Ganges, and deep enough for ſhips to ride in, did not the bar at the mouth prevent their entrance; it riſes in the mountains of Caucaſus, and runs to the ſouth-weſt, and falls into the Indian ocean by three channels. 3. The Attock (the Hydaſpes of the antients) which riſes in the ſame mountains with the Indus, and running ſouthward, almoſt parallel to it, unites its water with the Indus, towards the mouth, the united ſtream falling into the Indian ſea, in the province of Tata. 4. The Jemmima, which riſing in the north, runs to the ſouthward, by the royal cities of Delly and Agra; and then, turning eaſtward, falls into the Ganges at Halibas. 5. The Guenga, which riſing in the Baligate mountains, runs eaſtward, diſcharging itſelf into the bay of Bengal, or rather into the weſtern branch of the Ganges, near its mouth. 6. The Guenga, which riſing in the Baligate mountains, runs eaſtward, diſcharging into the bay of Bengal, or rather into the weſtern branch of the Ganges, near its mouth. 7. Chriſtina, which riſing in the Baligate mountains, runs firſt to the ſouthward, and then turning about to the eaſt, falls into the bay of Bengal. 8. The river Tapte, which riſing in the Baligate mountains, runs weſt, and falls into the bay of Cambaya at Surat. There are many other ſmall rivers, and innumerable torrents in the time of the rains, which fall from the Baligate mountains into the ſeas, on the eaſt and weſt of the peninſula, but in the fair ſeaſon moſt of them are dried up.

In the north-eaſt diviſion of India is contained the province of Bengal, as well as Jeſuat, Naugracut, Patna, Necbol, Gor, and Rotas. The north-weſt diviſion extends to the frontiers of Perſia, and contains the provinces of Soret, Jeſſelmere, Sinda, Tatna, Buknor, Maltan, Hercan, and Cabul. Theſe are all ſituated on the river Indus. The ſouth-eaſt coaſt, or coaſt of Coromandel, contains Orixa, Golconda, the eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or the Carnatic, Madura and Tanjore, Aſme, Jengapour, Caſſimere, Hendowns, Lahor, Agra, Dehli Gualler, Narvar, Catipor, Chitor, Berar, and Landiſh, are ſituated in the center diviſion. The ſouth-weſt coaſt contains Biſnagar or the Carnatic, Guzarat, and Decan.

The winds are periodical, and return to certain points at ſtated times, as in moſt countries within the tropics. The monſoons, out at ſea, blow ſix months one way and ſix months another; namely, from April to October, or thereabouts, they blow from the ſouth-weſt, and from October to April from the north-eaſt, not exactly from thoſe points, but varying ſometimes a point or two on either ſide. At the breaking up of either of theſe monſoons (a little before they ſhift) there are uſually prodigious ſtorms of wind, ſuch as we do not experience in this part of the world once in a great many years. The ſhifting of the monſoons, and conſequently this ſtormy weather, does not come exactly at the ſame time every year but ſometimes a fortnight or three weeks ſooner, and at others a fortnight or three weeks later than the uſual time, which frequently occaſions the loſs of ſhipping; for the merchants, for the ſake of a trifling gain, will remain upon the coaſts in hopes that the ſtorms will keep off a little longer, till the wind grows too ſtrong for them, and they find it impoſſible to bear up againſt it.

Beſides the monſoons, there are two other different winds; 1. The general trade wind. 2. The ſea and land-breezes. The general trade winds, which prevail between the latitudes of thirty degrees north, and thirty degrees ſouth, always blow from the eaſtward to the weſtward over the whole face of the globe; only on the north of the equator they blow, from the north of the eaſt, and ſouth of the equator; and ſouth of the equator, from the ſouth of the eaſt, except within two or three degrees of the equator, and here the winds are variable, and ſometimes we meet with calms near the equator; but we muſt except the winds upon ſeveral coaſts, as upon the coaſt of Guiney, where the wind ſets generally from weſt to eaſt; and upon the coaſt of Peru, where it ſets from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt; but the conſtant trade wind from eaſt-to weſt prevails five hundred miles from land.

The ſea and land-breezes are alſo periodical, changing every twelve hours. The winds blow from the land in the peninſula of the India Proper from about midnight to noon next day, when that wind dies away, and a refreſhing breeze blows from the ſea till late in the evening: it is not more than two months in each year generally that the hot winds are very troubleſome, namely, in April and May, and they do not begin to be very hot till eight or nine in the morning; for the ſun riſing between the tropics uſually about ſix, the ſands are not much heated by it till two or three hours after it is up, and it is the reflection of the heat from the parched country that is the principal occaſion of the hot winds; and there are ſeveral ways of moderating theſe, as by hanging up wet cloaths againſt the wind, and throwing water upon the floors; the people alſo draw water out of their wells, which ſeems colder than well water here; this their ſlaves pour upon their heads to cool them: but the rainy ſeaſon no ſooner returns in June, than the air grows cool, the clouds intercept the ſun, and the country is overflowed. The rainy ſeaſon uſually laſts on the coaſt of Coromandel, being the eaſtern ſide of India, four months, namely, from June to the latter end of October. They do not always begin and end exactly at the ſame time, but ſeldom differ a month. The rains are not very violent at firſt, and there are frequent intervals of fair weather; they decreaſe again by degrees. The heavieſt rains in India are in Auguſt and September, then it rains almoſt perpetually, inſomuch that all the flat country is overflowed, and they have terrible thunder every evening. In the fair ſeaſon they have lightning frequently, without thunder, but this does no hurt. After the rainy ſeaſon they have a bright, ſerene heaven for four or five months, when the ſtars ſhine with ſuch a luſtre, that people eaſily ſee to travel by their light. It is a rule here, and in all other countries between the tropics, that they have the faireſt weather when the ſun is at the greateſt diſtance from them, and the wurſt weather when the ſun is vertical.

This part of the country is generally healthful, and the natives live to as great an age as they do in any part of the world, which may be in part aſcribed to the air, but more to the innocent food and liquors the Indians eat and drink: foreigners, it muſt be admitted, do not find it ſo healthful, eſpecially at their firſt arrival there; and in ſome parts of the country, where our factories happen to lie; particularly at Bombay and Bengal. As to Bombay, it was ſituated on a moraſs, and near the ſea, where noiſome vapours, aſcending from the ſalt ooze and mud, almoſt poiſoned the people that were obliged to reſide there; and this was the caſe at Huegley, on the river Ganges; and ſuch ſituations are unhealthful every where. But Bombay has been drained, and much improved, and is not that unhealthful ſituation it was formerly; and the Engliſh factory is now removed from Huegley to Fort William in Bengal; where, I am informed, the air agrees much better with our people. But it muſt be acknowledged, however, that few foreigners arrive in India, but have a ſeaſoning the year: thoſe that cannot afford good liquors, often fall ſick of the bloody flux; and gentlemen that drink hard, are ſubject to fevers. We certainly loſe ſome men the firſt year; but afterwards there are as few complaints heard of, in regard to health, as there are in England. It muſt be owned, however, that, let people be ever ſo regular and abſtemious, neither the water or the air do agree with them at their firſt coming on ſhore; ſome therefore never drink water, till it has been firſt boiled and ſettled.

SECT. II.

Deſcribing the Situation of the ſeveral Provinces and chief Towns of INDOSTAN, and alſo the Settlements belonging to the ENGLISH, FRENCH, DANES, &c.

HAVING before given a conciſe account of the ſeveral provinces of Indoſtan, by diſtinguiſhing them into the north-eaſt, north-weſt, ſouth-eaſt, and ſouth-weſt diviſions, we ſhall under this head, in order to enable our readers to form a more clear and diſtinct conception of them, and alſo of their capital cities, and the ſeveral towns belonging to them, throw this extenſive empire into three grand diviſions. viz. 1. Thoſe provinces which lie north of the tropic of Cancer. 2. Thoſe that lie under the tropic; or partly north, and partly ſouth of it. And, 3. Thoſe that lie altogether ſouth of the tropic, in the hither peninſula. We ſhall begin with thoſe that lie north of the tropic, of which,

1. Cabul, Caſſimere, and Gor, or Gourite, are the moſt northerly, and their capitals of the ſame name: ſouth of theſe lie Haican, Attock, Pencab, Bankiſh, and Naugracut. The chief town of Attock, alſo, is of the ſame name. The chief town of Pencab, is Temara. The chief town of Bankiſh, is Beiſar; and the chief town of Naugracut, is of the ſame name. The provinces, ſouth of thoſe laſt enumerated, are Multan, Lahor, Jangapour, and Jamba; the capitals whereof are of the ſame name. The provinces further ſouth are, Buckor, the Hindowns country, Delly, Sambal, Mevat, and Patan. The provinces ſouth of the laſt, are, Tata, or Sinda, Jeſſelmere, Aſmer, or Bando, Agra, Gualaor, Halabas, Patna, Jeſuat, and Rajapour; the capitals whereof bear the ſame name as the reſpective provinces do. The provinces ſouth of the former, are Soret, Narvar, and Rotas. The capital of Soret, is Jaganat; of Narvar, is Narvar; and the capital of Rotas is Rotas.

2. The provinces which lie under and about the tropic, are, Guzurat, or Cambaya, Chitor, Malva, and Bengal. The chief towns of Cambaya, are Amadabad, Daman, Surat, Swalley, Barock, and Diu. The capital of Chitor is Chitor. And the chief towns in Bengal are Chatigan, Fort William, Calicuta, Huegley, Daca and Malaa, Rajamahal and Caſſambazar.

3. The provinces which lie ſouth of the tropic are, Candich, Bezar, and Orixa. The chief town of Candich is Medapour. The chief town of Bezar is Brampour. The chief towns of Orixa are, Orixa, Baliſore, and Pipley. The provinces ſouth of the former are, 1. Decan and Viſiapour (in which I include Balagate and Balana). 2. Golconda. The chief towns in Decan are, Carwar, Goa, Rajapour, Dabal, Dundee, Shoule, Bombay, Salſette, and Baſſaim. The chief towns of Balagate, are Doltabad and Auranggabad. The chief towns of Golconda, within land, are, Golconda, Bagnagar, Gain, or Conlar, Raalconda. The port towns of Golconda

will be enumerated in treating of the coaſt of Coromandel. The provinces which lie ſouth of Decan and Golconda, are Biſnagar, Tanjour, and Madura: the chief towns which give name to the three provinces, and lie within land. The ports are Tranquebar, Negapatam, Cultimere, and Tutawrin, on the eaſtern coaſt, and Tegapatan, Anjengo, Cochin, Calicut, Tellicherry, Cananor, Manguclore, and Baſſiloſe, on the weſt or Malabar coaſt.

In our deſcription of the principal cities and towns, we ſhall begin with Dehli, or Delly, which is eſteemed the metropolis of the empire, and is ſituate in the heart of it, in ſeventy-eight degrees eaſt longitude from London, and in twenty-ſix degrees north latitude. It ſtands in the form of a creſcent, on the river Jemma, which divides it, being about ten miles in circumference. There are two long ſpacious ſtreets which croſs each other, and centre in a grand ſquare in the middle of the town, on one ſide whereof ſtands the palace, fortified like a caſtle, before which, and in the firſt court of the palace, the guards are drawn up and relieved, as is mentioned in treating of the palace of Agra: to the durbar, or court before the royal apartment, the people come at the time the mogul gives audience to his ſubjects. In this court are three diviſions, the outermoſt being aſſigned to the inferior people, who reſort hither with their petitions to the ſovereign. The next diviſion has a raiſed floor, where people of better quality wait, and upon a floor raiſed ſomething higher, the omrahs, and thoſe of the firſt quality are ſtationed; when the muſic plays, the emperor approaches, and places himſelf on a magnificent throne, covered almoſt with diamonds, which is ſet in a gallery ſomething higher than the ſtage on which the omrahs are placed. Here the mogul receives petitions from all his ſubjects, and hears cauſes ſeveral hours every day, at leaſt ſome princes have done this: but there have been indolent princes alſo too much addicted to pleaſure to trouble themſelves about redreſſing their ſubjects grievances: in this city, Kouli Kan kept the mogul and his nobility priſoners, till he had extorted from them all the wealth they had, or could procure, amaſſing together the greateſt treaſure, eſpecially in diamonds, that ever any conqueror made himſelf maſter of; which we have taken particular notice of, in our account of Perſia.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed public buildings, beſides the palace, are a grand moſque or Mahometan temple, covered with ſeveral extenſive marble domes, and a caravanſera built by a mogul princeſs for the entertainment of travellers; the tomb of Amayum the great mogul, near which is a ſtone pyramid, ſaid to be erected by Alexander, on the victory he obtained over Porus, the moſt formidable of all the Indian princes he ſubdued.

Their ſaras, or caravanſeras, which ſerve them inſtead of inns for the entertainment of travellers upon the road, are built much in the ſame manner their ſhades are before their houſes, being open on one ſide, and no doors to ſecure them from wild beaſts or robbers; near theſe places is uſually a tanque, or large reſervatory of water, and ſeveral of theſe reſervatories of water they have in every great town, which are filled in the rainy ſeaſon, and ſerve the inhabitants for ſeven or eight months, till the rains return again. They have alſo very large walls encloſed with brick, and are at a prodigious expence in their wells and reſervatories, though they are at ſo little in their houſes. Some of their tanques are above a mile in circumference, and lined with ſquare free-ſtone, with ſteps down to the bottom, on every ſide: in the middle there is often a ſummer-houſe of ſtone, ſurrounded with galleries, from whence you may deſcend by ſtone ſteps into the water, and they are ſo contrived that ſeveral perſons may bathe themſelves at one time, with the greateſt privacy; and there are few people of quality but have their private baths in their gardens. The wives and daughters of inferior people, who have not baths, pour water upon their heads two or three times a day, for half an hour together, and it is one great part of their buſineſs to fetch water morning and evening from the common wells, upon their heads, in great round earthen pots.

The poorer ſort of people have houſes built with clay, and thatched, but they have convenient courts and gardens. There are, beſides theſe, great numbers of ſmall cottages built of clay and ſtraw, which are chiefly occupied by thoſe who deal in proviſions. They are ſo numerous and cloſe together, that fires often break out, and deſtroy much property and many lives.

Their temples, or pagodas, are many of them very magnificent ſtructures, built of ſtone, with lofty ſpires, and a variety of figures carved on the out-ſide as well as within; but the inſide is very diſmal, only one long dark room without windows, extremely hot of itſelf; but as there are a multitude of lamps always burning before their images, the place is ſo ſuffocating that a man is glad to retire, let his curioſity be never ſo great: but there are a great many other little pagadas in the country, open before, which are but juſt big enough to hold the image; and here the people generally ſacrifice, and perform their devotions. The figures, both in one and the other, are very ſhocking and monſtrous, which have occaſioned our people in general to denominate them devils; we ſee perhaps the head of a hog, the body of a man, and the lower part of a lion, in one figure; in another a man with fourteen or fifteen heads, and twice the number of arms, and theſe they believe repreſent a race of people who lived formerly on the earth, and are now a kind of inferior deities or mediators for them in heaven, which is very far from the notion we entertain of devils: but we ſhall enlarge upon this ſubject, when we come to treat of their religion.

The only places worth mentioning are the cities of Dehli and Agra, which are ſituated in the inland provinces of Indoſtan, that bear the ſame name.

Dehli, or Delly, is capital of the province, and in the heart of the empire: it is in ſeventy-eight degrees eaſt longitude from London, and in twenty-ſix degrees north latitude. It ſtands in the form of a creſcent, on the river Gomma, which divides it; and is diſtinguiſhed into three towns, lying within about one hundred and twenty miles north of Legra, in a fine plentiful country, where the air is more cool and ſalubrious than at Agra. The firſt town that was built is ſaid to have had nine caſtles and fifty-two gates. At ſome diſtance is a ſtone bridge, and a delightful plantation of trees, leading to the ſecond town, which was taken from the Indians by the firſt mogul conqueror. This was adorned and enriched by ſeveral magnificent ſepulchres as well as other ſtately monuments, of the Patan princes, which were all demoliſhed by Shah Jchan, father of Aurengzebe; but the latter rebuilt the town, and called it Johanor the city of king Jchan, Abad, transferring the ſeat of the empire hither from Agra, where the heat in the ſummer was too violent. The third town, which was erected cloſe to the ſecond, and formed out of its ruins, was called Dehli by the Indians, inſtead of Jchan Abad, the foundation of which was ſaid to have been laid in blood, as the throats of malefactors were cut, by Jchan's order, "the better (ſaid he) to cement the ſtones:" he ſpared no expence whatever to beautify and adorn the gardens, belonging to the royal palace, which was formed after an Italian model, by an ingenious Venetian.

Dehli is entered by a long ſtreet, with arches on each ſide of it, under which are the ſhops of the tradeſmen. This ſtreet leads ſtrictly to the palace, at the entrance of which are two figures of elephants, on whoſe backs ride two famous rajahs, that repreſent two brothers who loſt their lives in bravely defending certain towns laid ſiege to by Eckbar. The palace wall, which is of hewn ſtones with battlements, every tenth of which has a tower, is not much leſs than two miles in circumference. The ditches encompaſſing the wall are likewiſe faced with hewn ſtone, and are full of water.

The great lords and other grandees enter into the firſt court of the palace mounted on elephants, richly capariſoned. This court has an avenue to a paſſage adorned with brilliant porticoes, underneath which are ſmall apartments for the accommodation of the guards. On each ſide of the paſſage are apartments for ladies, and the halls of juſtice. There is in the centre a fine coral, formed elegantly, at proper diſtances, into leſſer baſons. This grand paſſage leads to a ſecond court, where the omrahs are ſeen mounting guard in perſon. On entering a third court the divan is ſeen in full view; and here the emperor gives audience. This ſtructure which is open on all ſides, and arched at top, is ſupported by about thirty marble pillars, moſt beautifully painted with flowers. It has a grand hall, aſcended by a flight of marble ſteps; and in the centre of this hall is a ſort of alcove, richly ornamented, in which the emperor is ſeated on a ſplendid throne which glitters with diamonds and coſtly jewels.

The city of Dehli has very few mechanics in it, which is not owing to the want of ſkill in the people, but from the ill treatment of the omrahs, who, if they can meet with them, oblige them to work, for which they reward them according to their own diſcretion. The rajahs, and many others of the principal inhabitants, are exceeding wealthy; their moſt eſtimable poſſeſſions are jewels, which they take particular care ſhall be faithfully tranſmitted to their heirs.

Timur, after many revolutions that had happened at Dehli, was placed on the imperial throne in the year 1757.

Agra, the capital of the province of that name, is ſituate in twenty-ſeven degrees odd minutes of northern latitude, and is about ſeven hundred miles north-eaſt of Surat, which journey the caravans uſually perform in thirty-five days; this was but an inconſiderable place, till about one hundred and fifty years ago, when the Mogul Ecbar new built it, and called it after his own name, Ecbarabad. It lies upon the river Jemma, in the midſt of a barren ſandy plain, which adds conſiderably to the heat of the climate: the town itſelf is ſeven or eight miles in length, but not near ſo much in breadth, it is not fortified (except the palace) but there always lies a great army in the place, eſpecially if the mogul be there.

The buildings of the omrahs and great men are of ſtone, and very magnificent, they ſtand upon the banks of the river Jemma, and have large gardens adjoining to them; the reſt of the houſes are but mean, however, the great number of Mahometan moſques, caravanſeras, large ſquares, baths and reſervatories of water, intermixed with trees and gardens, and the river Jemma running the whole length of it, renders the proſpect of the town very agreeable; and the mogul's palace is looked upon to be one of the fineſt pieces of architecture in the eaſt.

There is a large plain between the town and palace; here the rajahs draw up their raſhboots when they mount the mogul's guard, as they do in their turns every week, with fifteen or twenty thouſand men; the palace or mahal, as it is called in the language of the country, lies in the form of a creſcent upon the river Jemma, but from the town appears to be of a round figure: it is three or four miles in circumference, and fortified with a high ſtone wall, mounted with artillery; the mahal may be ſeen at a great diſtance, and as the ſtones it is built with are red, and have a luſtre like poliſhed marble, nothing can look more brilliant than it does when the ſun ſhines; it is ſurrounded with a deep broad moat, over which are drawbridges, and the terraſſes of the gardens ſerve for a rampart.

There is a fine broad ſtone walk, with canals running on the ſide of it, within the firſt gate of the palace, beyond which is a large ſquare, where the Mahometan guards draw up; here the omrahs their generals pitch their tents, ſo that one paſſes through two armies, one on the out-ſide, and the other within the palace, before we come to the royal apartments; beyond this ſquare is another court, where the mogul's muſic, as it is called, ſounds every morning, noon and night, and whenever he goes abroad: this is a compliment inferior governors and magiſtrates have paid them in all the towns in India, though ſurely nothing can be more harſh or diſagreeable, than ſuch a number of large brazen trumpets, and ill-ſounding drums, to thoſe who have ever heard other muſic. Our European governors, therefore, though they will not diſpenſe with this piece of ſtate, yet generally order them to be placed at a convenient diſtance. From this court where the muſic ſtands, we come to the durbar, which is another large court, whither all people reſort at the time of audience; this is divided by rails or baluſtrades, into three parts, at the outward rail ſtand the common people; without the next, which is raiſed on a platform ſomething higher, thoſe of better quality; and within the third, upon a platform or ſtage ſtill more elevated, ſtand the omrahs and great lords of the court: in this manner, all attend the approach of the mogul at the time of audience, who, upon the playing of the muſic, appears in a kind of gallery, above the place where the omrahs are, and ſeats himſelf upon a glorious throne, covered with precious ſtones of an ineſtimable value. Here the emperor receives petitions from all his ſubjects, and ſpends ſeveral hours every day in hearing cauſes.

In 1638, there were ſeventy moſques in this city; and pilgrimages were at this time made to a famous moſque in which there is a ſepulchre of a ſaint, thirty feet long, and near ſixteen broad. It alſo contains eight hundred purifying baths, and near it ſtands that grand piece of architecture the mauſoleum, in building which, twenty thouſand men were employed twenty-two years.

When a man is purſued, in order to be puniſhed for any particular crime he has committed, he flies directly to a moſque, and there finds a certain ſhelter; nor can the emperor himſelf hurt him, after he has taken refuge within its ſacred walls; for the attempt to puniſh, in this caſe, would be a direct violation of that profound reſpect and reverence due to ſuch as have the title of ſaints.

Moſt of the inhabitants of Agra are Mahometans and Pagans. The city in general has but little to boaſt of with regard to commerce; but flouriſhes when honoured with a viſit from the great mogul.

There is a very formidable nation called the Scheiks, on the north of Indoſtan, who can bring ſixty thouſand cavalry into the field. They poſſeſs the whole province of Punjal, the greateſt part of the Moultan, and the Sindi, together with all the country towards Dehli, from Lahor to Serhend. Theſe people have found means to free themſelves from the chains of deſpotiſm, though encompaſſed by nations of ſlaves. During the calamities of the Mogul empire, their number increaſed conſiderably by refugees from different nations. Such is their love of freedom, that nothing more is required, in order to be admitted among them, than to ſwear an utter abhorrence of monarchy. It is affirmed they have a temple with an altar, on which ſtands their code of laws, and next to it a ſceptre and a dagger.

Caſſimere, or Caſhimire, capital of the province of that name, is ſituate in ſeventy-five degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-five degrees of north latitude, on a lake four hundred miles north-weſt of Dehli. The air being more temperate here than in any province of India, the country abounds in corn and fruits, and affords the moſt delightful proſpects imaginable, from whence it is called the paradiſe of India; hither ſeveral of the moguls have retired with their courts in the hot ſeaſon. It is well defended againſt the incurſions of an enemy by the mountains which ſurround it, from whence deſcend a multitude of ſmall rivulets into a fruitful plain, in which moſt of the towns of this province are ſituate.

The natives, who are Mahometans, are induſtrious, lively, ſenſible, and ingenious; they are of European complexion; and the women, who are diſtinguiſhed for their perſonal accompliſhments, are purchaſed by the omrahs on that account.

Lahor ſtands about three hundred miles north-weſt of Dehli, and eight hundred miles north of Surat, in thirty-two degrees north latitude; and here ends that grand avenue or walk of trees, upwards of five hundred miles in length, extending from Agra to this city: Lahor was built by Amayum, who made it the capital of his empire: it is ſtill a large city, though the court be removed to Dehli; and here are ſtill to be ſeen the ruins of ſeveral palaces, moſques, and reſervoirs, which diſcover the magnificence of the mogul princes who reſided here. We ſhall now attend to the chief places on the weſt of India.

The province of Sindy, ſituate on the river Sind, is a very fruitful country. Here is a great plenty of cattle of all ſorts, and numbers of tame and wild fowl. The province abounds in wheat, rice, and pulſe, nor have they ever a dearth, the Indus overflowing all the low ground in April, May, and June, and leaving a fat ſlime that enriches the earth. This country produces ſaltpetre, ſal-ammoniac, borax, lapis-lazuli, lapis-tutiæ, aſſa-fœtida, lignum-dulce, bezoar, opoponax, and raw ſilk. The natives manufacture both ſilk and cotton, as well as chintz, and very handſome counterpanes. They make alſo fine cabinets, lacquered and inlaid with ivory. They export a great deal of butter, which is put in duppas or jars, containing from five to two hundred pounds weight.

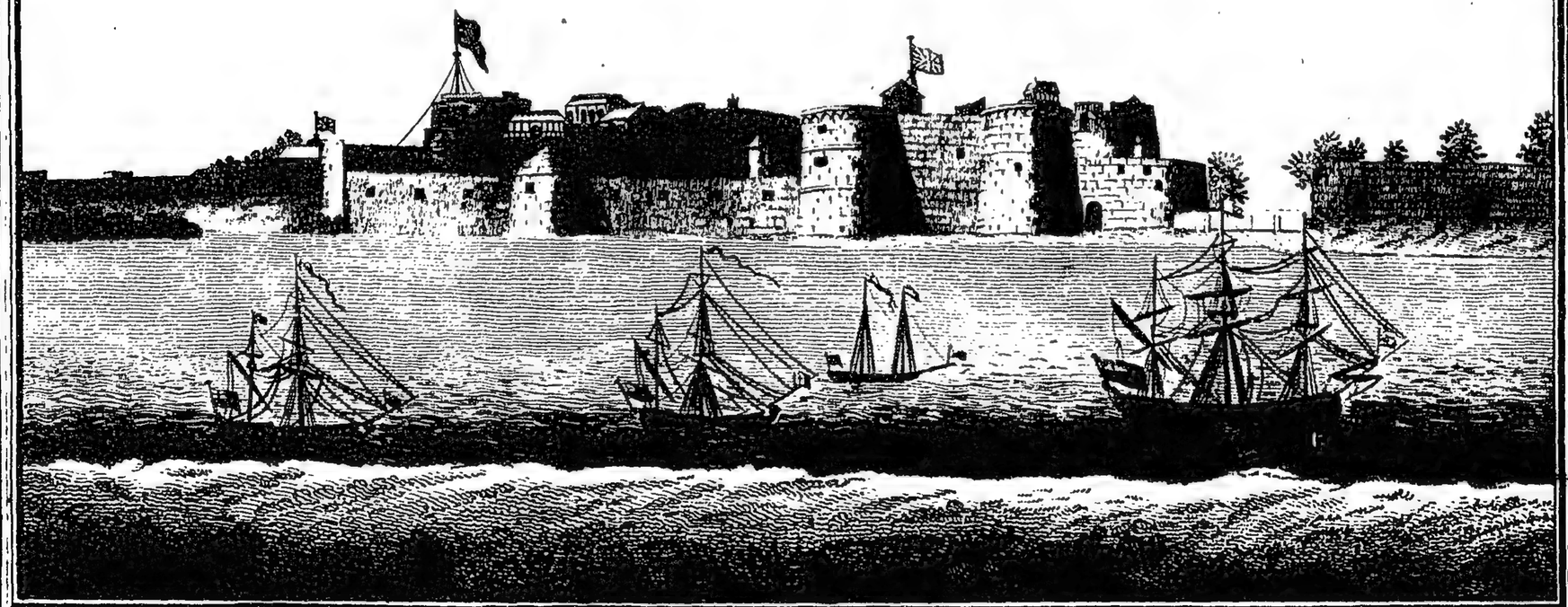
The quota of forces furniſhed from hence to the mogul, is, four thouſand horſe, and eight thouſand foot. The eſtabliſhed religion of the people is Mahometiſm; but the Gentoos are ten to one more numerous than the Mahometans.

There is a particular kind of feſtival celebrated here, called the feaſt of Wooly, when both ſexes meet, and dance to the ſound of pipes, drums, and cymbals. The men ſquirt oil at each other, and the women diſtribute ſweetmeats.

The capital city of this province is Tatta, ſituated in a large plain; it is about three miles in length, and about one and a half in breadth. Here is a citadel, and alſo a palace for the nabob. The citizens are celebrated for making very handſome palanquins. At a ſmall diſtance from the city are ſeveral very large and magnificent tombs, which contain the remains of ſome of the antient monarchs of Sindy. The largeſt, which is in the form of a cupola, is about thirty feet in height, and twenty-one diameter. It conſiſts of the moſt beautiful variegated porphyry, poliſhed in the moſt exquiſite manner. The citadel, which ſtands at the weſt end of the town, has barracks and ſtables, capable of accommodating between twenty and thirty thouſand men and horſe.

The province of Guzarat, or Cambaya lies to the ſouth of Sindy: it is rendered a peninſula by the bay of Cambaya, on the ſouth-eaſt, and Sindy bay on the north-weſt. It extends about three hundred miles from north to ſouth, and about four hundred miles from eaſt to weſt.

Amadabad



A PROSPECT *of the Castle of* SURAT, *a great City of* INDOSTAN, *commonly called the Mogul Empire in* INDIA.

Amadabad is the chief city of the province of Cambaya; it is ſituate about one hundred and forty miles to the northward of Surat, in twenty-three degrees north latitude, and ſeventy-two eaſt longitude from London: it is the moſt noted inland town of the Mogul empire. It ſtands on a moſt delightful plain, watered by a little river called Sebremetty. It is ſurrounded by a wall of brick and ſtone, flanked with round towers, forty feet high, and has twelve gates. The town, including its ſuburbs, is about four miles in length; the ſtreets are generally wide, but the principal ſtreet is not more than thirty paces over. The meidan-hah, or king's ſquare, is ſeven hundred paces long, and four hundred broad; and has trees planted on every ſide. On the weſt ſide of this ſquare is the caſtle, and the great caravanſera for lodging ſtrangers ſtands on the ſouth; and there are ſeveral other buildings in it, where the catoual adminiſters juſtice. Near the meidan alſo ſtands one of the mogul's palaces; over the gate is a large balcony, where the country muſic and trumpets ſtand and play morning, noon, and in the evening: the Engliſh factory is in the middle of the town, and the Dutch have another in the great ſtreet, and their warehouſes are uſually filled with rich Indian goods.

In this city, there are a great many moſques, or Mahometan temples, but that called juma meſgid, or the Friday's moſque, whither moſt people reſort on that day, is the nobleſt; it is aſcended by ſeveral large ſteps, and before it is a ſquare cloiſter, of one hundred and forty paces in length, and one hundred and twenty in breadth, adorned with twelve domes, and an open paved ſquare in the middle of it. In the front of the temple are three large arches, and on the ſides two great doors which open into it, over which are very high ſteeples, from whence they call the people to their devotions. The chief dome is ſurrounded with ſeveral other ſmall ones, and two minorets or ſpires. The whole pile is ſupported by forty-four pillars, ſtanding in two rows, and the pavement is of marble. There are abundance of pagodas, or idol temples alſo in Amadabad, but the fineſt of them Aurengzebe converted into a moſque, at which ceremony he ordered a cow to be killed in the temple, being aſſured that the gentiles would never enter it again after it was ſo polluted; and he ordered all the figures of men and beaſts to be defaced, ſo that it has loſt much of its original beauty.

The city is ſo intermixed with groves and gardens, that at a diſtance it looks like a foreſt. The king's garden, which lies without the walls by the river ſide, is filled with all the fruits of India. It conſiſts indeed of ſeveral gardens thrown into the form of an amphitheatre, riſing gradually one above another: and on the higheſt is a terraſs, from whence there is a proſpect of the country villages for ſeveral miles: four or five miles from Amadabad is the village of Serqueech, where are the tombs of the former kings of Guzarat; they are large ſquare buildings with three great arches in each front, and over them a great many leſſer. There is a magnificent dome in the middle, and ſeveral little ones on the ſides of it; and the tomb is always directly under the largeſt dome.

Sick and lame beaſts and birds had formerly hoſpitals provided for them in this city, by the compaſſionate Indians; who imagining the ſouls of their relations or anceſtors might be removed into theſe animals, thought it the greateſt act of charity to adminiſter to their neceſſities: they purchaſed infirm wounded animals frequently of the Chriſtians and Moors, to deliver them from the cruelty of the infidels, as they termed them: and theſe creatures remained in the hoſpital till they died, if they could not be cured; but if they recovered, they were ſold to ſome of their own perſuaſion, that they might not be abuſed again.

The city of Cambaya is about two leagues in circumference, and has very extenſive ſuburbs, excluſive of fine gardens; the ſtreets are ſpacious, and the houſes well built with brick. It is ſituated in twenty-three degrees north latitude, at the bottom of a gulf of the ſame name. The Engliſh and Dutch have factories here, though great part of the trade is removed to Surat; on which account the city is but thinly inhabited. It is ſurrounded by a brick wall, and has ſeveral ſepulchres, beſides a ſtately caſtle for the nabob.

There are great numbers of monkies here, which are very miſchievous, but the Banian inhabitants ſhew a particular indulgence to them. Peacocks are alſo very numerous, which the natives catch after the bird has retired to reſt: the fleſh of the young ones is white, and in taſte reſembles that of a turkey.

The tide in the bay of Cambaya runs with ſuch amazing rapidity, that it is ſaid to exceed the pace of the ſwifteſt animal.

Surat is in the latitude of twenty-one degrees thirty minutes north latitude, longitude ſeventy-two from the meridian of London. It ſtands on the river Tapte, about ten miles diſtant from the ſea; and the town winding with the river, is almoſt in the form of a creſcent. It is defended by a wall and towers, and has a ſquare caſtle; with a tower at each angle on the ſouth-weſt part of it, which commands both the river and the avenues to the town by land. The river runs on one ſide of the caſtle, and there is a moat on the other. The city is between two and three Engliſh miles in circumference, and has ſix or ſeven gates, at which centinels are placed, who require a ſtrict account of ſuch people as paſs them, if they have any ſuſpicion of them. The ſtreets are moſt of them narrow, and the houſes generally low and mean, the ſides being ſplintered with ſplit cane, and the roofs thatched with cajan or palm leaves; but the Europeans, and ſome of the rich Moors have more lofty houſes, built with brick or ſtone, and covered with tiles. The floors, both of the upper and ground rooms, are of terras, which is looked upon to be cooler than boards; and they have no glazing to their windows that the air may have a free paſſage. The city is very populous, being ſuppoſed to contain about two hundred thouſand inhabitants; and the bazar or market-place thronged with Banians and other merchants, who ſtand with their ſilks or ſtuffs upon their heads, or in their hands, to expoſe them to ſale. In the middle of the city, before the caſtle, is a large open place called Caſtle-green, from the neighbourhood of the caſtle; where are laid all ſorts of goods in the open air, both day and night, except during the monſoons; and here the Europeans as well as natives place their bales, and prepare to load their ſhips.

Before the Engliſh Eaſt India company became poſſeſſed of Bombay, the preſident and council managed their affairs at Surat, where a factory, which had been eſtabliſhed there, was ſtill contrived, after the preſidency was removed to Bombay. This factory had received many very valuable immunities from the Mogul government: and Perſians, Moguls, Indians, Arabs, Armenians, Jews, and Europeans, all reſorted to Surat, where money was eaſily obtained, and bills of exchange were to be had for every market in India. Bags of money, ticketed and ſealed, would circulate for years, without being weighed; ſuch was the honeſty of the traders. Fortunes were proportionable to the eaſe and readineſs with which they were to be acquired by commerce: they frequently amounted to two hundred thouſand pounds. Many of the Gentoo inhabitants enjoy places under the Mooriſh government, ſuch as collectors, ſurveyors of the cuſtoms, &c.

In hot weather, the chief inhabitants retire into the country; and the Engliſh Eaſt India company have a very pleaſant garden, kept in the moſt regular order.

At this place there is great plenty of proviſions of all kinds: the ſoil of the country is extremely fertile, and produces the fineſt wheat in India. Here is alſo abundance of wild fowl, great numbers of antelopes and ſome deer.

All religions are tolerated here by the Moors, who have the government intirely in their hands. When they take an European into their ſervice, they never attempt to make him a proſelyte, nor do they make the leaſt enquiry about his religion.

In 1664 Surat was plundered by Rajah Sevagi, who took from thence one million two hundred thouſand pounds. The pillage would have been much more conſiderable, had not the Engliſh and Dutch avoided the depredation, by placing their richeſt commodities in the caſtle, which was out of the rajah's reach; they had, beſides, well fortified their factories; ſo that the invader thought proper to retire, without attempting to attack the place. After the above great loſs, the inhabitants, for their better ſecurity, built walls round the city of Surat, which is at this time in a flouriſhing condition.

A conſiderable part of the produce of the manufactures of Guzarat, which are depoſited in warehouſes, is carried into the inland countries, and the reſt to all parts of the globe. Thoſe moſt commonly known are, blue linens, white linens, blue and white checks, printed callicoes, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, gauzes, ſhauls, and dutties. Surat receives, in exchange for her exports, great quantities of ſpices from the Dutch; iron, lead, cloth, cochineal, and hard wares from the Engliſh; ſilk from Bengal and Perſia; from Malabar, maſts and pepper; from Arabia, ſlaves and perfumes; from China, teas, ſugars, camphire, quickſilver, and toys; and gums, dried fruits, pearls and copper from Perſia.

The manufacturers here have generally their work be-

ſpoke by the wholeſale merchants, and this being the only ſea-port of any importance in the mogul's dominions that the Europeans do not poſſeſs, the inland trade employs great numbers of caravans for the diſtribution of the articles imported; and a continual intercourſe is preſerved from hence to Bombay, both by ſea and land.

The governor of Surat, who, in the adminiſtration of public juſtice, attends perſonally in the durbar, preſides with great ſtate, and decides on all actions of a civil and criminal nature.

Biſnagar, properly ſo called, is the weſtern ſide of the kingdom of that name, and has Golconda and Viſapour on the north, Coromandel on the eaſt, Gingy on the ſouth, and the mountains of Gate, which ſeparate it from Malabar, on the weſt. The chief towns are, 1. Biſnagar, or Chandegry, ſeated on a high hill in the latitude of fourteen degrees, ſome odd minutes, near the river Nagundi, which falls into the Chriſtena. 2. Narſigna, another conſiderable town, which did alſo give name to the kingdom formerly, lies about thirty miles farther to the northward, upon the ſame river Nagundi. Many incredible things are related by modern writers of theſe two cities, and particularly that Biſnagar alone is able to raiſe a hundred thouſand horſe, when there is hardly a horſe fit for ſervice in the country; and the kingdom has for a conſiderable time been a province of the mogul's empire. They alſo tell us it is an excellent haven for ſhips, though it ſtands in the very heart of the country. No Europeans have the privilege of eſtabliſhing trade in this place, the prince only allowing them to be here in the capacity of travellers or viſitors. The prince has a very ſtately palace.

The chief articles of trade at Biſnagar are, damaſks, ſattins, chints, rich velvets, &c.

SECT. III.

Treating of the ENGLISH Poſſeſſions and Settlements, and thoſe of other EUROPEAN Nations in the EAST INDIES.

BENGAL is the moſt eaſterly province of the mogul's dominions. It is bounded by the provinces of Patna and Jeſuat towards the north, the kingdom of Arracan and Aſem towards the eaſt, the bay of Bengal and the province of Orixa towards the ſouth; and by the province of Malva towards the weſt; it is in length from eaſt to weſt upwards of four hundred miles, and near three hundred in breadth from north to ſouth, and is uſually compared to Egypt for its fruitfulneſs, the river Ganges dividing itſelf into ſeveral branches in this province, and annually overflowing it as the Nile does Egypt.

The chief towns are, 1. Dacca, which lies upon one of the eaſtern branches of the Ganges in the latitude of twenty-four degrees; it is four or five miles in length, but very narrow, winding with the river. This may properly be called the capital, being the ſeat of the viceroy, and here the Engliſh and other Europeans have their agents to take care of their trade, which is very conſiderable in this province. 2. Ragemahal ſituated higher up the Ganges; and is between two and three hundred miles from the mouth of it, in the latitude of twenty-five degrees. Below Ragemahal lies the city of Caſſimbuza, in latitude twenty-four, where the Europeans have their factors, the country affording great quantities of ſilk and muſlins. 3. To the ſouthward of Caſſimbuzar ſtands the city of Hugley, upon an iſland made by the Ganges, in the latitude of twenty-three degrees, about a hundred miles from the mouth of the river: it is a large town, and beſides Moors and other Indians, has ſeveral thouſand Portugueſe Chriſtians in it; moſt European nations who trade to India had their factories here, and particularly the Engliſh; but the unhealthineſs of the ſituation induced them to remove, and the Engliſh have ſince built them a fort a little below near Calcutta, which they named Fort William, from the Prince of Orange who mounted the throne of England about that time. In 1757, the ſubah of Bengal, whoſe indignation had been raiſed by ſome procedures of the company, inveſted Calcutta, which was then in a defenceleſs ſtate. The governor, alarmed at the appearance of a very numerous army, abandoned the fort, and, with many of the principal inhabitants, repaired on board a veſſel in the river. Mr. Holwell, however, who was ſecond in command, aſſiſted by a few intrepid officers, and a weak garriſon, defended the place for ſome time, but was at length obliged to ſurrender; and the inhabitants, with the whole garriſon, were all forced into a dungeon called the black-hole, from which only twenty-three out of one hundred and forty-ſix came out alive, the reſt were either ſuffocated with the extreme heat, or died raving mad with fevers or violent thirſt: there was a lady, one Mrs. Carey, among the number, who ſurvived the calamity. 5. The city of Chatigan lies near the mouth of the moſt eaſterly branch of the Ganges. Here the Portugueſe ſet up for a kind of ſovereignty formerly, and aſſociating with pirates and banditti of all nations, owned no ſubjection to their own prince or the prince of the country, but committed daily robberies by ſea and land, and ſo interrupted all commerce, that the late mogul found it neceſſary to ſend an army againſt them, and extirpate them. 6. Malda, which ſtands a little to the eaſtward of Ragemahal, where the Europeans alſo have their factors.

This province of Bengal is deemed the moſt fertile country in India for a variety of articles, ſuch as ſugar, ſilk, gum-lack, ſalte-petre, rice, opium, pepper, fruits, &c. The greateſt part of the Bengal ſilk is produced in the territory of Caſſimbuzar, where the ſilk-worms are reared and fed in the ſame manner as in other places; but the natural heat of the climate hatches and brings them to perfection at all times of the year. Conſiderable quantities of ſilk and cotton ſtuffs are manufactured here, and circulated through part of Aſia. Bengal is alſo famous for its fine canes, and a ſmall ſort worked into veſſels, which, being glazed within ſide, will hold any liquid. There is alſo an herb here, from which they make very beautiful ſtuffs and tapeſtry.

The forces in the ſervice of the Engliſh company, which are eſtabliſhed at Bengal, are very conſiderable. The power is inveſted in Europeans, though the bulk of the army conſiſts of natives: the whole is divided into three brigades; each conſiſting of one battalion of European infantry, and one regiment of Seapoys; each battalion contains ten companies, and each regiment ten battalions. Every regiment of ſeapoys, or black infantry, is commanded by a jemantadar, or native officer, who is ſubordinate to the Engliſh officers of a much lower rank. The artillery forms one regiment of four companies of Europeans; but the principal drudgery is done by black ſeapoys: every company of artillery is ſtrengthened by four companies of laſcars, containing fifty men in each company, who ſerve as matroſſes; and the brigades have a troop of black cavalry appertaining to each, who are commanded by Engliſh officers.

But, before we quit the province of Bengal, it will be proper to give a further account of the town of Calcutta, ſituated on the banks of the river Hugley, which is an arm of the Ganges. It is tolerably large, but appears very uncouth to the eye, from the great irregularity of its buildings; for every perſon who erects a houſe, pleaſes his own fancy with reſpect to the manner of the edifice, without paying any attention to uniformity, ſize, or elegance.

Bezar is the principal ſtreet in this town: it is inhabited by perſons who keep little ſhops for the ſale of various commodities. The Engliſh ſend their ſervants hither, to buy whatever is wanted, relying on their fidelity; ſo that the place is ſeldom viſited by them.

Near the centre of the town, on the ſide of the river Hugley, is the old fort, in which is the place before-mentioned, called the black-hole, where the unhappy Engliſh ſuffered the moſt wretched puniſhment, by order of the nabob Serajah Dowlah. Some of the apartments in it are uſed occaſionally for the performance of divine ſervice.

By the ſide of the river, about a mile from the town, is the new fort, which is a very ſtrong and handſome building, exceeding ſpacious, and ſurrounded with walls. It contains magazines for ſtores, barracks for ſoldiers, and elegant apartments for the ſeveral officers that reſide at Calcutta, who, as well as the engineers, have houſes in it for their accommodation.

The Portugueſe and Armenians have one part of the town ſet apart for their reſidence, where they exerciſe their own mode of worſhip. There is a church belonging to each; but the former are reſtrained from exhibiting their religious proceſſions without the limits of their own diſtrict. The generality of theſe people perform the moſt menial offices, being employed as ſervants by the wealthier part of the inhabitants. The Armenian women, indeed, are not employed in any kind of buſineſs; but the men collect goods in different parts of India for the merchants. Some of theſe are permitted to trade for themſelves, and obtain very conſiderable poſſeſſions.

The dreſs of the Armenian women much reſembles that of the Mahometans, except the head, which is covered with

with a turban of a prepoſterous ſize. They have likewiſe a ſingular addition to their head-dreſs after marriage; it is called a mouth-piece, and conſiſts of a piece of muſlin, which covers the face from the chin to the under part of the noſtrils, and is placed ſo cloſe to the face, that their breathing is greatly hindered by it.

Calcutta has many elegant buildings about it, which are the country reſidences of Engliſh gentlemen who retire thither, particularly in the hot ſeaſon, to enjoy the benefit of the air, which is cooler and much more wholeſome than in the town. The intenſe heat of the climate renders the inhabitants ſubject to many diſeaſes; but the moſt fatal is that called the pucker fever, which in a very ſhort ſpace of time carries off the perſon ſeized with it. More men are ſaid to die here in proportion than women, becauſe the latter are more abſtemious, and leſs addicted to intemperance than the men.

Patna is one of the largeſt cities in India, and the capital of a territory of the ſame name. It is ſituated to the north of the kingdom of Bengal, where the Engliſh have factories for ſalt-petre, borax, and raw ſilk. It alſo produces large quantities of opium. The town is large, but the houſes are built at a diſtance from each other. It is ſeated in a fertile, pleaſant country, four hundred miles eaſt of Agra, in eighty-five degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, and twenty-three degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude.

The moſt extenſive city in the kingdom of Bengal is Dacca, which produces the beſt and fineſt embroideries in gold, ſilver, or ſilk. The town is ſituated in twenty-four degrees north latitude; the ſoil is fertile, the ſituation fine, and the richeſt commodities of India and Europe are brought to its market. It receives conſiderable advantages from its cottons, from which are produced ſtriped and worked muſlins, which for the texture, are more valuable than thoſe made in any other part of India.

Madraſs, or Fort St. George, as it is generally called from the Engliſh fort there, ſtands about four miles to the northward of St. Thomas, in thirteen degrees, ſome odd minutes latitude, and eighty degrees of longitude; being near four thouſand eight hundred miles to the caſtward of London, ſo that the ſun viſits them about ſix hours before us, and ſets in that part of the world before we ſit down to dinner in this; for there is ſo little difference in the length of the days there all the year round, that we always reckon it to be ſix o' clock at ſun-riſe and ſun-ſet.

The fort is a regular ſquare, about a hundred yards on each ſide, with four baſtions, built with what they call iron ſtone, being of the colour of unwrought iron, and very rough on the outſide like honeycomb. There is no ditch about the fort, and the walls are arched and hollow within, ſo that they are not cannon proof. It has two gates, one to the eaſt and the other to the weſt. The weſtern gate which looks towards the land is pretty large; and here the main guard is kept, the ſoldiers of the guard lying on the right and left of it, under the wall, which being hollow ſerves them inſtead of a guard-houſe. The eaſt-gate towards the ſea, is but ſmall, and guarded only with a file of muſqueteers. In the middle of the fort ſtands the governor's houſe, in which alſo are apartments for the company's ſervants; it is a handſome, lofty, ſquare ſtone building; the firſt rooms are aſcended by ten or twelve ſteps, and from thence another pair of ſtairs leads to the council chamber and the governor's lodgings. The fort ſtands pretty near the middle of the White-town where the Europeans inhabit. This is an oblong ſquare about a quarter of a mile in length, but not half ſo much in breadth.

To the northward of the fort are three ſtraight handſome ſtreets, and as many to the ſouth. The buildings are of brick; ſeveral of the houſes have one floor above the ground floor. Their roofs are flat, and covered with a plaiſter made of ſea-ſhells, which no rain can penetrate; and being ſecured with battlements they take the freſh air upon them morning and evening. The walls of theſe houſes are very thick, and the rooms lofty. The governor and people of condition have gardens at a little diſtance from the town. Over againſt the weſt gate of the fort is a barrack, or rather one long room where all the company's ſoldiers are obliged to lodge when they are off the guard; and adjoining to it on the north is a very commodious hoſpital, where they are taken care of when they are ſick. At the other end of the ſoldiers barracks is a mint where the company coin gold and ſilver.

On the north ſide of the fort ſtands the Portugueſe church; and to the ſouthward the Engliſh church, which is a pretty elegant building, and moderately large: it has a handſome altar-piece, a gallery of fine carved wood reſembling cedar, and an organ: when the governor comes into church, the organ always plays. The church is floored with black and white marble, the ſeats regular and convenient, and all together it is the moſt airy lightſome temple that is to be found any where, for the windows are large and unglazed to admit the cooling breezes, and if it were otherwiſe, the people muſt ſweat intolerably at their devotions; for though in their own houſes they are as thinly clothed as poſſible, yet when they come to church it is always in the European dreſs; but to avoid theſe inconveniencies as much as poſſible, prayers are appointed at ſeven in the morning, and in the evening they are uſually refreſhed with a ſea breeze. Here is alſo a free ſchool, where children are educated in reading and writing; beſides which there is a library. Theſe are the only public buildings in the White-town, except the town-houſe, where the mayor and his brethren aſſemble; and a court of juſtice is held for civil cauſes.

A river runs cloſe to the buildings, on the weſt part of the town; but on this ſide there is no wall, only one large battery of guns upon the river which commands the plain beyond it. On the eaſt there is a ſlight ſtone wall pretty high, and appears ſomething grand to the ſhipping in the road; but here is very little occaſion for any fortification, the ſea coming up cloſe to the town, and no large veſſels can ride within two miles of the place, the ſea is ſo very ſhallow; nor is there any landing but in the country boats. the ſurf runs ſo high and breaks ſo far from the ſhore. The north and ſouth ends of the town are each of them defended by a ſtone wall moderately thick; but then, like the fort walls, they are hollow within, and would hardly hold out one day's battery. There is a little ſuburb to the ſouthward of the White-town, inhabited only by the black watermen and fiſhermen, and conſiſts of little, low, thatched cottages, which hardly deſerve the name of buildings. Beyond this is an outguard of blacks, who ſerve to give intelligence to the fort: but there is no other fortification on this ſide.

The Black-town adjoins to the White-town, but is much larger, and ſituate to the northward. Here the Portugueſe, Indians, Armenians, and a great variety of other people inhabit. This is built in the form of a ſquare, and is better than a mile and a half in circumference; being ſurrounded with a brick wall ſeventeen feet thick, with baſtions at proper diſtances, after the modern way of fortification: it has alſo a river on the weſt, and the ſea on the caſt; and to the northward a canal is cut from the river to the ſea, which ſerves for a moat on that ſide; ſo that Madraſs, conſidering where it ſtands, might now be reckoned a town of ſtrength if the garriſon was anſwerable to the fortifications; but it conſiſts of no more than three companies of fourſcore or a hundred men each, and one third of theſe topazes or Portugueſe Indians. The company, indeed, entertain two or three hundred of native blacks in their ſervice, and a body of men may be formed out of the inhabitants, who are very numerous; but theſe would be of little ſervice againſt an European enemy, or even againſt the mogul's troops, if there was occaſion for them beyond their own walls.

The ſtreets of the Black-town are wide, and trees planted in ſome of them; and having the ſea on one ſide and a river on the other, there are few towns ſo pleaſantly ſituated or are better ſupplied; but except ſome few brick houſes the reſt are miſerable cottages, built with clay and thatched, and not ſo much as a window to be ſeen on the outſide, or any furniture within, except the mats and carpets they lie on. The houſes of the better ſort of Indians are of the ſame materials, and built uſually in one form, that is, with a little ſquare in the middle, from whence they receive all their light. A ſtranger ſeldom comes farther than the door, before which is erected a little ſhed ſupported by pillars, where they ſit croſs-legged morning and evening to receive their friends or tranſact their buſineſs. The great ſtreets and the bazar, or market-place, are thronged with people; for notwithſtanding the houſes are low and ſmall, they are very well filled, ſix or ſeven people ſleeping in one little room, without any other bed than a mat or cloth ſpread under them; but notwithſtanding all this appearance of poverty abounds among them, the people from the higheſt to the loweſt are extremely neat, waſhing themſelves ſeveral times a day. In this black town there is an Armenian church, and ſeveral little pagodas or Indian temples, to which belong great numbers of female choriſters, who ſpend half the time in ſinging to the idols, and the reſt in intriguing, or chanting in companies before the great men as they paſs along the ſtreets.

The governor of Madras extends his juriſdiction all over the

the coaſt of Coromandel, and the weſtern coaſt of Sumatra. He is likewiſe captain of the firſt company of ſoldiers, the ſecond being commanded by the next in council. The governor lives in great ſtate, though his ſalary is but ſmall; but this is pretty amply compenſated to him by the conſiderable emoluments he reaps from the privilege he has of trading on his own bottom. His uſual guard is three or four hundred black men; and when he goes abroad, on any public occaſion, he is attended by trumpets, fifes, and drums, with ſtreamers flying, accompanied by the council on horſeback, and their ladies in palanquins.

Six perſons compoſe the council, who have annual ſalaries. Beſides whom, there are two ſenior merchants, two junior merchants, five factors, and ten writers; alſo two clergymen, a judge advocate, an attorney-general, two aſſay-maſters of the mint, and a ſurgeon; all of whom have yearly ſtipends, which (as we obſerved with reſpect to the governor) are trifling in compariſon of the advantages and profits they acquire by trading for themſelves.

The Armenians and Jews have ingroſſed the trade of this colony. The articles the Engliſh deal in are diamonds, chints, callicoes, &c.

In 1746, this place ſubmitted to the French, but was reſtored at the peace. General Lally attacked it again in 1758; but the forces under the generals Laurence and Draper repulſed him.

It was computed that ſome years ago the towns and villages belonging to Fort St. George contained eighty thouſand people, of whom five thouſand were Europeans.

The trade carried on from this place extends to all ports eaſtward of the cape of Good Hope; but the largeſt ſhips uſe the Mocha, Perſia, and Surat markets, with Bengal and China commodities, and touch in their voyage on the Malabar coaſt for pepper, cocoa, drugs, &c. The European goods, which fetch the beſt market price here are, wines, beer, ale, cyder, cheeſe, gold and ſilver lace, worſted and thread ſtockings, lead, flint-ware, looking-glaſſes, and a variety of other commodities.

At a little diſtance from Madras the nabob of Arcot has an elegant villa, ſupported by pillars inſtead of walls; the apertures of colonades admit the light, in lieu of windows, and open porticoes ſerve the purpoſe of doors: the ſtyle of architecture there appears elegantly airy and open, and in a climate exceeding ſultry the conſequent coolneſs renders it an agreeable and delightful retreat.

Great and little Gingi or Gingee, are encompaſſed with mountains. They conſiſt of two towns, both of which are ſurrounded by a wall and five lofty rocks; and on the top of each rock is a ſtrong fortreſs. Theſe towns are ſeparated from eaſt to weſt, by a wall fortified with cannon, which one of the rocks defends as a citadel.

Another colony and fort belonging to the Engliſh is Fort St. David, ſituated four or five leagues to the ſouth of Pondicherry. This place was purchaſed in 1686, for the conſideration of ninety thouſand pagodas, by the governor of Fort St. George, for the Eaſt India company: it is eſteemed a ſituation of very great conſequence to the Engliſh. It was taken, in 1758, by the French forces under the command of general Lally, who blew up the fortifications; but the events of war proving afterwards unfavourable to the victors, they were forced to give up moſt of their poſſeſſions to the Engliſh. Great quantities of chints, callicoes, and muſlins, are manufactured here.

Tanjore, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name lies to the ſouth of Fort St. David. It is ſituated in eleven degrees north latitude; and the kingdom is bounded by the ocean, on the eaſt; by Trichinopoly, on the weſt; by the river Coleroon, on the north; and on the ſouth, by the territories of two great perſonages, ſtyled poligars, or lords. The Engliſh have a fort, with land belonging to it, near the mouth of the Coleroon. In 1748, Monſieur Lally attacked this place, but was repulſed. When that general made his appearance before it, he privately erected batteries at the very time he was pretending to commence a capitulation with the prince, and even fired upon the town; when the inhabitants, inflamed with a juſt reſentment, attacked the French with ſuch ſpirit and vigour, as to drive them intirely away. The fort poſſeſſed by the Engliſh at the mouth of the river Coleroon, and which is named Daverotah, was granted to them by the king of Tanjore.

The town of Trichinopoly ſtands in a plain that was once encompaſſed by numerous plantations of trees and opulent villas, but now wears a much leſs pleaſing aſpect. It is about four miles in circumference, fortified with a double wall, and defended by towers; it has a ditch, near thirty feet wide. There is a rock in this town about thirty feet high, on the ſummit of which is a pagoda. Trichinopoly is the key of Tanjore and Madura, and gives them great influence. It was a principal ſcene of our military operations laſt war.

The French, in 1753, made an attempt to take it by ſurprize; and vainly ſurmiſing that firing alone would terrify the garriſon, turned a couple of our twelve pounders on the battery againſt the town, having previouſly ſcaled the outer wall. They were, however, through the exertion of equal judgment and bravery, intirely repulſed, and upwards of three hundred and ſixty were made priſoners.

Madura is the capital of the province of Madura, and is a large fortified town. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1757.

Tellicherry lies ten miles to the ſouth of Cananor: the Engliſh Eaſt India company have a well-defended factory in this town, which ſtands at the back of the fort, and has a ſtone round it. The religion of the place is that of the Gentoos: there are, however, ſome few black Chriſtians, who live protected by the factory. Hereabout a fine deep purple opium is produced.

The Engliſh company have alſo a factory at Anjongo which is farther to the ſouth, with a fort and garriſon. It is ſituated on a ſandy point of land at the mouth of a ſmall river, which is three fourths of the year choaked up with ſand, and not a drop of water fit to be drank can be had within leſs than three miles of the factory. This ſettlement is in general more advantageous to the agents of the company, who purchaſe cinnamon, pepper, and chian on their account, than to the company themſelves, who only trade for linens of no great worth, and about fifty thouſand pounds weight of pepper.

The harbour of Carwan is ſituated about thirty-ſix or thirty-eight miles to the ſouth of Goa. Here is an Engliſh factory, which ſtands on a very commodious bay, facing an iſle that produces every ſpecies of game. The town is ſurrounded by fertile vallies, yielding great plenty of corn and pepper. In the woods on the mountains are deer, elks, wolves, tygers, monkies, with wild peacocks and other birds: they have alſo particularly large bees here.

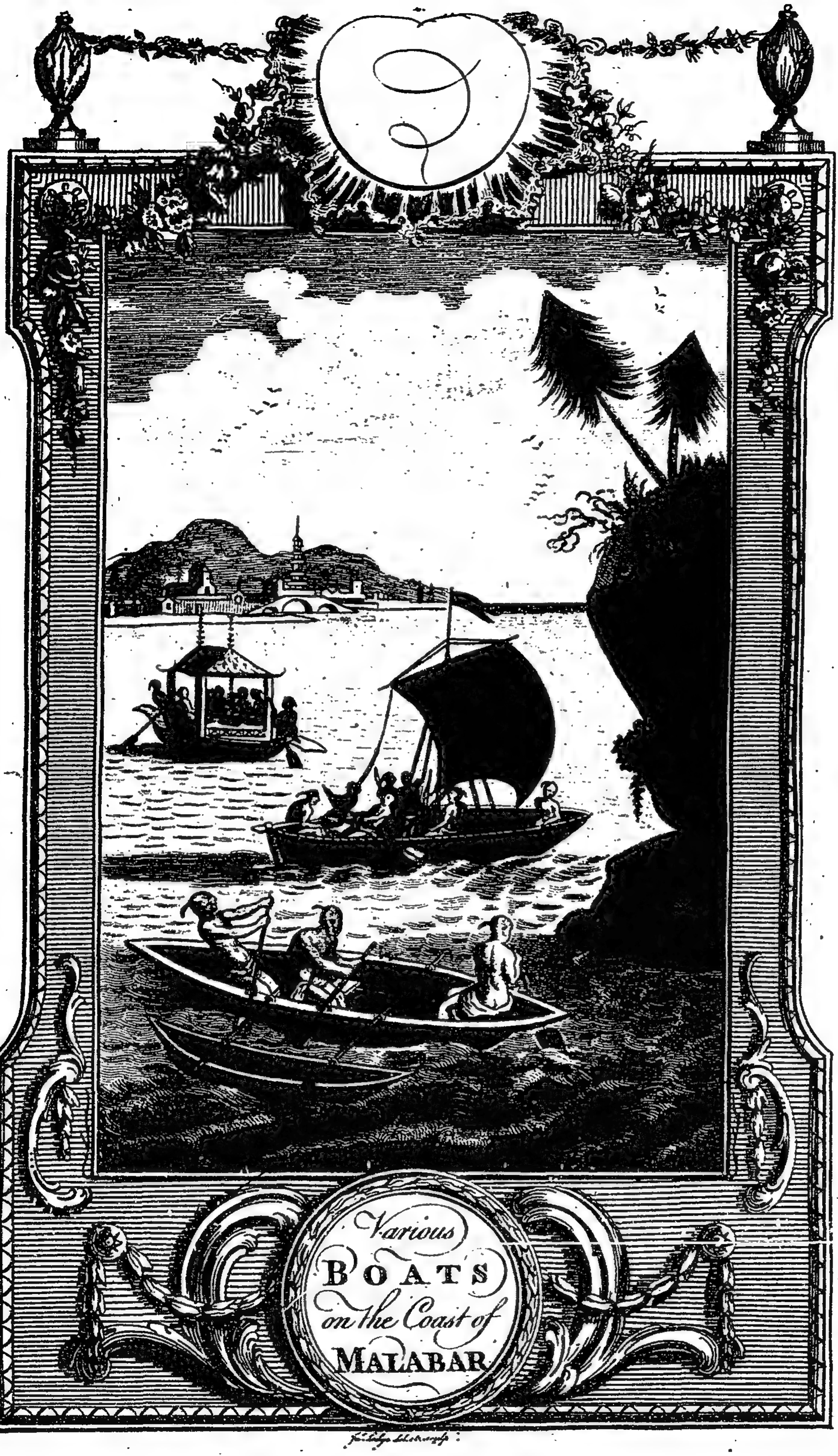
We ſhall next give ſome account of the French poſſeſſions in India.

The capital of the French ſettlements in India, is Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coaſt. It is a large handſome town, ſituated in eighty degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude from London, and twelve degrees twenty minnte north latitude. The ſtreets are very regular, and the principal one not leſs than half a league long. The town is ſurrounded by a wall, and has ſix gates, ten or eleven baſtions, and upwards of four hundred cannon mounted, excluſive of mortars, bombs, &c. It ſtands upon a low ground, and veſſels cannot anchor nearer than within about half a league; even the canoes cannot come up to it by a great ſpace; ſo that the blacks convey perſons and mercantile articles to the fleet in flat-bottomed boats.

The principal buildings are, the houſe of the governor, the jeſuit's houſe, and an elegant ſtructure in the company's gardens. The houſes in common conſiſt of one ſtory, as is uſual in moſt of the towns of the province. The Gentoos generally ſleep in their courts, or on the tops of their houſes; theſe people toil hard in their reſpective profeſſions, ſuch as weaving, painting, &c. for about a penny per day, and their uſual food is boiled rice; for the country, notwithſtanding its natural dryneſs, produces great quantities of that neceſſary of life, owing principally to the unwearied induſtry of the Gentoos, who dig wells at proper diſtances in the fields, for refreſhing the ground. The Mahometans, on the other hand, are as indolent and ſlothful as the others are aſſiduous and careful; nor does the laudable ſpirit of induſtry in the Gentoos effect the leaſt change in them.

When the governor is honoured with a viſit from any great perſonage, he is attended by three hundred peons or foot guards; and when he goes out on any public occaſion, he is carried in a palanquin, the canopy of which is embelliſhed with the moſt ſuperb ornaments.

In the year 1693, Pondicherry was taken from the French by the Dutch, and reſtored at the peace of Ryſwick; and in 1751, it was taken by the Engliſh, but reſtored in 1763. Previous, however, to the period of 1751, rear-admiral Boſcawen was ſent out with a ſtrong ſquadron, in order to lay ſiege to Pondicherry, and was joined in India by ſeveral men of war under admiral Griffin. Arriving at Fort St. David in July 1748, on the 10th of Auguſt following the army were in full motion, and preparing for the ſiege. On the 11th, the French made a ſhow of about three hundred infantry and ſome cavalry, at an intrenchment they


Various
BOATS
on the Coast of
MALABAR

they had thrown up, but abandoned it on the approach of the Engliſh forces. The Engliſh attacked the place with their uſual ſpirit and intrepidity, but were conſtrained, through the violence of the periodical winds, to raiſe the ſiege, after ſuſtaining a loſs of ſeven hundred and fifty ſoldiers, upwards of two hundred and ſixty ſeamen, and ſeveral engineers.

Karical lies in ten degrees thirty-four minutes north latitude, about four leagues ſouth of Tranquebar, and twenty-five ſouth of Pondicherry. This is an ancient city and ſettlement belonging to the French, it contains five ſpacious pagodas, nine leſſer ones, four moſques, between ſix and ſeven hundred houſes, and about five or ſix thouſand people. Tironmale Rayan Patuam is under the juriſdiction of Karical, and lies to the ſouth of it. It is a large town, containing four large pagodas, near thirty leſſer ones, four moſques, and about five hundred black houſes, excluſive of twenty-four public inns for accommodation of travellers.

Chandernagore alſo belongs to the French. It is ſurrounded by a wall, and well fortified; but was reduced by Meſſrs. Watſon and Pocock, in conjunction with colonel Clive. This place has the diſadvantage of being rather expoſed on the weſtern ſide; but its harbour is excellent, and the air is as pure as it can be on the banks of the Ganges. Here is a very conſiderable manufacture of handkerchiefs and ſtriped muſlins: this, however, has not made Chandernagore the rival of Calcutta, whoſe immenſe opulence enables it to engage in the moſt extenſive commercial undertakings.

The Portugueſe poſſeſſions in the Indies being now come under our conſideration, it is neceſſary to obſerve that we ſhall poſtpone the deſcription of Goa, the principal of them, and Diu, or Dio, both which are iſlands, till we give a general account of the oriental iſlands.

Meliapour was once the moſt conſiderable place on the Coromandel coaſt: it is about three miles ſouth of Fort St. George. The Portugueſe raiſed it from the verge of ruin, to a ſtate of opulence and magnificence; but were driven from thence by the Moors, when it became ſubject to the king of Golconda, but was reduced by the French in 1666; the Dutch, however, in conjunction with the king of Golconda, about four years after, took it from the French; upon which the fortifications were intirely deſtroyed, and never afterwards repaired. The inhabitants are Portugueſe, Gentoos, and Moors, and others of different nations. The Portugueſe, after ſettling in this place when in its declining ſtate, and beginning to rebuild it gave it the name of St. Thomas, from an opinion that the apoſtle was martyred here; and theſe people, finding ſome bones (which they afterwards enſhrined) concluded they were thoſe of St. Thomas, eſpecially as it was pretended his ſepulchre was on a hill at a little diſtance from the town.

The city of Calicut lies in eleven degrees twenty minutes north latitude. It was, when the Portugueſe arrived here, the greateſt place of trade in India. The Moors did all that was in their power to prevent the Portugueſe ſettling here; whereupon they landed a body of troops, and built a ſtrong fort to defend their poſſeſſion, but were drove out of it again; though others ſay it was demoliſhed by the Portugueſe themſelves, as not thinking it worth maintaining: but however that matter be, the fort is now waſhed away by the ſea, of which part of the ruins may ſtill be ſeen at low water. Several European nations have their factories, and trade hither at this day without reſtraint; and particularly the Engliſh. It is a large ſtraggling town, and the prince's palace, as it is called, is an old irregular building out of repair, which he ſeldom viſits. There are five white tombs a little to the northward of the town, which ſerve as a ſea mark to the ſailors. The ſamorin or king of this country, entered in an alliance and confederacy with the Engliſh againſt the Portugueſe in 1615. Calicut is ſurrounded by a brick wall, and contains about ſix thouſand brick houſes, moſt of which have gardens. This was the firſt place at which the Portugueſe landed in 1498, after their diſcovery of India.

The country of the raja of Sarimpatan lies contiguous to the prince's dominions: it is ſaid, this country was never conquered; the natives are a civilized, juſt and humane people.

Farther to the ſouth is the city of Cochin, a city ſituated in a kingdom of the ſame name; in nine degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and is about eighty miles to the northward of Anjengo. This is a great town of trade, and the beſt ſettlement the Dutch have upon the Malabar coaſt: it was fortified by the Portugueſe in the year 1504, when the two Albuquerques commanded the Portugueſe forces. It is divided by ſome into Old and New Cochin; the Old Cochin lies a league and a half from the ſea, and is called by the Portugueſe Cochin Dacina, or the Higher Cochin, becauſe it lies higher up the river, and by the Dutch Malabar Cochin, for here their king reſided. The other Cochin, commonly called New Cochin, is ſcarce a league diſtant from the ſea upon the ſame river. The Portugueſe built and beautified it with ſeveral fine edifices, churches and monaſteries, to which belonged pleaſant gardens and fine walks. The Jeſuits church and college faced the ſea-ſhore, and had a lofty ſteeple. The cathedral was a noble piece of architecture, adorned with two rows of pillars, and had a lofty ſteeple. The church and convent of the Auſtin friars ſtood upon the banks of the river; and the church of the Dominicans and their convents were two fine pieces of workmanſhip, beautified with a double row of pillars of excellent ſtone: but the Dutch having this city ſurrendered to them in the year 1662, immediately gave orders for demoliſhing great part of the houſes, and all the churches but one, in order to bring it into a narrower compaſs, and render the fortifications more regular; and they have made it almoſt impregnable, conſidering the part of the world it ſtands in, to which the ſtones of the churches they pulled down in a great meaſure contributed. The ſimple Portugueſe had converted them indeed to pious uſes; but the Dutch knew how to employ ſuch materials much better: and it is obſervable, that all over the Indies they think one church ſufficient for the largeſt cities, inſomuch that in Batavia itſelf they had for many years but one Dutch church.

The dominions of the king of Cochin have been repeatedly invaded by the natives of Travancor, a country extending from cape Comorin to the frontiers of Cochin; and he is, from neceſſity obliged to dwell in Gold-town, which is ſituated on a river half a league from the ſea, and has ſeveral pagodas. His revenue is fourteen thouſand four hundred livres, ſtipulated to be paid him by antient capitulations, out of the produce of his cuſtoms.

There is a colony of induſtrious Jews in this town, who are white men, and abſurdly boaſt that their anceſtors were ſettled here at the æra of the Babyloniſh captivity; they have, however, certainly been here a conſiderable time. They have a ſynagogue, in which their records are very carefully preſerved.

Cananor is a very populous and conſiderable town in the kingdom of the ſame name: it is ſituated in twelve degrees north latitude, and has a moſt convenient harbour. The Dutch, who have on all occaſions diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their induſtry and enterpriſing genius, have an extenſive fort here. Cananor was originally poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, from whom the Dutch took it in 1660. The chief articles in trade here are pepper, ginger, caſſia, ambergris, mirobolans, tamarinds, and precious ſtones. This town is inhabited principally by Mahometan merchants.

There is a large town at the bottom of the bay, which is independent of the Dutch: it is under the juriſdiction of a prince who can bring twenty thouſand men into the field.

The city of Cranganor lies fourteen or fifteen miles to the northward of Cochin, and was alſo the capital of a kingdom of the ſame name. This place was poſſeſſed and fortified by the Portugueſe ſoon after their arrival in India, but taken from them by the Dutch in January 1661-2. The Dutch found here a noble college of Jeſuits, with a ſtately library belonging to it, and it having once been the ſeat of a biſhop, here was a cathedral, and ſix or ſeven other churches, which underwent the fate of thoſe of other places which the Dutch conquered, and have nothing of them remaining but their ruins. Without the walls was the college of Chanote, famous for the reſort of the Chriſtians of St. Thomas hither, who exerciſed their religion here in the Syrian language. They had alſo a Syrian ſchool for the education of youth, and ſeveral maſters and prieſts of their own.

Between Cranganor and Calicut lie the towns of Panane and Tanor; theſe were alſo once poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe. At Panane it was that Vaſca de Gama treated with the Samorin, or king of Calicut, concerning their ſettlement on this coaſt; but being oppoſed by the Moors, they afterwards attacked the place in form and took it. The Dutch ſucceeded the Portugueſe, and have now a factory here. Tanor is a poor ſtraggling place, but the Europeans reſort hither ſometimes on account of the trade: both theſe towns are reckoned to be in the kingdom of Calicut.

Chinſura, more generally known by the name of Dougli, is at the diſtance of about a mile from Chandernagore: the Dutch have a fort here, but no other poſſeſſions whatever, as the territory round it depends on the government of the country.

Hugley is fifty miles to the north of Calcutta: the Engliſh had once a factory here, but removed it to Calcutta. This is a place of very conſiderable traffic, particularly in the article of opium. The Dutch have a factory here, erected in an open place, at a ſmall diſtance from the river. It is defended by a ſtrong fortreſs, and ſurrounded by a very deep ditch.

Saumelpour is celebrated for its precious ſtones, which great numbers of people are employed in ſearching for: theſe are not, as in other places, dug from mines, but found in the ſands of the river. This is a ſmall place.

Bandel was formerly the chief ſeat of the Portugueſe commerce: it is now a factory for the ſale of women to the Moors and Dutch: there are ſome miſerable wretches here, chiefly Portugueſe, who employ themſelves principally in the above ſhocking traffic, and are at the diſtance of about eighty leagues from the mouth of the Ganges.

At Chaligan the Portugueſe once eſtabliſhed a ſort of abſolute or ſovereign power, and formed an alliance with the robbers of different nations who took refuge here, and acknowledged no ſubordination to any prince whatever, not even to their own: the mogul, however, finding them too troubleſome to be borne with, ſent a force againſt them, who totally extirpated them. The town lies in twenty-three degrees north latitude, near the mouth of the moſt eaſterly branch of the Ganges; it has no conſiderable manufacture.

The next ſettlement on the coaſt of Coromandel is Tranquebar, which is claimed by the Danes: it is ſituated in eleven degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, ſurrounded by a wall, and is about two miles in circumference. It was purchaſed of the king of Tanjore, by the Danes, in 1621.

The ſtreets of this town are wide, and have a brick pavement on the ſides. The houſes of the Danes, and other Europeans, are of brick and ſtone; but with only the ground-floor; thoſe of the Indians are very mean. The Daniſh miſſionaries have a congregation here, which thrives though vigorouſly oppoſed by the Papiſts. They have a ſchool here for youth, who are inſtructed in the Proteſtant faith; alſo a printing-office, and a paper-mill.

The town is ſuppoſed to contain about five thouſand inhabitants; and hath a moſt agreeable proſpect from the ſea. In 1699 it ſtood a ſix months ſiege againſt the king of Tanjore's forces, aſſiſted by the Dutch; but muſt have ſurrendered, had not governor Pitt ſent to its relief a reinforcement of Engliſh from Fort St. George.

The above deſcribed are the chief ſettlements belonging to the Europeans, except the inſular ones, which we ſhall take notice of in our account of the eaſtern iſles: and proceed to give a deſcription of the ſituation and extent of Coromandel, which is bounded by Proper Narſinga on the weſt, Golconda on the north, the bay of Bengal on the eaſt, and Gingi on the ſouth; though Gingi, Tanjore, and Madura are properly enough by ſome reckoned part of the coaſt of Coromandel, theſe making formerly the eaſt part of the kingdom of Biſnagar, and going under the general name of Coromandel before theſe little principalities were erected; and according to this account, the coaſt of Coromandel reaches from cape Comorin, which lies in ſeven degrees, thirty minutes north latitude to Maſſulapatan, the firſt town in Golconda, in ſixteen degrees, thirty minutes, ſo that this coaſt takes up nine degrees of latitude, which allowing for the winding of the ſhores makes a ſea coaſt of at leaſt ſeven hundred miles.

The firſt ſettlements on this coaſt were eſtabliſhed near the ſhore, ſome by dint of force, and others by the conſent of the ſovereigns. The manufactures of Coromandel firſt inſpired the Europeans with the reſolution of ſettling here. Hedges of thorny plants were the firſt boundaries, till, the coloniſts increaſing in power and opulence, fortifications were raiſed for their defence. Almoſt the whole trade of this coaſt is now in the hands of the Europeans; though for ſome time Coromandel was no object of their attention, being ſeparated from Malabar by inacceſſible mountains.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with a particular account of the kingdom of Golconda, which extends two hundred and ſixty miles along the bay of Bengal. It is in the form of a creſcent, and about two hundred miles in the broadeſt part from eaſt to weſt. It has Biſnagar on the ſouth, the mountains of Gata on the weſt, and thoſe of Orixa and Balligate on the north.

This country is famous for its diamond mines, in ſome of which the diamonds lie ſcattered within a few fathoms of the earth's ſurface, and others are diſcovered in a mineral in the rocks more than forty fathoms deep. The workmen dig into the rock, and then, by means of fire, ſoften the ſtone, and ſo proceed till they find the vein, which often runs under the rock two or three furlongs. All the earth is brought out, and, after great care is beſtowed on it, produces ſtones of a conſiderable ſize, and pretty good water, but of different ſhapes.

Near the place where they dig they make a ciſtern about two feet high, and ſix feet over, with a ſmall vent in one of the ſides, about two inches from the bottom, by which it empties itſelf into a little pit made in the earth to receive ſmall ſtones, if by chance any ſhould run through. The vent being ſtopped, they fill the ciſtern they have made with water, ſoaking therein as much of the earth they dig out of the mines, as it can conveniently receive at a time; breaking the clods, picking out the greateſt ſtones, and ſtirring it with ſhovels till the water is all muddy, the gravelly ſtuff falling to the bottom: then they open the vent, letting out the foul water, and ſupplying it with clean, till all the earthy ſubſtance be waſhed away, and none but a gravelly remains at the bottom. Thus they continue waſhing till about ten of the clock before noon, when they take the gravelly ſtuff they have waſhed, and ſpread it on a place made plain and ſmooth like a bowling-alley, for the purpoſe, near the ciſtern; which being ſoon dried by the heat of the ſun, at that time of the day, they very curiouſly look it over, that the ſmalleſt bit of a ſtone can hardly eſcape them. If they find a large ſtone, they deliver it not till they have done work; and then very privately, leſt it ſhould come to the knowledge of the governor of the place, and he require a ſhare, which in the kingdom of Golconda is uſually practiſed, without reſpect to any agreement made with them.

The workmen are obliged to be watched with the utmoſt diligence, leſt they ſhould be tempted to embezzle any of the precious articles which they are employed to ſearch for. One of them was detected in putting a ſmall ſtone into the corner of his eye; and many others have ſwallowed the diamonds.

The principal perſons concerned in this trade, are the Banyan merchants; but both they, and the perſons employed to work the mines are greatly oppreſſed: the firſt affecting to be poor, and the latter being ſo in reality; for the governors do not ſuffer any to be rich, if they know them to be ſo. But in Viſiapour they are more humanely treated.

Thoſe diamonds which exceed the weight of a pagoda, are the king's property; but all of an inferior weight appertain to the merchants. The largeſt diamond ever found was preſented to the mogul, weighing two hundred and ſeventy-nine carats of four grains each.

Maſſulapatan is the chief harbour in the kingdom of Golconda; and the country extends from the gulf Viſiapour: it once formed a part of a very extenſive empire, ſubject to the emperor of Biſnagar, and comprehended nearly the whole of the peninſula, from the northern extremity of Orixa to Cape Comorin.

The city, Golconda, which is about two hundred and thirty-eight miles weſt of Maſſulapatan, and about two hundred north-weſt of Madras, is ſituated in a good ſoil, and ſalubrious air; it has ſtone walls ſurrounded with deep ditches, divided into tombs or ponds of clear water. It has many grand moſques, in which are the tombs of the kings of Golconda. In 1614 about five thouſand houſes were waſhed away, and ſome thouſands of people and cattle periſhed by an inundation.

The town and harbour of Maſſulapatan is ſituated on the north ſide of the river Nagundi, which ſeparates Golconda and Biſnagar, in eighty-one degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude from London, and ſixteen degrees thirty minutes north latitude. Towards the cloſe of the laſt century, it was one of the moſt thriving towns in India, and the moſt advantageous of the Engliſh factories. The Danes, Portugueſe, and Dutch, had alſo factories here, and the cuſtoms amounted to fourteen thouſand pagodas per annum, it being the moſt celebrated mart for callicoes, indigoes, diamonds, and other precious ſtones; and there were about two hundred thouſand inhabitants; it is now, however, only a Dutch factory for chints. It is ſurrounded by a wall and ditch, and over the land ſide is a deep moraſs, with a bridge over it.

The French, under the marquis de Conflans, poſſeſſed themſelves of this city in 1759; but it was taken from them by the Engliſh forces under the command of colonel Forde. The waves, near the bar, are ſo rapid, as to make a noiſe like the cataracts of the Nile, and ſometimes have almoſt as great a fall. The heat here, eſpecially in May, is ſo intenſe, that people dare not ſtir out of their houſes in ſome parts of the day.

Between twenty and thirty miles to the ſouth-weſt of the



A Diversion of
SWINGING,
practised by the principal people
IN INDIA.

Wale delin.

Walker sculp.

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the city of Maſſulapatan, is Pettipoly, or Penta-pooli, where the Engliſh have a factory. The printed and dyed ſtuffs of this place are highly eſteemed; and in an iſland oppoſite to it grows a root which makes ſo deep a colour, that it is obliged to be mixed with other colours to make it lively. The Engliſh have alſo a factory about one hundred miles farther ſouth, called Coletore, and the Dutch have a factory called Palicate, ſtill a little farther to the ſouth.

SECT. IV.

Containing an Account of the Genius, Tempers, Perſons, Habits, Food, Diverſions, Roads, &c. of the INDIANS.

THOSE Indians who are Pagans (who are ten times more numerous than the Mahometans their governors) are men of bright parts, and will imitate almoſt any thing at firſt ſight. They are very ſober and abſtemious, never drowning their ſenſes by drunkenneſs and intemperance, extremely obliging, and of a very pretty addreſs, an even compoſed temper, and ſtudiouſly avoiding all manner of contention; but they are generally thought to want courage. I have known ſome of them, however, as brave as the braveſt Europeans; men that would be cut to pieces before they would deſert their poſt, and endure the ſevereſt torture, rather than betray their friend, or the cauſe they were engaged in. But to return to the ingenuity of the Indians: they will copy our pictures ſo nicely, that you can ſcarcely diſtinguiſh the copy from the original. The common people paint thoſe fine chints and callicoes we import from India, and their carpenters will imitate the model of an Engliſh ſhip, as if they had been brought up ſhip-carpenters; and it is amazing to ſee how quick they are at accounts.

They are of a middle ſize, ſeldom corpulent, their features good, but their complexion for the moſt part black; they have long black hair and black eyes; but though the men in the middle of the peninſula are as black as jet, towards the north they are tawny, as well as on the coaſt. The women, in their ſtature, features, ſhape, air and mien, have no rivals; without the advantage of a dancing-maſter, their motion is bewitching, they tread the ground as elegantly as an actreſs does the ſtage. Their cloathing does not prevent their ſhewing the natural ſhape of their bodies; they are neither diſtorted or rendered crooked by ſtrait ſtays, or loſe the true human ſhape in a monſtrous hoop. They have a piece of white callico tied about their waiſts, which reaches to their knees, and the reſt is thrown acroſs their ſhoulders, covering their breaſts, and part of their backs. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and adorned with jewels or toys; they have pendants in their ears and noſes, and ſeveral ſtrings of beads round their necks; they wear bracelets on their wriſts and ancles, and rings on their fingers and toes; they put their bare feet into ſlippers; though the women, in the ſouthern parts, wear neither ſlippers nor ſhoes.

The Indian men wear white veſts, girt about with a ſaſh, in which they have a circe or dagger. Their hair, like the women's, is tied up in a roll, over which they have a ſmall turban. The upper part of their garment is contrived to fit ſo as that the wearer's ſhape may be ſeen. Under this is another ſomewhat ſhorter, and their legs are covered by their breeches: they wear ſlippers piked like women's ſhoes, into which they put their bare feet.

The Moors or Mahometans are well ſhaped: the complexion of theſe in the north is fair; thoſe in the ſouth, tawney; but theſe too have generally black hair and black eyes, and like other Mahometans, ſhave their heads all but one lock on the crown, and wear their beards long: their habit is a veſt and large turban.

The banian caſt, or tribe of Pagans, eat no fleſh or eggs, any more than the bramins (prieſts) antiently called brachmans, but live upon rice, herbs, roots, and fruits. The reſt of the Pagans eat almoſt every thing but beef and fiſh without ſcales. The Moors or Mahometans eat almoſt all fleſh but that of hogs, hares, and ſuch fleſh as the Jews were prohibited to eat. They all ſit croſs-legged, or loll upon mats or carpets at their meals, and waſh before and after. The principal diſh, among both Moors and Pagans, is, pilau, made of fowls or mutton, and rice. The meat, whatever it be, is ſtewed to rags, of which they make a ſtrong ſoup, and ſeaſon it very high. They make a ſtrong ſoup alſo of veniſon, fiſh, and almoſt all manner of fleſh. When the company is ſet down upon a ſopha or raiſed floor, covered with a mat or carpet at the upper end or ſides of the room, a ſervant comes in with a baſon and ewer, and a towel, and every one waſhes his hands; then a large plate, or a leaf of a foot diameter is ſet before every one of the gueſts: after which, other ſervants bring in large brazen or earthen bowls; full of rice, and with a ladle lay a quart or three pints of boiled rice on every man's plate, pouring as much of the ſtrong ſoup upon the rice as will moiſten it, and a little part of the meat is laid on the ſide of the plate. A bottle or cruſe of water, alſo, which is their common liquor, is ſet by every one, of which they drink when they pleaſe, without healths, or taking notice of any of the company. If they are entertained with fiſh, a ſtrong ſoup is made of them, which is called curee, and mixed with the rice. They boil their rice in ſuch a manner, that it is quite dry, not the leaſt drop of water is left in it, and frequently colour it with ſaffron or turmerick. Their ſauces are chiefly pickles, which they call achar, made of green bamboo, or mangoes, and other fruits. And ſoy is another ſauce, which is brought to England, and therefore needs no deſcription here. Abundance of garlic is uſed in all their pickles, eſpecially in their mangoe.

They are remarkably fond of ſmoking tobacco. The poor roll up a leaf of tobacco, about four or five inches long, and, lighting it at one end, ſmoke the other till it is about half exhauſted, and then throw it away.

The Indians have ſeveral kinds of diverſions among them. They ſometimes game for ſmall matters, but not ſo eagerly as the Chineſe, and are ſeldom ſeen out of temper. At a feaſt, the muſic is ſent for, particularly the girls dedicated to the temple, who, having ſung and danced before the company, will retire with any of them, if deſired. Plays are acted by torch-light in the fields, during the fair ſeaſon, when the evening is exceeding ſerene.

Fights of wild beaſts are the diverſion of the court, and the dancing of the cobre capelle, or hooded ſerpents is ſeen in every village. Their keepers bring them in covered baſkets, and beginning to ſing and play on very bad inſtruments, at the uncovering the baſkets ſeven or eight of theſe creatures get up and dance to the ſounds, which hardly deſerve the name of muſic; but if it is diſcontinued ever ſo little, they get out of their baſkets, and hiſs very terribly. However, as ſoon as the muſic begins again, they are reclaimed and fall to dancing as before.

The chief rural ſports of the Indians are hunting and hawking: they ſurround part of the country, and drive the game into a narrow compaſs, and then ſhoot at it: they teach even tygers and leopards, it is ſaid, to take the game, which they do by jumping upon it from buſhes, or other cover, but never run fairly after it. They purchaſe hawks and other birds of prey from Perſia, which are taught to fly at all manner of game, and even at wild beaſts, fixing on the head of the animal, and buffeting him with their wings, while the dogs come up and take him. An ox being taught to ſtand fire, they make the ſame uſe of him as we do of ſtalking horſes, to get near their game. Another diverſion is that of racing; they make the ſame uſe of oxen as we do of horſes.

Having, among other Indian diverſions, mentioned that of the fights of wild beaſts, we ſhall, before we quit the ſubject, deſcribe an entertainment given by the great mogul to foreign ambaſſadors, which is of a very ſingular nature: it conſiſts of wild beaſts of various ſorts fighting with each other, or combated by men, who engage in ſuch dangerous enterprizes in order to obtain the favour of the king. The manner of one of theſe fights, which was exhibited at Agra (when the moguls kept their court there) is thus related.

Two buffaloes were let looſe at each other, and afterwards a lion and a tyger, the two latter of which fought deſperately for ſome time. Theſe being taken away, the governor aroſe, and ſaid, "The great mogul's will and pleaſure is, that if any valiant heroes are diſpoſed to give proofs of their valour, in fighting againſt the wild beaſts with ſhield and ſword, let them come forth; if they conquer, the great mogul will ſhew high favour to them." On this, three perſons entered the liſt, and engaged to undertake the combat; when the governor calling aloud, ſaid, "None muſt fight with any other weapon than ſword and ſhield; thoſe which have a dagger about them, muſt throw it away, and fight fairly." A lion was then driven into the ring, where one of the three ſtood ready to encounter him: the lion immediately ran to him with the greateſt ferocity, but the man defended himſelf a conſiderable time, till his arms growing weary, the lion laid one of his paws on the ſhield, and the other on his arm. The man finding himſelf unable to uſe his ſword, and ſeeing the danger he was in, with his left hand drew out his Indian

dian ſtiletto, and gave the lion ſo violent a ſtab in the th oat, that he immediately let go his hold: after which, he ſevered his body almoſt in two with his ſword, and, purſuing his victory, effectually killed him, when the people ſhouted out, "Thanks be to God, he is conquered." The mogul, however, ſmiling, ſaid to the conqueror, "You are a brave ſoldier, you have fought valiantly; but did not I command you to fight fairly, with ſword and ſhield only? but, like a thief, you have ſtolen the lion's life with a ſtiletto." After this the ſavage tyrant ordered the man's belly to be immediately ripped open, and that his body ſhould be carried on the back of an elephant throughout the city, which ſentence was immediately executed.

Then a tyger was brought to the ring, which was encountered by a very ſtrong man, but the tyger was ſo active, that he ſuddenly leaped on his antagoniſt, and tore him to pieces. A very ſmall perſon then engaged the tyger, and at the firſt encounter cut off both his fore feet, which obliged him to fall; when purſuing his efforts, he ſoon killed him. On this the king, calling to him, aſked his name: to which he anſwered, Geiby. The king hereupon ordered one of his ſervants to carry him a cloth of gold, who, when he delivered it to him, ſaid, "Geiby, receive this coat, which the mogul of his bounty hath ſent." The conqueror received the coat with great humility, kiſſed it ſeven times, and afterwards holding it up, prayed to himſelf for the mogu''s proſperity: which done, he cried aloud, "God grant the mogul to grow as great as Tamerlane, from whom he is derived; may he live ſeven hundred years, and his generation continue for ever!" after he had thus expreſſed himſelf, he was conducted by an eunuch to the king, who, on his going away, ſaid, "Be praiſed, Geiby Chan, for your heroic exploits: this name you ſhall keep for ever; I am your favourable lord, and you my vaſſal."

The Indian roads are not laid out as with us; in the open country, we travel over deep ſands, where there is no track, and through thick woods a way is ſometimes cut; but little or nothing done towards the raiſing or repairing them. At every ten or twelve miles end, however, there is a caravanſera, or choultry, for the convenience of travellers, with a tank, or reſervoir of water, near it, and fire for dreſſing their food; but no inns, inn-keepers, or beds. The traveller takes care to furniſh himſelf with every thing he may have occaſion for on the way, before he ſets out.

A perſon in opulent circumſtances, takes a palanquin, which is a couch covered with an arched canopy, with a mattreſs, quilts, and cuſhions, or pillows to lie on. Then he hires ten cooleys, or chairmen, four of whom carry him at a time; for the palanquin is hung upon a bamboo, or hollow cane, about five or ſix inches diameter, and ten feet long, and is ſo bent in the middle, while it is growing, that it may ſuſtain the arched canopy over it; and a gentleman may ſit upright, or lie at his length, lolling upon the cuſhions, if he pleaſes. As there are but four of the cooleys that carry him at a time, two before, and two behind, laying the ends of the bamboo cane, on which the couch hangs, on their ſhoulders, the reſt are employed in carrying large umbrellas, finely carved and gilded, to ſcreen the ſun from their maſter, morning and evening; (for when the ſun is many degrees above the horizon, the canopy ſcreens him from it); while another cooley bruſhes the flies off his maſter.

In many parts of India where there is any danger of being ſet upon by the mountaineers, they travel in caravans, or large companies of ſeven or eight hundred. For carrying of goods they make uſe of camels, oxen and aſſes; their horſes come from Perſia or Tartary, and are of too great a price to be put to theſe drudgeries, and their own little breed are not very fit for burthens; but what makes the camel of great ſervice in all hot ſandy countries, is, that he will travel ſeveral days without water; oxen are alſo uſed to ride on, as well as for burdens, and they draw both their waggons and hackeries, or coaches with two wheels; inſtead of a ſaddle they lay a ſoft cuſhion on the ox to ſit on, and inſtead of a bridle put a rope through the cartilage which ſeparates the noſtrils, and with this they guide him, they will trot along at a pretty round rate, and ſometimes they run races with them; what they differ from ours in, is, that they have a large bunch of fleſh bigger than a man's double fiſt, that ſtands up between their ſhoulders near ſix inches. The buffalo is as large as the ox, but a more ſluggiſh animal, and therefore uſed only in carrying water from the tanques to their houſes, or to draw in the ſcavengers carts. Their hackeries are ſquare like our coaches, but have no raiſed ſeats to ſit on, however, pillows are laid at the bottom to lean on.

There are no people of any quality but have a ſtable of fine Perſian horſes for their own riding, and our Eaſt-India company keep a ſet of them for the uſe of their factors and ſervants in their principal ſettlements. The mogul and his omrahs have elephants, on which they travel with their women and baggage from place to place; there are not, it is ſaid, leſs than five hundred of theſe that attend the mogul in all marches, beſides a prodigious number of camels and wheel-carriages; their carriages are uſually drawn by eight or ten oxen, and their wheels have no ſpokes, but are only a thick round board.

Travelling in the rainy ſeaſon, is very troubleſome, the flat country being overflowed, and innumerable torrents falling from the mountains, but this does not hinder the common people from taking journies at this time of the year, for they will take water like a ſpaniel, and ſwim with that ſtrength that I never ſaw any of our people able to come near them. I happened to be in the country during the rains, and having two or three broad rivers to croſs which ran very ſwiftly, I truſted myſelf to two of theſe blacks, who took me between them and ſwam croſs the river with one hand with all the eaſe imaginable; and thus the whole company was carried over to the number of twelve or thirteen.

There are no poſts in the country, but all letters and packets over land are diſpatched by meſſengers on purpoſe, who travel on foot with great expedition, and are very reaſonable in their demands.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Natural Hiſtory of INDIA, namely, of the Soil, Produce, Plants, Animals, Minerals, &c.

RICE is the moſt common ſort of grain in that part of India which lies within the tropic of Cancer; further north, they have wheat, barley, peas, and beans. The rice is firſt ſown in beds, where coming up too thick to produce any thing but ſtraw, it is tranſplanted into their fields in June, when the rains begin to fall; for the huſbandman having ploughed and weeded his ground, converts the earth into a kind of hotch-pot with the water as it falls; and the cottagers, with their wives and children, bring the ſpires of rice in baſkets, from the beds where it was firſt ſown, being then about half a foot high, and plant each ſpire or blade of rice in a ſtrait trench, ſupplying it with water as it grows, by little rills or channels, if the rains do not water it for them; but uſually as the rice grows, the floods increaſe in proportion, and the rice is ſupplied with water till near harveſt, which happens in November or December; and by that time the ſun having exhaled all the water, the earth is hardened, the rice is cut, and uſually threſhed out in the field.

This grain grows moſt like oats, the ſtraw is not hollow like that of wheat or barley, but ſtiff and hard, as we may ſee by the whiſks or bruſhes made of it and brought to England. Every grain of rice has a thick brown ſkin upon it, and muſt be well beat in a wooden mortar and ſifted, before it looks of that pure white we ſee it here. And notwithſtanding ſo much pains are taken with it, before it is fit to eat, the price is very low: three-pence will purchaſe enough to feed a family of nine or ten people a whole day, though an Indian will eat three times as much as an European; and this, with a very little fleſh or fiſh, cucumbers, melons, fruit, roots and herbs, are the uſual food the generality of the Indians live upon; they have very little variety, nor do they ſeem to deſire more than they have.

During the rains, and for ſome time after, it is amazing to ſee how faſt all manner of vegetables grow; then green fields, corn, graſs, and flowers, adorn the face of the earth again: the natives rejoice, notwithſtanding the loud thunder they hear every evening, well knowing that the rain it brings with it, is the foundation of all their plenty; but if the rains fail, they have nothing to expect but famine and ſickneſs, having been ſometimes obliged even to ſell ſome of their children to the Eaſt India company, for ſmall quantities of rice; having no other choice, but to part with them to ſave their lives, and preſerve the reſt of the family from periſhing for want of nouriſhment. In this dry ſeaſon the graſs is burnt up, and there is none to be found but ſome rank, ſour ſtuff in the woods. Their fields lie open, except near the towns and villages, where people make ſome little incloſures for their conveniency: and as no man has any property in the land he ſows, the prince's officers take a third, or one half of the crop, or more, as they think fit; and leave the huſbandmen the

reſt. Nor is it left to the huſbandman's choice whether he will ſow or not; for the reſpective governors and generals, having certain towns and villages aſſigned them, to enable them to maintain the quota of troops they are to furniſh, order ſuch a quantity of ground to be marked out for every village to manure, and at harveſt ſend their officers to take as much of the crop as they think fit.

The gardens in India are ſtocked with a great variety of fruit trees; but they are planted in no manner of order, any more than their flowers. Their fruits are mangoes, guavas, pomegranates, ananas or pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, limes, lemons, oranges, and all manner of tropical fruits in the ſouth; and in the north, they have apples, pears, and moſt of the European fruits. Both fruit-trees and foreſt-trees in the ſouth of India are ever-greens, and ſome of their fruit-trees are in bloſſom, and have green and ripe fruit on them at the ſame time. The kitchen garden affords melons, pot-herbs, and roots; pepper grows on the Malabar coaſt, and they have alſo ginger, ſaffron, turmeric, ſugar, cotton and indigo.

The cocoa and cotton-trees are the moſt uſeful in India. The cocoa affords meat, drink, oil, and timber for building; the fibres of the bark make their cordage, the branches cover their houſes, and the leaves ſerve them to write upon; and from the cotton-tree they have their callico, and moſt of their cloathing. The province of Bengal furniſhes them with ſilk and muſlin. The banian tree ſeems peculiar to this country, and deſerves a particular deſcription. The principal body grows to a great bulk, and ſome of its branches ſhoot horizontally from the trunk, and from thoſe branches little twigs ſhoot downwards perpendicularly, and taking root form other bodies, which, like pillars, ſupport the arms they ſprung from; and thus one tree comes to have twenty or thirty bodies, and covers a great ſpace of ground ſufficient to ſhelter a regiment. Neither this, nor any other of the Indian trees are without leaves at any time of the year. It is under theſe trees that the banians and other ſuperſtitious people place their images; and here their hermits voluntarily undergo the ſevereſt penances, condemning themſelves to ſit or lie in one poſture all their lives, rendering themſelves uſeleſs to God and man, by which they hope to merit paradiſe.

The indigo tree or ſhrub, is alſo very valuable: it is about the ſize of a roſe-tree, but has a ſmooth rind. The leaves, when ſtripped off at a proper ſeaſon, are laid together, when a vegetable moiſture exhales from them. They are then immerſed in water, contained in veſſels adapted for the purpoſe. After the water has extracted the blue from the leaves, it is drained off; the ſediment is then expoſed in broad ſhallow veſſels to the ſun-beams, through the heat of which the moiſture evaporates, and the indigo remains in cakes at the bottom of the veſſel.

Oxen are of great uſe, among other Indian animals, either for riding, carrying burthens, or for draft. They are not ſo large but make much more ſpeed than ours, travelling thirty miles a day; and more, chiefly upon a trot; and they have a bunch between their ſhoulders, very convenient for faſtening their pack-ſaddles to; ten thouſand of theſe animals are ſometimes ſeen in a caravan, (which conſiſts of ſeveral hundred or thouſand camels, oxen, or beaſts of burden, loaded with merchandize, and not wheel-carriages) their governors being employed in carrying the proviſions of one province to another, and are ſometimes ſtiled princes, and wear ſtrings of pearl about their necks. The people are divided into four tribes, there being about one hundred thouſand ſouls in each. They live in tents, and have no place they can call their home, encamping on freſh ground almoſt every night, and carrying their wives and children with them. They are attended alſo by their prieſts, and every morning before they ſet out pay their devotion to an idol. One of theſe caravans carries barley, another rice, a third peas and beans, and a fourth ſalt. There are ten or twelve oxen uſually employed in drawing a waggon, and two in drawing a hackery or chaiſe; they feed theſe oxen with barley-dough and graſs when they can get it; but there is little of this to be had in the ſouth of India in the fair ſeaſon, which is the proper time of the year for travelling; camels alſo make part of the caravan, one of which will carry ſeven hundred or eight hundred weight or more; and the dromedaries, which are a ſmaller ſpecies of camels, are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs as the other for their ſtrength, for they will trot two hundred miles a day. Theſe are alſo fed with balls of barley-dough, or ſome other grain, and are very uſeful in this and other hot countries where water is ſcarce, as they will travel eight or nine days without water; but though they are proper for ſandy deſarts, if they come upon a clay ſoil after any rain is fallen, the caravan is forced to lie ſtill till the ground is dry, the camel having a ſmooth foot, without any hoof, and if he ſlips, he is in danger of being ſpoiled.

There is a great number of elephants produced in India, which being an animal of remarkable ſize and quality, we ſhall here give a particular deſcription of it, as being the largeſt quadruped in the univerſe. It is from twelve to fifteen feet high, and about ſeven broad. Its ſkin, about the belly is ſo tough, that a ſword cannot penetrate it: it is of a darkiſh colour, and very much ſcarified; it has exceeding ſmall eyes, large ears, round and full body, and the back riſes to an arch. On each ſide of its jaws, within the mouth are four teeth, or grinders, and two teeth project outwards: in the male, they bend downwards, and are ſtrongeſt; in the female, they turn upwards and are ſharpeſt; both male and female uſe one which is ſharp, as a defenſive weapon, and the other, which is blunted, to grub up trees and plants for food. The teeth of the male ſometimes grow to the length of ten feet, and have been known to weigh three hundred pounds each. The teeth of the female, though leſs, are the moſt valuable ivory. They naturally ſhed their teeth once in ten years, and bury them carefully in the earth, to prevent, as is imagined, their being found by man. The elephants tongue is ſmall, but broad; their feet are round and ample, the legs have joints which are flexible; the forehead is large, and riſing; the tail reſembles that of a hog; and the blood of this creature is colder than that of any other. But the organ which moſt peculiarly diſtinguiſhes the elephant, is its trunk. This ſingular member is crooked, grilly, and flexible, about ſeven feet in length, and more than three in circumference towards the head: but it gradually diminiſhes to the extremity. At the root, towards the noſe, are two paſſages, the one into the head, the other to the mouth; through the firſt it breathes, and by the latter it receives its proviſions, the trunk ſerving the purpoſes of a hand to feed it and a weapon to defend it. It is ſo ſtrong, that it can lift a prodigious weight; and ſo delicate in the ſenſation of feeling, that it can take the ſmalleſt piece of coin from the ground. They delight much in water, and will ſwim a great way.

The male elephant is ſometimes mad after the female, at which times he is apt to be very miſchievous, and will ſtrike any one he meets with but his keeper, and therefore they are at that ſeaſon chained by the legs to great trees, and if by chance they get looſe, they will overturn any thing in their way; nor is it poſſible to ſtop or divert their rage but by fire-works, which burſting with a loud noiſe will make them ſtand ſtill and tremble: when they are in theſe mad fits they ſweat prodigiouſly, and ſmell much ranker than a goat: it is credibly reported, that an elephant having broke looſe in this rage, and making towards the bazar, or market-place, from whence all people fled as faſt as they could, he came to an herb woman's, that uſed to give him a handful of herbs as he paſſed by, and the woman having run away and left her child upon the ground in her fright, the elephant gently took it up with his trunk, and laid it upon a ſtall, without doing it any hurt, and then proceeded to overturn and do miſchief to every thing that came in his way as before.

The Mogul has five hundred, ſome ſay one thouſand of theſe elephants in his ſervice, which are trained up to war, that will not only ſtand fire, but ſuffer a great gun to be fired off their backs: the gun they carry is about five feet long, and placed upon a ſquare frame of wood, which is faſtened to a broad thick pannel, tied on with ſtrong cords and girths. At the four corners of the frame they plant four ſilk flags, or colours upon little antient-ſtaves. Upon the neck of the elephant ſits the man who guides him, who has an iron rod in his hand about half a yard long, ſharp at the lower end, and a hook turned up, with which he pricks him forward, or pulls him back as he ſees fit. The gunner ſits on the wooden frame, where he has his bullets and ammunition, and all things neceſſary for loading and firing, and the gun carries a ball about as large as a tennis-ball.

Beſides the beaſts of burthen already mentioned, they have buffaloes, and aſſes; the buffaloes differ very little from cows and oxen, but only they are a more ſluggiſh animal, and have a ſmooth thick ſkin, without hair: the female give milk, and the fleſh of them is ſometimes eaten, but it is very coarſe food.

The ſheep they have in the ſouthern parts are thin long legged creatures, and have a reddiſh hair inſtead of wool upon their backs, the fleſh of them is lean and dry, and good for little. But towards Perſia and Tartary they have ver

very fine ſheep with good fleeces, and large tails, weighing ſeveral pounds, and it is obſervable of the Perſian ſheep, which are brought into India, that they have from three to ſeven horns apiece, and ſome of their horns ſtanding upright on their foreheads, the battles of their rams are very bloody. Goats they have here plenty, and the fleſh of their kids are tolerable good eating.

The Indian black hogs, with their bellies down to the ground, are looked upon to be the beſt butchers meat they have in India, eſpecially that of the wild hogs, of which there is great plenty; as there are of deer, antelopes, and hares, in which no body claiming any property, all people are at liberty to kill them as well as other game; for notwithſtanding the Mogul is the proprietor of all the lands in the country, he does not monopolize wild beaſts, and wild fowls, as our great men do here: nay, graſs, and herbs, and trees, and whatever alſo grows ſpontaneouſly in the woods, and wide fields, are enjoyed by the people in common; ſo that though they have no lands they can call their own, the privileges they enjoy in thoſe of the prince are almoſt an equivalent. The lion is the only beaſt of the foreſt, the hunting whereof the Emperor reſerves to himſelf. Their wild beaſts are lions, tygers, leopards, wolves, monkies, and jackalls, which laſt are a kind of wild dogs, of the colour of a fox, and ſomething larger, which run about in companies at midnight, and make a hideous howling, not only in the country, but in the middle of great towns. One or more of theſe, it is ſaid, always attends upon the lion, and hunts his prey for him; the truth is, every creature in the foreſt is ſet in motion by the cries of the jackall, and by their dreadful howling terrify other animals, and make them an eaſy prey to the lion. There are great numbers of them in all parts of the country, as well in thoſe places where there are no lions as where there are: and they will dig a dead corpſe out of the grave, if it be not buried very deep: they are conſtant attendants upon caravans and armies, expecting that death will ſupply them with a feaſt.

Here is great plenty of all kind of poultry, as geeſe, hens, ducks, pigeons, turtle-doves, partridges, quails, peacocks, paroquets, &c. The fleſh of the poultry is generally dry, lean ſtuff, and ſome of them have bones as black as jet, but there is ſcarce any difference in the eating, between thoſe which had white bones and thoſe which had black. The vultures are no where ſo common or ſo tame as in India, which we believe proceeds from the banians feeding them as they do other animals, for the banian tree abovementioned are quite covered with them, nor will they ſtir till a ſhot is fired at them, though the perſon is under the tree; they are conſiderably larger than an eagle, and much of the ſame make. But there is a kite with a white head which the banians have ſtill a greater veneration for, and ſeem to pay it divine honours. It is not an uncommon thing for theſe birds as they are flying at noonday, to be overcome with the intenſe heat of the ſun and drop down in the ſtreets, and upon ſuch an accident our ſoldiers never fail to make ſix-pence or a ſhilling of it, for they carry the kite into the market-place, and threatning to wring his neck off, the ſuperſtitious people croud about him and contribute their half-pence a piece for the bird's liberty. We are informed by a traveller, that they have no great variety of ſinging birds in India, though he was a conſiderable time in the woody part of the country; but there is one leſs than a wren which is exceeding pretty, adorned with the gayeſt plumage, and whoſe notes equal the beſt of ours. The numerous herds of monkeys which haunt the woods in the ſouthern parts of India are terrible enemies to theſe little birds, but nature has taught them to preſerve themſelves and their young ones, by building their neſts at the extremity of the twigs, where they hang like ſmall purſes out of their reach, or in places inacceſſible to their enemies. There are alſo in this country bats almoſt as large as kites.

We may reckon, among other inconveniencies that leſſen the pleaſure of living in this deſirable country, thoſe ſwarms of inſects and reptiles that perpetually diſturb the natives, but much more foreigners, particularly the gnats or muſketoes, as they are called, that are always buzzing about our ears, whoſe ſtings ſwell a man's head and face at his firſt coming a-ſhore, that his friends can hardly know him. The ſtings have not this effect afterwards, indeed, but people can never reſt in quiet for them, unleſs ſome ſlave ſtands by and bruſhes them off, while they ſleep. Bugs are another plague, but theſe may be avoided by tarring the feet of the cot or couch the perſon lies on, for a bug will never crawl over tar, which they have an averſion to, or are ſtopped by their ſticking in it.

Of the ſcorpions there are ſeveral kinds, the wood ſcorpions are ſaid to be black and their ſting mortal. The houſe ſcorpions we cannot well avoid ſeeing often, they are about the length of a man's little finger and as thick, ſhaped almoſt like a lizzard, but carry their tails turned up upon their backs, and at the end of the tail there is a ſting not much bigger than a hornet's, always viſible; a gentleman who had the misfortune to be ſtung, related that for the firſt twelve hours after, the pain was as great as if a red hot iron had been applied to the part, that he run into the ſtreet like a madman, till they laid hold of him and anointed the place with oil of ſcorpion, and that after the firſt twelve hours the pain gradually abated for twelve hours more, till at length it wore quite off.

There is likewiſe a little green ſnake which will dart from tree to tree, where the trees ſtand thick, whence ſome people have given them the appellation of the flying ſerpent.

Snakes alſo will ſometimes get into rooms, or warehouſes, and conceal themſelves, and if you happen to come too near them, will dart themſelves at you and bite. They are dangerous too abroad, if you come near the cover where they conceal themſelves, and few people care to wainſcot, or hang their rooms, leſt this kind of vermin get behind them. Snakes and ſerpents are of various kinds, of which the cobre capelle, or hooded ſerpent, is the moſt beautiful, and his bite is reckoned the moſt dangerous. When he dances to muſic, he opens his head as wide as one's hand, and ſhews a kind of human face. Theſe reptiles are firſt drawn from their holes by means of a muſical inſtrument, ſomewhat like a flagellet; ſo powerfully, as we are well informed, does the muſic operate upon them. The country phyſicians can cure his bite, but they pretend to do it chiefly by a charm; however, they give the patient a medicine and ſing to keep him wake, for, it is ſaid, if he ſleeps, he dies; and the poiſon, we are told, inclines the wounded man to ſleep.

During the rains, frogs and toads do multiply prodigiouſly, and grow to a conſiderable ſize, which has given ſome people occaſion to imagine it rained frogs. Their rats, which they call bandecoots, alſo grow to a very great ſize, three or four times as big as ours, and are ſo impudent that they will hardly give a man the way; but the moſt dangerous of all venomous creatures, are their ſcorpions, centipedes and ſerpents, of which there are various kinds, and as they will harbour and breed in every corner, there is no ſuch thing as being ſecure from them, but by continual ſweeping and bruſhing; and this we preſume is the reaſon that no body has any wainſcot or hangings in their houſes, for here they would certainly make their neſts. The centipede (i. e. hundred feet) takes its name from the great number of legs it has; it is a little creature not much bigger than a gooſe quill, and three or four inches long, but though it is ſo ſmall, its bite is extremely dangerous.

Swarms of ants alſo infeſt many parts of this country; and they are particularly deſtructive to cloaths, furniture, and even buildings.

There is a great variety and quantity of ſea and river-fiſh in India: ſea-fiſh are the cheapeſt food we can eat; among theſe are dolphins, albacores and bonitoes, which are uſually met with a good diſtance from land. The dolphin is much abuſed by our painters, they certainly meant a porpoiſe or ſea-hog, when they drew a dolphin, which is the ſtraiteſt fiſh that ſwims, and has the brighteſt colours, eſpecially while he is alive; but he is dead almoſt as ſoon as he is taken out of the water; however, his colours are then exceeding fine. He may be about a yard long, the fleſh white and well taſted, and ſwims at the rate of eight or nine miles an hour, as does alſo the albacore and bonito. The bonito undoubtedly takes its name from its being highly agreeable to the taſte of the Portugueſe, the firſt Europeans that navigated the Indian ocean, and gave it this name, which in their language, ſignifies delicious. It is a firm, but dry fiſh, and requires a good deal of ſauce to make it palatable. The albacore is nearly of the ſame kind as the bonito, but grows to a much larger ſize; ſome weigh from fifty or ſixty to one hundred pounds, and are ſtill drier eating than the bonito. All theſe purſue the flying fiſh, the latter ſpring out of the water, and fly circularly near half a mile, while their fins, which ſerve them for wings, are dry, and then they drop into the water again, where their enemies, the dolphins, are ready to receive them; they jump out of the water therefore as before, and take another flight as long

as their wings are wet, and this they repeat till they are devoured, or have made their eſcape: whitings, and a fiſh like a bream, but much larger, we eat near the coaſt, and another called the baldpate, having no ſcales on the head or neck. The raven fiſh is alſo good food, which is about a ſpan long, and their rivers and reſervoirs, or ponds, afford carp and eels: The ſhark is the greateſt devourer of any fiſh we meet with at ſea: there are ſome from twelve to twenty feet long. He does not only feed upon fiſh, but will chop off a man's leg at a bite, and is miſchievous when he is taken out of the water. The carpenter therefore ſtands ready with his ax, when he is drawn to the ſide of the ſhip, to cut off his tail, which diſables him from doing hurt. He has ſeveral rows of teeth, according to his age: but as he does not ſwim more than two or three miles an hour, it is eaſy to avoid him. When a bait is thrown out for him, faſtened to a great hook, two or three fiſh, twice the bigneſs of gudgeons, and prettily ſtriped, run before him, and ſmell to the bait, and then return to their maſter again, as if they would inform him if it was proper for him. Then he comes to it, and turning upon his back, takes in the bait, and the motion of the ſhip ſtrikes the hook into his jaws; we may eaſily ſee the whole tranſaction, the ſea being as clear as cryſtal at a diſtance from land. The reaſon he turns upon his back to take the bait, is, that his ſnout, or upper jaw, is ſo much longer than the under jaw, that he cannot take it in without turning upon his back: ſhark's fleſh is very indifferent food, but when beef is wanting, it will go down. The pilot fiſh are looked upon as the niceſt fiſh the ſea produces; they rarely take a hook when in company with a ſhark: but when they part from him, they will ſometimes bite and be caught. Theſe fiſh, which are about a foot and a half in length, are tranſverſely ſtreaked with blue and a kind of yellowiſh brown, which hath a moſt beautiful appearance in the water: they, however, when taken out, loſe much of their luſtre.

There are very good ſhell-fiſh to be met with upon the coaſt of India, ſuch as crabs, oyſters, &c. The oyſters at Fort St. George are much of the ſame ſize as ours in England, and equally good; but there are ſome ſhell-fiſh in thoſe ſeas of a prodigious bulk. There was a ſhell, much of the ſhape of the under ſhell of an oyſter, which ſtood in the fort at Madras, which, when the fiſh was in it, muſt have been a load for a man to carry.

There are amphibious animals, called alligators or crocodiles, in India, eſpecially in the mouth of the Ganges, that are as great devourers of fleſh as the ſharks: they are invited hither by the multitude of dead bodies which are caſt into this river, on which they prey, as they do upon the living when they have an opportunity; it is ſaid they will take in the body of a whole man at once, ſome of them being twenty feet long; they have rather claws than legs, and their backs are armed with impenetrable ſcales. The crocodile will purſue his prey as well by land as water; but then, as his body is of that unreaſonable length, he turns with ſo much difficulty, that a man may eaſily avoid him, if he ſees him. He lies in the ſedge, or other cover by the bank-ſide, and, looking almoſt like an old tree the traveller ſometimes approaches him, not being apprehenſive of his danger, and the monſter jumps upon him and devours him.

There are no mines of gold and ſilver opened in India, though it cannot be ſuppoſed but in ſo vaſt an extent of country there muſt be ſome, though perhaps not worth extracting, eſpecially as there are mines in ſeveral of the neighbouring kingdoms, particularly in Siam, Pegu, &c. Some indeed mention copper, iron, and lead-mines, but if there be ſuch, many of them are not wrought, for lead was formerly one of the beſt commodities the merchants carried to India. The diamond mines are the only remarkable ones: theſe lie chiefly in the provinces of Viſiapour and Golconda, of which notice has been taken already. India has been famous for ſome other valuable jewels, particularly pearls: they fiſh for pearl-oyſters in the ſtreights of Ramanakoiel, between the continent of India and the iſland of Ceylon, which is now in the power of the Dutch.

SECT. VI.

Contains an account of the Indian manufactures, trade, foreign and domeſtic, navigation, ſhipping, &c.

THE Indoſtan merchants, the banians, and ſome others, carry on a prodigious rich trade to Perſia and Arabia, eſpecially from Surat, furniſhing thoſe countries with all the rich merchandize of India, and bringing from thence Perſian carpets, pearl, coffee, and other goods, the produce of thoſe countries, but more treaſure than any thing, which they hire Engliſh and Dutch ſhips to carry to Surat for them, as they are better able to defend theſe rich cargoes againſt pirates than country ſhips are; and this appears to be a conſiderable branch of the company's profits; for they exact an extravagant price for the freight of the goods, as well as paſſengers, which the Indians can afford very well to pay, theſe ſhips being loaden as deep as they can ſwim, their cargoes valued at two hundred thouſand pounds and upwards ſometimes. The company alſo uſually ſend a ſhip upon their own account to Mocha in Arabia, every year, for coffee. Though the Mogul has a ſea-coaſt of two thouſand miles extent, he has ſcarce a ſingle ſea-port, or a ſhip of war to protect the trade of his ſubjects. There are no harbours a ſhip can get into, except Goa, Bombay, and the mouth of the Ganges, which are all poſſeſſed by Europeans. It may truely be ſaid, that though the Mogul's ſubjects are ſome of the richeſt merchants in the world, they have not a ſingle man of war or harbour for their ſecurity, in any part of his dominions. Beſides their traffic by ſea, the Indians having long had a very conſiderable trade by land, by numerous caravans, which travelled to Perſia and Bochara, and from thence to Ruſſia and Tartary, to Trapezond on the Black-ſea, to Aleppo and Smyrna, and to Conſtantinople on the Boſphorus.

The principal manufactories of this kingdom, are ſilk, muſlins, cottons, chints, and callicoes; we import from thence diamonds and other precious ſtones, great quantities of pepper the growth of the Malabar coaſt, ſaltpetre, indigo, cardamums, opium, aſſafœtida, and a great variety of phyſical drugs. The goods carried from Europe thither, are Engliſh broad-cloth, lead, looking-glaſſes, ſword-blades, knives, haberdaſher's wares, gold and ſilver lace, tin-ware, wine, brandy, beer, and ſome other proviſions, taken off chiefly by our own factories; the ſhips alſo frequently take in flints with their ballaſt, for there is not a flint to be found in India, at leaſt in thoſe parts the Europeans have viſited, inſomuch that a bag of gun-flints is almoſt as valuable as money in the inland country, where the people had not an opportunity of being ſupplied by our ſhipping; but it muſt be confeſſed, that all the goods we carry to India are a trifle, compared with the bullion and foreign coin tranſported thither. Our ſhips are in a manner empty of merchandiſe when they go out, though there is hardly any of them carry leſs than three or fourſcore thouſand pounds of treaſure, which has made it a queſtion, whether the India trade be of any advantage to this nation.

Weaving is the principal employment throughout India; but the greateſt manufactory is at Daca in Bengal, where the fineſt callicoes, muſlins, and dimities are made. Thoſe manufactured for the immediate uſe of the Great Mogul and his zanannahs, are of exquiſite workmanſhip, and oftentimes greater value than any that are permitted to be ſold either to natives or foreigners. The filligrane are admirable, the workmanſhip coſting a great deal more than the metal itſelf. It is not perforated as with us, but cut with ſhreds, and joined with ſuch inimitable art, that the niceſt eye cannot perceive the juncture. The embroidery and needle-work are greatly ſuperior to any thing of the kind done in Europe; but it is remarkable, that there are no female embroiderers or ſempſtreſſes, but the men do all the work in theſe branches, and their patience is aſtoniſhing as their ſlowneſs is ſingular. Gold and ſilver ſilks and gauſes are manufactured at Benaras; but their richneſs exceeds their elegance. They are executed without taſte, and make a very dull appearance when finiſhed, being deſtitute of that delightful gloſs, and thoſe vivid colours, which ſo greatly enliven, and give ſuch ſpirit and beauty to the ſilks and gauſes of Europe and other countries.

It has been eſtimated that there have been annually exported three thouſand five hundred bales of callicoes from Coromandel to the ſeveral ſea-ports of India; of theſe the Engliſh carry one thouſand two hundred to Bombay, Malabar, Sumatra, and the Philippine iſles; the French eight hundred to Malabar, Mocha, and the iſle of France; and the Dutch one thouſand five hundred to their ſeveral ſettlements; Coromandel ſupplies Europe with nine thouſand five hundred bales; three thouſand of which are brought by the Engliſh; three thouſand by the Dutch; two thouſand five hundred by the French; and eight hundred by the Danes.

The Indians copy with exactneſs, but have neither genius to invent, nor ingenuity to improve. Hence their works

works are admirably neat, without being pleasingly elegant; and display the most exquisite fineness, without the least delicacy of taste to give them real merit.

They are, at Surat, very skilful in the art of ship-building; though it must be acknowledged, that their naval, as well as their other architecture, is rather awkward and clumsy. Their vessels are made of a wood called beak, which is as durable and as solid as oak, and their masts come from the coast of Malabar. Their ropes are made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut tree, and their sail-cloths from their cotton manufactures. They use the gum of the damar-tree for pitch; and their anchors are for the most part European: the most valuable of their cordage also is the produce of Europe. The small vessels that are used along the coast of Malabar, are made of the above wood, the planks being fastened together with cords; they are flat at the bottom, and have not any rudder.

The Indians use a kind of float (for it can neither be called a boat or vessel), which they find is of great use in carrying anchors, great guns, and other heavy weights on board a ship, and that is nothing more than three rough timber logs tied together called a cattamaran, on which they sometimes set up a sail, and at others paddle along with a flat stick, about as broad as a man's hand. They go out upon these three or four miles to sea a fishing; and one hundred of them are frequently seen on a line. On one of these cattamarans, an English officer, by setting up a sail, has gone one hundred miles along the coast in the fair season; and there seems to be no less danger on these than in in a boat, because the timber will not sink. All the difficulty is, to get through the surf that beats on the shore when the winds blow hard. In such weather the sea has sometimes overset the cattamaran, and consequently beat off the waterman; but he turned his logs, again got upon them, and made his way through the surf to the ship he was sent to, which was at that time in great distress, and to the relief of which he was sent.

SECT. VII.

Treating of the learning, languages, characters, arts and sciences, physicians, diseases, &c. of the Indians.

IT is the general opinion, that the sciences originated in this country, the Greeks having travelled into India for instruction before the time of Pythagoras; however, at present they have not much learning, but have some traditions concerning Aristotle and Avicenna (the latter was born at Samarcand, Tamerlane's capital) and the Moors have some passages of the Old Testament in the Arabian language; the Moors, many of them, being descendants of the Arabians.

The Gentoos, or original Indians, begin the year the first of March, and the Moors the tenth, when it is supposed the sun enters into Aries (the vernal equinox) the year being divided by the Moors into thirteen moons. From the first of March to the tenth, the Moors celebrate a grand festival to introduce the new year, and then every governor and great officer makes a present to his prince, who appoints what posts every man shall hold the following year.

The Indians are better versed in the practice of arithmetic than in any other branch of the mathematics, and will cast up a sum only by the help of their fingers, sooner than an European shall with his pen. The bramins calculate an eclipse pretty exactly, but seem to be very much out in other parts of astronomy, when they imagine the moon to be above the sun, the contrary being easily demonstrated in an eclipse; and what is still more absurd, they believe, when the sun sets, that he hides himself behind some mountain, having no notion of the earth's being spherical. They know the signs of the zodiac, however, and in their language call them by the same names we do. But astrology is their beloved study; none of their princes will undertake any thing of moment, until they have enquired of the astrologer, if the hour be fortunate; and if he be of opinion the time the prince designed to begin the enterprize is not favourable, he waits till the cunning-man directs him to begin it, and sets out that very moment.

Their skill in physic is not very great, understanding nothing of anatomy; however they use simples, and apply them with success, and have secret recipes which they do not communicate. In several distempers abstinence is only prescribed, and they seldom eat any thing but a little congee or gruel made of rice, till they find themselves better.

The mort-de-chin rages sometimes on the coast of Malabar: it proceeds from indigestion, and throws the patient into a violent vomiting and purging, with racking pains, which sometimes carry them off in twenty-four hours, is cured by clapping a red hot iron to the sole of the foot, near the heel; and it is said that the cholic is frequently cured by heating an iron ring red hot, about an inch thick, and an inch and a half diameter, and applying it to the patient's belly, so that the navel may be in the center of it; it may be taken off again immediately, but the sudden revolution it causes in the belly, it is said, will soon ease the patient of his pain.

The Indians are also subject to the bloody flux, which they cure by the prescription of stewed rice. The plague also frequently visits them, for which they seem to have no remedy.

The language of the Moors is different from that of the antient original Indians, but, however, they have borrowed the Indian characters, being destitute of letters themselves, and in all their writings use either the characters of the Pagan Indians, or of the Persians. The court language is the Persian, which is spoke by all the great omrahs, and the polite world in general: the learned language is the Arabian, and is written backwards from the right hand to the left, like the Hebrew, from whence they borrow many words; but this is still to be understood of the Moors; for the antient Indians have a great variety of other languages, very different from those used by the Moors. The bramins, or brachmans, which is the chief sect among the idolators, have a language peculiar to themselves, and in that their records, and books of divinity, and philosophy, and the fables of their priests are written, wherein their ignorance in the creation of the world, and the duration of it, are sufficiently manifest.

Indostan, incorporated with many Persian and Arabic words, is spoken in that and several other parts of India, though the accent and dialect differ in the respective places where it is spoken; the purest is in the province of Agra.

The Pagans generally write on the cocoa-nut or palm-tree leaves, with an iron stile or bodkin. They do not write in a straight line downwards, as the Chinese, but from the left hand, slanting to the right; and though in most places the long narrow palm leaves and bodkin are used, yet the Moors have a thin shining paper, sometimes ten feet in length and a foot broad, and they tack as many sheets together as the writing requires; the pen they write with is the antient calamus, or reed, about the thickness of a goose quill. When they write to a prince, the whole surface of the paper is gilt with gold, and for security of letters of consequence sent to court, they are inclosed in a hollow cane or bamboo, and sealed up, that no wet can hurt them. Upon their seals, or chops as they are called, they have no coat of arms, there being no such thing in the country, but they have their own names engraved upon gold or silver, or perhaps on a cornelian stone.

The antient Indian medals, in such esteem among the Chinese, proves that the arts were cultivated in India even before they were known in China. We owe to them the use of cyphers, which, though imported among us by the Arabians, came originally from India, where also the game of chess was invented.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Mogul's court, forces, revenues, &c. of his civil government, laws and punishments, coins, weights, measures, &c.

AS the Mogul has no council of state to advise with, like other princes, the affairs of the empire are managed by four or five great officers who receive their orders from him, and report the state of the several provinces to him. As the Emperor gives a particular name to every officer he advances, so he always takes a new magnificent title himself on his accession to the throne, as, "the conqueror of the world; the ornament of the throne," and the like. But coronations are not known in this part of the world, nor does the prince ever wear a crown. He sits himself as judge of all criminal matters in the province where the court resides, as his governors do in their respective provinces. The Emperor's sons have the title of sultans, and his daughters of sultanas, and the viceroys that of nabob. The next in degree which answers to our nobility, have the title of chan, or caun, as it is pronounced, and are distinguished by the names they receive upon their advancement, as asaph chan, the rich lord; chan-channa, lord of lords. One of the Moguls, it seems, gave his



Dubourg inv.t & Jn.o Roberts sculp.t

Ceremony of WEIGHING *the* GREAT MOGUL

On his Birth Day In the Royal Pavilion.

his chief phyſician the name of mocrib chan, or lord of his health, and theſe names are uſually expreſſive of ſome peculiar excellency, ſuppoſed to be in the perſon preferred. The great military officers are called omrahs, and one who has been general, mirza. The chief eunuchs are treaſurers, ſtewards and comptrollers of the houſhold. His other great officers are the ſecretaries of ſtate, the governors of the elephants, the maſter of the tents, and the keepers of the wardrobe, who are entruſted with the jewels.

The ladies of the haram or ſeraglio, as it is uſually called, are either wives or concubines, princeſſes of the blood, governantes, or ſlaves. Thoſe which are called wives, and are contracted with ceremony, ſeldom exceed four, what the number of the concubines are is uncertain; but it is generally agreed they amount to above a thouſand. The Mogul never matches with the daughter of any foreign prince, but uſually with the daughter of ſome great raja of his own country, notwithſtanding they are idolaters; ſometimes he will advance the meaneſt ſlave to that dignity, if ſhe pleaſe him, and the firſt ſon he has by any of theſe wives, is looked upon to be heir to the empire; though the longeſt ſword uſually carries it, and whoever poſſeſſes himſelf of the throne, immediately deſtroys all his brothers, and their male iſſue. But what is very obſervable, is, that we never hear of above one ſon of any one wife, that ever comes to man's eſtate, which has given occaſion to ſome to conjecture that the reſt are diſpatched as ſoon as they are born. The Emperor always gives ſome fine names to his wives, as he does to his great officers, one was called the light of the world; another the crown of the mahal, &c. Their apartments are ſaid to be extravagantly fine, and their gardens beautiful, ſhades, rivulets, caſcades, and grottos, render thoſe abodes ſo cool and refreſhing, that the heat of the climate is not perceived.

The young ſultans are married when about thirteen or fourteen years of age, and then have a ſeparate court, little inferior to that of the Emperor's; and when they come to age are ſent to diſtant governments, except the heir apparent to the crown, who remains near his father. The young ſultaneſſes are bred up with all the tenderneſs and ſoftneſs imaginable, and are not under ſo ſtrict a reſtraint as the other women, and there do not want inſtances of the Emperor's indulging them in their gallantries, which is the more reaſonable, becauſe the royal blood muſt never match with, and be under the controul of a ſubject. The number of jewels and precious ſtones, which it is ſaid the ladies of the ſeraglio wear, exceeds all belief. Their clothes are as thin and light as poſſible, ſuitable to the heat of the climate. A certain author tells us, that the ſilk they wear is wove ſo very fine, that the whole habit weighs but a few ounces, and that their linen is tranſparent. The governantes of the young princeſſes, and thoſe who are ſpies upon the conduct of the King's women, are a conſiderable body in the ſeraglio; and it is ſaid, have a great ſhare in the government of the empire: if this Prince has any council, it is compoſed of theſe ladies, for it is by their influences the great offices of ſtate, and governments are diſpoſed of, and every one of them have a title anſwerable to ſome great office. One is ſtyled prime miniſter, another ſecretary of ſtate, another viceroy of this or that province; and each lady maintains a correſpondence with the miniſter, whoſe title ſhe bears, and there are eunuchs perpetually carrying letters backwards and forwards between them. By the interpoſition of theſe ladies all buſineſs of conſequence is effected, who have better opportunities of repreſenting things to the Emperor, than his miniſters have without doors. The Mogul is ſerved altogether by women in his retirement; and it is ſaid his perſon is guarded by a number of Tartar women armed with bows and ſcymetars, a multitude of eunuchs alſo guard the gates, and all the avenues to the palace.

The Mogul's forces are computed at about three hundred thouſand in the whole empire; but beſides theſe, there are the forces of the rajahs, or Pagan princes, whom the Mogul has alſo in his pay, which may amount to as many more. But, beſides the troops already mentioned, the Emperor has ſeveral companies and regiments, which may properly be called the body guards or troops of the houſhold; firſt there is a regiment of four thouſand men, called the Emperor's ſlaves, to expreſs their devotion for the perſon of their Prince. This is the moſt honourable body among the Mogul's troops; their captain is called the daroga, who is an officer of great authority, to whom the command of the army is ſometimes committed. Every ſoldier who is admitted into this battalion is marked in the forehead, and out of theſe the menſebdars or ſubaltern officers are taken, who by degrees are preferred to the dignity of omrahs, which anſwers to our general officers. There are alſo the guards of the golden mace, of the ſilver mace, and the iron mace, who carry a club or mace on their ſhoulders, with a large ball or globe at the end plated over; the ſoldiers whereof are differently marked in the forehead; and their pay is proportioned to the metal with which the mace is covered. All theſe bodies are picked men, whom their courage has recommended; and it is neceſſary to have ſerved in one of theſe battalions to be qualified for a poſt in the government.

The arms of a horſeman are a broad ſword bending a little backward, a dagger, a bow and a quiver of arrows, a lance, and ſometimes a ſhort piece like a carbine, and to this is added a great ſhield, ſo that they are really incumbred with arms. A footman carries alſo a ſword and dagger, a ſhield, a bow and arrows, and ſometimes a match-lock muſket, and others of them carry pikes inſtead of muſkets: they have alſo heavy artillery, but are generally obliged to European gunners to manage them; ſome ſhort pieces I have already mentioned, which carry a bullet about as big as a tennis ball, and are fired from the back of an elephant; there are alſo about threeſcore ſmall field pieces which attend the grand army.

Here it may be proper to obſerve the manner in which the Indians encamp and draw up their men when they engage. It has been obſerved already, that the Mogul takes the field during the fair ſeaſon, which laſts ſeveral months, and makes a tour through great part of his dominions, being followed by all ſorts of people; tradeſmen and mechanics, as well as by the ladies, and the reſt of the court, there being ſeldom leſs than one million of ſouls attending him, of which one hundred thouſand are ſoldiers.

The camp is always diſpoſed in a circular form; the Mogul's pavilion being pitched on an eminence in the middle, is ſurrounded by the tents of the court-ladies, about which there is a fence ten feet high, which folds up like a ſcreen. Beyond this incloſure, is another circle of the nobility and great officers of ſtate, and ſo on, the meaneſt people being in that part of the camp, at the greateſt diſtance from the royal pavilion in the center; and there is a market-place well repleniſhed with proviſions in every quarter. In drawing up an army, every general commands his own men, and the moſt honourable place is in the center where the general takes his poſt, that he may be witneſs of the bravery of his troops. They know little of rank and file, or any other order in charging, but every man advances as his natural courage or opium inſpires him. There are not leſs than twenty thouſand or thirty thouſand carriers that conſtantly attend the army, and bring corn, fleſh, ſalt, and all other neceſſaries to the camp. They ſeldom march more than ten miles a day, and always chuſe to pitch their tents, where they may be ſupplied with water. There are a great number of boats alſo laid upon carriages, and drawn after the army for the conveniency of paſſing rivers: leopards, dogs, hawks, and their keepers, make part of the train; theſe expeditions being intended for pleaſure as well as buſineſs. The Mogul ſpends part of his time in hearing and redreſſing the grievances of his ſubjects that live at a diſtance from the capital of his dominions, and the reſt in hawking, hunting, and other ſports; and before the rains begin to fall, this vaſt multitude retire into the towns, which during the fair ſeaſon are almoſt deſerted.

The revenues of the Mogul ariſe from the product of the ground, the labours of the people, the cuſtoms of the ſea-ports, the eſtates of great men which devolve on the crown by their deaths, and preſents from the ſubjects, who never approach their prince or governor empty handed. The viceroy of every province, it is ſaid, is obliged to anſwer the crown ſuch a certain ſum, which he raiſes out of the manufactures and the product of the ſoil: this part of the revenue therefore may eaſily be computed; and Manouchi, who reſided in the Mogul's court forty years, makes theſe alone amount to three hundred eighty ſeven millions one hundred and ninety four thouſand rupees, which he reckons to be of the value of half a crown, but the juſt value is two ſhillings and three-pence, and then the annual revenue of the provinces may be reckoned to be between forty and fifty millions ſterling; and much the greateſt part of the troops being maintained by the reſpective omrahs and rajas, this may be looked upon alſo as a conſiderable addition to the revenue, it ſaving the crown a prodigious expence. The rajas alſo many of them yield a yearly tribute, but then as many of them receive large penſions, one perhaps may balance the other; but the wealth he poſſeſſes himſelf of when any of his viceroys or rich governors die, and the daily preſents he receives from

his ſubjects, muſt amount to an immenſe ſum; the diamond mines alſo are an inexhauſtible treaſure.

So extenſive and deſpotic is the authority of the Great Mogul, that the lives and fortunes of his ſubjects are intirely at his diſpoſal. Civil ſlavery hath here been added to political: and the oppreſſed ſubject has no law to protect him. Here a man ſcarce dare to think; deſpotiſm debars every faculty, and ſtifles every kind ſentiment of the ſoul. The ſubject is neither maſter of his underſtanding, his talents, his life, or property; the will of the Prince being the only law of his ſubjects. When the ſun riſes, the Emperor of Indoſtan ſometimes appears at a window, when all the great men of his court are obliged to attend in his apartments to do him homage. At ſun-ſet he alſo appears at a window, and receives the acclamations of the people. No perſon muſt preſume to enter the imperial palace, except the rajas and great officers, who pay a moſt profound reverence to the Emperor, and proſtrate themſelves when they depart from him.

The principal officers of his empire are, the prime viſir, the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, the treaſurer, the chief of the eunuchs, the general of the elephants, and the maſter of the wardrobe.

When the great Mogul appears in public, no pomp, magnificence, or luxury can be compared to the oſtentatious brilliancy exhibited at that time. He ſits upon a throne of gold glittering with precious ſtones: the throne and monarch are both upon the back of an elephant; which elevation gives the Emperor ſuch an air of grandeur, as muſt ſurpaſs the conception of any European who has not ſeen him. As the elephant moves ſlowly on, the people fall proſtrate before their reverend and mighty Prince. Thus, he ſupports his deſpotic authority, by dazzling the eyes of his ſlaves, and ſtriking them with terror. On his ſhield are diamonds and rubies; on his head a gaudy turban; and on his neck, a rich chain of pearls. Beſides a ſword, he has a quiver of arrows; and on the right and left hand ſide of him hang rubies or diamonds: he holds a ſtaff in his hand, adorned with drilled diamonds. He has rich bracelets on his wriſts, as well as above his elbows; and on his fingers are coſtly rings.

The Mogul, when he marches at the head of his troops, is attended by about one hundred elephants, richly capariſoned, and ten or twelve thouſand men. In the centre either on an elephant, or a fine Perſian horſe, rides the Emperor. He is ſeated in a covered chariot drawn by oxen, when he goes into the country.

The four principal ſecretaries of ſtate are, 1. The bagſchi, who has the care of the army. 2. The adelet who ſuperintends the miniſters. 3. The divan, who divides the land to the officers of provinces, and inſpects their conduct. 4. The caſaumon, or high treaſurer, who every week lays the accounts of the provinces before the Emperor.

The Mogul is above ſending any ambaſſador to a foreign court, looking upon the reſt of the princes of the world to be much inferior to him; neither does he treat ambaſſadors as repreſentatives of their prince, but as common meſſengers. The Mogul's letters and orders are received with as much reverence as if he himſelf was preſent, for the governor to whom they are ſent, having intelligence they are upon the road, rides out with all his officers to meet the pattamar, or meſſenger, who brings them: he no ſooner ſees the packet, but he alights from his horſe and falls down on his face to the earth, then he takes them from the meſſenger and lays them on his head, whereon he binds them faſt, and returning back to the court where he uſually diſpatches buſineſs, he reads them, and returns an anſwer without delay.

The following account will afford ſome idea of the adminiſtration of juſtice in India. When the Great Mogul himſelf holds a divan or public court, he is ſeated on the muſtnud, which is a kind of ſtage elevated to the height of about two feet, covered with a ſuperb cloth, embroidered and fringed with gold. In the centre of the muſtnud is placed an oblong plate of ſilver gilded, turned up at the edges, and reſembling a tea-board, upon which the conqueror of the world (as the Mogul ſtyles himſelf) ſits croſs-legged like a taylor. His officers ſurround him, his courtiers flatter him, and the unfortunate petition him. On the latter occaſion the petitioner is obliged to leave his ſlippers on the outſide of the door, and advance barefooted in token of humility; he then makes three ſalams, or ſalutes, to expreſs his profound veneration, bows his forehead to the ground, and preſents his petition, together with a purſe of gold, as the one would be uſeleſs without the other, for the firſt only contains a detail of grievances, but the latter is filled with the moſt perſuaſive eloquence. The petitioner on giving the paper or purſe, uſually ſays, "Read this my petition; the day will come when all petitions ſhall be read." If the Mogul does not chuſe to receive the petition, he frowns and turns away his head; but if the petitioner finds favour in his ſight, that is, if the bribe is ſufficiently large, and the miniſters have been previouſly well feed, he ſmiles and gives a gracious nod of approbation. The Mogul does not, however, always redreſs the grievance when he receives the memorial and its golden attendant, but is frequently ſo charmed with the rhetoric of the latter, that he puts the object of oppreſſion to the trouble and expence of repeating the former. Such is the equity of this country, where avarice is the leading principle, and the judge himſelf is even a ſtranger to every juſt and tender ſentiment.

There are no written laws in the empire; however certain puniſhments are uſually inflicted on certain crimes, as murder and theft are puniſhed by death, but the manner of the execution is entirely in the breaſt of the prince or his viceroy. They never ſuffer malefactors to lie above a night in priſon, and very often not at all, for if the offender be apprehended in the day time, he is immediately brought before the governor and either acquitted or condemned, and from judgment he is hurried to his execution, which is uſually done in the bazar or market-place; ſome malefactors are hanged, others beheaded, ſome impaled on ſharp ſtakes, ſome torn in pieces by wild beaſts or killed by elephants, and others bitten by ſnakes. If an elephant be commanded to diſpatch a criminal immediately, he ſtamps upon the wretch who lies trembling before him, with his broad round foot, and cruſhes him to death in a moment; if it be intended he ſhould feel his death and die in torture, the elephant breaks firſt the bones of his legs, then his thighs and arms, and leaves him to die by the wounds he has given him. Sir Thomas Roe relates, that when he was at the Mogul's court, a hundred thieves were brought chained before the Mogul with their accuſation, and the Mogul immediately ordered them to be carried away, the chief of them to be torn in pieces by dogs, and the reſt to be put to death in the ordinary way; accordingly the priſoners were divided into ſeveral quarters of the town, the chief of them was torn to pieces by twelve dogs before the ambaſſador's houſe, and thirteen of his fellows at the ſame place, had their heads tied down to their feet, and their necks being chopped half off with a ſword, they were left naked and bloody in the ſtreets, where they became a great annoyance to the neighbourhood.

The Mogul expects preſents not only from all his ſubjects whenever they addreſs him, but from ambaſſadors and foreign miniſters; and ſuitable to their preſents, generally is their reception.

The coins we meet with in this country are the pice or caſh which are copper, and about the value of a half-penny; fanams, a ſilver coin of the value of three-pence; the rupee, another ſilver coin, two ſhillings and three-pence; the gold moor or rupee, which is about the value of fourteen ſilver rupees, and the pagoda, ſo called from having the figure of a pagoda ſtamped upon it, is of the value of nine ſhillings; the laſt are coined chiefly by the rajas or petty princes, they are flat on one ſide and the other is convex. The gold and ſilver coins are finer here than in any other country. Foreigners have their mints, and coin both gold and ſilver, particularly the Engliſh at Fort St. George; foreign coins alſo are current in this country, but there is not much of this; for little matters they ſometimes uſe bitter almonds, or ſea ſhells called black-a-moor's teeth, ſixty whereof are about the value of a half-penny. Whatever foreign coin falls into the hands of the Mogul's governors is melted down into rupees, with the characters of the reigning Emperor, and after his death, it abates in the value a half-penny or penny, on account of wear, as they pretend, and only the new coin paſſes at the full value.

Great ſums are reckoned by lacks, carons, and arabs. A lack is a hundred thouſand rupees. A caron or carol, as ſome call it, is a hundred lacks, and an arab is ten carons. They make a three-fold diviſion of intereſt; one of which is vice, another neither vice nor virtue; and a third virtue; this is their manner of expreſſion. The intereſt that is vice, is four per cent a month; and the intereſt that is virtue, one.

At Surat corn and rice and other commodities which are ſold with us by hollow meaſure, are there ſold by weight, the common weight at Surat is the ſeer, about one thouſand three hundred and three pounds; ſilks and callicoes are ſold by the pieces or by the cobit, which contains twenty-ſeven inches.

The croſs by which they meaſure their roads is alſo very uncertain, near the coaſts it is about an Engliſh mile and an half, but farther up in the country, and particularly about Brampour, it is near two Engliſh miles.

In liquid and dry meaſures, one meaſure is a pint and a half; eight meaſures are one mercall, or twelve pints; and four hundred mercalls are one garſe, or ſix hundred gallons.

SECT. IX.

Contains an account of the religions, profeſſed in the empire of the Great Mogul, and the ſectaries or tribes into which they are divided.

IDOLATRY is the religion of the Pagan inhabitants of Indoſtan, who are much the moſt numerous. Theſe are divided into upwards of ſixty caſts or tribes, that will not marry, or eat and drink with one another; and, as I apprehend, every caſt is of a different trade or profeſſion. The chief of theſe tribes, which is eſteemed the moſt noble, is that of the bramins or brachmans, who are their prieſts; and theſe are divided again, 1. Into thoſe that eat no fleſh. 2. Thoſe that eat ſome kind of fleſh, and refuſe others. 3. Thoſe that marry. 4. Thoſe that vow celibacy, and will not ſo much as look upon a woman; and, 5. The bramins that forbear walking at all, leſt they ſhould deſtroy ſome living creatures; theſe wear a piece of ſilk or muſlin before their mouths, that they may not draw in a fly with their breath. Neither will they burn any wood, leſt they ſhould kill ſome inſect, and carry a bruſh always in their hands to ſweep the place they deſign to ſit on, leſt they ſhould diſlodge the ſoul of ſome animal; and ſome relate they avoid marrying for fear they ſhould deſtroy ſome animal by their embraces. Theſe bramins are prieſts of every ſect, and are eſteemed not only the moſt noble, but the moſt learned of the Indian tribes, having a language peculiar to themſelves, in which their divinity and rule of life is written; and according to their tradition, it was given them by Brama, their lawgiver, great part of which they repeat extempore to their followers. They hold there is but one God infinitely perfect, who has exiſted from all eternity, but that there are three ſubordinate deities, namely, Brama, whom he veſted with the power of creation; Whiſtnow, the preſerver, and Routeren, the enemy and deſtroyer of mankind.

The Indians believe, that the images they worſhip were once holy men upon earth, and are mediators for them to the ſupreme God in heaven; and they have ſome traditions of the creation and of the flood; but theſe are mixed with many fables: As that Brama made a great number of worlds, at leaſt fourteen; that the world we live in has continued ſeveral hundred thouſand years, and that it has ſtill four hundred thouſand years to come: that their god Mahadeu has appeared ſeveral times on earth, under different forms. One of the images of him has four heads, and four arms; another, called Whiſtnow, has the head of a hog with tuſks, and the body of a man; another is part man and part fiſh; a fourth has ten heads and twenty hands, and ſeveral other monſtrous figures we find adored in India.

A pre-exiſtent ſtate ſeems firmly believed by the bramins, and that ſome are rewarded and others puniſhed here for what they have done in another world; they believe alſo that this is a ſtate of trial, and we ſhall be dealt with in another life according to our behaviour here. The bramins adviſe their followers to go in pilgrimage, to certain places eſteemed holy, and eſpecially to the pagodas near the mouths of the Ganges; the waſhing in that river alone will cleanſe them from a multitude of ſins, in the opinion of moſt Indians; but however erroneous their creed may be in ſome reſpects, they are much to be commended for the moral duties they teach, namely, temperance, juſtice, and humanity. A certain Proteſtant divine relates, that a bramin aſſured him, that they acknowledged one ſupreme God; and when they repreſented him as having a thouſand eyes, and as many hands and feet, they only intended to teach their people that he is almighty and omniſcient, to induce them to be very exact in the performance of all moral duties.

The moſt honourable tribe or caſt next to the bramins, is the rajapute, or raſboot; and this is the only fighting tribe, making arms their profeſſion. Theſe have ſome of the ſuperſtitions of the bramins, but are not quite ſo ſcrupulous; they will eat the fleſh of moſt animals, except that of neat cattle, and ſome other beaſts they worſhip. The banians are the third tribe in honour, and the moſt tender of the lives of animals of any of them. They do not only prohibit the killing of them, but ſtudy all ways for their preſervation, which proceeds from their favourite doctrine of tranſmigration, believing that every creature is animated by a human ſoul, and is noble or ignoble, according to their behaviour in a pre-exiſtent ſtate.

The begging friars among the Pagans are called ſaquirs, and of theſe there are great numbers: they make vows of poverty and celibacy; but their vows of poverty are ſo far from depriving them of food, that their profeſſion is the moſt effectual means to be provided for. They are almoſt naked, letting their hair hang down to their middles, powdering it with aſhes; and the relieving them is eſteemed a very meritorious act; but though theſe gentlemen appear to the world to be extremely mortified, they are ſometimes very merry among themſelves. There is alſo an order of mendicant ſtrollers among the Mahometans, who vow poverty and celibacy; but theſe rather command than aſk charity, and if denied, plunder the villages they march through.

Beſides the ſects already mentioned, there is another called gaurs, who fled hither from Perſia, when the Mahometans made themſelves maſters of that country. Theſe are deſcended from the ancient Perſians, who worſhipped the ſun and fire: they adore God the creator of the world, but have a tradition, that Zertooſt, or Zoroaſter, their lawgiver ſome thouſand years ſince, brought fire from heaven and commanded his diſciples to worſhip it. The extinguiſhing the holy fire, which has been kept continually burning ever ſince in their eggarees or temples, is accounted a great ſin; and they do not reckon the putting out any other fire a much leſs crime. The cock is adored by them with as much devotion as the cow is by the banians. They abſtain from eating beef and pork at Surat, in compliance with the cuſtom of the country; the Pagans of India forbearing to kill the one, which they hold ſacred; and the Moors abominating the other, looking on themſelves to be polluted by the touch of any man that has but touched a hog. They ſet a part the firſt day of every month for their public worſhip, and have prayers alſo on ſome other days.

The religion of the Mahometans or Muſſelmen will be treated of in our account of Turky.

The hindoos or gentoos, are diſtinguiſhed into four tribes, or claſſes. 1. The bramins, who received their name from Brinha. This claſs is the moſt noble, as it proceeded from the head of Brinha, when he created the world. It is allegorical of their ſuperiority over the other claſſes. 2. Sittri, or the military. This claſs is ſaid to have proceeded from the heart of Brinha, which derivation is ſaid to be emblematical of the courage neceſſary to warriors. 3. Bice, or the trader. This claſs is figuratively ſaid to have ſprung from the belly, as trade ſupplies mankind with the neceſſaries of life. 4. Sudder, or labourer, which claſs is typified by having ſprung from the feet, pointing out by implication the menial ſituation of thoſe who belong to it. The harri or hellachore claſs, or caſt, are the refuſe of both the Mahometans and gentoos, and their only employ the moſt baſe and ſervile offices. The people of this claſs, being excluded from all ſociety among the Indians of every denomination, are glad to find refuge in the lap of any communion; they therefore become Roman Catholics, and the miſſionaries have few other proſelytes to boaſt of. It is very probable, from hence, that the black Roman Catholics in general are converts more from compulſion than inclination; for if a married woman commits any atrocious crime, or happens to miſtake any man's bed, for that of her huſband, he immediately cuts off her hair, which is the greateſt mark of infamy ſhe can be branded with. After ſuch an ignominy, none will converſe, or be connected with her; ſhe therefore flies to her prieſt, and embraces the Roman Catholic religion, to avoid being totally excluded from ſociety.

Though the hindoos are gentle, patient, temperate, regular in their lives, charitable, and ſtrict obſervers of their religious ceremonies; yet they are at the ſame time ſuperſtitious, effeminate, avaricious, and crafty; deceitful and diſhoneſt in their dealings, void of every principle of honour, generoſity, or gratitude. Gain is the predominant principle; and they can cheat without fearing the anger of their gods; as a part of their gains, which is beſtowed in gifts to their prieſts, or charities to the poor, will procure their pardon for any offence.

It ſeems generally agreed, that Chriſtianity hath been planted here ever ſince the apoſtles times; but however that be, certain it is, that Chriſtians were found here when the Europeans firſt viſited theſe coaſts, who had a tradition among

among them, that Thomas was martyred near Meliapour, on the coaſt of Coromandel, to which town therefore the Portugueſe afterwards gave the name of St. Thomas; this city ſtands about a league to the ſouthward of Fort St. George, and is at this day a biſhop's ſee. The points wherein theſe Indian Chriſtians differed with the Romiſh church, were their adminiſtering the ſacrament in both kinds, but uſing, inſtead of wine, a liquor made with raiſins, there being no wine made in the country. 2. They bid not baptize their children till they were forty days old, unleſs they were in danger of death. 3. They had no images in their churches but the croſs. 4. They allowed their prieſts to marry once. 5. They uſed no extreme unction. And, 6. They did not acknowledge the pope's juriſdiction. But to the laſt, and ſome of the others, the Romiſh miſſionaries have brought them over, and they go to the ſame church the Portugueſe do, at Madraſs; but not at the ſame time.

SECT. X.

Treats of the marriages and funerals of the Indians.

IT is the cuſtom in India, for the Gentoos, or Pagans, to marry their children in their infancy; the conſent of the proper parties is never aſked, but they are always married to one of their own caſt or tribe, and to one of the ſame trade: a carpenter never marries a ſmith, or a weaver with a waterman. At what age ſoever the parents contract for their children, they do not cohabit till the woman is twelve years of age, and the man ſome years older. Before the match is agreed on, the aſtrologer (whom we take to be a bramin or prieſt) is always conſulted, whether it is likely to prove fortunate. An enquiry alſo is made, what hour is likely to prove propitious for the ſolemnization and conſummation of it. And when all things are ſettled, a grand proceſſion is made through the ſtreets for ſeveral nights ſucceſſively by the light of torches; the lady carried in one palanquin on mens ſhoulders, and the bridegroom in another, with muſic playing before them. When the ſhow is over, the little bride and bridegroom are ſet down at her father's houſe, and here a table being placed between them, they join their hands acroſs it, and the prieſt covering both their heads with a cloth, repeats ſome prayers for their happineſs, and gives them his benediction; and having ſprinkled the company with perfumed water coloured with ſaffron, the ceremony is concluded, and an entertainment prepared for their friends and acquaintance. The woman is entirely in the power of her huſband, and conſequently ſhe regards him as her lord: ſhe brings him no other fortune than her cloaths, and a female ſlave or two. On the contrary, the huſband, or his father, if it be a wealthy family, make rich preſents to the wife's relations: no man (except the bramins and banians) is confined to one woman, but takes as many wives and concubines as he pleaſes, and treats them, as the gentoos do all mankind, with great humanity.

The ſtrange cuſtom of one wife being ſubject to ſeveral huſbands, prevails among ſome of the naires, or nobles: the number is not ſo much limited by any ſpecific law, as by a ſort of tacit convention, by which it rarely exceeds half a dozen. The huſbands cohabit with her alternately, according to priority of marriage; and each on going reſpectively to her, leaves his arms at the door, as a ſignal that none of the others muſt preſume to enter till he departs.

The Indians give a name to their children about ten days after their birth; they aſſemble ten or a dozen children, who ſtanding in a ring hold a ſheet in their hands, wherein the bramin or prieſt pours a quantity of rice, upon which he lays the child to be named; the boys who hold the ſheet ſhaking the child and the rice together about a quarter of an hour, when the father's ſiſter advances and names the child, cuſtom having given her this right; but if the aunt be not preſent, then the father or the mother name the child. A month or two afterwards it is carried to the pagoda or temple to be initiated in the banian religion, where a bramin mixes ſome ſhavings of ſandal wood, camphire, cloves, and other ſweets, and puts them upon the child's head, from which time the infant commences a complete banian. The lying-in-woman is looked upon ſo impure, that none muſt touch her for the firſt ten days but her nurſe, and till forty days are paſt ſhe muſt not concern herſelf in dreſſing meat or any other houſhold affairs. They have ſwinging cradles faſtned to the beam of the houſe, which go much quieter and eaſier than ours that ſtand upon the ground, the ſame ſort are uſed in Holland. The Indians never bind or ſwaddle up their children as we do, but let them go perfectly naked both boys and girls, till they are ſix or ſeven years old, and it is not to be imagined how very young they will crawl about the floor. The inhabitants of the ſouthern part of India, who are moſt of them as black as jet, have a rediſh caſt for ſome time after they are born, and turn quite black as they grow up. There are no crooked or miſ-ſhapen people amongſt them, but they are in general ſtrait and well proportioned; which ſome think proceeds from the leaving them to their natural liberty, and not cramping or ſwaddling the children as we do here. But however that may be, the frequent rubbing and waſhing them in cold water, certainly contributes to prevent, as much as any thing, their being weak and rickety.

When a wife, who has more huſbands than one, brings forth a child, ſhe nominates its father, who is at the expence of educating it; but from the impracticability of aſcertaining the real heir, the eſtates of the huſband deſcend to the children of their ſiſters, or others near in blood.

With reſpect to the funerals of theſe people, ſome bury the bodies of the deceaſed, and others burn them on piles; the latter is the moſt cuſtomary. Before they burn their dead, they carry them on a bier to a ſmall diſtance from the town or village where they died, dreſſed in their uſual apparel. Here a pile is erected, and the corpſe is placed upon it; and, as ſoon as the bramin has done praying, one of the corners of the pile is ſet fire to. When the body is conſumed, its relics or aſhes are gathered and thrown into the ſea by the bramin; for the funeral pile is always erected near the ſea, or ſome large piece of water, as the ready road to paradiſe, the Ganges, and other rivers in India, being the objects of their adoration. The perſon who ſets fire to the pile, is always the neareſt male-relation, who walks bare headed, in a coarſe tattered garment (their common mourning) round it three times before he applies the fire ſtick, and when the whole is in a blaze, abundance of ſweet-wood is thrown into the fire; but the perſon who ſet fire to the pile, appears diſtracted with the moſt aſtoniſhing grief.

We ſhall here give ſome account of the gentoo women burning themſelves on the death of their huſbands. But we muſt firſt premiſe, that, as the gentoo laws allow bigamy, the firſt wife has a limited time given her to conſider whether ſhe will burn herſelf or not; if ſhe declines it, the choice is given to the ſecond; if the ſecond declines alſo, then they both lie under the imputation of being remiſs in the genuine principles of honour and eſteem. Some ſay that this cuſtom was inſtituted in order to terrify the women from poiſoning their huſbands, to which they were once addicted; others, that the women propoſed to enjoy a more exquiſite and durable happineſs with her huſband in another life than ſhe had done in this; and there are others that impute it altogether to prieſtcraft; for that the people of quality being to be dreſſed up with rings and jewels to a very great value, and the bramins only having the privilege of meddling with the aſhes, ſometimes poſſeſſed themſelves of great wealth by this means.

Soon after the ſettlement of the Engliſh at Fort St. George, a bramin woman demanded leave of the governor to burn herſelf with her huſband; and not being able to diſſuade her from her reſolution, and ſtrongly ſolicited by the whole caſt, that he would grant them this their antient privilege, he at length conſented to it, it is ſaid; accordingly great preparations were made, and the woman dreſſed to the beſt advantage, as if ſhe were going to her wedding, the muſic played, her friends rejoiced, and the people ſhouted as on ſome glorious occaſion; but the woman, when ſhe ſaw the funeral pile prepared, and the fire about to be kindled, began to repent herſelf, and would fain have withdrawn, but was hurried on to the pit where the fire was made, and there knocked on the head and murdered by the bramins to prevent her eſcape, and afterwards burnt with her huſband's corpſe.

About the year 1743, the widow of the rhaam Chund Pundit, in her ſeventeenth year, ſignified to the bramins her reſolution of burning herſelf, the dreadful pain of the death ſhe ſought was delineated to her in the moſt ſtriking colours; all, however, had no effect; ſhe even put her hand into the fire and held it there ſome time. Her friends finding her ſo inflexibly determined, conſented to a funeral pile being erected, the melancholy hour approached; ſhe took leave of her mother and three children, diveſted herſelf of her ornaments, walked three times round the pile with the bramins, from whom ſhe received a wick of cotton,



Waledelin. *Walker scalp.*

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ton, and, taking one more tender farewel of her children, &c. aſcended the pile, and ſet fire to it. The above lady's huſband, who was in the twenty-ninth year of his age when he died, was conſumed on the ſame pile with her. She ſeated herſelf by him, looking ſtedfaſtly at him; but, perceiving that the flames blew from her, ſhe, with aſtoniſhing reſolution, ſet fire to it in a freſh place; when the whole was ſoon in a blaze.

We ſhall give but one more deſcription of theſe horrible ſacrifices, as taken from a letter dated from Inglee in Bengal, dated December 30th, 1751, and the horrid deed was committed about fifteen days before the date of the letter, the writer whereof being an eye witneſs of the whole tranſaction. This tragic ſcene was acted at Calcutta in Bengal, when the naked body of a gentoo was laid on a pile of wood, made up in a regular form, and his wife, not above fifteen or ſixteen years of age, walked to the pile, conducted by her friends, her father on one ſide, and her mother on the other. After a great number of previous ceremonies were performed, ſhe walked round the pile ſeven or eight times in a melancholy and devout manner, conducted, as before, by her father and mother: ſhe then ſtepped upon the pile, and quietly laid herſelf down by the corpſe of her huſband, about whoſe neck her hands were faſtened, and her legs tied to his; then both their bodies were anointed with a ſort of unguent called ghee; over them was ſtrewed a ſort of yellow duſt, and they were covered with a cloth, which was kept down by ſome pieces of wood. At laſt, the father of the deceaſed huſband ſet fire to the pile, which ran through it like lightning, by means of the yellow powder. And the fire was ſo fierce, that the ſpectators were obliged to draw backward from the heat. The whole was conſumed to aſhes in about an hour's time.

Theſe ſhocking ſpectacles have been much leſs frequent than formerly, ſince the Moguls became maſters of Indoſtan; for neither the Mahometans or Europeans will now permit the barbarous cuſtom to prevail, where they have any power.

We hinted above, that the mourning uſed here, is a tattered neglected dreſs: to which we may add, that the women ſhave their heads on the death of a huſband; but the men never ſhave their heads, or cut their hair, unleſs it be on the death of a father, or a ſovereign prince. The relations, in order to ſhew their regard for the deceaſed, often viſit the place where the corpſe was burnt, carrying thither rice or other food; which they cannot be ignorant is eaten by beaſts or birds, as ſoon as they are gone.

The Gaurs, the poſterity of the antient Perſians, who fled to India when the Mahometans conquered Perſia, have a repoſitory for their dead about a mile from Surat, where there is a colony of them: they are of opinion that they cannot do their deceaſed friends greater ſervice than by leaving them to be devoured by birds of prey. They therefore erect ſtages or raiſed floors in this repoſitory, which is ſurrounded by a wall twelve feet high, and an hundred in circumference, where may be ſeen great numbers of dead bodies with part of their fleſh torn off by vultures, their eyes dug out and mangled from head to foot, and the vultures ſo glutted with human fleſh, that they can ſcarce raiſe themſelves to fly; ſo different are the cuſtoms of different countries! In moſt places the leaving a corpſe above ground unburied, is eſteemed an act of great impiety, but by the Gaurs it is deemed a piece of barbarity to bury them.

SECT. XI.

Contains the hiſtory of India, from the earlieſt accounts, to the preſent century.

THERE ſeems to have been little more than the name of India known to the antients. Semiramis, ſoon after the commencement of the Aſſyrian empire, is ſaid to have carried her arms thither; and it is conjectured that Bacchus conquered part of this country; but Alexander's invaſion of India, about three hundred years before the birth of Chriſt is not doubted. None of theſe heroes, however, retained any part of their conqueſts if they made any, or reſided there long enough to acquaint themſelves with the ſtate of it, or even to deſcribe the bounds or true ſituation of India: and the Romans never attempted to reduce it under their dominion; conſequently we remain very much in the dark as to theſe people until the reign of Tamerlane, who ſubdued this, and almoſt all the reſt of Aſia, about the year 1400, when it appears to have been divided amongſt a great number of petty ſovereigns.

Tamerlane was the great cham or chief of all the Mogul Tartars. His third ſon Miracha ſucceeded him in the northern provinces of India and Perſia, and in the ſtyle or title of Great Mogul, which title his poſterity, the Emperor of India, enjoy at this day. Miracha made Herat in Perſia the ſeat of his government: but every year, in the fair ſeaſon, made a tour through his Indian dominions, attended by the court and army, and demanded the annual tribute due from thoſe princes, which, it ſeems, was ſometimes denied him; and he found himſelf obliged to make war upon one of thoſe raja's, to compel the payment of it; in which war, he had the misfortune to be taken priſoner, but obtained his liberty from the raja, on condition he would releaſe the tribute, and make no demands of this nature on that victorious prince, or his ſucceſſors for the future. But Miracha, like ſome other princes, remembred his engagements no longer than till he had obtained his liberty; for he no ſooner returned to his dominions, but he levied a more powerful army than he had loſt, invaded that raja's territories again; and, having taken him priſoner, put out his eyes. Hiſtorians relate, that Miracha coming to view his Tartar guard, afterwards, on a day aſſigned for their ſhooting at a mark, and being informed that his priſoner the blind raja, was ſtill a better archer than any of them, he ſent for him, and ordering a bow and arrows to be brought, the raja deſired his Majeſty to give the word of command when he ſhould ſhoot, which he had no ſooner done, but the raja let fly an arrow at the place from whence the voice came, and killed the King out-right.

In the reign of Babar the great grandſon of Miracha, there happened a war between him and another prince of the poſterity of Tamerlane; in which war, Babar loſt the city of Samarcand, and, as I apprehend, he loſt Herat, and the Perſian provinces alſo; whereupon he made Delli in India the capital of his dominions, and invading the Indian princes on the ſouth-eaſt, conquered the kingdom of Patan or Patna, which lies upon the Ganges, and is contiguous to Bengal. Babar died in the year 1530, having reigned thirty-years in India, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Amayum.

A young Patan lord, named Chira, having been educated with Amayum, gained ſuch an aſcendent over him, that he made Chira the commander of his army, and his prime miniſter, who taking all opportunities of ingratiating himſelf with the Tartars and Indians in the Mogul's army, and being extremely concerned to find his native country of Patan treated as a conquered province, he entered into a conſpiracy againſt Amayum, his great benefactor, who having received advice of his treachery, raiſed a body of forces, and gave battle to Chira, but was defeated by him, and obliged to fly into Perſia for protection, and Chira was immediately after proclaimed ſovereign of Indoſtan. Here our hiſtorians furniſh us with ſome omens of Amayum's reſtoration; they tell us, that this prince laying himſelf down to ſleep in his flight to Perſia, an eagle hovered over his head, and ſcreened his face from the ſun: Amayum being well received in the court of Perſia, and promiſed to be aſſiſted in his reſtoration, waited there, however, near nine years without any thing done towards reſtoring him; but at length he received advice from Delli, that Chiri was killed by the burſting of a cannon which he went to ſee fired, and that the Moguls and Patans could not agree upon a ſucceſſor to the throne, but if he returned to Delli, he had now a very fair chance of poſſeſſing the throne of Indoſtan again; and having communicated this advice to the Sophy of Perſia, that prince afforded him a body of troops, at the head of which he marched to India, and joining with ſuch of his ſubjects as were in his intereſt, he was advanced again to the throne without bloodſhed: but notwithſtanding this revolution could never have been effected without Perſian forces, and he had promiſed to cede the province of Candahor to the crown of Perſia (to which the Sophy pretended a right,) he was not as good as his word, but ſtill kept the poſſeſſion of it. So little are the profeſſions of princes, when they are in diſtreſs, to be depended on.

The Indians aſcribe to the Mogul Amayum the building of caravanſeras or houſes for the entertainment of travellers, and the regulating weights and meaſures. This prince, after his reſtoration, built a moſt magnificent tomb for himſelf in India, which is to this day, eſteemed one of the greateſt curioſities in that country. And as he was one day walking over the ſcaffolding, and giving his orders to the workmen, a plank deceived him, and falling from

from a greater height to the ground, he was ſo miſerably bruiſed, that he died immediately, and was buried in his new tomb, which was then nearly finiſhed; but ſome ornaments were afterwards added by Akebar, his ſon and ſucceſſor.

Akebar proved an enterpriſing prince; but having as yet no communication with the ſea coaſt of India, from whence a very rich trade was carried on with the Europeans, particularly from the kingdom of Guzarat and Cambaya, which extends from Surat, ſituate on the river Tapte, to the mouth of the river Indus, he determined to make a conqueſt of it. Sultan Badar, or Bahadar, a Mahometan prince, whoſe anceſtors were Arabians, was then ſovereign of that country, and had been at war with the Portugueſe *for ſome time, who were perpetually encroaching* on his territories, and had lately taken from him the town of Diu, ſituate near the entrance of the gulf of Cambaya, almoſt oppoſite to Surat; but both Sultan Badar and the Portugueſe received advice, that the Mogul was on his march to invade Cambaya, and apprehending that neither of them were able to oppoſe him ſingly, thought it prudent to make a peace, and unite their forces againſt the Mogul; nor were both of them able to ſtop the torrent of his arms. They relied much on the European artillery; but, coming to an engagement, Akebar's numerous army bore down all before them. Sultan Badar retired out of the battle; his children were made priſoners, and put to death by Akebar, who made an intire conqueſt of the kingdom of Guzarat, except Diu, and ſuch other towns as the Portugueſe had fortified and furniſhed with artillery.

Akebar finding Guzarat ſo eaſy a conqueſt bent his arms towards Decan, which lies to the ſouthward of it. This was divided into ſeveral little ſovereignties; Muſtapha, a Mahometan prince, poſſeſſed that part of the country wherein the towns of Brampour and Acer are ſituated, whoſe ſubjects gave him the title of melec, or king. Amadanger, and the territory belonging to it, was ſubject to the Queen of Cande; and Ambar commanded the diſtrict of Doltabad. Theſe princes, though at other times enemies, united their forces againſt Akebar, and gave him battle, but were defeated by him, with very little loſs. The towns of Acer, Brampour, and Amadanger, held the conqueror in play ſome months afterwards; but at length Muſtapha and the Princeſs of Cande, both ſurrendered their capitals upon conditions. Muſtapha afterwards attended the Mogul's court, and was content for ſome time to remain in the rank of an Indian raja: and the *Princeſs of Cande was taken into the number of the* conqueror's wives, and treated in the quality of a ſovereign queen, remaining for a conſiderable time the favourite ſultaneſs: though ſuch was her enmity to Akebar when he beſieged her capital, that deſpairing to hold out, ſhe cauſed all her treaſure to be melted into bullets, and inſcribed with the bittereſt curſes againſt her enemy, ſhot them into the neighbouring woods, to prevent his poſſeſſing it. Some of theſe gold and ſilver bullets were afterwards found by Manouchia, who was a phyſician in the Mogul's court, who relates, that he read the inſcription on them, and that one of the bullets weighed eighteen pounds. As for prince Ambar, he was killed in an engagement during the war, and his territories ſeized by the conqueror.

After this ſucceſs, Akebar invaded Chitor, which lies eaſt of Guzarat, and was then ſubject to the raja Rama, who having entered into a confederacy with ſeveral of the neighbouring powers, ventured to oppoſe the Mogul, but being ſoon obliged to quit the field, he retired into his capital city of Chitor, naturally one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in India, ſtanding on an high mountain in the middle of a plain; the river Nug almoſt ſurrounded it, a rivulet alſo roſe within the walls of the town, and there were fields within its bounds, which produced proviſions ſufficient to ſupport a numerous garriſon. But notwithſtanding the advantage of its ſituation after a two years ſiege the town was taken, and the reſt of the country thereupon ſubmitted to the conqueror.

Being now diſpoſed to reign in peace, Akebar applied himſelf to the building of fine towns, promoting the traffic of his ſubjects, and adorning his palaces. He rebuilt the city of Delli, enlarged that of Agra: and planted the fine avenue of trees, extending from Agra to Lahor, which is near five hundred miles, under the ſhade whereof a traveller may be ſcreened from the ſun in the hotteſt ſeaſon.

Some of his favourite amuſements were, the management of his war-elephants, and the breaking head-ſtrong horſes. The firſt was ſo hazardous an excerciſe, that the friends and relations of the perſons, who are obliged to train them up to the war, put on mourning for them, as men deſtined to deſtruction. The peaſants (by whom I preſume our hiſtorians mean the hindoos, the original inhabitants of the north of India) breaking out into rebellion againſt the Mogul, and retiring into a fortreſs, Akebar commanded the captains of the elephants to break open the gates, which they ſeeming backward to attempt, he put on a common ſoldier's coat, and mounted an elephant himſelf; and advancing to one of the gates, made his elephant break it open, while a ſhower of arrows was diſcharged at him from the walls. This war with the hindoos laſted ſome years, it being a mountainous, woody country, and the people having poſſeſſed themſelves of the paſſes through which an enemy could approach it; and that which perplexed Akebar ſtill *more was the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon, Jehan* Guire, about the ſame time. However, this prince had the good fortune to ſuppreſs that rebellion. And to deter his ſon from ſuch attempts for the future, he carried him into a foreſt after he had pardoned him, and ſhewed him the heads of his aſſociates hanging on the branches of the trees, which had ſuch an effect on him, that he ever after proved a very dutiful ſon.

Theſe wars were no ſooner ended, but he was exerciſed with a rebellion of the Patans, who endeavoured to render their country independent of the Mogul again; and theſe people were ſo fortunate to defeat an army of eighty thouſand men, the Mogul ſent againſt them. Whereupon Akebar, obſerving that the want of people to manage his artillery was the principal occaſion of his ill ſucceſs, invited European gunners into his ſervice; among whom we are told, there was an Engliſhman, whom the Mogul required to live as his people did, without ſtrong liquor, which the gunner made uſe of the following ſtratagem to obtain. Being to ſhoot at his mark before the Mogul, at a time appointed, he ſhot much wider of it than he had done at any time before the prohibition, and being aſked the reaſon, he ſaid his ſight had failed him ever ſince he had been debarred the uſe of wine; whereupon the Mogul ordered him as much as he would drink; and after he had drank pretty plentifully, he made ſome very nice ſhots, and the prohibition againſt his drinking wine was taken off, and it was recorded in their archieves, "That wine was as natural to an European, as water was to a fiſh," which the hiſtorian relates he ſaw himſelf; and that afterwards foreigners were permitted to plant vineyards about Agra, and make what wine they pleaſed.

Akebar, finding that his people were as deficient in moſt other ſciences, as in the art of war, invited thoſe of other profeſſions to reſort to his court, offering them great encouragement, and ſent for the Portugueſe miſſionaries to inſtruct him in the Chriſtian religion, as he pretended, and as the fathers, no doubt, believed; but it is evident from his future conduct, that he wanted them to teach the mathematics to his family; however, the fathers believing him to be in earneſt, prepared to make a convert of him.

The Mogul having at length intirely ſuppreſſed the Patan rebellion, and being at liberty to follow his inclinations without reſtraint, inſtead of favouring the fathers any longer, became the founder of a new religion, which ſhould comprehend all the religions he was acquainted with, and unite his ſubjects in one uniform way of worſhip; in which he choſe to retain the baptiſm of the Chriſtians, the circumciſion of the Mahometans, and the idolatry of the Pagans; but he would never hear of parting with his wives, and confining himſelf to one woman. The miſſionaries aſſert, that after this he was always unfortunate, loſt his beloved ſon, was harreſſed with inſurrections, and loſt ſome of the moſt conſiderable provinces of his empire; and at length, having formed a deſign to poiſon ſeveral great men he ſuſpected were in a conſpiracy againſt him, died by the poiſon he had prepared for others; which happened in the year 1605, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Cha Selim, who, at his acceſſion, took upon him the title of Jehan Guire, or ſovereign of the world.

This emperor, in conſequence of the education he had received in his father's court, was inclined to make the like enquiries into the truth of the ſeveral religions profeſſed in his dominions; and he looked upon the confining men to ſome particular food and liquors, to proceed rather from ſuperſtition than true piety, as it could ſerve no good end or purpoſe whatever; and obſerving that the Chriſtian religion allowed its votaries the greateſt liberties of this kind, he ſent for the Franks, or Europeans, and drank pretty freely with them, which greatly alarmed the Mahometan prieſts, apprehending he would in the end profeſs Chriſtianity. They repreſented to him, therefore, the unlawfulneſs of drinking ſtrong liquors; but ſome of the wiſeſt of them obſerving, that it was rather his love of wine than

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any inclination to become a Chriſtian, that induced him to take theſe liberties, they declared that the prohibition to drink wine was never deſigned to extend to ſovereign princes, they were at full liberty to eat and drink what they pleaſed; which kind ſolution of their prophet's precepts, gave him entire ſatisfaction, and he never gave any further evidence of his favouring Chriſtianity, unleſs it was by his forbearance to proſecute the Chriſtians, and admitting them to drink with him, which they frequently did till morning. The miſſionaries, it ſeems, looked upon this alſo as an evidence that he deſigned an alteration in religion, as well as the Mahometan prieſts; but they were both deceived; the indulging his appetites being all he meant by theſe practices.

The Mogul having removed the royal ſeat from Agra to Lahor; and there from his terrace ſeeing a moſt beautiful lady; named Nourmahae, in a barge on the river, being ſcreened from the ſun by a canopy over her head, fell deſperately in love with her; but hearing ſhe was married to one of his officers, he ſoon diſpatched his rival out of the way, and then renewed his courtſhip; but the lady, having ſome intimation how treacherouſly her late huſband had been deſtroyed, expreſſed her reſentment with great ſeverity, declaring, ſhe could never think of matching with her huſband's murderer; but when her mourning was ended, and the Mogul continuing to load her with his favours, ſhe was prevailed on to comply with the love-ſick emperor on the following conditions: that ſhe ſhould be ſovereign of the ſeraglio, her father prime miniſter, and her relations preferred to the moſt honourable poſts. The marriage was accordingly ſolemnized by a feſtival of eight days continuance, and her name changed to Nour Jaham, the light of the world. This princeſs had not been a year in the ſeraglio, before ſhe deſtroyed, by poiſon or otherwiſe, five of the emperor's greateſt favourites; and married her only daughter to Sultan Scheriar, the youngeſt of the Mogul's ſons. Whereupon Sultan Coſrou, the eldeſt ſon, not doubting but ſhe deſigned to advance his youngeſt brother to the throne on his father's death, and being informed, that his grandfather Akebar intended that he (Coſrou) ſhould ſucceed to the throne before his father, the preſent emperor, he raiſed an army in order to ſecure his acceſſion to the Indian throne; but being defeated and made priſoner, he was murdered afterwards by the direction of one of the Mogul's miniſters (who had an intereſt to ſerve by his deſtruction) without his father's knowledge. Sultan Chorrom, another of the emperor's ſons, raiſing an inſurrection alſo was defeated, but was ſo fortunate, however, to ſurvive his father, and ſucceed him in the year 1627, though Bolaqui the late Mogul's grandſon, whom he deſigned his ſucceſſor, was firſt proclaimed emperor, and enjoyed that title a little while, but being defeated by Sultan Chorrom, was obliged to return into Perſia; and Chorrom, on his acceſſion, took the title of Shah Jehan, or king of the world. His youngeſt brother, Sultan Scheriar, was at this time a priſoner, in the palace of Agra; he had his eyes put out in the former reign, but Shah Jehan not content with that, ordered him, with his two ſons, to be encloſed between four walls and ſtarved to death; and, thus having deſtroyed all his family, Chorrom remained in poſſeſſion of the throne without a rival.

The ſeat of the government was removed by Shah Jehan, from Agra to Delli, which he vaſtly enlarged and beautified: and here, he propoſed to have ſpent his reign in all the delights a great emperor could command. But as he and his brothers had been engaged in perpetual rebellions againſt their father, he found himſelf ſufficiently puniſhed for his undutifulneſs, by the rebellion of his own children, and the diſaffection of his nobility, occaſioned by his flagrant luſts; for though his ſeraglio, like that of other eaſtern princes, was furniſhed with hundreds of the moſt celebrated beauties in his dominions, he would ſend for the wives of the greateſt omrahs to his bed; which though none of them dared to refuſe openly, they were ſo diſguſted, that many of them at length deſerted his ſervice, and joined one or other of his rebel ſons. His eldeſt ſon Dara or Darius, indeed, always remained faithful to him, and had, in a manner, the adminiſtration of the government put into his hands, which he well deſerved, being a moſt accompliſhed prince, having great natural parts, improved by the European miſſionaries, who inſtructed him in philoſophy, mathematics, and other liberal arts; in return for which, he declared himſelf in their favour, and gave them great encouragement, but this made the zealous Mahometans, his enemies, dread a change in religion, if ever he ſucceeded to the crown. And as his education had rendered him much ſuperior to any of his courtiers and miniſters, it is ſaid he did not treat them ſuitable to their merits, as they apprehended, deſpiſing the cringes and flatteries of the courtiers to obtain his favour: and thus, by ſhewing an indifference to the eſtabliſhed religion, and ſlighting the addreſſes of the great men, he created a general diſguſt to his perſon. In the mean time, his brothers, who reſided at their ſeveral governments, left no means unattempted to render themſelves popular; Sultan Sujah his ſecond brother, being governor of Bengal; Aurengzebe, the third brother, governor of Decan; and Morad the youngeſt, governor of Guzarat or Cambaya.

The Mogul's younger ſons, envying the power they ſaw their eldeſt brother already poſſeſſed of at court, and apprehending their own deſtruction certain, if ever he came to the throne, united their forces and councils to diſtreſs him; which while they were doing, a report prevailed that their father was dead. Whereupon Sultan Sujah, the ſecond ſon, viceroy of Bengal, aſſembled an army, and began his march towards the capital city of Delli. It is related, that when he mounted his elephant, he laid his hand upon his ſword, and ſaid, "Now for a throne or a grave." His pretence for this procedure was that his brother Sultan Dara had poiſoned his father, and that he took up arms to revenge his death; but the Emperor, being reſtored to his health, wrote to Sultan Sujah, to inform him, that he had been indeed indiſpoſed, but that he was now recovered, and that his ſon Dara had not been the occaſion of his diſorder, and therefore commanded him to return to his government; but Sultan Sujah, receiving advice from his friends, that his father was ſtill very ill, thought fit to continue his march; whereupon the court removed from Delli to Agra, being nearer the ſcene of action, and a much ſtronger town than Delli; and Dara ſent an army commanded by two of his ſons, and ſome experienced generals to aſſiſt them, to oppoſe Sultan Sujah's march, whoſe forces being much inferior to thoſe of the royaliſts, Sultan Sujah was defeated, but made his eſcape into his government of Bengal.

Aurengzebe and his brother Morad, in the mean time, having aſſembled their armies, advanced towards the capital. Aurengzebe, who had lived recluſely as an hermit, with his uſual hypocriſy, gave out, that he had no views with reſpect to this world; all he deſired, was, to ſee the true worſhip of God, and the law of his holy prophet, eſtabliſhed in its primitive purity; that he was ſorry to obſerve that their brother Dara was become a proſelyte to Chriſtianity, and Sultan Sujah followed the Perſian hereſy; but he ſhould endeavour, by the help of God, and his holy prophet, to prevent either the apoſtate or the heretic's mounting the throne of their father. And ſince Morad alone retained a true zeal for the Alcoran, he would aſſiſt him with all his power and intereſt to oppoſe them both, deſiring no other return for his ſervices, but that he might ſpend the remainder of his life near the tomb of Mahomet, in acts of mortification and devotion. Sultan Morad was infinitely pleaſed with his brother's pious intentions; and invited him to come and join forces with him, that they might march in a body to Delli. Aurengzebe hereupon, with his friend Mirza Mulla, ſet forwards towards Delli, with an army of veteran troops, who had ſerved in the wars of Viſiapour and Golconda, well provided with all neceſſaries, and a prodigious bank of money, which he had been heaping up for ſeveral years. When the armies came in ſight, Aurengzebe diſmounted and ran to meet his brother, proſtrating himſelf before him as his ſovereign. Morad immediately took his brother up and embraced him, and the higheſt profeſſions of mutual friendſhip paſſed between them; Morad was prevailed upon by this maſter of diſſimulation to take upon him the imperial ſtyle and ſtate, and his brother was pleaſed to receive thoſe orders from him which he firſt adviſed.

When Sultan Dara underſtood the two brothers were joined, he diſpatched a trumpet with a letter from the Emperor to each of them, aſſuring them that he was in health, and that they ſhould retire and diſband their troops on pain of his reſentment. Morad, it is ſaid, was ſhocked to find his father was alive, and was inclined to obey his orders: but Aurengzebe ſhewing him that it was too late to repent, and that there was now no medium between death and conqueſt; and that if ever the armies ſeparated they were infallibly ruined: that though their father might be yet alive, he was ſuperannuated and incapable of regal cares; and in effect, that the prophane Dara had already poſſeſſed himſelf of the ſovereign power, and would infallibly extirpate their holy religion if he was not timely prevented. By theſe ſpecious reaſons he prevailed upon the honeſt Morad to continue his march.

Dara, on the other hand, took the moſt effectual meaſures to defeat the deſigns of his brothers; he poſſeſſed himſelf of the paſſes to the capital city, and encamped in a ſituation where he could be conſtantly ſupplied with proviſions from the neighbouring cities; and his camp was ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it was not poſſible to force it; but notwithſtanding he had taken all the ſteps a prudent general could do, yet by favouring the Chriſtians, and neglecting to cultivate a good correſpondence with the generals and officers of the crown, he became ſo unpopular, that on this critical occaſion moſt of them deſerted him, leaving the paſſes unguarded, and inſtead of oppoſing his enemies, ſome of them actually went over to them. The brothers coming to a battle ſoon after, Sultan Dara was intirely defeated, which was generally aſcribed to the conduct and forces of Aurengzebe; though the forces of Morad were principally engaged; which highly exaſperated the generals of Morad's army, who began now to diſcover the treachery and hypocriſy of Aurengzebe, and they had laid a deſign without their maſter's knowledge to deſtroy him, when he came next to his brother's pavillion; which Aurengzebe being informed of by his ſpies, forebore coming to his brother's tent as uſual, ſtill carrying it fair with him, and ſending his ſon Mahomet every day to enquire after his health.

The Emperor Shah Jehan, obſerving that he was conſtantly betrayed, and imagining that it might be occaſioned by the prejudices the people had entertained of him, abdicated the throne in favour of Sultan Dara his eldeſt ſon, whom he cauſed to be proclaimed emperor; whereupon Dara aſſembled a very numerous and gallant army in appearance; but being betrayed in this, as he was in the former battle, was totally defeated, and with a ſmall body of horſe retreated to Agra, where he did not remain long; but continued his march to Delli, the governor of which city, having received advice of his defeat, would not ſuffer him to enter the gates, whereupon he bent his march towards Lahor.

Aurengzebe and Morad, on the other hand, advanced to Agra, which city was betrayed into their hands, and they poſſeſſed themſelves of the Emperor's perſon, and of thoſe immenſe riches, he had long been heaping up; for though Shah Jehan, in the beginning of his reign, appeared to be a moſt voluptuous prince, and his expences unbounded, he fell afterwards into the oppoſite extreme, and his principal pleaſure ſeemed to be in viſiting the vaſt treaſures of precious ſtones, gold, and ſilver, in the vaults he had built, on purpoſe to ſecure them from accidents.

The army of the two brothers had hitherto treated Sultan Morad as their Emperor; and Aurengzebe ordered preparations to be made for his inauguration, and invited Sultan Morad to his quarters, under pretence of regulating ſome affairs in relation to the proceſſion, which he gave out was to be the next morning; but Morad's officers ſuſpecting that Aurengzebe had ſome treacherous views in this invitation, perſuaded him not to put himſelf in the power of his brother. Morad, however, who is repreſented as a brave generous prince, and having no ſiniſter deſigns himſelf, could not entertain an ill thought of his brother, ventured to go to his brother's tent, attended only by his eunuchs, and ſome other ſervants. An elegant entertainment was brought in, with wine, among other liquors, which was the firſt time, it is ſaid, that Aurengzebe ſuffered any to be brought to his table. The brothers eat together, and great profeſſions of perpetual friendſhip paſſed on both ſides; but while Morad drank plentifully of wine, he fell aſleep. As to the abſtemious Aurengzebe, he taſted nothing but water, and when he found his brother and the reſt of the company intoxicated, he retired to prepare for the next villainous ſcheme; for he returned with his guards towards morning, and commanding his brother to be bound hand and foot before he was well awake, ſent him away priſoner to Agra; which was effected ſo privately, that neither of their armies had any ſuſpicion of the matter. At the ſame time it was reported, that Sultan Morad was ſtill at Aurengzebe's pavillion, and that the proceſſion to his inauguration would begin from thence, and orders were iſſued at the ſame time, that none ſhould appear armed at the ſolemnity but the guards appointed to attend. But Aurengzebe having ſurrounded the place with his army, where the ceremony was to be performed, to the ſurprize of all men that were not in the ſecret, advanced in the imperial robes, and placed himſelf on the throne; at which his army ſhouted and cried out, "Long live the Emperor Aurengzebe," which Morad's army could not oppoſe, as they were all diſarmed; but, on the contrary, when they found themſelves in the power of Aurengzebe, many of them thought fit to come over to his intereſt, and join in the joyful acclamations, in which they were encouraged by ſome of their own generals whom Aurengzebe had corrupted.

This prince's next care was, to prevent Sultan Dara from aſſembling another army; he therefore purſued him with great expedition to Lahor, whereupon the ſmall body of troops which Sultan Dara had with him diſperſed.

Sultan Sujah, the ſecond of Shah Jehan's ſons, underſtanding that Aurengzebe was marched northward, had left his government of Bengal a ſecond time, and advanced towards the wealthy city of Agra, but Aurengzebe returning with a ſurpriſing celerity, prevented that capital from falling into his hands. However, Sultan Sujah had poſted his troops ſo advantageouſly that he was not to be forced in his camp; and kept a communication open with ſeveral towns, from whence he was well ſupplied with proviſions, while his enemies wanted all neceſſaries, and even water, which they were forced to bring to their camp upon the back of camels from the Ganges, which lay at twenty miles diſtance. In this diſtreſs Aurengzebe ordered it to be given out that he would decamp the next morning, and accordingly the tents were ſtruck and the troops actually in motion; which Sultan Sujah obſerving, prepared to fall upon their rear. The troops of Aurengzebe were ordered to give way upon the firſt charge, until they had drawn the advanced guards of Sultan Sujah ſome diſtance from their camp, and then to make a ſtand, which orders were punctually executed; and Sultan Sujah obſerving his men were over-powered, detached ſtill other troops to ſupport them, and the enemy doing the like on the other ſide, it came at length to a general battle. The generals advanced with their bodies under their immediate commands to engage each other; and the battle was fought with great obſtinacy, till Aurengzebe artfully drew his enemy into a field where he had ordered pits to be made the night before and covered over with turf, ſo that they lay unperceived. Here the brave Sultan Sujah was advancing to engage his brother, and perſonally decide the fortune of the day, when his elephant flounced into one of theſe pits prepared for him, from whence the Sultan found it impoſſible to diſengage himſelf ſuddenly; whereupon the army, not ſeeing their general, imagined he was killed, and thought of nothing but making their retreat. Sultan Sujah afterwards mounted a horſe that was brought him, and endeavoured to rally his flying troops, but it was too late, the rout was total; a panic fear had ſeized his forces, and they could never be brought to make a ſtand again; and Sujah, with great difficulty, made his eſcape into the province of Bengal. Here he recruited his ſhattered troops, and having poſted himſelf in an advantageous camp, waited the approach of the enemy; when he underſtood, that Mahomet, the eldeſt ſon of Aurengzebe, was in ſome diſgrace, and ſecretly invited him to come over to his party: which negociation was ſo well managed, that he did not only deſert his father's court himſelf, but brought over with him ſeveral of his beſt officers.

Aurengzebe, who ſucceeded better by creating diviſions among his enemies, than by force, found means to create a jealouſy between the uncle and nephew, and at the ſame time gave his ſon all imaginable encouragement to return to his duty; and by theſe means he prevailed with the young prince to quit the ſervice of Sultan Sujah; but the father had no ſooner got him into his power but he clapped him into the caſtle of Gualleor, and Sujah became ſo weakened by the deſertion of Mahomet and his other officers, that he was in no condition to give Aurengzebe any diſturbance: whereupon that prince made his triumphant entry into the city of Delli, cauſing money, or rather medals, to be ſtruck upon the occaſion, with the following inſcription, "I king Aurengzebe, conqueror of the world, "have cauſed this money to be coined bright as the "ſun."

Sultan Dara arriving in the mean time at Guzarat, and finding that the people in general took compaſſion on him, and abhorred the hypocriſy of his rival brother, altered his reſolution of going to Perſia, and endeavoured to aſſemble another army; but the generals, employed by Aurengzebe in that province, ſo over-awed the people, that a ſtop was ſoon put to his levies, and the few troops he had raiſed were diſperſed, only two thouſand horſe remained with him, and with theſe he retired towards the city of Amadabat, which was garriſoned by his own forces; but his way lying over a vaſt deſart, where no water or proviſions were to be found, and wanting even tents to ſcreen his people from the ſun in the hotteſt ſeaſon of the year, they ſuffered extremely in paſſing it; and what was worſe, when

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ſea-dog ſometimes jumps into the ſea with ſuch a force, that he pulls the poor fiſherman in after him, the rope being faſtened to his middle. They take rain-deer alſo ſometimes by clothing themſelves with the ſkin of that beaſt; and creeping among the tame deer till they are within the reach of the wild, kill them with their darts.

They purchaſe their wives of their relations for three or four rain-deer, and take as many as they pleaſe, returning them again to their friends if they do not like them; and their loſs is only the rain-deer they gave for them. And in ſome parts of the country they take the liberty of ſelling their wives for ſlaves when they are offended with them. They bury their dead in the clothes they wore when alive, hanging by them on the next tree their bows, quivers, hatches, and other utenſils.

A gentleman who lately travelled in this country acquaints us, that examining one of the Samoieds about their religion, he anſwered, that they believed there was a heaven and a God, whom they ſtiled heyha. That they were convinced nothing could be greater and more powerful than God; and that all things depended on him: that we had one common father, and that good men would go to paradiſe. But notwithſtanding this, they worſhipped the ſun, moon, and planets, together with ſeveral kinds of beaſts and birds, from whom they hoped to receive ſome benefits. Images they alſo worſhipped in human ſhape; but ſo very ill carved and dreſſed, that it was difficult to diſcover what they repreſented. They have prieſts among them, who pretend to the magic art, and to foretel future events: theſe they conſult upon all occaſions, as whether they ſhall recover of a fit of ſickneſs; what ſucceſs they ſhall have in their hunting, fiſhing, &c. When they come to enquire any thing of him, he works himſelf up into a kind of fit, and in this condition delivers his oracles; from whence ſome will have it, that he is poſſeſſed by the devil at theſe times: they give us alſo abundance of inſtances of the tyranny of wicked ſpirits among thoſe poor northern people, which poſſibly, when we come to be better acquainted with them, may appear to have as little foundation as ſome other tales of the like nature.

The Oſtiacks are deſcribed by travellers as a ſavage, vagabond people, very little if at all different from the Samoieds; ſome have made them inhabit the ſame country; but the Samoieds are more generally deſcribed as inhabiting that part of Muſcovite Tartary, which lies towards the weſt, in and next to Europe; and the Oſtiacks the north eaſt part of Muſcovite Tartary neareſt to the Chineſian Tartary, of whom a late writer gives the following account: "You will meet with this people (ſays he) three days journey beyond Tobolſki, the capital city of Siberia: they extend along the river Irtis to the place where it falls into the Oby, from thence you will find them extending themſelves to the northward along the banks of the Oby, and Jeniſea, till they fall into the guba or gulf of Mangaſia, and from the guba to the ſtreights of Waigats, inhabiting on the banks of the many rivers which fall into the Oby and Jeniſea. Narim is their principal town."

When the hunting ſeaſon comes on, theſe people go into the woods with their bows, dogs and nets, killing ſables, foxes and ermines, bears, elks, rain-deer, martens, &c. and of theſe ſkins the Empreſs has a certain ſhare by way of duty, the reſt are ſold to the Ruſſian governors at a ſtated price, and ſometimes they are permitted to diſpoſe of them to private perſons.

Their diet is chiefly fiſh, veniſon, wild fowl and roots, for they have neither rice nor bread. Their drink is for the moſt part fair water, and ſometimes the blood of a rain-deer, or of any another beaſt they take; and, it is ſaid, they can diſpenſe with a draught of train oil. Tobacco they are immoderately fond of, but inſtead of blowing the ſmoke out of their mouths, they hold a little water in their mouths, with which they ſwallow the ſmoke down, which ſo intoxicates them that they ſoon loſe their ſenſes, and throw up the phlegm: this they will repeat ſeveral times in a day, and it is thought to be wholeſome phyſic to an Oſtiack conſtitution. Their winter huts are low in the ground, with a roof of barks or ruſhes; in ſummer, they build on the banks of the rivers, and employ themſelves in fiſhing.

Their religion is nearly the ſame as that of the Samoieds. To which we may ſubjoin, that they have ſmall brazen idols, placed in groves, or on the tops of houſes. When they make offerings, they preſent an animal to the idol, and one of them puts up the petitions of thoſe who brought the ſacrifice; he then pierces the beaſt with an arrow, and they all join in killing him: then the animal is drawn round the idol, and ſome of them ſprinkle the blood upon it; after which, they dreſs the fleſh and eat it, with great ſhouting and merriment.

SECT. II.

Containing a particular deſcription of the chief cities and towns in Siberia; with the genius, manners, religion, mode of living, diverſions, &c. of the Ruſſian inhabitants there.

TOBOLSKI, which, as we before obſerved, is the capital city of Siberia, was built on the ſide of the old city which had then the name of Sibir. It contains about fifteen thouſand inhabitants, almoſt all Ruſſians, or naturalized. There are ſeveral Mahometan Tartars of the latter ſort; the greater part of whom, that they may perform uninterruptedly the ceremonies of their own religion, live without the city.

The larger part of Tobolſki is ſituated on the banks of the Irtis; and the other upon a hill, the top of which is a kind of platform extending to the eaſt of the town. That part on the hill is fortified both on the eaſt and north, by a rampart, baſtions, and a ditch ſix feet broad, bordered with palliſadoes. The lower town is in a plain, between the hill and the river; and both towns taken together, are of a conſiderable circumference. All the fortifications of the upper town, which is called the city, on the flat: the ſouthern part of the city, on account of a deep gorge, is difficult of acceſs; as is alſo the weſtern part, becauſe the river flows at the foot of the hill, which being compoſed of a looſe ſand, cannot be ſcaled but with great danger: large pieces frequently break from the hill, and, falling into the river, bear every thing before them.

There is a governor in Tobolſki, whoſe juriſdiction reaches almoſt all over Siberia: here is alſo a court of equity compoſed of fifteen counſellors, who conduct both civil and military concerns. But as Tobolſki is near eight hundred leagues diſtant from the court; therefore, that the governor may not abuſe the power with which he is inveſted, there is a proctor, who ranks next to the governor, but who is neither dependent on him or the court of equity; ſo that the buſineſs adjudged by the governor, or by the chancery, cannot have a final determination without the proctor's concurrence.

In the upper town, or city, there are three churches and a convent; but theſe are built of wood. In the lower town are ſeven churches and a convent built of ſtone: and there are three different communications from the upper to the lower town. There is an archbiſhop at Tobolſki, whoſe dioceſe extends over the greateſt part of Siberia. The counſellors of chancery, and great numbers of the merchants, live in a very reputable manner.

A conſiderable traffic was once carried on between this city and the Chineſe by means of caravans; but the knavery both of the Chineſe and Ruſſian merchants reduced it in a ſhort time to a very languiſhing ſtate. It has a garriſon conſiſting of two regiments of infantry. Moſt perſons employed here are ſent from Muſcow and Peterſburgh.

At the diſtance of about an Engliſh mile from Tobolſki, the eye is delighted with a moſt beautiful view, from the number of ſmall ſteeples in the city, moſt of which are covered with braſs; but this agreeable ſcene diſappears on entering the town, the houſes of which are all of wood, and very ill built; the governor's and archbiſhop's palaces, the town hall, and a ſort of citadel, are the only buildings formed of brick and ſtone. The ſtreets, both of the upper and lower town are exceſſively dirty; and though, on this account there are footways made by planks in ſome of the ſtreets, they are nevertheleſs kept in very bad condition.

Neiwianſkoi is in the province of Tobolſki, and is ſituated on the river Neiura. It has a fort and about eight hundred houſes. There are made very valuable braſs and copper utenſils, and there are conſiderable iron works in its neighbourhood.

In the abovementioned province, is Catherineburgh, which contains upwards of four hundred houſes excluſive of thoſe in the ſuburbs without the wall. Here are a wooden church, a ſtone building for public officers, an arſenal, an exchange, and a cuſtom-houſe. This city being in the centre of all the Siberian mine-works, the director of the mines takes up his reſidence here: the ſuburbs are partly peopled by ſuch as toil at mines, or by thoſe ſent thither, and deſtined to labour for their offences. Proviſions of all ſorts are very plentiful here, and ſold reaſonably. It is ſituated on the river Iſet, and is well defended.

Tiumen is likewiſe in the province of Toboliki, and ſituated on the river Tura to the ſouthward, over which there is a bridge upwards of eighty fathoms long; at a ſmall diſtance below it there is a ſtone fort, and without this fortification are five hundred houſes, ſix wooden churches, and a convent. The ſuburbs of Tiumen are divided into two parts, the one part containing about two hundred and fifty houſes, three ſtone churches, and a monaſtery; the other part is inhabited by Mahometan Tartars and Bucharians, as well as Ruſſians; the latter have a church, and the former a moſque.

Tomſkoi (whoſe ſituation we deſcribed above) is the capital of a province of that name. It is a ſtrong frontier place, lying in fifty-ſix degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in eighty degrees thirty-ſix minutes longitude, from London. It contains about two thouſand houſes, and is ſituated on the river Tora. A caſtle built of wood, with fourteen pieces of cannon, ſtands in the higheſt part of the city, in which are alſo a cathedral built of wood, a chancery court, and an arſenal. In the lower part of Tomſkoi there are four churches, beſides a monaſtery and a nunnery. Proviſions of all kinds are in great plenty, and the people carry on a very conſiderable trade..

Narim is the capital of a province of the ſame name. It has a ſtrong fortreſs for its defence, garriſoned by Coſſacks. It is in fifty-eight degrees north latitude, and ſituated on the Oby.

Pohem is ſituated on a river flowing into the Tobol from the north. This town is pretty well peopled, and defended by a fortreſs.

We ſhall take notice of the religion of the Ruſſians, when we come to treat of the Ruſſian dominions in Europe, as the people of this nation profeſs the ſame throughout the whole empire.

With reſpect to the mode of living as practiſed by the inhabitants of Siberia, they ſpend great part of the year in ſloth and idleneſs, ſhut up in their hovels, the filthineſs of which is intolerable to perſons of the leaſt delicacy. The unwholeſomeneſs and inconvenience of their hovels are conſiderably augmented by the inclemency of the weather, which prevents a communication with the freſh air: their windows are generally no more than one foot high, and ſix inches wide; beſides which the inhabitants are almoſt deprived of the light of the ſun during the time it remains in the weſtern conſtellations: in this dark ſeaſon they receive light only from ſplinters of birch, which they call couchines: theſe natives, however, are ſtout, healthy, robuſt, muſcular, and live to a great age: though it muſt be confeſſed an infinite number of children die, eſpecially among the common people, of whoſe families one third part ſeldom ſurvive their infant ſtate: parents who have had ſixteen or eighteen children born, having no more than three or four alive; and the ſmall-pox, ſcurvy, and venereal diſeaſe, concur gradually to thin the country of inhabitants; ſo that unleſs the Ruſſian government adopts ſome meaſure to put a ſtop to this depopulation, there will ſoon be an end of the human ſpecies here.

The women of this country are in general tolerably handſome; and thoſe of all ranks and ages paint.

At Tobolſki, in particular, the women are extremely fair, and their countenances perfectly agreeable: their eyes are black, languiſhing, and down caſt, for they are ſo baſhful that they never look a man full in the face; they wear no caps, but coloured handkerchiefs, which they ſo curiouſly interweave among their hair, generally black and unpowdered, that this kind of head-dreſs gives them a very attractive look. They are unacquainted with that variety of undreſs to which the Europeans are accuſtomed, and change their linen but ſeldom. The age of the Siberian women is diſtinguiſhed by their dreſs: the old are dreſſed in the Ruſſian faſhion, and the young wear a Ruſſian robe, in the manner of the Polanders. They have ſtrait caps, with their hair hanging down from each ſide or behind: the cap is adorned with very indifferent fringes of a ſtuff peculiar to the place, which is bound round in curious circles.

The people of rank at Tobolſki have ſeldom more than two beds in their houſes, one for the huſband and wife, and the other for the children; all other perſons in the houſe lie upon benches or mats. The beds have no curtains; and, inſtead of a bolſter, they have ſeven or eight pillows, one leſs than the other, raiſed up in the form of pyramids. This bed is generally the principal piece of furniture. In 1663, people of quality uſed to lie on bare benches, on which only a ſkin or other covering was ſpread: they have ſcarce any furniture in the houſes, and at meals, very few of their tables were covered with a cloth.

The men of this place are extremely jealous of their wives, who ſeldom go from home, but live wholly ſequeſtered from ſociety, and are given up to indolence and negligence. That ſpecies of refined love, which flows from ſenſibility, and predominates over the human ſoul only, is here unknown and unfelt. A lover never has the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the diſorder and embarraſſment of his miſtreſs, endeavouring, though in vain, to conceal her paſſion. In this barbarous country, men tyrannize over their wives, and treat them as ſlaves, requiring them to perform the moſt ſervile and menial offices: no wonder, then, that the delicacy of ſentiment, which characteriſes the natives of more civilized countries, is ſo rarely to be met with here. But though the men uſe their wives with ſuch ſeverity, they are very indulgent to their daughters: they think married women ſhould be wholly taken up with their huſbands, but that liberty ſhould be given to the unmarried, in order that by that means they may have an opportunity of getting huſbands; and the girls very ſoon avail themſelves of this liberty, without either the conſent of their parents, or the ſanction of the church.

Society is ſcarcely ever enjoyed in this city; nor indeed is it poſſible there ſhould be much under a government, where no individual partakes of that eſſential freedom, by which the happineſs and welfare of the citizen is ſecured. A reciprocal fear prevails among people here, whence ariſe diſtruſt, diſſimulation, and perfidy. Genuine friendſhip, that noble quality which ſo powerfully contributes to the common felicity of human beings, glows not in the breaſt of a Ruſſian. Nor are the people here governed by any principles of morality: the clergy, who are very ignorant, are as libidinous and drunken as any. We do not mean, however, to eſtabliſh an unfavourable opinion of their whole body; ſince there are ſome among them who are of liberal capacities and irreproachable characters. The higher claſſes of people never aſſume the prieſt's office, ſo that there is no intermediate ſtate in the eccleſiaſtic body; it is made up intirely of the common people, or the children of the prieſts, who are often the moſt diſſolute; by which means the depravity and ignorance of the clergy may be imputed to their not having acquired any refinement from education.

Dancing is a common diverſion among the young women of this country. Sometimes ſix or eight couple are ſeen dancing together, and at other times only two, a man and a woman. Moſt of their dances are characteriſtic: a lover expreſſes his paſſion by the moſt wanton and laſcivious movements; his miſtreſs anſwers him with all the graces peculiar to the ſex; which are extremely alluring in theſe girls, as the inactivity of theſe girls gives them a kind of languor very tender, expreſſive, and captivating. Some of their dances are pantomimic, which the young people perform with admirable dexterity; they turn round on one foot, while they are almoſt ſitting: then riſing up inſtantly, they throw themſelves into ſome mimic or groteſque poſture, which they vary every moment, in advancing, retiring, or turning round the room. This dance is generally performed by one couple only. Some of the young women alſo amuſe themſelves in fine weather by ſwinging upon a plank balanced acroſs a beam lying on the ground.

SECT. III.

Treats of the Kuriles, the Koreki, the Tchukotſkoi, the Tunguſi, Jakuti, Bratſki, Kamſki, and Barabinſki; with the manners, cuſtoms, dreſſes, habitations, &c. of theſe ſeveral and diſtinct nations of people.

THE Kuriles are remarkable for their hoſpitality and peaceable diſpoſition, and are more civilized than their neighbours the Kamtſchadales (of whom we ſhall treat in the following ſection): they are alſo more agreeably featured, and both ſexes wear ear-rings of ſilver, with which they are furniſhed by the Japaneſe. They are of ſmall ſtature and round viſage, and pay little regard to uniformity of dreſs, their cloaths being commonly formed of the ſkins of different animals. Their habitations reſemble thoſe of the Kamtſchadales, though kept ſomewhat cleaner, and their proviſions are generally the fleſh of amphibious animals.

The Koreki dwell on the coaſt of the eaſtern ocean, from the river Ukoi to the Anadir, and along the coaſt of the Perchinan ſea. This nation is divided into the ſettled Koreki, and the wandering or rein-deer Koreki. The ſettled Koreki are imitators of the Kamtſchadales in every reſpect. The Koreki differ from each other both in diſ-

poſition

poſition and form, as well as in their dreſs and cuſtoms.

The wandering or rein-deer Koreki are naturally very jealous, and often put their wives to death upon the ſlighteſt ſuſpicions; and if a man and woman be actually detected in criminal connection, both of them are ſure to ſuffer death: the women therefore avoid ſetting off their perſons to advantage, and never waſh their faces, or comb their heads. But this is not the caſe with the ſettled Koreki, who decorate themſelves as much as poſſible, and ſo little does jealouſy prevail among this nation, that when one man viſits another, the wife or daughter of his friend is always at his ſervice. The wandering Koreki are of ſhort ſtature, ſlender ſhape, with oval faces, large mouths, and ſhort noſes. Both the Koreki have black hair; but the former are neither ſo ſhort nor ſlender as the latter.

Marriage, among the Koreki, is only prohibited between father and daughter, mother and ſon: they generally marry into their own family; and pay very little regard to perſonal accompliſhments. Their marriage ceremonies are nearly the ſame as at Kamtſchatka.

The Korekian ſledges are drawn by rein-deer in the winter, who will travel near one hundred miles in a day.

With reſpect to the funeral ceremonies of the Koreki, we muſt obſerve, that they dreſs the deceaſed in his beſt cloaths, and fixing him upon a pile of wood, throw on it his bow and arrow, and then ſet fire to the pile. The corpſe is drawn on a ſledge to this pile by the rein-deer, which are put to death, and thrown into the fire, while the pile is conſuming.

The Koreki live in continual fear of ſpirits, which they think hover in woods and on mountains. They ſometimes fix the head of a dragon upon a ſtake, and turning the animal's face towards the eaſt, cry out, "Take this, and ſend us ſomething better for it."

Near to the Koreki are the Tchukotſkoi, who inhabit the banks of the river Anadir, and extend along the ſhore, to the north and ſouth-eaſt, to ſeventy-four degrees of latitude; and thoſe who live to the north of the Anadir, not being ſubject to the Ruſſians, often impriſon and deſtroy thoſe who are. The habitations of theſe people are more commodious and warm than thoſe of the Koreki; and when a viſitor comes to ſee them, he is always preſented with the maſter of the hut's wife or daughter, who hands to him a baſon of her own wine, with which the viſitor waſhes his mouth, or he is not looked upon as a friend. The dreſs of the Tſchukotſkoi is the ſame as that worn by the Kamtſchadales: their food is the rein-deer and other animals found in the country.

There are various tribes of the Tunguſi, which are ſpread through different parts of Siberia: theſe are of the old Scythian race, and are diſtinguiſhed into the Kenni Tunguſi, or thoſe who uſe horſes; the Oleni Tunguſi, or thoſe who uſe rein-deer; and the Sabatſchi Tunguſi, or thoſe who make uſe of dogs. Both ſexes of theſe latter, who take up their reſidence between the Lena and the Penſchriſka ocean, go naked in ſummer-time, except having a ſmall piece of ſkin round their waiſts. In the winter, they are clothed with deer-ſkins. They believe in an all-ruling providence, but reverence idols of their own conſtructing. They hang their dead upon the branches of trees, the fleſh of which rots off, or is devoured by animals or birds; after which they burn the bones.

Jakuti, or Jakutzk, is a province ſituated to the north. The cold here, and in the northern parts of Siberia, increaſes ſo conſiderably, in a few hours, as to ſtrike men and cattle dead who happen to be at too great a diſtance from any habitation to ſhelter themſelves ſpeedily from it. They uſually rub the frozen part with ſnow, by which the circulation is immediately reſtored. This ſevere weather is ſucceeded by ſo hot a ſummer, that the inhabitants are obliged to go partly naked.

In the moſt northern parts, beyond the ſixtieth degree of latitude, the earth produces neither corn nor fruit: they are, however, ſupplied with theſe neceſſaries from the ſouthern parts. They have great plenty and variety of fiſh, and abundance of tame and wild beaſts; and likewiſe great quantities of fuel. Though they have ſome corn in the country, they pay little regard to it; the hunting of animals being what they chiefly delight in.

Jakutzk, on the river Lena, is the capital of the province, and is about four hundred miles from the Frozen Ocean. The Jakuti form one of the moſt conſiderable and numerous Pagan nations in all the vaſt country of Siberia, and are divided into ten tribes, making in the whole not leſs than thirty or forty thouſand perſons, all under the dominion and taxation of Ruſſia.

The Jakuti believe in a ſupreme being, and have an image of him, which has a very hideous aſpect, having a big head, and large eyes of coral. They place it in a tree, and cover it with furs; once a year they aſſemble together and ſacrifice horſes, &c. to this image, ſticking up the horſes heads all round the tree. Then ſitting down in a circle, they drink of a liquor which they call cumiſes, and are intoxicated with it. They alſo throw ſome of the liquor into the air, and into a fire which they light on the occaſion. This ceremony is performed in the ſpring, and is their new year's offering.

Theſe people eat horſe-fleſh, without regarding whether it be freſh or ſtinking, and ſmoke a great deal of tobacco, which they are ſupplied with by the Ruſſians. The huts in which they dwell, are like thoſe of the neighbouring nations, except that their ſummer hovels, reſembling a ſugar-loaf, are covered with the bark of trees, joined and embroidered very curiouſly with horſe-hair. They generally leave their dead in their huts, ſhutting up the ſame, and ſeeking another habitation.

Beyond the river Jenſeiſka, in the road to China, live the Kamſky Tartars in huts covered with bark, like ſome of thoſe already deſcribed. They are Pagans, and their food is fiſh and veniſon, which they eat raw as well as dreſſed, and roots ſerve them inſtead of bread. More eaſterly lie the Bratſky Tartars, a more ſubſtantial people, where a private man is frequently maſter of four or five hundred horſes, and a proportionable number of other cattle. They live chiefly on veniſon, but value horſe-fleſh much more. They drink mare's milk, and diſtil a ſtrong ſpirit from it, as they do in moſt parts of Siberia, Tartary, and China. They purchaſe their wives, as in ſome other parts of Siberia, with their cattle, and give often an hundred horſes, or oxen, for a virgin they admire, and fifteen or twenty camels, beſides ſheep. The natives are very hoſpitable, and will ſometimes preſent travellers with ſheep as they paſs through their country, reſerving only the guts and entrails to themſelves, which they look upon to be the moſt delicious eating. They are Pagans, and worſhip an idol made of the ſkins of beaſts, which they hang upon their huts. As for temples, there are none in Siberia but what the Ruſſians have lately built.

Both men and women are of a very tawny complexion, but better dreſſed than moſt of their neighbours. The women particularly wear long plaited gowns, and the virgins diſtinguiſh themſelves by adorning their hair with braſs, and other glittering toys.

The vaſt deſart of Baraba lies further to the weſtward: this is inhabited by the Barabinſki, who ſhift their quarters in the ſummer, and repair to the banks of rivers. Their hovels, which are low in the earth, with the roof riſing two or three feet above, are covered with the ſkins of animals, or with ruſhes. As there is no water in the deſart of Baraba, the liquor of theſe people, during their reſidence there, is melted ſnow: they alſo drink mare's-milk, as moſt of the other Tartars do.

There is a nation of Mahometans along the river Irtis, who keep numerous flocks and herds: theſe pay a tribute to Muſcovy, though they are governed by princes of their own. They reſemble the antient Ruſſians in their dreſs, and the women wear rings in their noſes.

SECT. IV.

Treats of the ſituation, extent, climate, &c. and natural hiſtory of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka.

THIS peninſula is bounded on the eaſt by the ocean, which ſeparates it from America; its weſtern boundary is Penſchinſka, commencing near the ſouthern point of the cape of Kamtſchatka, and extending northerly between Oehotſkoy and the weſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka. The ſouthern part is in fifty-one degrees north latitude, and in one hundred and forty-three degrees longitude, eaſt of London. This peninſula is divided into two parts by a chain of hills running from north to ſouth. Its chief rivers are the Awatſcha, the Kamtſchatka, the Teghil, and what is called the great river. There are many extenſive lakes in it.

Their ſpring and ſummer do not continue more than four months, but the latter is far from being agreeable, for as the adjacent hills are covered with ſnow, the air, even in the middle of ſummer, is ſometimes pretty cold, attended with frequent rains: the winter, however, is not very inclement.

In many places, mines of iron and copper have been diſcovered;

covered: the iron ore hath been found to be compact, of a yellow colour, inclining to red; and, in ſome parts, black metallic particles have been obſerved, more compact than the reſt of the ore. This ore, when crude, could not be attracted by the load-ſtone, but, when calcined, became ſo in a ſmall degree. A ſolid iron ore has alſo been diſcovered here, ſimilar to that found to the ſouth-weſt of Echaterinenburg: its ſurface was found to be covered with a yellow oker, of a reddiſh brown in the breakings of its ſolid parts. The ore, when crude, was not acted upon by the load-ſtone, though, after calcination, ſlightly attracted by it. The copper mines are like ſome of thoſe produced on the Ryphean mountains, having the malachites, in the form of ſtalactites and ſtataguites, in their cavities, very beautiful, and capable of being poliſhed.

There is great choice of timber for a variety of uſes in Kamtſchatka, as well as abundance of ſhrubs of divers kinds; they have alſo ſeveral excellent medicinal plants. Barley, oats, peas, turnips, &c. grow likewiſe here. The graſs ſprings up ſo faſt, that they have three harveſts; and the blades are frequently five feet in height.

This country abounds with tame and wild fowls. The wild animals, are, black and white bears, wolves, lynxes, boars, elks, and a kind of ſtag very much like the fallow-deer. The bear never attacks a man, unleſs they find him aſleep, when they tear the ſcalp off the back part of the head, and ſometimes intirely deſtroy him. Foxes are alſo very numerous, ſome are white, ſome rediſh-yellow; ſome grey, with a black ſtreak on the back; and are much valued; the white ones, however, are alſo valued, as being ſcarcer. There are alſo black-cheſnuts and blue-breaſted foxes; and they are in general too crafty for their purſuers, their ſagacity exceeding that of the other ſpecies. The opulence of the country conſiſts in its ſables and ermines; the ſables which are ſold at a high price, excel thoſe found in any other part of the globe: the natives eat the fleſh, and eſteem it a very fine food.

Here is alſo found the gulo, or glutton; likewiſe other kinds of beaver, as the arıs, rein-deer, and ſayga. The natives collect themſelves in companies to hunt theſe animals; they go at the cloſe of the winter, from the month of March to the end of April, taking proviſions with them. The glutton, which hath a very fine fur, is a terrible enemy to the deer: it will dart itſelf from a tree upon a deer's back, and, fixing between the creature's horns, tears out his eye: the afflicted animal, with exceſs of agony, falls to the ground, when the glutton ſtrips his fleſh from his bones.

Dogs are very numerous in this country: theſe reſemble the European, and live much upon mice and fiſh; they ſcratch up the ground for the former, and ſeize the others from their ſtreams. Theſe dogs are extremely ſerviceable to the natives, in drawing their ſledges over the ſnow: in the moſt dreadful weather, they ſcarce ever loſe their way.

Several ſorts of amphibious animals are alſo in Kamtſchatka. One is the ſea-cow, about thirty feet in length, and weighing ſix or ſeven thouſand pounds, the ſkin of which is ſo hard, that ſcarce an hatchet or ax will penetrate it. The fleſh of a young ſea-cow, when properly boiled, has a good taſte; the lean part is ſomewhat like veal, and the fat part like pork. The method of catching this animal is, by an iron hook ſtruck into it by ſome men in a ſmall veſſel, then by a rope held by people on ſhore, the ſea-cow is drawn gradually to the land, while thoſe in the veſſel cut the creature with inſtruments in ſeveral parts of the body, till it expires. It is not very difficult to take the ſea-cow from its elements, for it ſeldom raiſes its head above the ſurface of the water, though its ſides and back are often ſeen.

Sea-horſes and ſea-cats are alſo met with here: the latter have long hairs ſtanding out on each ſide of their mouths like thoſe of a cat, and they weigh from five to eight thouſand pounds: their eyes are as large as a bull's, and they will fly at people in boats; even if they are blinded by ſtones thrown at them, they will not retire, but gnaw the very ſtones that are thrown; however, when once deprived of ſight, there is no great danger to be apprehended from them. The male and female differ both in form and diſpoſition; ſo much in form, that they might be taken for different animals; and as to diſpoſition, the female is mild, inoffenſive and timid: as a proof of this, when an attempt is made to ſeize a young ſea-cat, and the male, by vigorouſly defending it, affords the female an opportunity of taking it off in its mouth; if, in this caſe, the female ſhould happen to drop it, the male abandons its adverſary, and, flying directly at the female, ſeizes her with all imaginable fury; when the latter, by licking his paws, and ſhewing every kind of ſubmiſſion, endeavours to mitigate his rage. The ſeas alſo abound with ſeals, which are caught by different methods; ſometimes they are taken in the water, and at other times they are killed while ſleeping on the rocks. Here are whales from ſeven to fifteen fathoms long.

Among a variety of fiſh, here is the ſterlet, which is ſo much like the ſturgeon, that there is ſcarce any difference, except that it is ſmaller and more delicate; it is ſo fat, that it may be fried without oil.

Some of the birds of Kamtſchatka are, eagles, hawks, pelicans, ſwans, geeſe, wigeons, ducks, cuckows, magpies, ſnipes, partridges, &c. A bird called the red-neck diver is very curious; it has a beautiful ſpot on the lower part of its neck; beneath this ſpot, there are feathers of a brown colour in the middle, and edged all round with white; the breaſt, belly, and legs, are of a very beautiful white.

Sea-fowl are very numerous on the coaſt of the eaſtern ocean, as peacocks, ſea-pies, green-ſhanks, puffins, &c. Here too are the cormorant, ſea-raven, and urile.

Clouds of dragon-flies, locuſts, and gnats, are ſometimes ſeen in this country. The latter are ſo troubleſome, that the inhabitants are obliged to vail their faces, to avoid them. The dragon-flies, forming columns, fly with incredible ſwiftneſs.

SECT. V.

Contains an account of the Kamtſchadales, their dreſs, habitations, marriages, children, treatment of their dead, &c.

THE natives of Kamtſchatka inhabit the ſouthern part of the peninſula; the northern part is inhabited by the Koreki, and the ſouthern by the Kuriles, of whom we have treated above; but the Ruſſians call the whole country Kamtſchatka, though it has ſeveral names given it from particular circumſtances. The Kamtſchadales are ſhort in ſtature, and reſemble moſt of the other inhabitants of Siberia, except that their faces are ſomewhat ſhorter, their mouths larger, and their cheeks fuller; they have dark hair, hollow eyes, ſharp noſes, and tawny complexions; the latter is ſaid to be principally owing to the influence of the ſun reflected from the ſnow in the ſpring-ſeaſon, when the ſnow lies thick on the ground. Some of the natives, who are obliged to be in the woods, cover their faces with a kind of netting, to prevent the effects of the ſun-beams darting on the ſnow; for the eye-ſight ſuffers by this refraction as well as the complexion.

Theſe people dreſs in deer-ſkins, with the fur outwards; they uſe alſo, for this purpoſe, the ſkins of dogs and other animals. They often wear two coats, the ſleeves of the outer coat reaching down to the knees; they have a hood to it, which in bad weather ſerves to cover the head; and they adorn the back part with ſhreads of ſkins, and ſometimes of ſilks of different colours. The women wear the ſame ſort of garments as the men, though their coat, or rather waiſtcoat, ſits cloſer to their bodies, and is decorated with ſlips of red, blue, and yellow cloth, and ſometimes ribband, or woollen liſt. To this waiſtcoat is joined a ſort of petticoat coming about half way down the leg. The men wear a leather belt round them, and their legs are covered with different coloured ſkins; they wear ſeal-ſkin caps or hats, and ſometimes a cap or hat of birch bark; ſome have caps of braſs plaited. The women let their hair grow much longer than the men; they plait it, and hang braſs trinkets to it: they have fur caps, that are black without, and white within. The men plait their hair, as well as the women.

The natives of this country never waſh themſelves, but live in a moſt beaſtly manner: they neither cut their nails, nor comb their hair. They eat raw fleſh, carrion, ſtale-fiſh, or any thing they can get, how filthy ſoever it be. They live in huts under-ground, covered with graſs or earth, and ſometimes with the ſkins of the animals they have killed in the field, undreſſed, and yielding a noiſome ſtench. They place benches in their hovels, with a fire-place in one corner, and on theſe benches they repoſe themſelves. Some of the huts are covered and lined with mats. Theſe are their winter dwellings; nor are their ſummer retreats much more elegant, except that they are built on the ſurface of the earth, and with rather more regularity. Theſe, it is true, are built high on pillows, with beams thrown acroſs them, on which a floor is fixed, with a roof riſing from each ſide to a centrical point; and, indeed it is neceſſary that their ſummer habitations ſhould be thus high, elſe the inhabitants would be in continual danger from the wild beaſts. They eat out of bowls, or troughs,

troughs, with their dogs, and never waſh them afterwards.

We ſhall now take notice of their marriages. When a man hath met with a young woman that he likes, he engages into the ſervice of her parents, and, after the expiration of a limited time of ſervitude, obtains either permiſſion to marry her, or is diſmiſſed with a requital for his ſervice. If he has leave to marry, the nuptials commences immediately, and the whole ceremony conſiſts in ſtripping the bride naked, whoſe cloaths, however, are ſo faſt bound by ſtraps and girdles, that he finds it no eaſy taſk to accompliſh his purpoſe; at this criſis ſeveral women ſhelter and protect her from him; who, however, ſeeking an opportunity to find her leſs guarded, makes freſh efforts to undreſs her: but if ſhe cries out, and her exclamations bring aſſiſtance, the women who come fall upon the man, ſcratching his face, tearing his hair, and otherwiſe roughly treating him; till the bride, ſhewing ſome concern for his ſituation, and the women becoming leſs violent in their aſſault, the man at length ſucceeds, and then retires from her, who however calls him back, and acknowledges in a ſoft plaintive tone, that he has conquered her. Thus the ceremony ends, and the next day the happy couple repair to the hut of the huſband. In about a week afterwards they make a viſit to the wife's parents, where they celebrate the marriage feaſt with the relations of both parties. Some of the men marry three wives, who in general live in a friendly manner together, and are never jealous.

Notwithſtanding it is deemed a very capital offence in a woman to procure abortion, yet if twins are born, one of them muſt be deſtroyed. The women put their infants in a baſket faſtened to an elaſtic pole, which is eaſily moved with the foot, to rock them. As ſoon as they can ſtand on their legs, their mothers leave them to themſelves, ſuffering them to roll on the ground any where; they are moſt commonly half naked, and begin to walk at a time when a child in Europe would not be able to ſtand.

Theſe people never bury their dead, but often give them to the dogs; and ſay, that as the deceaſed are thus devoured by dogs, they will enſure to themſelves a pleaſant carriage in ſledges drawn by fine dogs in the other world. This abominable cuſtom, however, is not univerſally practiſed; ſome leaving their dead in their hut, and ſeek a new habitation. The apparel of the deceaſed perſon is always thrown away, from a ſuperſtitious notion, that whoever ſhould wear it would meet with ſome dreadful calamity.

They travel on ſledges drawn by dogs; their number is generally four, which are driven by a whip. The perſon in the ſledge is ſeated on the right ſide of it, with his feet hanging over, and is obliged to balance himſelf with great care, leſt the ſledge ſhould overſet. Where the roads are in tolerable condition, they can travel to a great diſtance in a ſhort time, carrying with them proviſions, &c. They ſometimes travel, in this manner, about thirty werſts, that is, upwards of twenty-three miles in a day.

They hunt the bear, among other animals; on which occaſion, they uſe rackets to walk upon the ſnow with, arming themſelves with pikes, and taking dogs with them to provoke the animal. They then wait till he comes out of his incloſure, for they would attack him to great diſadvantage while he remained there; becauſe the ſnow being very firm in that place, the bear would be able to avail himſelf of all his ſtrength; but the inſtant he comes out, he ſinks into the ſnow, and while he is ſtriving to diſengage himſelf, the hunters with their pikes eaſily deſtroy him.

They dreſs their ſeal-ſkins in the following manner; they firſt wet and ſpread out the ſkin, and with ſtones fixed in wood ſcrape off all the fat; then they rub it with caviar, roll it together, and tread on it; they afterwards ſcrape it again, and repeat the firſt part of their proceſs till the ſkin is thoroughly cleaned and ſoft. They prepare in the ſame manner ſkins of beaver, deer, dogs, &c.

When the men are not employed in hunting or fiſhing, they weave nets, and conſtruct ſledges and boats; and in the ſpring and ſummer they procure the neceſſaries of life, and lay up a ſtore for the ſucceeding winter. The women make ſhoes, ſew cloaths, dye ſkins, &c. they alſo make glue of the dried ſkins of fiſhes, and particularly of the whale. They uſe a board of dry wood to light their fires; in this board are ſeveral round holes, into one of which putting the end of a ſmall round ſtick, they roll it backwards and forwards till the wood takes fire by the friction.

The people of this country are arrant cowards, and yet ſeem to deſpiſe life, through an innate kind of ſtupidity. They never attack their enemies openly, unleſs compelled to it; but ſteal privately to their huts, and treat them moſt barbarouſly, cutting them to pieces, and even tearing out their entrails: theſe cruelties are exerciſed with triumph and ſhouts of joy. Whenever they hear of a foe advancing towards them, they retire to ſome mountain, and fortify it as ſtrongly as poſſible: if there be a probability of the enemy getting the better of them, they immediately cut the throats of their wives and children, and then meet their aſſailants with a frantic rage, ſelling their lives as dear as poſſible. Their weapons are bows and arrows, and ſpears.

The religious notions of the Kamtſchadales are pretty ſingular. They erect a ſort of pillar on ſome plain, and cover it with a parcel of rags. Whenever they paſs by this pillar, they throw at it ſome fiſh or fleſh, and avoid killing any bird or beaſt near it. They think that woods and burning mountains are inhabited by evil ſpirits, whom they live in great fear of, and make them offerings; ſome of them have idols in their huts. They have a very imperfect idea of a ſupreme Being, and think he can neither diſpenſe happineſs nor miſery: the name which they have for the Deity, is Kutchu. They reverence ſome particular animals, from which they apprehend danger, and ſometimes offer fires at the holes of foxes; they implore wolves not to hurt them, and beſeech amphibious animals not to overſet their boats. Many of them, however, adopt the Ruſſian manners, and contemn the cuſtoms of their country; they have been inſtructed by Ruſſian miſſionaries in the Chriſtian religion; and ſchools have been erected for their children.

Theſe people ſtrictly obſerve the law of retaliation: if one man kills another, the relations of the perſon killed deſtroy the murderer. They puniſh theft, by burning the fingers of the thief. Before the Ruſſians conquered them, they had ſuch frequent inteſtine broils, that a year rarely paſſed without ſome village being intirely ruined.

Great havock is made in this country by the ſmall-pox. The ſcurvy, with the irregularities of parents, bring a variety of diſeaſes upon their offspring, to cure which, they apply roots, herbs, &c. The manner in which theſe people live in their huts, and their exceſs of debauchery, contribute to make the venereal diſeaſe very frequent among them. They have a diſorder called the ſuſhutoh, which is a ſort of ſcab, to which they apply the raw ſkin of a hare, which cauſes a ſuppuration. They are likewiſe ſubject to the palſy, jaundice, boils, cancers, and other diſorders.

There are three volcanoes in Kamtſchatka, the firſt is that of Awatcha, to the northward of the bay of that name; it is a chain of mountains, the baſe of which is covered with trees, and extends to the bay. The middle forms a kind of amphitheatre, and the various ſummits which are ſpiral cannot be viewed without exciting the moſt awful ideas. They always emit ſmoke, but rarely fire. There was indeed a terrible eruption of ſmoke and cinders in the ſummer of the year 1737, but it only continued one day; many of the cinders weighed almoſt two pounds avoirdupoiſe. This eruption was the forerunner of a terrible earthquake, which happened on the ſixth of the enſuing October, and in a quarter of an hour overturned all the tents and huts of the Kamtſchadales, being accompanied by a ſingular ebbing and flowing of the ſea, which at firſt roſe to the height of twenty feet, then ſunk, and retired to an unuſual diſtance; it ſoon after roſe higher than at firſt, and ſuddenly ſinking again, retired ſo aſtoniſhingly far from the common low-water mark, that it was for a conſiderable time loſt to the eye. At length the earthquake was repeated, the ſea returned once more, and roſe to the height of two hundred feet, overwhelmed the whole coaſt, and then finally retired, after having deſtroyed the goods, cattle, and many of the lives of the inhabitants, and left ſeveral lakes of ſalt-water in the lower grounds and adjacent fields. The ſecond volcanoe iſſues from ſome mountains ſituated between the river of Kamtſchatka and that of Tobolſki. Nothing was ever known to exhale from this but ſmoke, till the year 1739, when it vomited a torrent of flames, which deſtroyed all the neighbouring foreſts. The third volcanoe iſſues from the higheſt mountains in Kamtſchatka, on the banks of the river of that name. It is environed by a cluſter of leſſer mountains, and the head is rent into long crevices on every ſide. Its greateſt eruption began September 25, 1737, and continued a week, which, with an earthquake that followed, did very conſiderable damage.

In the ſouthern extremity of Kamtſchatka there are hot ſprings: they form rivulets, and run almoſt the length of the river Ozernaya which iſſues from the lake Kurilſky, and then join that ſtream; the waters, however, have no very conſiderable degree of heat in them.

There is a mountain near the river Pandia, from whoſe

ſummit a prodigious cataract of boiling waters fall with a terrible noiſe, then running to a conſiderable diſtance, they continue boiling up to the height of a foot, till they loſe themſelves in ſeveral lakes, which contain a great number of iſlands. From this mountain the inhabitants obtain ſome beautiful ſtones, on which they ſet a great value on account of their admirable variegated colours; which are merely the effects of the different powers of heat, humidity, and friction; for theſe ſtones are waſhed from the mountains, and are poliſhed by the above-mentioned hot and impetuous waters.

During the winter, a great quantity of fiſh harbour in the river of Kamtſchatka. In the ſpring, when the ice breaks, they attempt to get to the ſea; but the natives watch the heads of the rivers, and take a great number of them in a kind of nets; ſome they dry in the ſummer and lay by for their winter food, and from others they extract the fat or oil by means of red-hot ſtones, which they carefully reſerve for a great variety of uſes.

The late gallant Captain Cook was killed by the natives at an iſland called O-why-hee, near Kamtſchatka; an account of whoſe death, and diſcoveries in thoſe parts, as contained in his third voyage, will be given towards the concluſion of our work.

CHAP. VII.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF CHINESE, MOGULCAN, AND INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

SECT. I.

Contains an account of the Mantcheoux or Mantchew Tartars; with a deſcription of the provinces of Mugden, Kirin-ula, and Tſitſi-kar, their manners and cuſtoms, &c.

THE Mantcheoux or Mantchew Tartars live chiefly in huts on the banks of rivers. Their country is in the north of Lao-tong, the moſt eaſterly of the Chineſe provinces, and is bounded by the river Saghalian-ula on the north; by Corea and Lao-tong, on the ſouth; by the ocean, on the eaſt; and by the Mongol's country, on the weſt. It is divided into three provinces, namely, Mugden, Kirin-ula, and Tſitſi-kar; and from hence that enterpriſing Tartarian ſpirit originated, which triumphed on the imperial throne of China. But we ſhall ſpeak more particularly in this ſection, of theſe provinces, and of the Tartars in general.

The former of theſe provinces (which is about two hundred and ſeventy miles long, and one hundred and twenty in breadth) hath a favourable ſoil, producing wheat, millet, and cotton, as well as plenty of paſture for cattle, and ſeveral ſorts of fruit. This province of Mugden has given name to the capital, in which are ſeveral public buildings, and courts of juſtice, as at Pe-king. But the moſt populous city is Ton-wang-ching, which indeed may be deemed the key of the great peninſula of Corea.

There are two large handſome roads from Mugden all the way to the city of Pe-king, which is about one thouſand one hundred miles diſtant: theſe are kept conſtantly in repair, having been formed with great labour principally for the emperor, whenever it ſhould be his royal pleaſure to viſit his Tartarian dominions. One of theſe roads is for the paſſage of his majeſty to Tartary, and the other for his paſſage to Pe-king back from Tartary.

The ſecond province is Kirin-ula: it has Lao-tong for its boundary on the weſt; the ocean, on the eaſt; Corea, on the ſouth; and the river Saghalian-ula, on the north. This country is a mountainous deſart, upwards of ſeven hundred and forty miles in length, and ſix hundred in breadth. Here is ſcarce any thing to be ſeen but the gloomy tops of mountains, nor is any thing heard but the hideous howlings of wolves and tygers. Very little rice grows here, but plenty of oats. The air is exceedingly bleak and keen.

Some of the Tartars take up their reſidence in huts on the river Uſuri, and ſubſiſt principally on fiſh; theſe are the Yupi's: they imitate the Chineſe in dreſs, and the women decorate their hair with a variety of baubles. The Ke-cheang Tartars live after the ſame manner, on the banks of the Saghalian-ula. Theſe people, when the rivers are frozen over, are drawn in ſledges upon the ice by dogs. They are very ignorant and uncivilized, though peaceable and inoffenſive. The Yupi's have no ſovereign prince, but chuſe ſeveral chiefs. The Mugden provincials have a Tartarian general, who has lieutenant-generals and a great number of ſoldiers under him.

The third province of Chineſe Tartary is Tſitſi-kar. The capital, which has the ſame name, is a place of tolerable trade, and chiefly peopled by Chineſe.

The hunting of fables is an employment for which the ſolar Tartars are famous; the ſkins of theſe creatures being of great utility to them: the women hunt them as well as the men. In the purſuit of this game, they generally meet with tygers, which they are never afraid to engage, and generally get the better of them; however, if any one unfortunately falls at the feet of this animal, the reſt do not decline their purſuit; for their livelihood depends principally upon the furs they get from the ſables they take.

In ſome of the rivers there are ſeveral fine pearl-fiſheries, and the natives ſet a high value on the pearls.

The inhabitants of Tartary have all nearly the ſame language, though they are diſtinguiſhed into different nations, and ſpeak in different dialects. Their origin and cuſtoms are both equally ancient; for the former could never be traced, on account of theſe people having for ſuch a ſeries of years been continually wandering about from place to place. If we examine the moſt remote antiquity, we ſhall diſcover a ſtriking reſemblance of the people of the early ages, and the Tartars of the preſent time; for as their anceſtors lived, ſo live they.

The religion of the Tartars appears, from monuments of undoubted authority, to be of above three thouſand years ſtanding; and is founded on the ſublimeſt principles of morality. They have in general been followers of the grand lama, or immortal father. This religion made a conſiderable progreſs in early ages; and the authority of this chief pontiff is ſo highly revered, that the emperors of China, previous to the ceremonial of their coronation, always implore his protection, and ſend him rich preſents. This worſhip has not, like the Chineſe, been mixed with other ſyſtems; for neither time, nor the influence of man, hath had power to ſhake the authority of the grand lama, who, however, acknowledges that he is no deity, but only a repreſentative of the divinity; and that he is appointed by heaven to decide ultimately upon whatever relates to public worſhip.

His influence extends as fully to temporal as to ſpiritual concerns; but he conſiders all civil matters, held profane by him, as inconſiſtent with his dignity, and therefore commits the care of government to perſons calculated to conduct affairs of that nature.

In Tartary, there are ſeveral worſhippers of the idol Foë, who pay an implicit obedience to their prieſts, making them preſents, and ſtrictly attending to their directions. Many of theſe prieſts migrate from place to place, in the ſervice of religion and themſelves; but they are in general very ignorant.

SECT. II.

Treats of the Mongols; the ſituation, boundaries, and climate of their country; alſo of the natives, animals, &c.

THE Mongol country is ſituated to the north of China; and is bounded, on the eaſt, by the territories of the Mantchews; on the weſt, by the country of Kalkas; on the ſouth, by China; and, on the north, by eaſtern Tartary and the Lalka Tartars. It was about three hundred leagues in length, and two hundred in breadth. This country is not very well known, except that part of it which the caravans paſs in travelling from

Muſcovy to China. The climate is exceedingly ſevere, and ice lies upon the ground eight or nine months together.

The natives (who are of the ſame original as thoſe who accompanied Tamerlane in the conqueſt of India, Perſia, &c.) are in general of a middle ſize, but very ſtrongly made, with broad faces, black eyes, flat noſes, long whiſkers, ſallow complexion, and of a moſt rude behaviour. Their hair is almoſt as thick and ſtrong as horſe-hair, which they cut cloſe to the head, and leave only a tuft at top. They wear large ſhirts, and callico drawers; and their garments, lined with ſheep-ſkin, reach down almoſt to their feet: theſe they faſten on their bodies by ſtrong leather ſtraps. When on horſeback, they wear a ſhort jacket with narrow deer-ſkin ſleeves, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. They have on their heads, caps bordered with fur. The women are not quite ſo coarſe featured as the men, but their dreſs is nearly the ſame as theirs.

This country has in it a great variety of animals, ſuch as camels, dromedaries, cows, horſes, ſheep, elks, bears, tygers, wolves, &c. There is alſo every ſpecies of game known in Europe. Rhubarb and other medicinal plants grow here, ſalt and ſalt-petre are alſo found in great plenty.

The Kalka Mongols, who are a race of Tartars, are dependent on China: their perſons, habits, manners, &c. are the ſame as the Mongols: they dwell beyond the Mongols, and take their name from the river Kalka.

In giving a further account of the Mongols, we muſt obſerve, that they live in little moveable huts, formed of wigs covered with matted wool; they have a fire in the entre, with a hole at the top to let out the ſmoke, and boards or benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. They are filthy both in their dreſs and in their food: they often make uſe of the dung of their cattle for fuel.

It has been a very antient cuſtom among theſe people, to ſupport a war, by ravaging the country. Their tribes are commanded by ſeveral chans or leaders; and they elect a great chan, who claims a paramount power over all: his reſidence is a kind of military moving ſtation, and he can bring from twenty to ſixty or ſeventy thouſand horſemen into the field. The grand chan of Cambalu is ſaid to have controuled the whole mighty power of Tartary in the days of Tamerlane; and ſo much was he puffed up by his authority, opulence and grandeur, that each day it is related, as ſoon as he was ſeated to dinner, a trumpet ſounded, which was intended to give notice to all the other monarchs in the globe, that they might alſo go to dinner.

They are remarkably dexterous in handling their ſabres, and ſhooting with bows and arrows: they are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy, and will, while on full gallop, ſplit a pole in pieces with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. But they have the utmoſt contempt for agriculture, looking upon all buſineſs of that kind as the moſt abject ſlavery. When they are angry with any one, they wiſh it may be his fate to work like an European.

It is common, with theſe people, when any of them become very infirm by age, for others of them to make ſmall huts for the aged invalids near a river, and there leave them to take their paſſage into the next world. They think that in this they act in a friendly manner towards them. Thoſe who die in their huts, are thrown into a burning pile, and their bodies conſumed to aſhes, which are afterwards interred on ſome mountain.

The Mongols ſell or exchange their cattle with the Chineſe for ordinary tea, coarſe cloth, &c. They are never troubled with much care or anxiety, for they have nobody to pleaſe, nor any body to fear.

Though theſe roving people are under no very regular form of government, yet their country is divided into diſtricts, each of which have a chan of its own; but the Tartars of one province muſt not migrate to another; they are to continue themſelves to their own nation, where they have full liberty to roam at their pleaſure.

Their marriages are not attended with much ceremony: the men purchaſe their wives with cattle; and when the wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed by the huſband as a ſlave, and, as ſuch, muſt attend upon the young wife who ſupplies her place.

The people of this country worſhip the idol Foë; they have a high prieſt among them, to whom they do homage, and think that he has the power of obtaining favours for them from Foë. Whenever this prieſt ſignifies his pleaſure to remove to any particular part of the country, the inferior prieſts and a great number of other perſons attend him; and they who reſide on the ſpot to which he is going, meet him on the road in crowds, ſupplicating his bleſſing; which he never fails to beſtow on ſuch as can make him an adequate contribution towards his ſupport; and this he is in no doubt of receiving for his benediction, as he ſuffers none to approach his ſacred perſon but the higher order of people. This high-prieſt is named khutuchtu; and ſome of the deluded people think that the holy Spirit which animates him; immediately on his death paſſes into the body of him who is elected to ſucceed him; which tranſmigration is perfectly conſonant with the doctrine of the metempſychoſis, the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem that prevails in many parts of Aſia. Others think that he grows old with the decline of the moon, and reſumes his youth when the new moon appears. For a further deſcription of theſe people, we beg leave to refer the reader to our account of Chineſe Tartary, Page 56.

SECT. III.

Contains a deſcription of Weſtern Tartary; including the kingdom of Aſtracan, the Calmucks, Circaſſians, Uſbeck, Crim, and Leſgee Tartars.

THE kingdom of Aſtracan is bounded by Ruſſia on the north, Siberia and Calmuck Tartary on the eaſt, the Caſpian ſea on the ſouth, and Circaſſian Tartary on the weſt; and that part of it which lies between the Wolga, the river Jaika, and the Caſpian ſea, is generally called Nagaia; as is alſo that part of the country which lies to the weſtward of Aſtracan, and the natives Nagaian Tartars.

Aſtracan, the capital city of this kingdom, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Wolga, in the latitude of forty-ſeven degrees north, longitude fifty-two from the meridian of London: the moſt fruitful part of the country lies to the eaſtward of the city towards the river Jaika: to the ſouth weſt is a deſart of ſeventy leagues in length. The town is defended by a ſtone wall three miles in circumference, and has a cathedral and ſeveral other Ruſſian churches being the ſee of an archbiſhop, who lately built the cathedral.

The city of Aſtracan, is ſuppoſed to contain one hundred thouſand inhabitants; it has ten gates, ſix whereof look towards the river, and two are in the citadel, which ſerves as a wall to the town on the oppoſite ſide. Within the citadel is the governor's palace, being a large wooden building, and contains a great number of pleaſant apartments, particularly a great hall which has a noble proſpect on all ſides. Both the churches and houſes are built of wood, except the cathedral, the biſhop's palace adjoining to it, and one church more: here are alſo a monaſtery and a nunnery built of wood. Beſides the governor, there are three other great officers of the crown here, the firſt of whom preſides in the council: the ſecond has the government of the public houſes; and the third the direction of the fiſhery. On the oppoſite ſide of the river ſtands a fine ſtone monaſtery, and two others; and ſeveral ſuburbs. The ſoldiers ſuburb lies on the eaſt ſide of the city along the river Kitume, which falls into the Wolga: another of the ſuburbs is called Walga, where the royal ſhipping lies. There are two other ſuburbs inhabited indifferently by all ſorts of people. The Tartarian ſuburb is ſeparated from the reſt, and built of bricks dried in the ſun. The Tartars inhabit it only in the winter, for in ſummer they encamp in the open fields. The country is moderately fruitful except in corn, of which they have none but what comes from Caſan. Fiſh are very plentiful, they have one kind called beluga, which are ſaid to be two fathoms long; but the moſt delicious fiſh in this river, if not in any other (ſay ſome travellers) are the ſterlets, they are an ell long, and yet ſold for two-pence or three-pence a-piece at Aſtracan. In the neighbourhood of this city there live about forty or fifty Armenian families who have their ſhops in the towns: and the Indian merchants have their caravanſera where they carry on their trade. This is a ſpacious building ſurrounded by a wall of ſquare ſtone and ſeveral noble gates, at which there are guards placed every night for the protection of their goods. In the gardens about the town are vines and fruit-trees, ſuch as apples, pears, plums, and apricots; but the fruit is not ſo good as in ſome other places: they let their vines grow to the heighth of a man, but not higher, and then prop them up: the grapes are black and large, thoſe which grow in private gardens are ſold in the market; but all thoſe in the vineyards, which are the Czarina's property, are made into wine. The ground is naturally a ſandy barren ſoil; but they have large wells from whence they convey the

water by pipes or little channels into their grounds. The vineyards lie about two or three werſts from the town, they encreaſe every day. The old city of Aſtracan, ſtood about ſeven werſts (a werſt is three quarters of a yard) to the eaſtward of the new, but there are now ſcarce any remains of it. This city is garriſoned by five regiments of infantry and one of dragoons; many field regiments and Coſſacks, excluſive of the Tartar militia, winter here, beſides the garriſon. The uſe of the regulars is to prevent the incurſions of the wild Tartars.

This country alſo produces reeds, liquorice, kal, geniſta, aculeata, the herb aſtrachania, introria, &c. The inhabitants likewiſe raiſe melons and pompions, which they eat with bread; their garden vegetables are good, but their mulberries are unwholeſome.

They have a great variety of wild animals; ſuch as boars, elks, red and fallow deer, antelopes, hares, wild horſes, &c. The ſame kind of tame animals which abound in Great-Britain, are found here. The antelope is of a light grey colour, of the ſize of a deer, with a head reſembling a cow, but the noſe is without a griſtle. It has fine black eyes, but is purblind: the horns are beautiful, but without branches; they are taper to the top, and have rings at equal diſtances. The fleſh is tender, but ſeems to taſte of muſk. Here are alſo pelicans, corovaikes, ſwans, ducks, &c. The Wolga is replete with a great variety of moſt delicious fiſh; but there are few reptiles. Their camels have two bunches on their backs; their ſheep like thoſe of Perſia, have very fat tails, and their cattle is exceedingly large.

Their commerce conſiſts chiefly in ſilks, brocades, velvets, ſattins, drugs, copper, cotton, Perſian fruits, wines, ſweetmeats, &c. which they import, and in return export meal, fiſh, ſalt, woollen, &c. The inhabitants are prohibited from exporting naval and military ſtores to Perſia. The merchants of Aſtracan have permiſſion to navigate the Caſpian ſea; beſides which they always keep a great number of barks in the Wolga. The pirates who are convicted of robbing on this river are hanged up alive by the ribs upon gibbets fixed on floats, where they are left to expire in the greateſt agonies; and if any perſons relieve them, they are ſentenced to ſuffer the ſame puniſhment.

The Ruſſians, Armenians, Georgians, &c. who inhabit Aſtracan, have the ſame cuſtoms and manners as the people of their reſpective countries. The real natives, or Nagai Tartars, greatly differ from the others in many reſpects. They live in huts formed of canes or bulruſhes. They pay no taxes, but are obliged to ſerve in the Ruſſian wars; and ſome of their chiefs are always left in the caſtle of Aſtracan as hoſtages for the fidelity of the reſt.

The people of Aſtracan have olive complexions, large faces, little eyes, ſmall beards, are low of ſtature, and inclined to corpulency. They ſhave their heads, wear a coarſe grey caſſock, and over it a ſheep-ſkin cloak, with the wool outwards, and a cap of the ſame materials. Their women wear linen, and a cap with Ruſſian coin hanging round. Their perſons and features are tolerable. The males wear a ring in the right ear, and the females in the noſe; the rings worn by the latter are uſually ſet with a piece of coral, a ruby or torquoiſe. The Aſtracans are in general Mahometans, and devote their offspring to God or ſome ſaint. Hunting, fiſhing, and their cattle ſupport them.

They uſe fiſh dried in the ſun inſtead of bread, though they ſometimes make cakes of rice, millet, or meal, which they fry in oil or honey; their drink is water or milk, but they prefer mares milk, and are exceedingly fond of the fleſh of camels and horſes.

The Kalmuck Tartars inhabit a prodigious deſart, which lies between the rivers Don and Wolga. Theſe people like ſome of their neighbours, are continually roving about; in the winter, they uſually reſide on the borders of Circaſſia; they proceed northerly in the ſpring, and return back again at the latter end of autumn. They never cultivate any land, their only riches being their flocks and cattle, on whoſe account they principally roam about in ſearch of freſh paſture. Their temporary or moving habitations are huts, which the poorer kind cover with reeds or ruſhes, and the more opulent with felt.

Theſe people are divided into different hords, each of which hath its chief, but all are ſubject to one ſovereign, who is called chan. This chan has an agent or envoy at Aſtracan.

The Kalmucks always aſſert their independence, but admit that they are happy in the friendſhip and protection of the Ruſſians, who claim them as their ſubjects. A Ruſſian reſident, attended by a guard of three hundred ſoldiers, is always ſtationed in the court, or rather the camp of the chan.

With reſpect to their religion, they believe in one God only, are fond of keeping holidays, and are tolerably decent in their mode of worſhip. However, they keep idols about them, but pretend not to pay them any kind of adoration, but only to treat them with reſpect out of regard to the ſaints they repreſent. On all occaſions they affect to profeſs the Chineſe religion, though they know very little of its principles. They uſe an odd emblem of eternity during the time of their worſhip; which is the neck of a double-gilt ſpear, of about eight feet in length, is encompaſſed with a ring, to which a leather thong with a piece of lead at the end is faſtened; during their devotions, the end of the ſpear is placed on the ground, and one of the congregation, with great dexterity, occaſions the metal to turn round during the whole time; they likewiſe ſing, and make uſe of cymbols, and other muſical inſtruments, which are ſtringed; to theſe they beat time, and look upon notes, which are pricked down the page, from the top to the bottom.

The Kalmucks are allowed but one wife at a time; and adultery is ſeverely puniſhed, for if the wife is caught tripping, ſhe is immediately condemned to death; and the huſband if he thinks proper, may be her executioner. But conjugal infidelity is rarely known among them.

If two young people are diſpoſed to marry, they cohabit together for a twelvemonth; if in that ſpace the woman proves pregnant, the marriage is legal, but if the contrary is the caſe, they are at liberty either to part intirely, or to make another year's trial. The woman's reputation is in no reſpect injured by this procedure. As to the prieſts, they are neither permitted to have money or wives, for theſe two reaſons; firſt, they are allowed to ſupply their neceſſities from the properties of whom they pleaſe; and ſecondly, they have the liberty of paſſing a ſingle night with any married woman they chuſe; and this is ſo far from diſquieting the huſbands, that they take it as a mighty great favour done them.

The Kalmucks had formerly the moſt ſingular, and yet the moſt ſignificant method reſpecting their treatment of the dead, of any perſons in the univerſe. As they conſidered them for many years, they engaged every element in the concerns of their corpſe. In the firſt place, they buried them, that they might return to their original clay; but before it was poſſible for the bodies to corrupt, they took them up again, and threw them into the Wolga, but took care to ſecure them ſo, that they might eaſily be drawn out again. After having been immerſed in water for ſome time, they drew up the bodies, and half-burned or rather roaſted them, to bring them acquainted with the element of fire: then, that they might not omit the fourth element, air, the carcaſes were expoſed upon the banks of the Wolga, to be devoured by birds of prey, or Tartarian dogs. If they were devoured by dogs, it was deemed a lucky omen, for dogs being looked upon in a ſacred light, they ſuppoſed that the ſpirit appertaining to a carcaſe belonging to any perſon devoured by dogs, muſt be in an abſolute ſtate of felicity. This mode of treating the dead, has, however, for ſome years been prohibited by an order from the imperial court of Ruſſia; and the Kalmucks, at preſent, are compelled to bury their dead, in the ſame manner as the Chriſtians of Aſtracan.

The Kalmucks are always quarrelling with their neighbours, though they ſeem neither to be ſwayed by ambition or avarice; and have a particular enmity to the Karacalpaacks. To prevent theſe quarrels, the Ruſſians are under the neceſſity of keeping a military force in the ſummertime upon the banks of the Wolga.

The dogs of this country are exceedingly fierce and very voracious, and will attack any man who gives them the leaſt offence. They will, in bodies, aſſault a number of armed men; but the inhabitants of Aſtracan frequently go out on purpoſe to ſhoot them, ſo that it is ſuppoſed the whole ſpecies will in time be extirpated.

We ſhall proceed next to the deſcription of Circaſſian Tartary; this country is bounded by Aſtracan and the Caſpian ſea towards the eaſt; by Georgia and Dagiſtan towards the ſouth; by the river Don, the Palus Mæotis and the Black ſea towards the weſt; and by Ruſſia towards the north.

The chief city is Kizlaar, which was built by the Ruſſians; the citadel is only formed of earth, but the garriſon conſiſts of about five hundred regulars, and three thouſand Coſſacks, the latter of whom are permitted by the Ruſſian government to erect habitations on the banks of the Terek. Kizlaar is only in forty-four degrees north latitude, conſequently the air is wholſome and ſerene.

The next town is Terki, ſituate on or near the Caſpian

ſea,

ſea, about three or fourſcore miles to the ſouthward of Aſtracan, and frequently miſtaken for Terki, in Dageſtan, a great deal farther ſouthward, and ſubject to the crown of Perſia. Terki is ſituate in a large plain, and defended by a wall of earth with baſtions, after the modern way; and the buildings are for the moſt part of wood. This was the Muſcovite frontier towards Perſia, till very lately, and generally had a numerous garriſon; but they are now advanced much farther ſouthward through Dageſtan and Shirvan, into the Perſian provinces on the ſouth of the Caſpian ſea.

The Circaſſian Tartars generally acknowledge themſelves dependent on the crown of Ruſſia, though there are inſtances where they have not ſhewn the ſubmiſſion of ſubjects, which is not much to be wondered at, ſince they live ſo remote from the ſeat of the government, and are ever rambling from one place to another. Thoſe Circaſſians who lie next to Perſia and Turky, may be reckoned under the dominion of one or other of thoſe crowns: but nothing is more common than to put themſelves ſometimes under the protection of one prince, and ſometimes under another. There is no conſiderable town in this country, except Kizlaar, which is inhabited chiefly by Ruſſians, for the whole nation of Circaſſians live in tents or huts according to the ſeaſon of the year, removing from one place to another, like their neighbours of Aſtracan: nor does the country produce any thing valuable enough to induce foreigners to build or ſettle amongſt them.

We are informed by a gentleman who travelled into theſe parts, that being ſent into Circaſſia by the late Czar, to view the mines of that country, he found they were well furniſhed with ſilver ore, and that the kneeſes (the Tartar lords) produced ſome pieces of ore, which upon aſſay afforded a great deal of ſilver: that he found the people tolerably civilized: that their military men wore armour, with a kind of ſilk veſts or gowns over it. That their arms were bows and arrows, and they were generally very well mounted. That they lived in ſummer under tents like their neighbours, and there was a great variety of beautiful women amongſt them. And from thence it ſeems it is, and from the neighbouring country of Georgia, that the harams or ſeraglios of Iſpahan and Conſtantinople are chiefly ſupplied with virgins.

Though Circaſſia produces very little grain of any ſort, they have large herds of cattle which they drive before them like the other Tartar nations, and ſtay no longer in any place than they can find paſture for them.

A gentleman who travelled through Circaſſia, gives us the following account of that country: nothing, he ſays, can appear more agreeable than the proſpect of it, on account of that variety of mountains, vallies, woods, little lakes, ſprings, and rivers, with which it is every where diverſified. It is fertile beyond imagination, every thing grows there almoſt without ſowing, at leaſt, whatever they ſow, which is uſually barley, oats and cummin, thrives to admiration, after only once ſlightly turning up the earth, which they do but juſt open to receive their grain. Though this account of the ſoil is very different from what other travellers give us, who uſually repreſent Circaſſia as a barren country; yet as they all agree that great herds of cattle are fed here, it muſt certainly produce good herbage, and conſequently would produce plenty of grain if it was well cultivated; but the natives wandering from place to place, ſow no more, it ſeems, than will juſt ſerve for the ſubſiſtence of their families; and if there happens to be a bad crop, they are reduced to great diſtreſs for bread corn, as ſome gentlemen obſerve.

The Circaſſians, both men and women, are of an eaſy ſhape and well proportioned. Their complexions good. Their features juſt, according to the notions we entertain of beauty. Their hair and eyes are generally black, and not a cripple or a crooked perſon ſcarce to be found amongſt them. The women wear no other head-dreſs than a ſilk or ſtuff cap in the houſe, their hair hanging down in two treſſes behind them, but are vailed when they go abroad. The general food of the Circaſſians is mutton, beef, poultry, wild fowl, and veniſon, all which they have in great plenty; but a piece of a young colt is preferred before any of theſe. Their bread is made into thin cakes, either of barley meal, or millet, which they bake on the hearth. They are extremely hoſpitable, and will not ſuffer a traveller to pay any thing for the entertainment of himſelf, his ſervants, or horſes; but will contend frequently who ſhall have the honour of treating him. As for the natives, when they are upon a journey, they carry no proviſions with them, but are as welcome in every houſe they arrive at, as in their own; ſo that if any people may be ſaid to have all things in common, it is the Circaſſians. Their uſual drink is water or mare's milk, like the other Tartars; and perſons of all ages and ſexes ſmoke tobacco. They ſit croſs-legged, and have a carpet or piece of Ruſſian leather ſpread before them, and little wooden tables, at their meals; but neither linen nor plates. They obſerve no regular hours for eating, drinking, or ſleeping; but juſt as they have inclination or opportunity.

The river Terek which flows from eaſt to weſt, produces great variety of fiſh, as ſturgeons, ſalmon, &c. It meanders beautifully through the country, till it diſembogues itſelf into the Caſpian ſea.

Thoſe Circaſſians, who are immediately under the protection of the court of Ruſſia, have chiefs of their own, the principal of whom is ſtiled becovitch; he is a major-general of irregulars in the Ruſſian army: he is however always ordered to remain in Circaſſia, where it is imagined his ſervices can be the moſt uſeful. Though the Circaſſian princes, are exceedingly honoured and reſpected by the ſubjects, yet ſuch is their independency of the people, that they are not obliged to do any thing at their command, but are guided by their own inclination. The princes themſelves are likewiſe independent on each other. Whatever preſents the Empreſs of Ruſſia ſends to the Circaſſian princes, their reſpective ſubjects expect a part. If the things cannot conveniently be diſtributed, they will have an equivalent in ſpecie, or ſuch a commodity as may be eaſily parted among them. The ſpoils taken in war are divided amongſt his troops, the ſovereigns being excluded from any ſhare of them.

Their ſubordination to Ruſſia is only confined to a formal oath of allegiance, in which they ſwear to be ſubmiſſive to a certain number of general laws, as long as their being ſo continues to be eſſential to the good of the Ruſſians and themſelves. The imperial court, for many cogent reaſons, ſeldom interferes with their political, and never with their religious concerns. They have a great veneration for antient houſes; and are extremely tenacious of their family honour, by not intermarrying, even for gain, with an inferior.

The contract for marriage is entered into by the parents or guardians; after which, the young couple are permitted to ſee each other; and after a few viſits, the affair is concluded, and the bride is ſent home to the bridegroom's houſe in a cloſe waggon finely painted, attended by her women. But as the bride's relations give nothing with her but a few ſuits of cloaths, this matter often falls heavy on the bridegroom, who is obliged to make valuable preſents to the bride's relations of horſes, dromedaries, camels, cows, &c.

Polygamy is permitted to ſuch of the Circaſſians as prefer the Mahometan religion.

Theſe people, like the Turks, have harams or ſeraglios for their women, from which all men except the huſband are excluded. Theſe are contiguous to their dwelling-houſes, though ſeparate from them. A remarkable cuſtom in this country is, that when the principal lady of any of their princes is in labour, the firſt Circaſſian who hears of it, let his ſituation be ever ſo menial, runs and places himſelf at the door of the haram, from whence none are authorized to drive him. When the lady is delivered, if it happens to be a boy, he is richly dreſſed with the utmoſt ſpeed, and delivered to the Circaſſian, who immediately takes him home, and, if he is a married man, delivers him to his wife to nurſe: if he is a bachelor, a nurſe muſt be provided, and the child remains under his inſpection and tuition till he is nine years of age, when he is reſtored to his parents, who receive him with great rejoicings, and many public ceremonies. The reaſon they give for this ſingular cuſtom, is that the child may not be ſpoiled in his infancy by the delicacies of a court, or the effeminate treatment which he would receive in the haram; but rendered, by this means, ſo hardy and robuſt as to become in time a buggateer or hero; for perſonal courage and ſtrength are eſteemed as the moſt noble qualifications of a human being by the Circaſſians.

The country abounds with wild ſwine, wolves, and foxes; which they catch in the following manner: after digging a hole in the earth nine feet deep, they drive a ſtake into the middle, which projects from the ſurface of the earth about four feet. Upon the top of the ſtake a moveable cart-wheel is fixed, to which a young pig is faſtened in the evening. The mouth of the pit is then covered with branches of trees in a very ſlight manner, over which graſs is ſcattered. The pig does not fail to ſqueak all night, being irritated by its confinement. When any of the wild animals hear the noiſe, they haſten to viſit the place;

which they no ſooner approach than they fall into the pit, where they remain till morning, being totally unable to diſengage themſelves. The hare is hunted with hounds, as in England. They have great variety of game, particularly pheaſants.

Beyond the independent village Braguſkoi, ſouth of the river Terek, they have a hot ſpring, ſituated upon a hill; water boiling hot iſſues from it, which ſmells ſtrongly of naphtha, and falls into a baſon of about twelve feet diameter, and three feet deep. On the weſt ſide there are ſeveral ſmall ſprings of the ſame kind of water; and on the eaſt ſide there is an acid ſpring. The water of the chief well will boil a fowl in about nine or ten minutes.

Proviſions in general, and meat in particular, are exceedingly ſcarce here.

About the city of Terki there are a great number of ſerpents, which make holes in the ground that are extremely dangerous. They are ſix or ſeven feet long, and about as thick as a man's arm. There are likewiſe mice as large as ſquirrels, which are called jerbuck. Their ears are long, and their fore feet ſhorter than thoſe behind, which prevents their running ſwiftly: but they lay their tails on their back, and leap to a conſiderable height or diſtance.

SECT. IV.

Containing a deſcription of the river Jaik, together with an account of Karakalpaak, Kirgee, Buſkeer, Uſbeck, Crim, and Leſgee Tartars.

AT about three hundred werſts from the ſource of the river Jaik, which runs through a deſart of a prodigious extent, and at length empties itſelf into the Caſpian ſea; there is a ſtrong town built by the Don Coſſacks. This, after the river, is called Jaik, and the Coſſacks have bravely defended it from the attacks of all the different Tartars that ſurround it. There is no inhabited place, except the above-mentioned town, between Aſtracan and Jaik river. This vaſt deſart is, however, infeſted by innumerable hords of wild Tartars.

The Karakalpaaks wander about the Caſpian ſea, to the northward of whom the Kirgee and Baſkeer Tartars take up their abode. The Kalmucks are continually at war with theſe tribes. The Kirgees and Baſkeers profeſs the Mahometan religion; and, being perhaps the moſt ignorant and unpoliſhed of any who profeſs it, they are of courſe the moſt ſuperſtitious.

In the year 1739, during the war between the Ruſſians and Turks, the Kirgees and Baſkeers, conſonant to the notions they had imbibed, thought they could not do a more eſſential ſervice to Mahomet, than by injuring the Ruſſians as much as poſſible. They accordingly fell upon all the defenceleſs towns and villages of the province of Umſimafoſkaga: all who were young and vigorous they carried with them, deſigning either to uſe them as ſlaves, or to ſell them as ſuch. The old, infirm, and very young, fell indiſcriminate victims to their remorſeleſs fury. The governor of Orenburg, however, being informed of theſe cruel depredations, diſpatched a body of five thouſand regulars and three thouſand Coſſacks, who marched with ſuch ſecrecy, that they attacked the Kirgee camp in the night, and deſtroyed the greateſt part of thoſe barbarians, though they were twenty thouſand ſtrong at the time.

The river Jaik was firſt diſcovered by the Coſſacks, who acquired great riches by fiſhing in it; and, after having cured their fiſh, ſelling them to the Aſtracan merchants for the Ruſſian market.

A ſcheme having been entered into by Peter the Great, for turning the Wolga to a political advantage, he gave an excluſive privilege with reſpect to the fiſhing to one Demidioff, advancing at the ſame time twenty thouſand rubles, the better to enable him to carry his deſign into execution. In a few years Demidioff repaid the money, and became exceedingly rich. At length, the fiſheries carried on in the Jaik river exciting the attention of the court of Ruſſia, they determined to tax the fiſheries on that river, as well as thoſe of the Wolga: proper officers were accordingly ſent to enforce the tax, but they were thrown into the river and drowned by the Coſſacks, to whom the very idea of any kind of taxation was odious. Continual expreſſes were ſent from St. Peterſburgh to inquire why the officers had not ſent an account of their proceedings; but the meſſengers were treated exactly as the officers had been. At length the court was informed of the whole affair, but it was thought moſt prudent to wink at the inſult, the Ruſſian miniſtry having too much ſenſe to quarrel with a ſet of people, whoſe ſituation rendered it impoſſible to conquer them, and whoſe ſentiment enſured their independency.

The Uſbecks are generally eſteemed the moſt civilized of all the Mahometan Tartars; nevertheleſs they pillage and rob their neighbours, as well as any other Tartarian tribes. They nearly reſemble the Perſians in their dreſs; but we muſt except their boots, which are uncommonly large. The chiefs wear a plume of feathers in their turbans, and, as well as their chan, pride themſelves much on being the deſcendants of their renowned Tamerlane. Their common food is pilau, or boiled rice; but their greateſt delicacy is horſe-fleſh. They drink a kind of arrac or fermented liquor made of mare's milk. Their language is a mixture of the Turkiſh, Perſian, and Mongol; but they are well acquainted with the Perſian language in its purity. Their arms are like thoſe of the other Tartars, viz. large bows, arrows, darts, and ſabres; which they uſe with admirable addreſs. Of late they have begun to uſe muſkets, and many of their cavalry wear coats of mail, and carry ſmall bucklers.

It is affirmed, that the Tartars of Great Bucharia are the moſt courageous and robuſt of their whole nation. The Perſians, who are not deficient in courage, look upon them with terror. The women themſelves aſpire to military reputation: they are ſtrong and well limbed, but in their features have all the delicacy of Aſiatic beauty. The horſes belonging to theſe Tartars are not handſome, but they are hearty, indefatigable, and exceedingly ſwift; they are the beſt adapted in the world for ſcouring the deſarts, as they can live upon almoſt any thing, and a very ſmall quantity of provender ſeems ſufficient to keep up their ſtrength.

The Uſbeck Tartars are continually at war with the Perſians, the fertile plains of Chorazan exciting them to make frequent excurſions into that rich and plentiful country; but they do not find it quite ſo eaſy to penetrate into the dominions of the Great Mogul, on account of the prodigious mountains which intercept the paſſage.

Thoſe Uſbecks who ſubſiſt upon their cattle, or by plundering their neighbours, live ſometimes in huts, and ſometimes in tents, every tribe forming a camp of its own, and, like other Tartars, they frequently move from place to place, as it ſuits their inclination or conveniency. Others, who cultivate the earth, and are ſomewhat honeſter in their principles than their wandering brethren, form ſocieties, and live in towns and villages; theſe latter are either the real Buchanians, are deſcendants from the Sartes, the antient inhabitants of the country; or the Turkomans, who were ſettled in the country long before the Uſbecks or Tartars, properly ſo called, ſubdued it. The Uſbecks in general, however, deſpiſe the thoughts of cultivation, and deem it meritorious to make excurſions upon and plunder their neighbours.

The capital city is ſurrounded by a mud wall: the houſes are built of wood, but the moſque and caravanſeras are of bricks it is tolerably populous, but not equal to what it was formerly. The chan takes the liberty to ſeize upon the property of any one, which injures commerce, and damps the ſpirit of cultivation.

For a further account of theſe people, the ſituation of their country, rivers, account of Tamerlane, their great leader or chan, &c. we muſt refer our readers to the deſcription given, page 57 of the Chineſian Tartar kingdoms and ſtates; and ſhall cloſe this part of our work with an account of Crim Tartary, which was antiently called Taurica Cherſoneſus.

This country, which is inhabited by the Crim and Leſgee Tartars, is ſurrounded by the Black ſea on the weſt, ſouth, and part of the eaſt; on the north, it has the Palas Mœotis, and Leſſer Tartary joins it, on the north-weſt, by a narrow iſthmus. Its greateſt extent, from north to ſouth, is about one hundred and fifty-five miles; its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is near one hundred and forty miles; and its breadth in other places is only about eighty miles. It is ſituated between thirty-three and thirty-ſeven degrees eaſt longitude, and between forty-four and forty-ſix degrees north latitude. The chief cities, if they may be ſo called, are Precop, Crim, Aarabet, Sachingeri, Caffa, Sidagoy, &c.

It is exceedingly fruitful by nature; and, were it properly cultivated, would be a fine country. There are towns and villages; but the houſes are wretched huts. It is ſubject to the Grand Signor, whom the chan is obliged, in time of war, to furniſh with thirty thouſand effective men. Theſe troops, however, never receiving any pay, plunder

plunder and pillage every place they paſs through; on which account every man takes three or four horſes with him, beſides that on which he rides, to load with plunder and captives. Whenever a horſe dies, the owner immediately dreſſes the carcaſe, and invites his comrades to the entertainment.

Theſe people, in time of peace, purchaſe beautiful children in Circaſſia, and ſell them to the Turks, who pay for them in cloathing, arms, coffee, tea, rice, raiſins, &c. They travel in cloſe carts, which contain themſelves, their wives, children, baggage, &c.

When their daughters marry, the only portion they give is, a painted waggon, and a hut covered with white linen, with a painted cloth at the top, tied with red ſtrings, but they expect a handſome preſent from the bridegroom. They bury their dead very deep in the ground; erect a tomb of mud over their graves, and adorn it with a variety of flags, expreſſive of the quality, circumſtances, and actions of the deceaſed.

The Leſgee Tartars are an independent people. Their country extends near an hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and about fourteen from eaſt to weſt. It is fertile and pleaſant, producing all kinds of grain and cattle. The people are good mechanics, and carry on ſeveral manufactures: they are not only very warlike, but excel in making fire-arms, with which they trade into Perſia. Their chiefs, who are named ſhamkalls, in any common caſe of danger, unite their forces, and are unanimous in their operations.

The natives are active and well-proportioned; their eyes are black and full of fire; their complexion ſwarthy, and their features regular and engaging. They dreſs after the Arabian faſhion, and wear whiſkers: ſome few indeed let their hair grow.

They trade with the Perſians, Ruſſians, and Armenians, giving fire-arms and madder for cloathing and neceſſaries. But though they are fond of commerce, they can rob and plunder as well as any of the other Tartars; however, if they promiſe to protect or conduct any ſtranger they never break their words, or violate the laws of hoſpitality.

Their mode of worſhip is the ſame as that of the Turks, and they imitate the Perſians in their manners; but in one particular they outdo moſt of the oriental nations, for they can drink like Europeans, whether Britiſh or German.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ARABIA.

SECT. I.

Of the ſituation, extent, names, ſeas, rivers, mountains, air, winds, and ſeaſons, diviſion of the country, and towns.

ARABIA is ſituate between thirty-five and ſixty degrees of eaſt longitude, and between twelve and thirty degrees of north latitude, being one thouſand three hundred miles long, and one thouſand two hundred broad; and if we include the antient Chaldea or Eyraca Arabick, we may extend it two degrees further north. The boundaries of Arabia, are, Turky, on the north; the gulphs of Perſia or Boſſora and Ormus, on the eaſt; the Indian ocean, on the ſouth; and the Red ſea, and the Iſthmus of Suez, which divide it from Africa, on the weſt.

Arabia is the antient, as well as the modern name, though the people have been long called Saracens, or the inhabitants of the deſarts; Sarra in their language ſignifying a deſart. Some derive the name Arabia from Harabi, a thief or robber, as they have been generally eſteemed by their neighbours, ever ſince they were a nation, to the preſent time: others obſerve, that the word Arab in Hebrew ſignifies black; as the inhabitants of this country, it is ſaid, antiently were, and this country called Ethiopia, as well as Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, which is divided from it only by the Red ſea, and the narrow ſtreight of Babmandel.

The ſeas and promontories of Arabia are the Indian ocean, the gulphs of Boſſora and Ormus, the Red ſea, and the ſtreights of Babmandel, in which are the capes of Roſalgate, Muſsleden and Mocho.

The Red ſea, ſometimes called the Arabian gulph, divides Arabia from Egypt and Ethiopia; but if we take it in its largeſt extent, the name of the Red ſea was given antiently to all thoſe ſeas which border upon Arabia and Perſia from Africa to the Eaſt Indies. The reaſon of calling it the Red ſea, ſome imagine the red mountains near it occaſioned it to be called ſo; others, that the red ſand upon the ſhore gave it that name; and others are of opinion, that it had its name from king Erythrus, ſovereign of this country, which Erythrus is ſuppoſed to have been Eſau, whoſe poſterity planted part of Arabia. It is called in ſcripture Yam Souf, the ſea weeds or ruſhes, the banks being covered with them in ſome place; but from whenceſoever the name is derived, no ſea has been more celebrated than this upon various accounts; as, 1. The paſſage of the Iſraelites through it; and, 2. for being the uſual road through which the fine ſpices, and all the rich merchandize of the eaſt were conveyed to Africa and Europe, for three thouſand years and upwards.

No country is more deſtitute of rivers. Chat, Pran, and Nagiran, are the chief, neither of which is navigable; and ſome add the weſtern branch of the Euphrates, which runs near the eaſtern borders of this country.

The mountains are thoſe of Gebel-el-Ared, or the great mountains in the middle of the country, and thoſe of mount Sinai and Horeb in Arabia Petræa.

As to the air and winds, thoſe parts of it which lie within the tropic of cancer, or near it, are exceſſively hot, and have their monſoons and ſea breezes regularly, as in other countries, under the ſame parallels; the vernal monſoon, in the ocean on the ſouthern coaſt of Arabia, blows from the ſouth-weſt from April to September, and then ſhifts or turns about, and blows in the oppoſite direction, the other ſix months. The hot winds are intolerable in April and May; they have generally clear ſerene weather, ſeldom ſkreened from the ſcorching ſun by clouds, or refreſhed with ſhowers.

Arabia is uſually thrown into three grand diviſions, viz. Arabia Petræa, Arabia Deſerta, and Arabia Felix.

Arabia Petræa is the ſmalleſt of the three, and is ſituate in the north-weſt part of this country, between Egypt and Paleſtine, the chief town Suez lying at the bottom of the Arabian gulph or Red ſea, being the port where the Turkiſh gallies uſually lie. Tor, a port town on the Red ſea, ſouth-eaſt of Suez. The iſthmus, which divides the Mediterranean or Levant from the Red ſea, is about one hundred miles, over the moſt mountainous and rocky country of all the Arabia's, which it is impoſſible to cut through, nor has ever any prince attempted it, though it would have much ſhortened the voyage of the Europeans to the Eaſt Indies, if it had been practicable. In the plains of Arabia Petræa there are abundance of acacia trees, from which iſſues a valuable gum, that is gathered in autumn.

Arabia Deſerta is ſo called from the nature of the ſoil, which is generally a barren ſand; however, there are great flocks of ſheep and herds of cattle near the Euphrates, where the land is good. In the deſart, there are great numbers of oſtriches, and there is a fine breed of camels in ſeveral places.

Arabia Felix is ſo called on account of its fertility, with regard to the reſt. Some give it the name of Yemen, but improperly; for that is a kingdom on the ſouth coaſt, whoſe capital is Sanae.

We ſhall next proceed to the deſcription of ſome of the principal towns; and firſt, of Medina, where Mahomet's tomb is: this is called by the Arabians Medina Talmabi: the city of the prophet, being the place Mahomet fled to when he was driven from Mecca, and where he was firſt inveſted with regal power. It lies in the latitude of twenty-four degrees thirty minutes north, about eighty miles to the

the eaſtward of the Red ſea, and two hundred miles to the north of Mecca. It conſiſts of about a thouſand houſes built of brick and ſtone, but not very loſty, having but one floor; there are ſeveral noble moſques in the city, the principal whereof is called Mos a Kibu, or the moſt holy: it ſtands in the middle of the town, and is a ſquare building an hundred paces in length, and fourſcore in breadth, and ſupported by four hundred columns, on which there hang four thouſand lamps. Mahomet's tomb ſtands in a tower in this temple covered with a dome, and encompaſſed with iron rails: the tomb itſelf is ſurrounded by a ſilver grate, and the wall on the inſide is hung with rich ſilks, upon which are abundance of precious ſtones, the gifts of Mahometan princes. The pilgrims never ſee the tomb itſelf, only the tower which it is encloſed in; but when the pilgrims are returned home, and the crowd is leſs, they make no difficulty of ſhewing it to any Mahometan for a piece of money.

Mecca ſtands about two hundred miles ſouth of Medina, in the latitude of twenty-one degrees ſome odd minutes, and is a day's journey to the eaſtward of the Red ſea in a valley almoſt ſurrounded with mountains; it is twice as large as Medina, built of brick, with flat roofs, and balluſters on the top. In the middle of the town ſtands the kaaba or houſe of God, which, according to the Arabian tradition, was built by Abraham, and to which Mahomet obliged all his followers to go in pilgrimage once in their lives. This houſe is not above fifteen feet in length and twelve in breadth, and about five fathoms high; the door is in the corner, on the left hand, about a fathom and a half high and a fathom wide, made of beaten ſilver, and opens with two leaves; they go up to it by a ladder, it being raiſed ſix feet above the ground: the roof is flat, and ſupported by three pillars of aloes wood of an octagonal form; the ſides are hung with red and white ſtuff, with the following words ſeveral times wrought in them, viz. La Illa Illalla, Mahomet reſoul allah, i. e. God is a great God, and Mahomet his prophet.

Sibit is ſituate near the eaſtern ſhore of the Red ſea, in forty-five degrees of eaſtern longitude, and fifteen degrees of north latitude, being the greateſt mart for myrrh, frankincenſe, and other odoriferous gums and drugs in Aſia; but there are no ſpices either here or in any other part of Arabia, though the fine ſpices which are the growth of the Indian iſlands, are frequently called Arabian ſpices, becauſe they were firſt brought by the caravans to Egypt, and other countries on the Levant ſea through Arabia.

Mocho, or Moco, is ſituate on the eaſtern ſhore of the Red ſea, juſt within the ſtreights of Babel Mandel, about one hundred miles ſouth of Sibit, in forty-five degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirteen degrees of north latitude. It ſtands in a barren ſandy plain, and has the greateſt plantations of coffee in the world, in the adjacent country; and from hence coffee was firſt brought to Europe by the Turks, though there are ſeveral iſlands in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies at preſent, that produce coffee; however Moco has ſtill a great trade in that commodity. The town is large and populous, the houſes well built with brick and ſtone, the roofs flat and terraſſed, the ſhops furniſhed with all manner of eaſtern merchandize; and here the ſeveral Eaſt India companies of Europe barter the produce of India for their coffee, frankincenſe, &c. the produce of Arabia.

Aden is ſituate without the ſtreights of Babel-mandel, about one hundred and twenty miles eaſt of Moco, being a port town on the Indian or Arabian ocean, in forty-ſix degrees of eaſtern longitude, and twelve degrees of north latitude.

Muſcat is a port town, ſituate on the weſtern ſhore of the gulf of Ormus, about one hundred and fifty miles north-eaſt of cape Roſalgate, in fifty-eight degrees of eaſtern longitude, and twenty-three degrees of north latitude. It lies in a bottom, ſurrounded by three rocks, which ſecure the harbour, and render it of difficult acceſs to foreigners. It was once poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, but is now capital of a large territory, ſubject to an Arabian prince, called the king of Muſcat, or Oman, who is the only naval power on the coaſt of Arabia, except the Turks, who are maſters of the navigation of the Red ſea; of which we ſhall be more particular, when we come to treat of the forces of the Arabian princes.

Eleatif is the laſt town we ſhall mention: it is ſituated to the northward of Muſcat, higher up the Perſian gulf, in the latitude of twenty-ſeven degrees north. This was formerly a place of great trade, and much reſorted to when the pearl-fiſhery near it was in repute; but is at preſent on the decline, the king of Muſcat or Oman having brought all this coaſt under his ſubjection.

The Arabs who live in towns are a very inconſiderable number, compared with thoſe who live in tents, and are called Bedouins: theſe people have no fixed habitation, but being poſſeſſed of large flocks and herds of camels, ſheep, and goats, rove from one part of the country to another, where they can find paſture and water for their cattle; and when they have deſtroyed all the forage, they load their goods and baggage on their camels, with their wives and children, and march on in ſearch of freſh paſture. Their tents being made of black or dark-coloured goat's-hair, make a very indifferent appearance when they encamp.

SECT. II.

Treats of the perſons, habits, genius, food, ſalutations, roads, and way of travelling, &c. of the Arabians.

THE natives of Arabia are of low ſtature, ſlender bodies, and ſwarthy complexions: their voices are ſhrill and effeminate, their hair is of a dark brown, and their eyes are black and ſparkling; they wear long beards, as a mark of gravity and conſequence; being ſerious and reſerved, they ſpeak little, uſe no geſture, make no pauſes, and never interrupt each other.

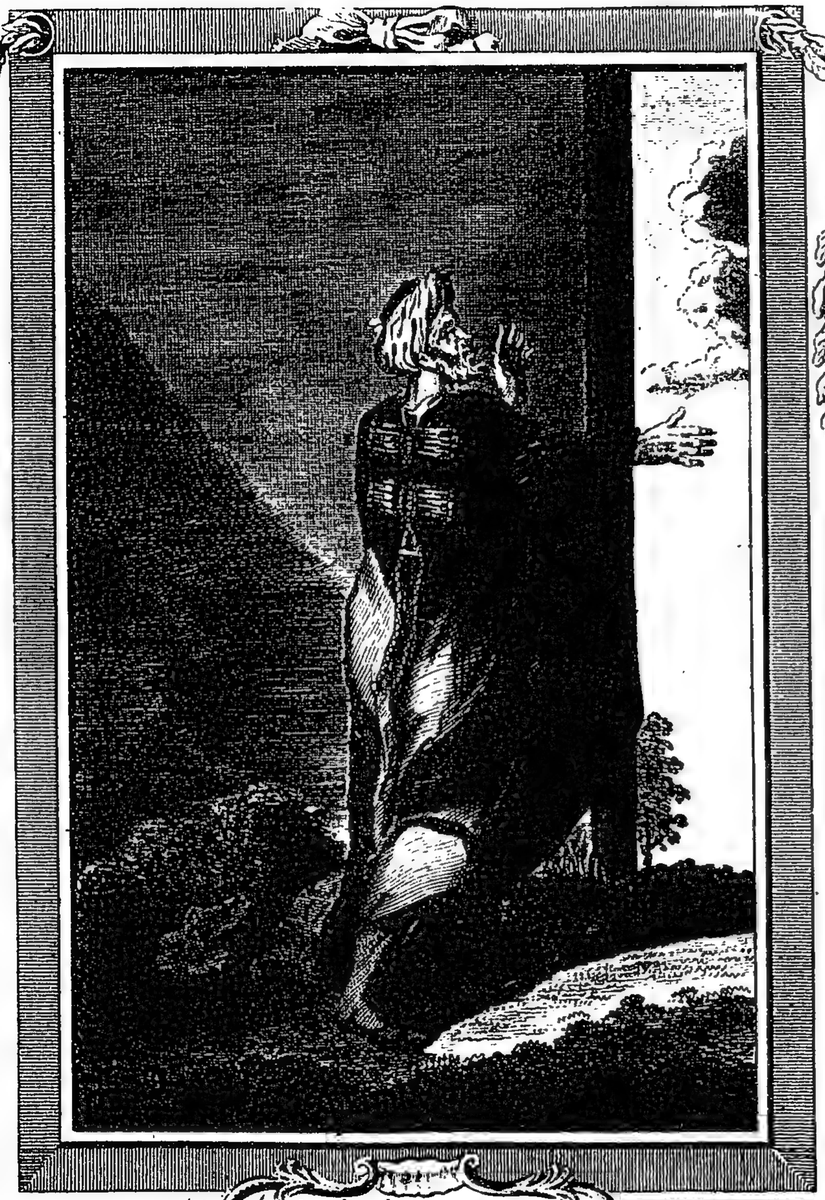
Their apparel is a looſe diſorderly kind of dreſs, five or ſix yards long, and not leſs broad: this they wrap round them, and are forced to gird it with a ſaſh; at night it ſerves them for a bed and coverlid. Their upper garment is generally wove in one piece; it has a cap for the head, is tight about the neck, and grows wide towards the bottom; this garment is only worn in cold and rainy weather; under this, and the garb that wraps intirely over the whole, ſome of them wear a long cloſe-bodied waiſtcoat without ſleeves; their ſaſh or girdle is of worſted, and in it they ſtick their poinards, their ink-horns, or badges of their calling. The women wear a kind of ſhort waiſtcoat and drawers; but ſometimes they have only a towel wrapped round their loins. When they go out, they are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be ſeen but their faces: for the male Arabs are extremely jealous. Some of the men go almoſt naked in hot weather; others wear drawers and ſlippers, but they have no ſtockings on their legs.

Though this people are not more taken notice of for rambling than they are for thieving both by ſea and land, and that not in ſmall parties only, but by public authority in a manner, with their princes at the head of them; there are notwithſtanding ſome modern travellers who cry up the Arabians for their juſtice, humanity, temperance, and other virtues at a very great rate; but this ſeems contrary to univerſal experience, or they muſt mean that juſtice which they exerciſe among themſelves, for certainly foreigners very often ſuffer by their rapine: we ſhall take the liberty of repeating, however, what Captain Say relates of the juſtice and other virtues of thoſe Arabians who inhabit near Muſcat: he ſays "they are very courteous in their behaviour, extremely civil to ſtrangers, and offer no violence or affront to any, and though they have the higheſt veneration for their religion, never endeavour to force it upon others; that a man may travel hundreds of miles in their country, and not ſo much as meet with abuſive language, and if the traveller has a charge of money, he needs no arms to defend it, he may ſleep with it ſafely in his hand by the highway ſide."

Their food is rice, beef, mutton, goat's fleſh, veniſon, and camel's fleſh, which they eſteem more than any other, but they eat no hog's fleſh; and they make thin cakes of flour and water inſtead of bread: but many of them chooſe dried dates before them; they eat alſo moſt ſorts of fiſh, except ſuch as have no ſcales: but whatſoever animals they eat, they are very careful to have all the blood well drained out. Thoſe about Muſcat do not only abſtain from wine, as other Mahometans do, but deny themſelves even tea and coffee, and other innocent liquors: nor do they indulge themſelves in ſmoaking tobacco: water is their ordinary drink, or a ſherbet made of oranges, water and ſugar. They dreſs their victuals by digging holes in the earth, and then making a fire with whatever they can get, or with the dried dung of their camels: they carry water with them, loading their camels with that neceſſary article.

People of the higheſt character among them think it no diſgrace to be employed in the moſt menial offices; nor is the greateſt prince or chief of theſe countries aſhamed to turn drover or butcher, by bringing a lamb from his herd, and killing it; while his lady or miſtreſs makes a fire, and puts on a kettle to dreſs it.

Upon



A Principal Person of Barbary

Morris sculp.



An ARAB of the DESERTS

Upon meeting one another, they ſtill uſe the primitive ſalutation of, "Peace be unto you." Before the Mahometan conqueſts, the expreſſion was, "God prolong your life." The inferiors, out of reſpect and deference, kiſs the feet, knees, or garments of their ſuperiors; whilſt children and other kindred pay the ſame reſpect to parents and relations. The poſture they obſerve in giving one another the ſalute, or aſſemah, is laying the right hand upon the breaſt; while others, who are perhaps more intimately acquainted, or of equal age and dignity, kiſs the hand, head, or ſhoulder of each other. At the feaſt of their byram, and other great ſolemnities, the wife compliments her huſband by kiſſing his hand.

There are no roads laid out in this country, but the caravans travel over ſandy deſarts, where there is no manner of track; guiding themſelves by a compaſs, as at ſea, or elſe by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night on account of the heats. People chooſe to travel with the caravans, in which are frequently two or three hundred men, attended by a great number of camels and dromedaries, for conveying their neceſſaries and proviſions. The camels will carry ſix or ſeven hundred weight; and the dromedaries, which are a ſpecies of camels, but leſs, about five hundred weight: both lie down to take up their burthens, and will travel through this parched country eight or nine days without water.

As there are no caravanſeras or houſes of entertainment for travellers to call at in the deſart part of the country, travellers provide themſelves with tents, which are ſet up in bad weather; but when the weather is fine, as it moſt commonly is, they lie down upon a carpet or matraſs in the open field; and as they are obliged alſo to carry their proviſion along with them, the ſlaves and ſervants who belong to the caravan get ready their maſters meat when it is thought convenient to halt. Their way of dreſſing meat, is to make a little hole in the ground, and ſet a pot over it, and if there be no brakes or fuel to be met with, they make a charcoal fire; and as they ſometimes meet with no water in ſeveral days journey, they carry water with them in ſkins, with which they load ſome of their camels. The Arabs obſerve, that wherever there are trees, there ſeldom fails to be water; and one would think the camels were ſenſible of this as well as their maſters, for when they come within ſight of ſuch places, they are not to be reſtrained from ſetting up their great trot to come at it, eſpecially when they have had none for ſome time: the natives imagine theſe creatures ſmell the water at a great diſtance.

The people of the caravan, before they begin their march, elect an officer, called the caravan baſha, who is in a manner their leader, and directs all their motions, and where they ſhall reſt, and to whom all differences which happen upon the road are referred; he compounds alſo for the ſeveral duties demanded of the caravan, by the governors of the countries through which they paſs.

The merchants who travel with the caravan, ride upon horſes or mules, and ſometimes upon aſſes, which travel faſt enough for the loaded camels, who ſeldom go above a foot-pace; and the Chriſtians or Franks, as they are called, are obliged to provide themſelves with mules or pack-horſes to carry their wine; for the camel-drivers being diſciples of Mahomet, will not ſuffer that animal to be loaded with ſtrong liquor, the camel being conſecrated to Mahomet, who ſtrictly forbad the uſe of wine, and all intoxicating liquors: the wine as well as water is put into goat-ſkins with the hair inwards, for they ſoon prove leaky if the hair is off.

Every merchant and his ſervants ride near the camels, which carry their goods, to preſerve them from thieves; for as they frequently travel early in the morning, and late in the evening, theſe pilferers, ſometimes, cut the ſtrings by which the camels are tied together, and lead off ſome of them without being perceived.

There are ſome poor people who conſtantly attend the caravan, who ſerve as watchmen when they are encamped. They walk about, continually crying, "God is one, God is merciful," adding frequently, "Have a care of yourſelves." They give notice alſo to the caravan baſha when it is time to riſe, who orders the watchmen to cry, "Saddle your horſes," and a little after, "Load your goods:" whereupon they all appear ready for the march in an inſtant. When the march happens to be long, the merchants will halt by themſelves, and while the caravan marches on, open their wallets, which every man carries upon his horſe, and dine upon a carpet.

Travellers are adviſed to dreſs themſelves in an Arabian veſt and cap, or they will be liable to inſults from the zealous Arabs, and perhaps ſtopped at ſome of the towns they paſs through. Boots made of a kind of glove-leather, which are no hindrance to walking, muſt be had alſo; but they never wear ſpurs, the ſtirrup having a ſharp ſpike fixed to it, with which they prick their horſes.

There being but very few rivers, the water they meet with, is uſually found in wells or ciſterns, where no more than two or three people can draw water at a time, ſo that a traveller muſt wait ſeveral hours ſometimes, before he can get a draught of water; the camel-drivers will have their cattle firſt ſerved. They are a bruiſh ſort of people, and ſo numerous, that there is no contending with them.

SECT. III.

Of the nature of the ſoil, huſbandry, gardening, plants, animals, &c. of Arabia.

THIS country, even that part of it which goes under the name of Hyaman, or the Happy, conſiſts for the moſt part in ſandy deſarts, or dry barren mountains; but there being ſome parts of ſouth Arabia tolerably fruitful, and abounding in corn and herbage, as well as aromatic gums, it is, compared with the other parts of Arabia, a happy country.

They never endeavour to cultivate their hills, being for the moſt part a rocky ſoil, and ſcarce capable of improvement: their vallies ſeem equally barren when water is wanting, and bear ſcarce any herbage; but where they can bring water into them, they produce corn, herbs, flowers, and all manner of garden ſtuff; and no country in the world affords a more agreeable proſpect. They draw water in large ſkins out of their wells morning and evening with oxen, conveying the water along little canals, by the ſides of which their trees and plants are ſet: they cut alſo little channels through their corn fields, by which they let the water into them as there is occaſion, for rain they have very ſeldom any.

There is a great variety of excellent fruits in Arabia, ſuch as oranges, lemons, grapes, peaches and apricots; but what this country is moſt famous for, is their dates and their coffee, with which abundance of ſhips for Europe and India are loaden every year, beſides vaſt quantities that are ſent to Turky. Dates are ſcarcely found any where elſe but in this country and Perſia.

The coffee ſhrub grows eight or ten feet high, and has a gray ſmooth bark, the wood is white, and has not much pith; the twigs riſe by pairs oppoſite to each other, and the leaves on the twigs in the ſame manner, one pair about two inches diſtance from another. The leaves have foot ſtalks a quarter of an inch in length, and are about four inches long, and two broad in the middle, from whence they decreaſe to both extremities, ending in a point. They are ſmooth, whole and without any inciſures on the edges, and near the form of a bay leaf; the fruit comes ex alis foliorum hanging to the twig by a foot ſtalk, ſometimes one, two or more in the ſame place. Theſe ſhrubs are planted in a rich ground, and watered by artificial channels, as their other vegetables are, and after three or four years bearing, the natives plant new ſhrubs, becauſe then the old ones begin to decline. They dry the berries in the ſun, and afterwards take off the outward huſk with hand-mills; and the Arabians in the hotteſt ſeaſon makes uſe of the huſks roaſted in the room of coffee berries, eſteeming the liquor made of them more cooling.

Coffee has been in uſe about two hundred years in Aſia. In the year 1652, Mr. Edwards, a Turky merchant, brought a Greek ſervant into England to make coffee, and this ſervant of his, named Paſqua, was the firſt, it is ſaid, who kept a coffee-houſe here.

The beſt coffee berry is large and plump, with a greeniſh caſt, and has a tranſparency on the thineſt parts: the other has a yellowiſh caſt and is more opaque; but when they are roaſted, it is difficult to diſtinguiſh them. The beſt way of keeping the berries when they are roaſted is, in ſome warm place, where they may not imbibe any moiſture, for this palls it, and takes off the briſkneſs of the taſte; and it is beſt to grind it as it is uſed. It is obſerved that coffee diſtilled yields double as much oil as beans, and almoſt treble as much as wheat.

Arabia alſo abounds in myrrh, manna, caſſia, incenſe, aloes, olibanum, balm and frankincenſe, beſides ſome other valuable drugs: among their plants, nothing is more wanted than timber trees, and indeed they have very little wood of any kind in the country.

Of their animals, thoſe that are moſt uſeful and excellent in their kind are camels and horſes: their camels are

extremely proper for this ſandy country, and the largeſt of them will carry a vaſt burthen; ſome ſay, near eight hundred weight, and with this burthen will travel at the rate of about two miles and an half in an hour; having for many days together only a few dates, ſome balls of bean or barley-meal, or perhaps only the miſerable thorns found in the ſandy deſart. It has four ſtomachs, like other animals that chew the cud; and a fifth, as a reſervoir to hold more water than it has occaſion for, where it remains without corrupting or adulterating. It throws up a quantity of this water, by a contraction of the muſcles, into the other ſtomachs, to macerate the food.

The Arab trains his faithful camel, from its tender ſtage, to all the hardſhips it is to undergo through the whole courſe of its life; he accuſtoms it to travel far and eat little, to paſs its days without drinking, and its nights without ſleep; to kneel down to be loaded, and to riſe the moment it finds the burden equal to its ſtrength, beyond which it will not ſuffer an ounce to be laid on its back. Its feet are adapted to the ſands it is to paſs over, their toughneſs and ſpongy ſoftneſs preventing them from cracking. The Arabian free-booter qualifies his camel for expedition, by matches, in which the horſe runs againſt him. The camel, though leſs active and nimble, tires out his rival in a long courſe. With theſe animals the Arabian robber forms a ſociety, for the purpoſe of carrying on his trade of plunder, in which the man is to have all the profit, while the camel, who carries off the booty, is to have all the fatigue.

Their breed of horſes are only fit for the ſaddle, and are never uſed either for draught or burthen: the fineſt horſes we ſee in the Perſian court are brought from hence, and are admired for their make as well as for their high mettle and ſwiftneſs. The common food both of camels and horſes is barley or barley meal made into dough; but in ſome parts of Arabia, they feed them with camel's milk, butter and wheat; and ſometimes with camel's fleſh dried in the ſun. And a more modern author tells us, they feed their cattle at Muſcat with fiſh, not when they are freſh taken, but they dig a little pit, and having thrown a large quantity of fiſh in it, they let them lie till they are rotten and turned to a kind of earth, after which it is taken up and boiled in water, which they let ſtand till it is cool, and then give it to the cattle; this makes them very fat, nor does their fleſh taſte amiſs by living on this kind of diet. They have oxen, buffaloes, goats and veniſon here, but their beef and buffaloes fleſh is very coarſe. As to hogs they never breed any, being all Mahometans who abhor the ſight of this animal. Fiſh and fowl they have in great plenty on their coaſts; but the inland parts are indifferently ſtocked with either, there being neither wood nor water to be found in ſeveral days journey. Lions, bears, tygers, wolves, jackals and other wild beaſts alſo are found in ſome parts of Arabia, but not in ſuch great numbers as elſewhere, there being but little cover for them.

An Arabian has no reliſh for domeſtic pleaſure, and ſeldom converſes with his wife or children; he values nothing ſo much as his horſe, being ſeldom ſo well pleaſed as when he is hunting, at which diverſion they are very expert; for moſt of them will hunt down a wild boar with aſtoniſhing expedition. After they have rouſed the boar from its place of retirement, into ſome neighbouring plain, they endeavour there by frequent overtaking and turning to tire and perplex it; then watching a proper opportunity either to tranſfix it with their lances from ſome diſtance, or elſe, coming cloſe by its ſide, fix their ſpears in its body.

When the Arabians hunt the lion, great numbers of people aſſemble for that purpoſe, who forming themſelves into a circle, incloſe a large piece of ground, of three, four or five miles compaſs; then the people on foot, advancing firſt, ruſh into the thickets with their dogs and ſpears, to rouſe the game, whilſt the horſemen, keeping a little behind, are always ready to charge upon the firſt ſally of the beaſt; in this manner they proceed, ſtill contracting the circle, till they at laſt either cloſe together, or meet with game to divert them. Sometimes the ſeveral ſorts of animals, ſuch as hyænas, hares, jackals, &c. that happen to lie within the circle, being driven together afford excellent diverſion. The firſt perſon againſt whom the lion flies receives him on his ſpear, which furniſhes the others with an opportunity of attacking him behind; and the lion finding himſelf wounded in the rear, turns that way, which gives the firſt man time to recover. Thus being attacked on all ſides, they diſable and diſpatch him.

A favourite diverſion among the Arabs, is fowling: they do not ſpring the game with dogs, but ſhade themſelves and with a piece of painted cloth, ſtretched upon two reds, walk thus covered through the ſeveral brakes and avenues where they expect to find game. In this painted cloth are ſeveral holes for the fowler to look through, in order to obſerve what paſſes before him. The ſportſman, on ſight of the game, reſts his ſhade upon the ground, and, directing the muzzle of his gun through one of the holes, thus diſcharges it.

We do not find that there are any mines of gold or other metal open at preſent in this country. The King of Muſcat is ſaid to have the command of the pearl fiſhery in the gulf of Perſia; but though they are very good, no great advantage accrues from it, pearls being as dear here as in other parts of Aſia.

SECT. IV.

Contains an account of the trade, weights, meaſures, coin, government, forces, and ſhipping of the Arabs.

WE do not find that the Arabians carry on any conſiderable manufacture at preſent; but they trade with all Mahometan countries, to which they do not only ſend the produce of their own country, and receive the product of others in return; but lying between Perſia and India on the eaſt, and Europe and Africa on the weſt, there are caravans of merchants perpetually going and returning through their country, either belonging to the natives or ſtrangers; and they profit conſiderably by the toll they take of foreigners, as well as by the proviſions they ſell to the caravans. It was by the caravans of Arabia, that Europe, and the weſtern part of our continent, were firſt ſupplied with ſpices and other produce of India, ſo long ſince as Joſeph was ſold to the Iſhmaelites, or Arabian merchants, who were then going down to Egypt with them; and how long before they were engaged in this traffic, (which continues to this day) is uncertain. In proceſs of time, they began to traffic by ſea with India, and brought the fine ſpices up the gulf of Perſia and the Red ſea; and thoſe that came up the Perſian gulf being landed at Boſſora in Chaldea, or Eyraca Arabick, were loaded on the backs of camels, and brought through Arabia to Egypt, and the ſhores of the Levant, and from thence diſperſed by the Phœnicians all over Europe; and the Phœnicians, Egyptians, Ethiopians, and Jews afterwards ſent their fleets to India, whither they carried the produce of the weſt, and brought back the ſpices, and other merchandize of the eaſt in return. The Venetians, Genoeſe, and other ſtates, ſituate in the Mediterranean, afterwards grew vaſtly rich and powerful, by bartering the produce of Europe for the merchandize of India, which they received from Alexandria and the ports of the Levant, and diſperſed all over Europe: but this trade ceaſed when the Portugueſe found the way to India round the Cape of Good Hope, and brought home the ſame merchandize all the way by water-carriage.

But there is ſtill another branch of traffic that remains to be conſidered, and that is, the trade the Mahometan pilgrims carry on when they reſort to Mecca; for theſe expeditions are performed as well on the account of trade as religion. The pilgrims who come from Morocco and the coaſt of Barbary, the whole length of Africa, carry the produce of the weſt with them, which they barter at Mecca for the produce of Perſia and India. The pilgrims of Turky, who meet the Africans in Egypt, from whence they are both convoyed by the Grand Seignior's forces to Mecca, do the ſame. The pilgrims of India moſt commonly go by ſea, as the Perſians do ſometimes, when the Arabs are troubleſome; and all theſe are trading voyages; intereſt, as well as devotion, carries them to Mecca. Mocho is the principal port reſorted to by the Turkiſh gallies, which bring the coffee, and other produce of Arabia, to Suez, at the bottom of the Red Sea, and from thence it is carried to Egypt, and the ports of the Levant, where the Engliſh and other Europeans meet with it: the Engliſh, Dutch, and other Eaſt-India ſhips alſo reſort to Mocho, directly, for coffee and other goods, which they bring to Europe round the Cape of Good Hope.

Their weights at Mocho are, the bahar, which is four hundred and twenty pounds Engliſh: the fraſſel, or twenty-eight pounds, whereof fifteen go to a bahar: the maun, of which ten go to a fraſſel: the ſakea, of which forty go to a maun; and the coffila, of which ten go to a ſakea.

Their dry meaſures are the medeeda, which is three pints Engliſh; and they meaſure cloth and ſilk by the cubit, which is twenty-four inches.

The coins which are current at Mocho, the principal port in the Red ſea, are dollars of all kinds, but they

abate five per cent. on the pillar dollars, becauſe they are reckoned not to be the pureſt ſilver, and the dollar weight with them is ſeventeen drams, fourteen grains. All their coins are taken by weight, and valued according to their fineneſs. The gold coins current here, are ducats of Venice, Germany, Turky, Egypt, &c. The comaſſees are a ſmall coin, which are taken at ſuch a price as the government ſets upon them, and they keep their accounts in an imaginary coin of cabees, of which eighty go to a dollar.

The Arabian kingdoms which lie upon the coaſt, (the boundaries whereof are already deſcribed) appeared ſome of them to be of a very great extent, and their monarchs are frequently ſtiled Xerifs, as the Xerif of Mecca, and others we find called imans; but both one and the other we perceive, ſignify the office of prieſt as well as king, as the califs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet were, till conquered by the Turks, whoſe emperors do not indeed pretend to the prieſthood, but govern and controul the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction however, as they pleaſe, and give laws to the mufti or high prieſt, as will appear when we come to treat of Turky. As to the form of the Arabian government and laws, what we can learn of them is, that their monarchs are abſolute both in ſpirituals and temporals, and the ſucceſſion hereditary; that they have no other laws than what are to be found in the alcoran and the comments upon it, which we ſhall enquire into when we come to the head of religion.

We do not find that they have any ſtanding regular militia by land, but their kings command both the purſes and perſons of their ſubjects whenever they ſee fit: the moſt potent monarch by ſea, is the King of Oman or Muſcat, who is indeed become very formidable, not only to the Aſiaticks, but to the Europeans themſelves: they are always at war with the Portugueſe and Danes, and if an Engliſh veſſel come in their way, if ſhe be not a ſhip of force, they will not ſcruple making a prize of her. Mr. Lockhart who travelled to theſe parts, informs us, there were no leſs than fourteen ſail of men of war in the mole at Muſcat when he was there, beſides twenty merchant men. That one of their men of war carried ſeventy guns, and none of them leſs than twenty, but the biggeſt of them would not have made an Engliſh fourth rate, their ports being as cloſe as they can well ſet their guns by one another. There were at the ſame time fifteen or ſixteen ſail of their men of war cruiſing abroad, which were expected home in the ſouth weſt monſoon, when it uſually blows hard; for though they are always full of men they cannot endure bad weather. Their colours are red, which they diſplay in ſtreamers and pendants at every yard-arm, and maſt-head, and other remarkable parts of the ſhip, which make their fleets look exceeding fine.

SECT. V.

Treats of the preſent ſtate of the ſciences, learning, languages and religion in Arabia; alſo an account of the temple at Mecca, and the Mahometan pilgrimage thither.

AN able writer, (ſpeaking of the time when the Arabians threw off the yoke of the califs) ſays, "With regard to the ſciences, it muſt be confeſſed that the Arabians made a moſt amazing progreſs therein: it was however late ere they began to cultivate them, though the fire and vivacity of their genius rendered them very apt for the purpoſe. The truth is, the firſt califs were utterly ignorant of every thing except the koran and the art of war; but under the government of the deſcendants of Abbas, a taſte for the ſciences prevailed throughout the whole nation, and men of learning appeared on every ſide, who, being favoured and protected by the princes, were improving arts and ſciences, and compoſing works in different kinds of literature." But, whatever progreſs they may have formerly made in the ſciences, they are at preſent in Arabia at a very low ebb; the Arabs affording no monument of genius, no productions of induſtry, that intitle them to any rank in the hiſtory of the human mind. Phyſic, philoſophy, aſtronomy, and the mathematics, for which they were once famous, are ſo loſt among them, that ſcarcely the traces of them are remaining: we muſt ſay, however, that the preſent Arabs have ſtrong intellects, and that nature has in general given them a genius: but application and inclination are both wanting to improve it.

They frequently uſe charms and incantations to remove a diſorder, or leave it to contend with nature. They pour hot freſh butter into ſimple and gun-ſhot wounds, and this remedy ſometimes ſucceeds: an application of the prickly pear, roaſted in aſhes, is ſucceſsfully made in ſuppurations.

In theſe countries time is meaſured by hour glaſſes, and in ſome parts of Arabia Petræa, they have calendars that were left them by their anceſtors, which are rather curious, and, in which the ſun's place, the ſemidiurnal and nocturnal arch, the length of the twilight, and the hours of prayer, are inſerted in their proper columns, and calculated to a moment.

Algebra, or numerical arithmetic, they are intirely ignorant of, though their anceſtors furniſhed us with the characters of the one, and with the name at leaſt of the other; yet they have a way of reckoning, by putting their hands into each others ſleeves, and touching one another with a centum joint or finger ſo expreſſively, that without ever moving their lips they can conclude bargains or contracts. But it is ſaid there are ſome wiſe men among them, who, if you believe them, are ſo ſkilled in figures, as to be able by a certain combination of numbers, to form even the moſt wonderful calculations.

It is a diſpute among learned men, which is the moſt antient language, the Hebrew or the Arabic, but they are ſuppoſed by ſome to have been originally the ſame: they are, however, both of them dead languages at this day, neither of them being ſpoken in any country in their original purity. The Arabeſk, a very corrupt Arabic, is at preſent the language of theſe people. The pure Arabic is only underſtood by ſome of the ſettled natives on the ſea-coaſts, and is taught in the ſchools, as well as read in places of worſhip.

The antient religion of the Arabs was Sabeiſm, even previous to their acquaintance with the people of Upper Aſia: they had at an early period conceived ſome very elevated notions of God; they paid adoration to the ſtars, or luminaries enlivened and beautified by heavenly ſpirits; but there was alſo a religion in Arabia Deſerta, not quite ſo rational, part of which conſiſted in offering up human ſacrifices to the ſun.

It has been obſerved by a writer of credit, that "Chriſtianity was planted in Arabia by St. Paul and his diſciples, ſo that it received the light of the goſpel very early; but, in many parts of it, that religion was much clouded, if not totally eclipſed, long before the grand impoſtor Mahomet their countryman made his appearance; and, upon their being ſubdued by the Turks, they embraced his religion.

So addicted are many of the modern Arabs to ſuperſtition, that they carry about with them a paragraph of the Koran, which they place upon their breaſts, or ſow under their caps, to prevent faſcination. They have a great veneration for the Marabbats, who are deemed ſaints, and are perſons of a rigid and auſtere life, continually employing themſelves in counting over their beads, or elſe in prayer and meditation. The above ſainthip goes by ſucceſſion, and the ſon is intitled to the ſame reverence as the father, provided he can keep up an equal gravity and decorum. Some of them have the reputation of being bleſſed with heavenly viſions, and converſing with the godhead; while others, who are ſuppoſed to work miracles, pretend they are endowed with gifts which Mahomet durſt not pretend to.

There are four fundamental points of religious practice required by the koran; namely, prayer, giving of alms, faſting, and the making a pilgrimage to Mecca. Under prayer are comprehended thoſe legal waſhings and purifications which are preparatory thereto; of which there are two degrees, the one called Ghoſt, being a total immerſion in the water; and the other Wodu, which is the waſhing of their faces, hands, and feet. The firſt is required in ſome extraordinary caſes only; the other is the ordinary ablution in common caſes, and before prayer, and muſt neceſſarily be uſed by every perſon before he can enter upon that duty. Some of the Muſſulmen pretend that theſe purifications were obſerved in the days of Abraham, who, they add, was enjoined by God to practiſe them, and was ſhewed the manner of making the ablution by the angel Gabriel, in the form of a beautiful youth. Others carry the cuſtom ſtill higher, and ſay theſe religious ceremonies were taught our firſt parents by the angels.

In the fifth chapter of the koran, there is another purification enjoined, which is performed by defrication. It is called al taya mon, denoting properly the action of taking any thing from the ſurface, as fine ſand from the earth's ſurface; where the parts of the body are ſometimes rubbed with fine ſand, inſtead of being waſhed with water. The words of the koran are, "If ye be ſick, or on a journey;

or

or if ye have touched women, and ye find no water, take fine clean ſand and rub yourſelves therewith."

There is alſo, beſides theſe purifying ceremonies, the ceremony of circumciſion; which, though not directly required in the koran, is yet held by the Mahometans to have been originally of divine inſtitution, and is exerciſed on children as ſoon as they are able to pronounce the profeſſion of their faith. Combing the hair, paring the nails, and plucking out the hair of the arm-pits, being all points of cleanlineſs, are eſſentially neceſſary to internal purification; and therefore are looked upon as indiſpenſable duties by the Muſſulmen.

In conſequence of the divine command pretended to have been given to Mahomet for that purpoſe, every ſtrict and conſcious Muſſulman performs public prayers five times a day: this he does either in a moſque, or in ſome other place that is clean, after a preſcribed form, and with a certain number of praiſes or ejaculations; and whenever they pray, they muſt turn their faces towards the temple of Mecca. They do not attend the public worſhip in elegant apparel, but dreſs themſelves only in a becoming and decent garb.

The women are not ſuffered by ſome of the Mahometans to attend the moſque; and the illiterate think that the female ſex have no claim to the joys of heaven, as having no ſouls to be ſaved; but the more enlightened, generous, and candid, allow that women are as well intitled to heaven as the men; and many Mahometans think that there is a manſion in heaven ſet apart intirely for the ſouls of good women.

Thoſe who profeſs the Mahometan religion are for the moſt part predeſtinarians: for one article of faith in the koran is, God's abſolute decree and predeſtination of both good and evil; that whatever hath or ſhall come to paſs, whether good or bad, proceeded, and will proceed from the divine will alone; though the ſect called the Motazalites contradict this doctrine, as tending to make God the author of ſin, and deſtroy man's free agency.

We ſhall now give an account of the annual, moſt numerous and ſolemn pilgrimage of the Mahometans to the Masjad Al Haran, or ſacred temple of Mecca, which pilgrimage was inſtituted by Mahomet. A prodigious concourſe of people reſort to this holy temple, in the antient city of Mecca. The temple ſtands in the centre of the town, and hath a famous caaba, or ſquare ſtructure, peculiarly hallowed and ſet apart for worſhip: its door is of ſilver, and a golden ſpout carries off the water from the roof. This caaba, from north to ſouth, is twenty-four cubits long; twenty-three broad from eaſt to weſt, and its height is twenty-ſeven cubits. The ſilver door, which is on the eaſt ſide, ſtands about four cubits from the ground, and is aſcended to by a flight of ſteps. In the corner next to this door is a famous black ſtone, ſaid to have been brought down from heaven by Gabriel, at the creation of the world, and which was originally white, but contracted the blackneſs that now appears on it from the ſins of mankind. On the north ſide of the caaba, within a ſemicircular incloſure fifty cubits in length, ſtands a celebrated white ſtone, ſaid to be the ſepulchre of Iſhmael, which reſerves the water that falls from the golden ſpout. The caaba has a double roof, ſupported within by octangular pillars of aloes wood: between which, on iron bars, hang ſilver lamps: the outſide is covered with rich black damaſk, adorned with an embroidered band of gold, which is changed every year, being provided by the Grand Seignior. At a ſmall diſtance from the caaba, on the eaſt ſide, is the ſtation or place of Abraham, where is another ſtone which is in high eſteem with the Mahometans, and on which they pretend to ſhew his footſteps, aſſerting, that he ſtood on this ſtone when he built the caaba. Not far from hence the caaba is neatly ſurrounded by pillars, joined towards the bottom by a low baluſtrade, and towards the top by ſilver bars. Juſt without this incloſure, on the ſouth, north, and weſt ſide of the caaba, are three buildings, in which three particular ſects aſſemble to perform their devotion. Towards the ſouth-eaſt is an edifice covering the famous well zemzem; alſo the treaſury, and the cupola of Al-Abbas. We muſt not omit to obſerve here, that this celebrated well is ſaid to have been the ſame that Hagar ſat near to when comforted by the angel; the pilgrims drink of its water, and attribute many virtues to it. The whole of theſe buildings are ſurrounded by a grand piazza, which ſome writers make to conſiſt of upwards of four hundred and forty pillars, and there are thirty-eight gates to the buildings, which are covered with ſmall domes or cupolas, from the four corners of which riſe four gilded ſteeples.

The caaba made no very ſplendid appearance in the days of Mahomet, nor even in the reigns of his two immediate ſucceſſors Abubeker and Omar; but the ſtructure has been raiſed, by the munificence of ſucceeding princes and great men, to its preſent magnificent ſtate; though its primitive or original form has not undergone any material change ſince the year of the Hegira 74. The Mahometans pretend that this caaba is nearly coeval with the creation; and aſſert, that Adam, after his expulſion from paradiſe, obtained permiſſion of the Almighty to erect it; that however it was deſtroyed by the deluge, and that Abraham rebuilt it on the ſame ſpot and after the ſame model.

The pilgrims reſort annually in prodigious numbers to the above antique and celebrated edifice, when there is a fair held for all ſort of merchandize, &c. people in crouds, from different nations, aſſembling, to the amount generally of two hundred thouſand, at which time even the very vaults of moſques, and the caves of neighbouring mountains, are ſtored with rich commodities. The holy temple is opened four times in the year, but the greateſt multitudes aſſemble at the ſolemn feaſt of the bayram or eaſter, when they purchaſe relics of the old black damaſk covering, previous to its being ſucceeded by a new one from the Grand Seignior.

Many abſurd religious ceremonies are performed by the pilgrims. At a place called Labbock, they ſtrip themſelves almoſt naked, having only a napkin round their middle, and another round their neck: in this condition they enter Mecca, but neither buy nor ſell any thing for eight days. The pilgrims generally wear a ſort of black cloak, with a caul; the people of Barbary wear them white; it is faſtened about the neck with a long loop, and hangs looſe behind. The camels are ornamented, eſpecially the leading one of every company, which hath on its head a plume of feathers.

Many Turks go this journey often; but it is obſerved that they are rather worſe after it than before, and it is a common ſaying among the Chriſtians and Jews, "If a man has been once at Mecca, take care of him; if he has been twice there, have nothing to do with him; but if he has been three times at Mecca, remove from his neighbourhood;" and one who went to Mecca on pilgrimage, affirms, that there is as much debauchery practiſed at that place as in almoſt any part of the univerſe.

Having entered the city, the pilgrims moved to the holy temple, and walk round it ſeven times, the three firſt times with a very quick pace, to manifeſt their readineſs to fight for (what they deem) the true worſhip of God. They accompany their prayers with many ſtrange geſtures of the body, imitating the hamirag, or high-prieſt; and, after having made a ſacrifice of ſheep, repair to the vale of Mirſa, and throw ſtones at the devil's head, who they ſay tempted Abraham in this vale, when he was about to ſacrifice his ſon Iſhmael, not Iſaac; for the intended victim, they ſay, was Iſhmael. They pretend, that on the mountain of Mirſa, which conſtitutes the vale, Adam and Eve wandered upwards of two hundred years without ſeeing each other, after their expulſion from Paradiſe, till they happened by meer chance to meet together at the top of this mountain, when Eve threw ſtones at the devil's head, for his having held up to her a glaſs, and telling her, that the image ſhe then ſaw was another woman with whom Adam was enamoured. From this mountain the prieſts deliver their pious harangues, and afterwards in the vale make freſh ſacrifices of ſheep, the fleſh of which is given to the poor.

An eminent writer aſſerts, that when he was in this part of the globe, upwards of ſix thouſand perſons belonging to one of the caravans died in the road between Cairo and Mecca; and that the effects of ſuch as die devolve to the prieſts. The northern Arabs, who are ſubject to the Turks, receive conſiderable gratuities from the Grand Seignior for preventing the pilgrims from the robberies of their countrymen.

SECT. VI.

The hiſtory of Mahomet, founder of the Mahometan ſuperſtition, and his ſucceſſors.

MAHOMET, or Mohammed, as ſtiled by the Arabians, was of the tribe of Koreis, one of the moſt honourable in Arabia: he was born at Mecca, A. D. 571, in the reign of Juſtinian II. emperor of Conſtantinople; and, though illiterate and of a mean birth, poſſeſſed a moſt ſhrewd underſtanding. His father dying when he was two years old, and leaving him little or nothing to ſubſiſt on, his

his grandfather Abdole Matallah took him into his family, and, dying the year following, recommended him to his uncle Abutaleb, a great merchant, who having inſtructed him in his buſineſs when he grew up, ſent him as his factor, with a caravan, into Syria and Paleſtine, where he became acquainted both with Chriſtians and Jews. He continued in his uncle's ſervice till he was twenty-five years of age, and then left him, and became factor to a rich widow named Cadigha, whoſe affairs he managed, trading to Damaſcus, Egypt, and other places, about three years, when Mahomet and the widow entered into the ſtate of matrimony, ſhe being then about forty years of age; but what ſhe wanted in youth, ſhe made up in fortune. Mahomet was now eſteemed one of the richeſt men in Mecca, and from this time, it is ſaid, he began to form ſchemes to obtain ſovereign power. His anceſtors, he was informed, had been chiefs of their tribe for ſeveral generations; and he was deſcended from the eldeſt branch, and conſequently ought to have ſucceeded to the power which others had uſurped; and the readieſt way to recover this, he imagined, was to turn reformer, and become the head of a new religion: As he well knew the genius of his countrymen, he entertained the moſt ſanguine hopes of ſucceſs: he was aware that the Arabians were fond of novelty, and that they were addicted to illuſions and enthuſiaſm. The times alſo proved to be very favourable for him, as the Chriſtians of the eaſt were quarrelling with one another, and appeared to be very looſe and diſſolute in their morals. He pretended, therefore, to revive the primitive way of worſhip and purity of the antient patriarchs, and that he might ſucceed the better, he did not profeſs himſelf an enemy to any religion then in being, but propoſed to unite Chriſtians, Jews, and Pagans in one profeſſion, that he might meet with the leſs oppoſition; but having been hitherto been an idolater, and remarkably vicious, he thought it would appear very odd to ſee him on a ſudden take upon himſelf the character of a prophet and preacher of righteouſneſs. It ſeemed neceſſary therefore, if he expected to meet with ſucceſs, to reform himſelf firſt. He went every morning therefore to the cave of Hira, near Mecca, where he gave out he ſpent his time in prayers, faſting, and divine meditations; and here it is ſuppoſed he met with ſome Jews and Chriſtians that aſſiſted him in compoſing his koran; he had a monk alſo that reſided conſtantly in his houſe, who had a great ſhare in the framing of it, as is ſuppoſed. When Mahomet returned to Mecca every evening, he uſed to entertain his family with a relation of the viſions he had ſeen, and particularly his intimate converſation with the angel Gabriel, which when his wife ſeemed to doubt of, the monk aſſured her ſhe might give entire credit to it: it was all true that Mahomet had related, and ſhe thereupon became his firſt convert.

Mahomet having acted the part of a hermit for ſome years, and acquired ſome reputation for his piety and virtue, he declared himſelf a prophet ſent from God among his friends, being then about forty years of age: three or four years after he avowed his miſſion publicly. One of his firſt converts was his couſin Haly, who uſed to ſtile himſelf, "The firſt of believers;" his ſlave Zaid became another of his diſciples; whereupon he gave him his liberty, and made a law, that every ſlave that profeſſed himſelf a Mahometan ſhould have his liberty, which is obſerved to this day by the Turks. His fourth diſciple was Abubeker, a man in great reputation for his wiſdom, as well as wealth. After which Oſman, and ſeveral others, men of figure in Mecca, who were afterwards generals in his army, profeſſed themſelves believers. Being thus ſupported, he proceeded to publiſh his new doctrines to the people, and declare he was ſent from God to reclaim the Arabians from their idolatry. He taught them that there is but one God; that thoſe who teach that God has ſons, or daughters, or companions, ought to be abhorred, condemning the doctrines of the trinity and incarnation; he forbid alſo the worſhip of images, and of ſeveral female deities, which the Arabians adored as the daughters of God.

Mahomet affirmed, that this was the religion which God gave to Adam, and reſtored or revealed to Abram, who taught it Iſhmael, the great anceſtor of the Arabians, which being corrupted, he now came to reſtore. He did not deny the miſſion of Moſes or of Jeſus Chriſt, or the authority of the ſcriptures, but accuſed both Jews and Chriſtians with corrupting them. The angel Gabriel, he affirmed, was ſent from God to communicate his will to him; he fell into a trance, he pretended, when the angel delivered the divine meſſages to him; and being ſubject to the falling ſickneſs, this gave ſome countenance to what he aſſerted. He publiſhed his pretended revelations by chapters, ſome of them at Mecca before he was driven from thence, and the reſt at Medina. He uſed to dictate every new chapter to his amanuenſis, who read it to his diſciples till they had it by heart, after which it was laid up in a cheſt, called the "Cheſt of his apoſtleſhip," which he left in the cuſtody of his wife Hapha, from whence the koran was compiled by Abubeker, his immediate ſucceſſor, who ſupplied the want of ſeveral paſſages that were loſt from the memory of thoſe people, who had learnt them by heart, and new modelled the book ſo, as it might beſt ſerve the ends he had in view; and many abſurdities ſtill remaining, Oſman, while he was calif, called in all the copies which had been given out, under pretence of correcting them by the original, cauſed them to be burnt, and, in a manner, compoſed a new koran, in the twenty-third year of the Hegira, A. D. 652, being about twenty years after Mahomet's death. What proof there is of ſuch alterations, does not appear.

Great oppoſition aroſe againſt Mahomet at Mecca; ſome derided, and others threatened him; but ſtill he proceeded in making converts; and being a man of great wit and winning addreſs, flattering the rich and relieving the poor, he became exceedingly popular, inſomuch that the government began to apprehend that he was aiming at ſovereign power; and as he was already become too great to be brought before a court of juſtice, they had determined to take him off privately; of which receiving advice, he fled to Medina. As he confeſſed he had not the power of working miracles, many of his diſciples left him; which occaſioned him to obſerve to the citizens of Medina, that God had indeed ſent Moſes and Jeſus, and had given them the power of working miracles, and yet the world was not reclaimed by them; therefore God had now ſent him laſt to reduce them to obedience by the ſword. He commanded his diſciples, therefore, not to enter into diſputes about religion, but maintain it by force; and deſtroy all thoſe that refuſed to obey him, promiſing great rewards to thoſe who took up arms in this cauſe, and eternal happineſs to ſuch as happened to die in the defence of it.

In his twelfth year, Mahomet gave out that he was carried up to heaven by the angel Gabriel, who had ſeventy pair of wings, whiter than ſnow, and clearer than cryſtal; that he ſet him on the beaſt alborack, leſs than a mule, which in a moment carried him to Jeruſalem, where he left the beaſt, and mounted by a ladder of light to heaven, and from one heaven to another, till he came to the throne of God, which was in the ſeventh or higheſt heaven; he adds, that the ſeven heavens were five hundred years journey aſunder, and that he ſaw a gigantic angel in one of them, whoſe eyes were ſeventy thouſand days journey aſunder; and this journey of Mahomet's, he aſſured his diſciples, was performed in the tenth part of a night, which the Mahometans believe as firmly as any article of faith, though it was for ſome time diſputed whether all this was not a viſion; but the doctors at length reſolved that it was a real journey, and all his ſayings have ever ſince been regarded as ſacred truths brought down from heaven, which having been reduced to writing after his death, make up theſe volumes of tradition which the Mahometans call the Sonorah.

About this time, the Jews and Chriſtians of Arabia perſecuting one another with great fury, one of the parties, to ſtrengthen themſelves, it is ſaid, entered into an alliance with Mahomet; and it is generally thought it was the Chriſtians, from his kind uſage of them, and his cruelty to the Jews.

After the arrival of Mahomet at Medina, he married his daughter Fatima, whom he had by his wife Cadigha, to his couſin Haly, Fatima being the only child by that wife which ſurvived him, and from her all thoſe derive their right who pretend to be of the family of Mahomet. He held Cadigha, to be the moſt perfect of women; for he was uſed to obſerve, that there never were but four good women in the world, namely, 1. This Cadigha, that made his fortune; 2. Aſiah, the wife of one of the Pharaoh's 3. The virgin Mary; and, 4. His daughter Fatima. Having brought over moſt of the people of Medina to his intereſt, he began to make incurſions on the neighbouring ſtates, and particularly on the ſubjects of Mecca, from whence he was expelled; and to diſtreſs that city, intercepted their caravans that went from thence to Syria and Paleſtine, killing thoſe who refuſed to embrace his doctrine; and enriching his diſciples with the plunder; which induced many of the thieviſh Arabs to join him, eſpecially as the robberies they committed were denominated acts of

religion, and the cauſe (that is, the deſtroying all that differed from them) the cauſe of God.

He at firſt directed his diſciples to turn their faces towards Jeruſalem when they prayed; but looking upon the Jews afterwards as his mortal enemies, and obſerving that his countrymen had ſtill a great veneration for the caaba or temple of Mecca, which had for ſome ages been the place where they performed their devotions, he ordered them to direct their devotions to Mecca, and go in pilgrimage thither, as they uſed to do, and many of their idolatrous rites to be retained. It is obſerved to have been one of the moſt ſucceſsful ſtratagems Mahomet uſed, ſo to frame his new religion as to make it moſt agreeable to the humour, intereſt, and appetites of thoſe he hoped to delude, and bring over to his party.

The Jews having provoked him by taking part with his enemies, or ſome other affront he had received from them, he fell upon ſeveral tribes of the Jewiſh Arabs, and having taken great numbers of priſoners, ſold them for ſlaves, and divided the plunder among his diſciples, which ſtill increaſed the number of his followers; but receiving a defeat afterwards at mount Ohad, the people began to ſuſpect he was not a true prophet; and ſome, that had loſt their relations in the battle, began to murmur; whereupon he told them, that it was their ſins, that had occaſioned the defeat, and as to thoſe that fell in battle, they would have died, if they had remained at home, the period of every man's life being fixed by God, beyond which it could not be prolonged; and as they had died in defence of their faith, they had obtained their crown of martyrdom, and were now alive with God in Paradiſe, in a ſtate of everlaſting bliſs; which doctrines, he found, gave great courage and reſolution to his people, and therefore continued to inculcate theſe doctrines, as his ſucceſſors do to this day.

Having gained a ſecond victory over the Jewiſh Arabs, he put them every one to the ſword, perhaps becauſe they made ſuch a brave reſiſtance, as had like to have put an end to his uſurped dominion; for they had ſurprized his army when a great many of them were drunk and engaged in play; and it was with the utmoſt hazard and difficulty that he wreſted the victory out of their hands, which was the reaſon of his prohibiting the drinking of ſtrong liquors and gaming.

The citizens of Mecca, in the mean time, finding him grow very formidable, entered into a confederacy with ſome of the neighbouring tribes, and marched with a powerful army to give him battle, which Mahomet declined, apprehending he was not ſtrong enough to engage them in the open field: he made choice of a very ſtrong camp, therefore, which he entrenched and fortified, and the enemy lying pretty near him, he found means to corrupt ſome of their principal officers, who adviſing a retreat, delivered him from his fears; and having increaſed his army he marched towards Mecca, and a battle being fought between that city, and Sidin or Judda, in which neither party had much reaſon to boaſt of their ſucceſs, a truce was concluded between them; in which it was agreed, that Mahomet's friends in Mecca ſhould be at liberty to join him; and thoſe in his army who deſired it, might return to Mecca. Mahomet now looking upon his authority to be ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed king at his return to Medina; this being the ſixth year of the Hegira, or Mahometan æra, A. D. 627. But ſtill he retained the office of high prieſt, and his ſucceſſors, the caliſs, enjoyed both offices until the 325th year of the Hegira, when the governors of the ſeveral provinces of the Saracen empire aſſumed an independent authority with the title of ſultans, leaving the califfs poſſeſſed only of the eccleſiaſtical authority. The Mahometan princes afterwards proceeded to conſtitute a pontiff in their reſpective dominions, who is called the ſedre in Perſia, and mufti in Turky, who interpoſe only in eccleſiaſtical matters, except that they ſit as judges in the ſupreme court of juſtice: the reaſon whereof is, that the Mahometan laws are only the laws and precepts of the koran, and the comments upon them, of which the high prieſt and his clergy are ſtill eſteemed the ſole interpreters; but then, if the mufti does not determine as the Grand Seignor would have him, he is depoſed, and another advanced to that poſt; ſo that he, the mufti or chief prieſt, is, in effect, no more than the tool of the miniſtry in every Mahometan country, as the chief prieſts of a better religion too often are. But to proceed with our hiſtory.

Mahomet ſtill continued to preach and pray, and perform the office of high-prieſt as before; only, inſtead of leaning on the ſtump of a palm-tree, before his advancement to the royal dignity, he cauſed a magnificent temple to be built at Medina, and harangued the people from a pulpit; and the Mahometans have a tradition, that the forſaken ſtump of the palm-tree groaned, when it found itſelf deſerted by Mahomet, and had no longer the honour to ſuſtain his weight.

The Jewiſh Arabs having become the objects of this uſurper's implacable hatred, he continued to make war upon them: they were extremely obnoxious to him in the latter end of his reign, though he had courted their favour in the beginning. He took one of their cities; and being afterwards at ſupper at the houſe of Hareth, one of the principal citizens, one of his officers dropped down dead, poiſoned by a ſhoulder of mutton, which a daughter of the family had prepared for Mahomet, it is ſaid; and he taſted ſo much of it that he never was well afterwards, though he ſurvived it ſeveral years. His diſciples conſtrued his eſcape at this time a miracle, for they have a tradition amongſt them, that the ſhoulder of mutton ſpoke to Mahomet, and warned him of his danger.

After Mahomet's death, it was diſcovered that the meat was poiſoned by Zainab, the daughter of Hareth, on this principle, that if he was the great prophet he pretended to be, the poiſon could have no effect upon him.

Having very little regard for the truce he had made with Mecca, he privately aſſembled a body of ten thouſand men, and ſurpriſed that city, maſſacreing all thoſe that durſt oppoſe him: thus he proceeded in his pretended reformation of religion, broke down the images in the caaba, conſecrated that temple to his new religion, and commanded his diſciples to go in pilgrimage thither once in their lives. The principal images he expelled the caaba were thoſe of Abram and Iſhmael, and the images of ſome departed ſaints; which the Arabians worſhipped as mediators to the ſupreme God. For the Arabians always held that there was but one God, the creator of heaven and earth, whom they ſtiled Alla Tael, or the God of gods; and as they imagined he was too great to be addreſſed without a mediator, they implored the interceſſion of holy men, that were gone to heaven, to recommend them to his favour; and this ſeems to have been the religion of moſt nations antiently, as it is at this day: it is not to the image, but to the ſaint the image repreſents, as the Roman Catholics ſay, that they gave this inferior kind of worſhip.

Moſt of the Arab tribes, reſenting the inſult put upon their religion by breaking down their images, united againſt Mahomet, whom they defeated in a general battle, and compelled him to retire under the walls of Mecca; but he being victorious in a ſecond battle, compelled them to acknowledge him their ſovereign, and to profeſs the religion he had forged as a revelation of the deity; and to ſet them an example, he undertook a pilgrimage in perſon to Mecca, attended by a multitude of people from all parts of Arabia; and now finding himſelf to be in a bad ſtate of health, occaſioned by the poiſon the Jeweſs had given him in the ſhoulder of mutton, as before related, he became delirious, complaining of the pain he had ſuffered ever ſince he had eat the fatal morſel, and at length expired in great agonies in 629, being juſt ſixty three years old on the day he died. His diſciples were in great confuſion after his death, many of them having been of opinion that he could not die, or if he did appear to be dead, he would ſoon come to life again. Omar, one of his generals was of this opinion, and, drawing his ſword, ſwore he would cut any man to pieces that ſhould ſay he was dead. Abubeker thereupon demanded, if they worſhipped Mahomet, or the God of Mahomet? if you worſhip the God of Mahomet, ſaid he, he is immortal, and lives forever; but as to Mahomet, he is certainly dead; and that he muſt die, he obſerved, was plain from ſeveral paſſages in the koran; with which Omar and his party were ſatisfied. Another diſpute aroſe about the place of his burial, ſome were for having him buried at Medina; others at Mecca; and a third party would have him buried among the prophets at Jeruſalem; but Abubeker declaring he heard Mahomet ſay, that a prophet ſhould be buried in the place where he died, they all acquieſced in this, and a grave being made under the bed where he lay, there he was interred, and over the grave a chapel was built which ſtands at one of the corners of the great moſque at Medina, which was founded by Mahomet himſelf.

Mahomet took no other wife as long as Cadigha lived; but afterwards he had fifteen, ſome ſay, twenty, moſt of them cohabiting with him at the ſame time. Of theſe, five died before him, and he divorced ſix: Ayeſha, the daughter of Abubeker, was the greateſt favourite, though

ſhe was charged with being falſe to his bed, which he pretended not to believe, and added one chapter to the koran, to declare her innocence. His wife Haphſa, the daughter of Omar, was the moſt reſpected next, with whom he truſted the cheſt of his apoſtleſhip already mentioned, where the original writings relating to his pretended revelations were depoſited. His wife Zeida he was ſoon weary of, and was about to part with her; but upon her conſenting to reſign her turn to Ayeſha, he permitted her to retain the honour of being one among the number of his wives: he took alſo Zaidah, the wife of Zaid his enfranchiſed ſlave, at which his diſciples were much offended; he compoſed a chapter of his koran, therefore, wherein he introduced God approving of the match; and this lady uſed to boaſt, that he received his other wives from their relations, but ſhe was married to him by God himſelf.

Beſides his wives, he had ſeveral concubines, and particularly an Egyptian in his old age, of whom he was extremely fond, and was upbraided with it, by his wives, Haphſa and Ayeſha, repreſenting how unjuſt and indecent it was in a holy man and a prophet, to prove falſe to their bed, and purſue his luſts in his declining age; which occaſioned another revelation, wherein he makes God permit him and his diſciples to lie with their female ſlaves, as is practiſed by the Mahometans at this day; and in ſome, if not in all Mahometan countries, the children of ſuch ſlaves are deemed legitimate, and ſhare their fathers eſtate, with the iſſue of their wives.

The having ſeveral wives alive at once, was practiſed by the Arabs from the earlieſt ages, but was limited by Mahomet to four: and as the taking their ſlaves to their bed, Abram, the father of Iſhmael their grand anceſtor, did the ſame; and Jacob, we find, had ſons, by two of his ſlaves, and made no diſtinction between them and the iſſue he had by his wives; they were all ſtiled patriarchs, and the promiſed land was divided equally among the poſterity of Jacob's wives and ſlaves.

One of the laws of Mahomet ſeems equitable enough, namely, that a man ſhould make no difference in the cloathing or diet of his wives, but they ſhould all fare alike: and the ſame in the duties of the bed: and if a wife complains of her huſband's being partial in any of theſe reſpects, the magiſtrate will relieve her, or grant a divorce if ſhe deſires it: and the keeping of boys for their bedfellows is allowed to be another ſufficient reaſon for a divorce; and yet this is what the Turks frequently practiſe. He alſo gave his diſciples a table containing the degrees of marriage, as that they ſhould not marry their mothers-in-law, ſiſters, or ſiſters-in-law, or their daughters; that they ſhould not marry the daughter of any woman they had lain with, or another man's wife: he had, himſelf, indeed, married the wife of his ſervant Zaid; but in another chapter of the koran, he brings in God, forbidding him to take another man's wife for the future; and though he allowed himſelf great liberties, he forbids all men entering into any converſation with his wives, or the wives of other men; and commands all wives to forbear ſpeaking to any man, but with their faces veiled; that they ſhould remain widows after their huſbands death, and that no man ſhould touch them; but whatever he requires ſhould be done, he always repreſents heaven approving it, and compoſes a chapter in the koran to countenance the practice.

Mahomet had appointed Hali, the huſband of his eldeſt daughter Fatima to be his ſucceſſor; but Abubeker, his father-in-law, and one of his moſt celebrated generals, aſſumed the title of calif, or ſovereign of the Saracens, both in ſpirituals and temporals. He enjoyed this honour ten years, and was ſucceeded by Omar, another general of the Saracen army, who made the ſwifteſt conqueſts of any prince we read of; for he added Perſia, Syria, Paleſtine, Meſopotamia, and Egypt, to his dominions. To him ſucceeded Othman, another of Mahomet's generals, who added all the north of Africa as far as the pillars of Hercules (the ſtraights of Gibraltar) to the Saracen empire. But the faction of Hali prevailing againſt him, he became his own executioner, threw himſelf upon his ſword, and died in the eighty-ſeventh year of his age, and the tenth of his reign, though ſome have aſſerted, that he was aſſaſſinated; and his ſucceſſor Hali was aſſaſſinated, before he had reigned three years, by Mahuvias.

Hali left two ſons, on the eldeſt of whom, named Haſſan, the Arabians beſtowed the crown. After reigning about ſix months, he abdicated his throne in favour of Moawiyah, who had been a continual terror to him; ſo that Moawiyah, who had formerly excited a revolt in Syria againſt Hali, now became ſole poſſeſſor of the throne, was acknowledged by all muſſulmen as the true and lawful calif, being the firſt of the dynaſty of the Ommiyans, ſo called from Ommiyah, the head of the prince's family.

As ſoon as this prince was firmly ſeated on the throne, his firſt grand object was to augment his glory: he proſecuted ſuch enterprizes as former califs had begun againſt the Greeks; he drove them out of Armenia and Anatolia, and adopted meaſures to render the dignity of calif hereditary, which had been before elective, and ſucceeded in his deſign; his crown deſcended to his ſon, and afterwards to the reſt of his poſterity. That dynaſty of princes maintained themſelves with great glory for fourteen ſucceſſions, though not always in a right line; for brothers often aſcended the throne to the prejudice of their nephews, when the latter were not of due age, or there were any other reaſons that artifice could aſſign; but the ſucceſſion was always in the houſe of Ommiyah till the time of Merwan the ſecond. The houſe of Ommiyah, however, was not deſtroyed by the Abbaſſians, princes ſo denoted from their being deſcended from Abbas, uncle of Mahomet. They took up arms againſt the Ommiyans, under pretence of revenging the death of Hali, who, they alledged, had been murdered by them, Abul Abbas was accordingly proclaimed calif.

Abdallah, who was the uncle of Abul Abbas, cauſed an act of grace to be publiſhed, in the calif's name, for all the Ommiyans who ſhould appear before him, and take the oaths of allegiance to the new calif. A day was fixed for a meeting of the chiefs or princes, and Abdallah attended them; but while he was preparing to tender the oaths, a party of ſoldiers, appointed for the purpoſe, drew up behind them, and deſtroyed them all on the ſpot, except one, who eſcaped and fled to Spain. Immediately after this barbarous deed, the ſoldiers put to the ſword a great number of muſſulmen known to be devoted to the houſe of Ommiyah; and Obdalla, having put an end to the ſlaughter, completed his bloody tranſaction with a moſt horrid entertainment. The above infernal monſter cauſed the bodies of the Ommiyans, who had been ſlaughtered by the ſoldiers, to be placed cloſe to one another, and covered with boards, over which he ordered carpets to be laid, and upon this flooring, formed by dead carcaſes, he gave a ſumptuous feaſt to the officers of the army. "Perhaps, ſaid he, all of them may not be quite dead; in that caſe, we ſhall have the happineſs to hear them groan." Such was the beginning of the reign of Abul Abbas, who however was not accuſed of having any ſhare in the above maſſacre; nor did he enjoy the throne long, for he died at the age of eighteen, of the ſmall-pox.

Abul Abbas was ſucceeded by his brother Abu Giaffer, ſurnamed Almanzor, or Victorious; and ſoon after he aſſumed the diadem, his uncle, the infamous Abdallah, was cruſhed to death, with ſeveral others, by the ſuddenly falling-in of the floor of a chamber in which they were ſitting. Almanzor built the city of Bagdat, which was the capital of the empire till the race of Abbas became extinct: on which account the Abbaſſians have been commonly called califs of Syria, on account of their conſtant abode in that country. The Abbaſſians, who ſtiled themſelves the true children of the houſe of the great prophet, poſſeſſed the diadem, under the thirty ſeven princes, for upwards of five hundred years.

The unlimited authority with which the houſe of Ommiyah entruſted the governors of provinces, was the ſole cauſe of their ruin: the deſcendants of Abbas fell into the ſame error: this however ſupported their dynaſty longer than was that of the Ommiyans, but with leſs ſplendor with regard to the extent of their authority. During their reigns, part of their empire was at ſeveral times granted away; and the territories, thus diſmembered, were erected into as many dynaſties; of theſe were the Thaherians, and the Soffarides, who reigned in Perſia, Tranſoxtana, and Turkeſtan; as alſo the Tholanides, and Aſchidians, who ruled Egypt under the title of ſultans, though at the ſame time they acknowledged the ſupremacy of the calif of Bagdat. But the Aſchidians were ſucceeded by the Fatimites, who pretending to be the true and rightful ſucceſſors of Mahomet, as deſcended from Hali by Fatima, aſſumed the title of calif in Egypt: thence the name of the califs of Bagdat was ſuppreſſed in the public prayers throughout the whole extent of their dominions.

The new dynaſty poſſeſſed the full and intire ſovereignty for almoſt three hundred years, when, however the Egyptian Fatimites were at length totally ruined by the califs of Bagdat, who recovered the poſſeſſion of Egypt and Syria, owing to the maſterly conduct of Salaheddin or Saladin; to whom, on conſideration of his ſervices, the calif Naſſer ſolemnly confirmed the ſultanſhip of Egypt

and

and Syria; and in the beſtowal of this grand act of favour Naſſer acquired a conſtant protector: and while the muſſulmen of Egypt and Syria were fighting, under the banners of Saladin againſt the Chriſtian armies, Naſſer quietly enjoyed at Bagdat all the honours due to the califat, being acknowledged ſovereign in all countries then inhabited by muſſulmen.

A new dynaſty, called Genghiſkanians, from their founder Genghiz Khan, aroſe after the extinction of the Fatimites. This prince, who became highly renowned for the rapidity of his exploits, put himſelf at the head of an army of Moguls and Tartars, and ſoon conquered an immenſe tract of land, his ſucceſſors, who inherited his bravery, as well as his antipathy to muſſulmen, added to their crown almoſt all the ſtates which had been ſeized by the princes of the other dynaſties; and at length made themſelves maſters of Bagdat, maſſacred the calif and his children, and by their death put a final end to the illuſtrious houſe of Abbas, which had ſat on the throne upwards of five hundred years.

At this period the hiſtory of the califs properly concludes; for we cannot include, among the califs, Ahmed, who was three years afterwards proclaimed calif by the Mamlucks of Egypt, under the name of Moſtanzer Billah. They called him the ſon of Daher ben Naſſer the Abbaſſian; and Biban, who was then ſultan of the Mamlucks, cauſed him to be recognized in Egypt; ſo that a ſecond dynaſty of Abbaſſians was formed, if the name of dynaſty can be allowed to a race of princes who were only looked upon as the head of the church. This pretended dynaſty ſubſiſted till the end of the Mamlucks, in the 933d year of the Hegira and 1517th of the Chriſtian æra; when Selim, the firſt emperor of the Ottoman Turks, annexed all Egypt to his empire.

To ſum up the whole, Abubeker, the immediate ſucceſſor of Mahomet, began his califat, in the eleventh year of the Hegira, and 633d of the Chriſtian æra. In the 41ſt of the Hegira, and A. D. 661. Moawiyah began to reign: he was the firſt of the dynaſty of Ommiyans, of which Merwan II. Hegira 127. A. D. 744, was the laſt: Abul Abbas, the firſt of the houſe of Abbas, began to reign, Hegira 134. A. D. 752. and Moſtazem was the 56th and laſt grand Abbaſſian calif, who began to reign in the 64th year of the Hegira, and in the 1242d of the Chriſtian æra. So that from Abubeker, the firſt calif to that of Moſtazem, is included a ſpace of 610 years. It is remarkable of Motaſſon, who began to reign, A. D. 833, that he was born in the eighth month in the year, was the eighth prince of this race, the eighth Abbaſſian calif, aſcended his throne in the 218th year of the Hegira, commanded his troops eight times in perſon, reigned eight years eight months and eight days, died in the forty-eighth year of his age, had eight ſons and eight daughters, and left exactly eight millions of gold in his treaſury.

SECT. VII.

Treats of the antiquities of the Arabians; and alſo contains an account of Palmyra or Tadmor.

WE ſhall here take ſome notice of the moſt antient and celebrated places of antiquity, beginning with the Red ſea, or Arabian gulf, which flows from the Indian ocean, runs eaſtward as far as the iſthmus of Africa, to the town of Suez. It has its name, according to ſome authors, from an orient brightneſs peculiar to its waters, being tinged with a red mineral earth; and it has a red ſand on its ſhores, which is frequently repugnant to its quality and nature, mixed with the water by the flux and reflux of the ſea, which is ſo violent in this gulf, as to toſs it to and fro like aſhes, and prevent its ſubſiding to the bottom by a perpetual vehement agitation. Seafaring people have confidently aſſerted that the ſand, thus borne and agitated by the turbulent waters, appears as red as blood: but that, if put into ſtill water, it will ſink to the bottom. Some writers derive its name from the Greek word erythros, ſignifying red, eſpecially as Erythros was the name of a king who reigned on the coaſt. But from whatever its name be really derived, no ſea has been more juſtly celebrated: the paſſage of the Iſraelites through it, and its conveyance of all the rich merchandize of the eaſt for upwards of three thouſand years, have given it an immortal name.

Mount Sinai deſerves a particular deſcription. It has two ſummits, and is called by the Arabs the mountain of Moſes, becauſe many remarkable things happened here to that prophet. Here, they ſay, the almighty appeared to him in a burning buſh; and the fathers ſhew a bramble, which they affirm is of the ſame kind. Here he likewiſe fed the flock of his father-in-law Jethro; and not far off he ſtruck the rock, out of which the water inſtantly guſhed. There is a convent at mount Sinai, founded by the empreſs Helena, and dedicated to the celebrated St. Catherine: it ſtands at the bottom of the mountain, and is an irregular, aukward building of unburnt brick, walled round and ſtopped up at every entrance to prevent the incurſions of the roving Arabs. The only free entrance is by a window that is upwards of thirty feet from the ground, and to which people are drawn up in a machine by a windlas. Within the walls, which are two hundred and fifty-five feet long from eaſt to weſt, and fifty-five feet broad from north to ſouth, are mills, bake-houſes, ſtore-houſes, and every office neceſſary to a ſequeſtered ſociety. Here is the ſhrine of St. Catherine, the relics are depoſited in a marble cheſt, whereon are carved ſeveral pieces of foliage in baſſo relievo.

Another mountain, called mount St. Catherine, is ſituated near mount Sinai: to the former place the body of St. Catherine was brought, after her martyrdom under the tyrant Maxentius. It overtops mount Sinai, and its ſoil is a ſpecies of ſpeckled marble, in which are ſeen beautiful configurations of trees, and other repreſentations of the like nature in the vegetable world.

With reſpect to the magnificent remains of Palmyra, an able writer obſerves, that "Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of barren, uninhabitable ſands. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world; and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the weſtern nations for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accouted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſarts."

There is no part of a tour through the eaſt ſo difficult as a journey to Palmyra, it being ſituated in a dreary deſart, at a diſtance from any common road, and beyond the Grand Seignor's protection. We ſhall now proceed to a deſcription of the ruins of this place, than which no proſpect can be conceived more romantic, more melancholy or more grand. Here are innumerable piles of Corinthian pillars, without any intervening building, or wall of the leaſt ſolidity. A traveller, who with ſeveral others ſtaid fifteen days at this place, remarks as follows: "The walls of this antient and ſtupendous city, were flanked with ſquare towers in many parts, particularly in the ſouth-eaſt, but nothing of them exiſts; and from the beſt computation of them, I imagine their circuit could not have been leſs than three Engliſh miles, provided they include the great temple." He further obſerves, "We have but little information from hiſtory, of either Balbec or Palmyra: what knowledge we have is chiefly from inſcriptions. Does not this defect convey inſtruction, and convince us of the inſtability of human grandeur? the fate of theſe two cities differs from each other: we have no teſtimonies of what they were, but their own noble fragments." Palmyra (continues he) in the deſarts of Arabia, or, as by the ſcripture ſtyled Tadmor in the wilderneſs, is a moſt awful ſpectacle. As you approach, the firſt object which preſents itſelf is a grand ruinated caſtle, on the north ſide of the city. From it you deſcry Tadmor, incloſed on three ſides by long ridges of mountains; ſouthward of it is a vaſt plain extending far beyond the ſight. The city muſt have been of large extent, from the ſpace now taken up by its ruins; among which live about thirty or forty miſerable families, in tents of dirt, within a ſpacious court which once incloſed a magnificent temple. This court hath a ſtately high wall of large ſquare ſtone, adorned by pilaſters both within and without: there are about ſixty in each ſide. The beautiful cornices have been beaten down by the Turks. Towards the centre are the remains of a caſtle, ſhrouding the fragments of a temple of exquiſite beauty, as appears by what is ſtill ſtanding of its entrance, namely, two ſtones thirty-five feet long, carved with vines and cluſters of grapes. In the great court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars thirty-ſeven feet high, with capitals finely carved, and the cornices muſt have been of equal elegance; fifty-eight of theſe pillars are intire: there muſt have been many more, as it appears they went quite round the court, ſupporting a moſt ſpacious double piazza. The walks on the weſt



A General Perspective VIEW of the RUINS of the celebrated TEMPLE of PALMIRA, in Arabia

Ledge sculp.

ſide of the piazza, which face the front of the temple, ſeem to have been grand and ſpacious; and at each end are two niches for ſtatues at length, with pedeſtals, borders, ſupporters, canopies, &c. carved with inimitable art. The ſpace within this once beautiful incloſure is (or rather was) encompaſſed by another row of pillars of a different order, fifty feet high, ſixteen of which are yet ſtanding. The temple was ninety feet long, and about forty broad; its grand entrance on the weſt appears, by what remains of it, to have been the moſt magnificent in the world. Over a doorway in the remaining wiles you trace a ſpread eagle; as at Balbec; and here are the fragments of cupids, as well as of eagles, moſt finely imitating nature, on large ſtones mouldering on the earth. Nothing of the temple ſtands but the walls, the window places of which are narrow at top, but richly adorned with ſculpture. In the middle is a cupola, all one ſolid piece. Leaving this court and temple, your eyes are ſaluted with a great number of pillars of marble ſcattered for near a mile. To the north you have a ſtately obeliſk before you, conſiſting of ſeven large ſtones beſides its capital, grandly ſculptured: it is more than fifty feet high, and is twelve feet and a half in circumference juſt above the pedeſtal; and it is imagined a ſtatue once ſtood upon it. Eaſt and weſt of this, at the diſtance of about a quarter of a mile, is another obeliſk, that ſeems to have correſponded with the firſt mentioned, and, according to the fragments of a third, it ſhould ſeem that there was a continued range of them. On one of them, which is about forty feet high, there is a Greek inſcription commemorating two patriots; and about one hundred paces from it is a large and lofty entrance, leading to a grand piazza, adorned with marble pillars, on moſt of which there are inſcriptions. A little farther onwards to the left, are the remains of a ſtately pile of remarkably fine marble, ſeventy-two feet long. On the weſt ſide of the piazza are ſeveral openings for gates; two of them appear to have been the moſt ſuperb that ever captivated the eye, both in point of grandeur of work in general, and the beautiful porphyry pillars with which they were adorned. Eaſtward of the piazza are a great number of ſcattered marble pillars, moſt of which have been deprived of their elegant capitals. A little ruined temple lies mouldering at a ſhort diſtance, which appears to have been a very curious ſtructure. But of all the venerable remains, none more attract the imagination than the magnificent ſepulchre towards the north of the city, extending a mile and more, and which at a diſtance have the appearance of the tops of decayed churches, or baſtions of ruined fortifications."

It is evident that Palmyra was uſed as a place of ſtrength, from alterations which have been made in the caſtle on the hill, and the temple of the ſun, which muſt have been intended for defence, and are not more than five or ſix hundred years old. The moſt perfect piece of antiquity is a mauſoleum, upwards of one thouſand ſeven hundred years old, with the flooring intire, and an inſcription ſtill legible, informing you that it was built by Jambliceus, ſon of Mocimus, as a burial place for himſelf and family, in the year 314, which anſwers to the third year of the Chriſtian æra. We ſhall only add, on this head, that the magnificent city of Palmyra is mentioned, in the Arabic tranſlation of the Chronicles, as ſubſiſting before the days of Solomon; but John of Antioch ſurnamed Malala, ſays it was built by Solomon, on the very ſpot where his father ſlew the philiſtine chief; and he affirms, that in commemoration of that extraordinary event the city was built.

On the ſummit of a rocky hill, north-weſt of the ruins of Palmyra, ſtands an antique caſtle, the aſcent to which is very ſteep and rugged: it is a mean ſtructure not ſo old as the time of Juſtinian. It hath a ditch round it, which cannot be paſſed without ſome difficulty, the draw-bridge being broken down. There is one building here, the remains of which are extremely grand; and this is affirmed to have been the temple of the ſun, which being much injured by the Roman ſoldiers, when Aurelian took the place, the emperor ordered for the purpoſe of repairing it, three hundred pounds weight of gold, taken from the treaſures of Zonobia; and one thouſand eight hundred pounds weight of ſilver, levied upon the people; beſides the jewels of the crown. The height and ſolidity of the walls of its court tempted the Turks to convert it into a place of ſtrength, and then on the north-eaſt and ſouth they ſtopped up the windows, dug a ditch to the weſt, and demoliſhed the portico of the grand entrance; building in its place a ſquare tower, to flank that ſide. To the eaſt and ſouth of this temple are ſome plantations of olives, and ſome ſmall fields of corn, ſurrounded by mud walls, and watered by two ſtreams, which, though hot and ſulphurous, are by the inhabitants deemed very wholeſome. One of theſe ſtreams riſes weſt of the ruins, in a grotto nearly high enough to admit of a man's ſtanding upright; the whole bottom is a baſon of clear water, about two feet deep; and the place on account of the heats being continued, is uſed as a bath. By an old inſcription found here, on an altar ſacred to Jupiter, we learn that this ſtream was never eſteemed while Palmyra flouriſhed, and was under the care of certain people elected by ballot for that purpoſe.

Three or four miles ſouth-eaſt of Palmyra, in the deſert, lies the valley of ſalt, whence Damaſcus and the neighbouring towns are ſupplied with that commodity. On this place, it is ſuppoſed, David ſmote the Syrians, as mentioned, 2 Sam. viii. 13. The ground is impregnated with ſalt to a conſiderable depth, and here they have a method of hollowing the ground to about a foot deep, and a fine white ſalt is gathered from the rain water that lodges in it.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ASIATIC TURKY.

SECT. I.

Treats of the name, ſituation and extent of Turky; alſo the mountains, ſeas, rivers and lakes, contained in it.

TURKY in Aſia forms a grand diviſion of the Turkiſh empire, the whole being nearly ſquare and extending about two thouſand miles each way. It abounds not only with the neceſſaries, but with all the luxuries of life, and contains ſome of the moſt fertile and delightful provinces in the univerſe, which are in the poſſeſſion of the moſt indolent people exiſting.

The Turcœ, who were the progenitors of the Turks, were a Scythian nation, which reſided, for the moſt part, near the banks of the Palus Mœotis, in the country now denominated Koban Tartary, but led rambling lives, removing their habitations, or rather camps, as the ſeaſons changed, and they could find paſture for their cattle.

This country is ſituated between twenty-five and forty-eight degrees of north latitude, and twenty-ſeven and forty-five degrees of eaſt longitude. It is divided by ſome into eaſtern, weſtern, and ſouthern, and by others into eaſtern and weſtern: the latter comprehending Syria, Paleſtine and Anatolia, or the Leſſer Aſia; and the former Diarbeck, Turcomania, and Georgia. It is bounded by Circaſſia and the Black ſea, on the north; by Perſia, on the eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant on the ſouth, and on the weſt, by the Helleſpont, the Ægean ſea or Archipelago, which ſeparate it from Europe.

The principal mountains are thoſe of Olympus, Ida, Taurus, Anti-Taurus, and thoſe of Caramania or Ciliciа, all of them ſituate in Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia; Mount Caucaſus, now called the mountains of Dagiſtan: the mountains of Armenia, among which is mount Ararat, where the ark reſted, the mountains of Curdeſtan, or Aſſyria, which lie between Perſia and Turky, and the mountains of Paleſtine, particularly mount Hermon and mount Lebanon.

The ſeas bordering on this country are, the Euxine or Black ſea; the Boſphorus, or ſea of Conſtantinople; the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora; the Helleſpont, and the Ægean or Archipelago, which divide Aſia from Europe;

and the Levant or White sea, as the Turks call it, being the east end of the Mediterranean; to which may be added, the gulph of Persia or Bassora: these seas, and the Red sea, which divides Asia from Africa, make a part of the Grand Signor's titles, who stiles himself "Lord of the black, white, and red seas." Never was a country more advantageously situated for navigation and foreign traffic than this; all the merchandize of China and India being brought up the Red sea and the gulph of Persia, and by the other seas distributed to all the maritime countries of Europe and Africa. Another advantage is, that they want no timber or naval stores in their own territories; besides what has been mentioned already, their happy situation in the middle of our continent between the extremes of east and west; and yet they apply themselves very little to foreign traffic; neither their ships of war nor merchant-ships make any figure, compared with other maritime countries.

The chief rivers are, the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Meander, Sarabat, Halis, Kara, and Jordan. The Euphrates and Tigris rise in the north, and taking their course south-east, inclose that fine plain in Mesopotamia (now Diarbeck) which is by some supposed to be the seat of Paradise. Certain it is the city of Babylon, the first, the largest, and the most beautiful town, that ever stood upon the earth since the flood, was situated here, upon both banks of the Euphrates, the river running through the middle of it. The Euphrates and Tigris unite their streams below Babylon, and then, dividing again, fall into the Persian gulf by several channels below Bassora, from whence that sea is often called the gulf of Bassora: the city of Nineveh, little inferior to Babylon, stood upon the Tigris, which, from its rapid stream, obtained that name.

The river Orontes rises in mount Hermon, and running north-west through Syrophœnicia, falls into the Levant sea, a little below Antioch, which city stands upon it. The river Meander (now Madre) rises in mount Taurus, and running to the westward in a winding course, falls into the Archipelago or Ægean sea, below Ephesus. From this river, all serpentine or winding streams are called meanders to this day. The river Sarabat rises in Natolia, and running south-west, falls into the Archipelago, north of Smyrna: as to the little river Granicus, where Alexander obtained his first victory over the Persians, it is so small a stream, that we seldom see it in any map: but from the concurrent relation of most writers, it falls into the Hellespont to the eastward of Abydos or the Dardinelles. The river Halis rises in Cappadocia, (Aladulia) and running north, falls into the Euxine sea, between Sinope and Trabizond. The river Kara rises in Natolia Proper, and running almost due east, falls into the Euphrates. Jordan, so named from two little streams, Jor and Dan, which rises at the foot of the Anti-Libanus, and after a course of about twenty miles, unite in one: it is not a river of any great length, depth or breadth, equal to its fame; its whole course till it falls into the Dead sea, being not above one hundred and fifty miles, its breadth not above twenty yards, and its depth not sufficient for navigation: in its passage it makes two lakes, the first called Merom, of small extent, and dry in summer; the second called the sea of Galilee, or the lake of Tiberias, or lake of Gennezereth, of one hundred furlongs in length, and forty in breadth. The Dead sea, as it is called from a false opinion, that it killed even the birds that flew over it, is, by experience, known to deserve no such terrible name; it is, indeed, extremely salt, and the water thereby so strong, that it will hardly admit a human body to sink, and has a bituminous stench: it is said to entertain no fish, or other living creature: but in regard that fish-shells are found on its shores, there is reason to doubt the truth of that opinion. Its extent is seventy miles from north to south, and sixteen from east to west, and was formerly a plain, wherein stood the cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, and Zeboim, destroyed by fire from heaven. The other rivers are Kidron, Chison, and some other small streams, which fall into the Mediterranean sea, and Jaboc and Arnon, which fall into Jordan and the Dead sea.

SECT. II.

Contains a discription of the divisions, provinces and towns of Asiatic Turky; and treats of the eastern division, namely, Eyraca Arabic, Diarbeck, Curdestan, Turcomania, and Georgia, with their towns.

ASIATIC Turky may be divided into three parts; 1. The eastern division; 2. The western division; and, 3. The southern division.

I. The eastern division contains, 1. The provinces of Eyraca Arabic, Irack-Arabia, or Chaldea. 2. Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia. 3. Curdestan, or Assyria. 4. Turcomania, or Armenia; and, 5. Georgia, comprehending Mengrelia, Imuretta, and part of Circassia.

II. The Western Division contains Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, divided into, 1. Natolia Proper. 2. Amasia. 3. Aladulia; and, 4. Caramania.

III. The Southern Division contains Syria, and Palestine, or the Holy Land.

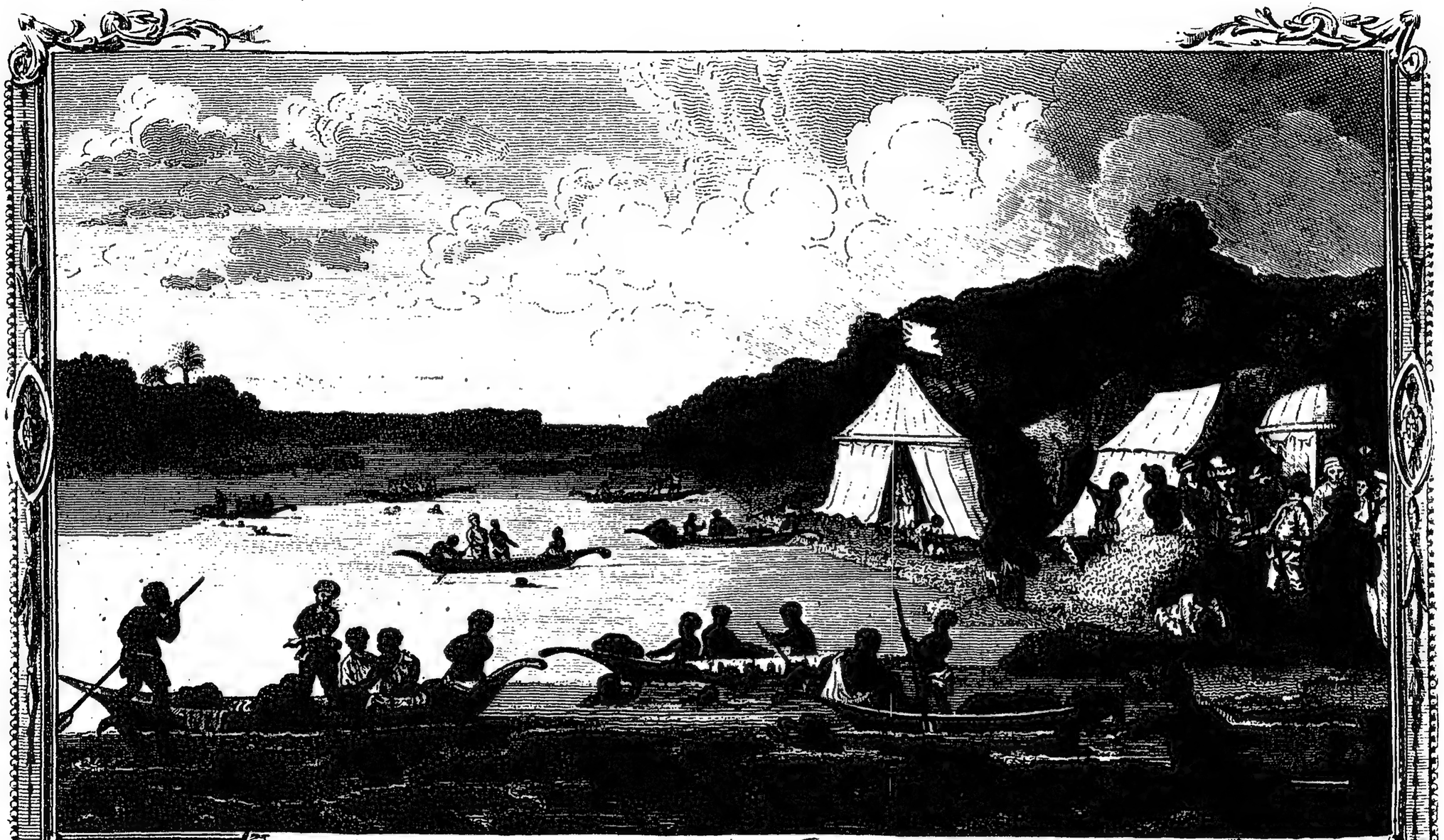
I. Eyraca Arabic was antiently called Chaldea, and sometimes reckoned a part of Babylonia; at others, a province of Arabia. It lies between thirty and forty degrees north latitude, on both sides the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, having Persia on the east, and Arabia Deserta on the west. The chief towns are Bagdat and Bassora; and the ruins of Babylon and Seleucia.

Bagdat, the capital, is situate in forty-three degrees of eastern longitude, and thirty-three degrees twenty minutes north latitude, upon the river Tigris. It was built by Mahomet II. calif of the Saracens, on the western side of the river; and about the year 1100, another town was built on the east side of the river, and both united by a bridge. It continued the capital of the Saracen empire, till it was taken by the Tartars, in the middle of the thirteenth century, when a period was put to the Saracen empire; but though they lost their country, they propagated their religion so successfully, that the Tartars became Mahometans, and continue so to this day. This town lying upon the frontiers of Turky and Persia, has been much contended for by both these powers, and taken and retaken several times: but the Turks have been in possession of it ever since the year 1689; and here the beglerbeg or viceroy of the province constantly resides. The town is near two miles long, and one broad, defended by a wall and towers, almost in the form of bastions, and the moat wide and deep, and a strong castle upon the river. It is the grand emporium of the Ottoman empire towards the Persian side; and is frequented by innumerable merchants and passengers travelling to and from Persia into Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Natolia, &c. besides Mahometans, many Christians, who are publickly tolerated, and some Jews, reside here. The principal buildings are, the palace of the beglerbeg, the mosques, of which there are five, and the cloysters which surround the bazars or market places, and their bagnios, all which were built by the Persians, when they were in the possession of Bagdat. The Cadi, who is the principal ecclesiastic, and consequently, the chief judge, has a very great authority in this province. The testerdar or treasurer, who collects the public revenue, has a considerable influence in their council, and the reis effendi or secretary, who is sometimes stiled chancellor, is an officer of great consequence; and they are all of the viceroy's council, and a check on his administration, over whom he has no authority: they are accountable only to the divan at Constantinople. The garrison of the place usually consists of four thousand or five thousand men, horse and foot.

Bassora, Basrah, or Balsarra, is situate in forty-nine degrees ten minutes of east longitude, and thirty degrees seventeen minutes of north latitude, about three miles from the western shore of Chatal-Arab, or the united stream of the Euphrates and Tigris, with which it has a communication by a deep canal, the tide flowing up between forty and fifty miles higher than the town, which is a great advantage to their navigation and foreign traffic. The walls of this town are twelve miles in circumference, within which are many void spaces, fields, and gardens; but the buildings have nothing extraordinary in them, the houses being only two stories high, built with bricks dried in the sun, and flat on the tops. The city is founded on a stony soil, and the environs are barren; but the circumjacent country is so exceedingly fertile and delightful, that it is deemed by the Arabians one of the four paradises of the east. The inhabitants are supplied with water from the Euphrates, by a canal which is capable of carrying vessels of fifty tons burden; there is a fortress at the mouth of it, which is about forty-five miles distance from the sea.

The whole country lies so low, that it would be subject to continual inundations, if a stout dyke or embankment did not prevent calamities of that kind; but the hot winds are very troublesome, and bring clouds of sand from the neighbouring deserts.

It is a place of great trade, and swarms with vessels from most of the kingdoms of Asia and Europe. The English and Dutch have very considerable factories here, maintained



A VIEW of the PEARL-FISHERY.

Ledge sculp.

tained by the companies for the better carrying on their commerce with China and other eaſtern parts, their diſpatches being forwarded to England and Holland by the way of Damaſcus and Aleppo, by means of Arabian couriers, who are all exceedingly expeditious. The Dutch trade here with ſpices, and the Engliſh with pepper, cloves, &c. The principal commercial affairs are managed by Armenian, Indian, and Perſian merchants; and all the richeſt commodities of India and Europe are ſold in this city, through which the caravans to Mecca paſs, which is another ſource of wealth: the duties on goods are about five per cent. The inhabitants conſiſt of Mahometans, Jews, Jacobites, Neſtrians, Catholic, and Chaldæan Chriſtians, or Chriſtians of St. John, who are pretty numerous. There is a famous college here, called the academy of Nezam, from its founder Nezam al Monk, the grand vizir of Shah Malar, the ſultan of Iran. At preſent this city is a flouriſhing ſeat of literature, though it hath fewer colleges than Damaſcus or Cairo. The horſes which are bought here are very valuable, on account of their being able to travel with great expedition, and to undergo incredible fatigue: they ſell for from one thouſand two thouſand crowns.

Baſſora is ſubject to an Arabian prince, who is tributury to the Grand Signor. His revenue ariſes from the exchange of money for horſes and camels ſold here, but chiefly from his palm-trees, of which he hath a plantation of ninety miles in length. The manner of ſowing the palms is as follow: About three hundred kernels are buried in the ground in the form of a pyramid, with the points of the kernels upwards, till the whole ends in a ſingle kernel. The earth is then preſſed cloſe round it, and upon it. It is aſſerted by ſome, that if the male and female palm are not placed cloſe to each other, they will bear no fruit; while others affirm, that it may be made to bear by taking the bloſſoms from the male, and inoculating the female therewith at the top of the ſtem.

The income of the prince is ſo great from money, horſes, camels, and dates, as to enable him to lay by annually three million of livres, after all the expences of government, and his tributary loan are defrayed. The prince gives liberty to perſons of all nations to trade here; and the police is ſo well managed, that the people are ſafe in the ſtreets at all hours in the night: the garriſon conſiſts of about three thouſand janiſaries. It is affirmed, that the plague ſwept away eighty thouſand of the inhabitants, when the city was viſited with that dreadful calamity in 1690.

Curſa is ſituated in thirty-one degrees, thirty-eight minutes north latitude, about ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Bagdat, and on the weſt ſide of the Euphrates; it was formerly a city of importance, being the reſidence of the caliſs, after they had quitted Damaſcus, and before they built Bagdat, but is now intirely deſolated.

Traxt, on the Tigris, is a ſtrong and well fortified town, having two caſtles: it is about forty-two leagues beyond Bagdat. The Chaldæan Apamea, is ſuppoſed to have formerly ſtood on this ſpot.

II. The province of Diarbeck comprehends the antient Meſopotamia, Chaldea, Babylonia, and Aſſyria; it is ſituate north of Eyraca Arabic or Chaldæa, ſurrounded by the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, the chief town whereof is Diarbeck, ſituate in forty degrees fifty minutes of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees thirty-five minutes north latitude, on the river Tigris, and not far from its ſource, about two hundred miles eaſt of Aleppo; the Turkiſh name is Caremit: it is built on an eminence, the deſcent from thence to the river very ſteep; the town is ſurrounded by a double wall: on the outward wall are ſixty antique towers: in this city is a magnificent moſque, formerly a Chriſtian church, and contains twenty thouſand Chriſtian inhabitants, whereof two thirds are Armenians, beſides a great number of Mahometans; it is the ſeat of the beglerbeg, or viceroy, who has ſeveral ſangiacſhips, or governments ſubject to him. The ſoil is very good in the neighbourhood of the town, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, wild fowl, and all manner of proviſions; the meat, bread, and wine are admirable, and the fruits excellent. The principal manufacture is that of Turky leather, or maroquins, which employs a fourth part of the natives; galls and tobacco alſo are the produce of this province, of which great quantities are exported. This city is ſupplied with water from the Tigris, by means of an artificial canal, and embelliſhed with many noble piazzas or market-places, and other elegant buildings: on the ſides of the river are ſeveral caravanſera's, or inns; and near the town is a chapel, in which the Turks affirm that Job was buried. The air of the whole province is exceeding temperate and ſerene, unſcorched by exceſſive heats, and not incommoded by ſevere froſts.

Bir, or Beer, another conſiderable town in this province, is ſituate on the ſide of a hill, to the eaſt of the Euphrates, in thirty-eight degrees fifteen minutes of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, ſeventy miles ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo, and is a great thoroughfare to Perſia: it has two large caſtles, for its defence, one on the land ſide, and the other on the banks of the river, and a garriſon of about two hundred janiſaries, and four hundred ſpahis, commanded by a ſangiac: two ſmall rivulets run through the town. The Euphrates would be navigable as high as the city, if there were not ſome cataracts and rocks in it, which hinder the tranſporting their merchandize to Baſſora. Here are all kinds of proviſions in plenty, particularly bread, wine, and fiſh. The neighbouring territory is pleaſant, fertile, and well cultivated, except to the eaſtward, where it is rough, hilly, and rather ſterile. Caravans are not allowed to enter this city.

Orſa, or Orpha, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Ediſſa, is another very conſiderable town, ſituate on the Euphrates, in forty degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees forty minutes of north latitude: where the caravans, travelling from Turky to Perſia, uſually reſt eight or ten days: for here live the people that let the horſes and mules for the abovementioned journey. Orſa, is the capital city of Meſopotamia, and, according to tradition, ſtands in the place where Abraham dwelt. The firſt thing they ſhew foreigners is a large fountain, the ſprings whereof are under the foundations of the principal moſque in the city.

The Chriſtians have a tradition here, that this was the place where Abraham prayed before he went to ſacrifice his ſon Iſaac; and that two ſprings of water aroſe from the place where he kneeled. Theſe feed the large fountain abovementioned, and they will not ſuffer any perſon to enter the grotto, where theſe ſprings riſe, without pulling off his ſhoes, and it is with difficulty that a Chriſtian is permitted to ſee it. The inhabitants are many of them Armenian Chriſtians, and are permitted to perform divine ſervice in their churches. Here are alſo to be ſeen ſeveral antient tombs of the Chriſtians, in grottos, on the neighbouring mountains.

The walls of the city of Orſa are of free-ſtone, with towers at convenient diſtances; but the town is meanly built, and ſeveral void places in it without inhabitants. It is governed by a baſſa, and has a garriſon of ſix or ſeven hundred ſpahis, and about two hundred janiſaries, there being much more occaſion for horſe than foot, to oppoſe the incurſions of the Arabs, who frequently croſs the Euphrates, in hopes of plunder. There are ſeveral pleaſant gardens near the walls, watered by artificial channels, and the ſoil produces good wine: but what Orſa is moſt remarkable for, is the manufacture of yellow maroquins, or Turky leather, as we call it; the red is made at Diarbeck, and the blue at Tocat.

The city of Neſbin, or Naſbin, ſituate about thirty-five miles from the Tigris, is the reſidence of a Turkiſh ſangiac. It is divided into two wards, each on an eminence, with a large tract of plowed land between. This gives it a pretty appearance at a diſtance, though both wards in reality are ſcarcely worthy the name of a ſmall village: however, arches, gates, and the remains of a noble church are ſtill viſible, which evince that its antient ſituation was far ſuperior to its preſent. The ſoil is fertile; and, as the chief buſineſs of the inhabitants is agriculture, the land is well cultivated, and the inhabitants plentifully ſupplied with corn, wine, fruits, &c.

Five or ſix days journey to the eaſtward of Neſbin, ſtands the city of Moſul, or Mouſſul, on the weſtern bank of the river Tigris (over-againſt the place where Nineveh is ſuppoſed to have ſtood) in thirty-ſix degrees odd minutes, northern latitude: the walls of this city make a good appearance without, being built of free ſtone, and three miles in circumference; there is a little caſtle on the Tigris where the baſſa reſides, but the houſes are very mean within, and many of them lie in ruins; it is however a place of good trade, being the ordinary road for the caravans from Aleppo to Perſia, and has a communication with Bagdat, and the gulf of Perſia, by means of the Tigris. It is chiefly inhabited by Greeks, Chriſtians, Armenians, Neſtorians, and Maronites, but thoſe of the eſtabliſhment are Mahometans; and the garriſon uſually conſiſts of three or four thouſand horſe and foot. There is a great trade for galls here, being the produce of the neighbouring countries. A bridge of boats is laid over the river

river at this place, by which it has a communication with Aſſyria or Curdeſtan. The ſoil on this ſide of the river is exceedingly barren, but on the oppoſite it is very fertile. The heat is ſo exceſſive in ſummer, that none go out of doors from two hours after ſun-riſe till an hour after ſun-ſet. There is likewiſe a malignant and dangerous wind called ſamiel, which prevails from hence to Surat, and is ſuppoſed to be the ſame eaſt wind mentioned by Job. It is impregnated with little ſtreaks of fire as ſmall as hairs, which immediately kill thoſe who breathe or inhale them, and turn them as black as a coal. When the people perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and ſometimes eſcape. This wind is felt chiefly on the banks of the river, but not on the water, and is deemed to proceed from ſulphureous vapours, which are kindled by agitation. Independent of this wind, the hot air is often dangerous and injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the ſkin, or raiſes it into bliſters, and occaſions it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of maſk made of a ſoft black crape to preſerve their eyes. But if, after all their precaution, they become inflamed, the afflicted perſon anoints them with a ſalve made of a mixture of ſugar and long pepper ſifted very fine.

Merdin or Mardin, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Tigris, between Moſul and Bagdat, and about twenty-five miles from Diarbeck, in thirty-ſeven degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and forty degrees eaſt longitude. It is about five miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, and defended by an excellent caſtle of about a mile in compaſs, which is ſituated upon an almoſt inacceſſible rock. The caſtle abounds in fine ſprings, and even contains corn-fields. It is the reſidence of a ſangiac, and has a garriſon of four hundred janiſaries and two hundred ſpahis. It is ſo ſtrongly fortified, that Tamerlane the great was obliged to abandon it, after having inveſted it for near three years. The city is well built, adorned with many noble houſes and a fine fountain, the waters of which come from the citadel. The manufactures are ſilk, cotton, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Many Chriſtians inhabit the city, who have an archbiſhop ſubject to the patriarch of Antioch. The air it temperate and ſerene; the territory rich and fruitful.

There are a few other leſs conſiderable cities and towns in Diarbeck, namely, Gezira, in thirty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and thirty-nine degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſituated in an iſland in the Tigris, the word Gezira, in the Arabic language, ſignifying an iſland. It is a ſmall, but rich commercial city, where a great number of merchants meet to carry on a trade in tobacco and gall-nuts, which are plentifully produced in the mountains of Tauris. The city is governed by a bey. They make no wine, but dry all their grapes for raiſins.

Amadia, or Amad, is about ſeventy-two miles eaſt from Gezira, and the ſame weſt from Moſul.

Zibin, in the mid-way between Orſa and Moſul, is a tolerable town ſituated on an aſcent. It is ſurrounded with good walls and ditches, well ſupplied with ſprings and fountains, and furniſhed with a good ſtock of proviſions.

III. We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of Turkiſh Curdeſtan, or Aſſyria, for the moſt eaſterly part of Curdeſtan is under the dominion of the Perſians. This province has Armenia or Turcomania on the north: Perſian Curdeſtan on the eaſt: Chaldea on the ſouth: and Diarbeck or Meſopotamia on the weſt: and is ſaid to receive its name from Aſſur the ſon of Shem. In this country the famous city of Ninevah once ſtood, on the eaſtern bank of the river Tigris, oppoſite to the place where Mouſſul now ſtands. This town was ſixty miles in compaſs, or three days journey according to Jonah: twenty miles being an ordinary day's journey for a man on foot. The walls of it are ſaid to have been one hundred feet high, and to have had eleven hundred and fifty towers upon it, each of them two hundred feet in height. The houſes did not ſtand contiguous, but there were large gardens and ſpaces between them, as in Babylon. It was under the dominion of the ſame prince, who uſed to reſide part of the year at one of theſe cities, and the other part at the other. It is ſaid to be built by Nimrod, or according to others by Ninus, from whom, it is conjectured, it received its name. It was beſieged by Arbaces three years, when the river overflowed twenty furlongs of the wall; whereupon Sardanapalus, the prince, retired into his palace, and having collected all his wealth, which, according to tradition, amounted to upwards of twenty thouſand millions of pounds, ſet fire to the whole, and threw himſelf into the flames. This city was afterwards intirely deſtroyed by Aſtyages, the eldeſt ſon of Cyaxares, the eighth king of the Medes, after Arbaces. There is nothing now to be ſeen but heaps of rubbiſh, almoſt a league along the river Tigris, over againſt Mouſſul, which people imagine to be the remains of this vaſt city. Half a league from the Tigris alſo is a little hill, on the top whereof ſtands a moſque, over the place where, according to the tradition of the country, Jonah was buried. And for this place the Turks have ſo great a veneration, that they will ſcarce ſuffer any Chriſtian to enter the moſque. In the middle of the temple ſtands a tomb covered with a pall of tiſſue, and at the four corners great wax candles, beſides ſeveral lamps, which hang down from the roof, and here ſome derviſes or Turkiſh monks are employed in reading the alcoran.

The province of Curdeſtan is a very pleaſant fruitful ſoil, diverſified with hills and vallies. The hills are cloathed with the fineſt oaks, and a great variety of other timber and fruit trees. The vallies are well watered, and bear excellent grain where they are cultivated, but being under the dominion of the ſlothful Turk, or rather, a frontier country between Turky and Perſia, there is very little of it manured. However there are vaſt flocks and herds fed in this country, the owners living in tents, like the Arabs. The governing part of the country are Mahometans, but the common people are ſaid to be a kind of Chriſtians, at leaſt they go under that denomination; but according to the accounts travellers give us of them, they have the moſt abſurd notions imaginable of Chriſtianity; and the chief object of worſhip is the devil, of whom they are greatly afraid: we are alſo told, that there are not a more brutiſh people upon the face of the earth, and that they are not leſs addicted to thieving and plundering the caravans than the Arabians; but this is not to be wondered at upon the frontiers of two great kingdoms, enemies to each other, where people will take greater liberties than in other places. Galls and tobacco are the principal produce of the ſoil at preſent, but it ſeems fit for any thing, it being very deep, as travellers complain who paſs through it: and though the country in general is pleaſant, it ſeems the roads are not. There are ſcarce any towns and villages, but the houſes lie diſperſed at the diſtance of a muſket ſhot from one another, and ſcarce a houſe which has not a vineyard; however they make no wine, but dry their grapes.

The capital city of Curdeſtan at this time is Sheraſoul, which lies to the eaſtward of Ninevah, in the thirty-ſixth degree of north latitude. It is the ſeat of the beglerbeg, or viceroy of the province, who hath ſeveral ſangiackſhips or governments under him. The town is not large but built after a particular manner, the houſes being hewed out of a rock on the ſide of a hill for a quarter of a league together; and you go up to them by fifteen or twenty ſtone ſteps, and ſometimes more.

In this province, between Ninevah and Bagdat, are ſeveral hills of ſulphur, to which ſome travellers impute the pernicious qualities of the hot winds, or ſaniel, abovementioned. There are likewiſe ſome ſulphureous hot baths at a village called Alchamam, which is about a day's journey from Moſul; and at Attendach's there is a hill from which the Arabs dig gold. In the ſame territory tamariſts, liquorice, and ſrunach are produced in great plenty; the latter, together with ſalt, being infuſed in water, gives it a red tinge, and renders it cool, ſweet, and ſalubrious: taken in broth it is a remedy for the bloody flux.

This part of the country is greatly infeſted by wild beaſts, particularly lions, jackalls, ceracoulacks or wild cats, which are remarkable for having large black ears of half a foot in length. Thoſe who navigate the river in boats always go well armed on account of the lions, who will plunge into the water, and with great fury attack the paſſengers.

The Tigris waſhes the weſtern ſkirts of this province; and the Lycus, Caprus, and Gorgus flow through it at almoſt equal diſtances: the firſt derives its name from a wolf, the ſecond from a goat, and the third is the Zeſben of Pliny.

The Curds, in fine weather, drive their herds and flocks about, in ſearch of paſture, and while the huſbands look out for plunder, the women manage the cattle, and make butter and cheeſe. Their drink is either milk or water. The men ride upon very fine ſwift horſes, their only weapon being a lance. Their tents are large, and made of coarſe brown cloth, that ſerves likewiſe for a covering to their portable houſes, which are ſquare, and made of cane hurdles. The floor is covered with mats, and ſerves both for the purpoſe of bed and table. When they remove, they

they load their oxen with wives, children, and houſes, which are taken to pieces for the purpoſe. Theſe people are very diſagreeable to look at, having ſmall eyes, dark complexions, wide mouths, black hair, and ferocious aſpects; nevertheleſs they are very ſtout and nimble, and, while children, uſually go naked, which renders them extremely hardy. The Curds acknowledge no ſubjection either to Turks or Ruſſians.

The public revenue of this province is computed to amount to ſix hundred purſes annually, beſides three hundred more levied on the Armenian and Greek Chriſtians, and beſides what is levied on the merchandize of the caravans, which is reckoned to amount, in the whole to nine per cent.

Arbela lies on the frontiers of Perſia, in thirty-ſix degrees north latitude, and forty-four degrees twenty minutes of eaſtern longitude, and on the river Lycus, which runs through a fine plain thirty or forty miles over, in the middle whereof is a little hill, named Nicatorius by Alexander, and the ruins of a caſtle, where it is conjectured Darius ſtood to ſee the laſt fatal battle between his troops and the Grecians, commanded by Alexander, which put a period to the Perſian empire.

Betlis is ſituate near the ſouth ſhore of the lake of Van, in forty-three degrees thirty minutes of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees fifty-five minutes north latitude. The bey or ſovereign of this town, and the territory about it, is ſtill independent, it is ſaid, and his country lying on the confines of Perſia, and Turky, refuſes to own himſelf ſubject to either. It is a mountainous tract, almoſt inacceſſible; and he can, by taking the paſſes, cut off the communication between both kingdoms: the Turks and Perſians, therefore, think it their intereſt to keep fair with him.

As you approach Betlis, you muſt travel a whole day among high ſteep mountains, from whence there fall prodigious torrents in the wet ſeaſon. The way up to the city is cut through a rock, where there is but juſt room for a camel to paſs. It is built round the hill in form of a ſugar loaf, and ſtands at an equal diſtance from two other mountains. There is no getting up to it, but by wheeling and winding round the mountain. On the top there is a plain where the caſtle ſtands. And here the bey alſo has his palace. It is ſaid he can raiſe twenty-five thouſand horſe, and a good body of foot out of the ſhepherds of his country.

Harpel is ſituated on the river Caprus, and is ſurrounded by a mud wall; the houſes are miſerably built: it is, however, a large town, and the reſidence of a ſangiac.

Holwan is ſituated between the mountains that divide the Perſian Irak, Curdeſtan, and Chaldæ, it lies in thirty-five degrees north latitude, and forty-ſeven degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude. The Mahometans, who believe that Elijah is ſtill alive, affirm that he lives in one of the mountains near this town.

IV. The province of Turcomania, the ancient Armenia, is ſituate north of Diarbeck and Curdeſtan, having Media or Aderbeitzen on the eaſt, and Anatolia on the weſt. The chief towns are Erzerum and Kars.

The names of the rivers in this country are the Cyrus, Lycus, Phaſis, Araxis, Tigris, and Euphrates. The mountains are, Ararat, the Paryada, Maruſius, Anti-taurus, Niphates, Moſchiſk, and Gordian mountains.

The city of Erzerum, the capital, is ſituate at the foot of a mountain, in forty-one degrees of eaſt longitude, one hundred and fifty miles ſouth of Trapezond and the Black ſea. It is about two miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a double wall. The inhabitants conſiſt of near twenty thouſand Turks, and ſix thouſand Armenian Chriſtians. The Armenian merchants manage all the trade of the Levant, and are in fact the greateſt merchants in the univerſe. Many of them are to be found in Italy, France, Germany, Holland, England, &c. and in the dominions of the Great Mogul; all over the Turkiſh and Perſian territories, in Siam, Java, the Philippine iſlands, and all parts of the eaſt, China excepted; they are in general men of probity and politeneſs.

Moſt of the Turks are called janiſaries, giving a ſum of money to the aga to purchaſe that privilege; but the greateſt part of them are ordinary tradeſmen: the name of janiſary gives them great authority, as they are liable to be called to account by none but their aga, and can inſult their fellow ſubjects with impunity. People of figure are often obliged to enrol themſelves in this body, to prevent their being expoſed to the violences theſe people commit; but though they are very valiant at home in raiſing riots and abuſing their neighbours, they never take the field, or concern themſelves in any wars the country is engaged in; neither do they receive any pay. The government pay of a janiſary is from about two-pence half-penny to ten-pence per day.

The Armenians and Greek Chriſtians have two churches and ſeveral monaſteries, and each of them their biſhop here. They are moſt of them artificers, employed in the leather and copper manufacture, the neighbouring mountains being rich in copper-ore, and ſome ſilver. The mountains are uſually covered with ſnow, till midſummer; the air exceſſively cold in winter, and their vallies are as much too hot in ſummer; the weather frequently changes on a ſudden, from ſcorching heat to the contrary extreme, which is the more unſupportable, as they have ſcarce any fuel in the country; there is neither tree or buſh to be ſeen for many miles; their firing therefore is cow-dung, and other ſtinking materials, which taints the air, and ſpoils the food they dreſs with it. They trade pretty much in furs, and have a briſk foreign trade, the caravans paſſing through this city in their way to Trabizond, on the Black ſea, and ſo on to Conſtantinople frequently, whereby they avoid the Arabs, and other pilferers, which they are in danger of encountering when they proceed in the direct road to Aleppo. At Erzerum, the cuſtom-houſe officers collect the Grand Signor's duties on all merchandize that paſſes through the country: they ſeldom enter into particulars, but charge them in the lump according to their weight: for inſtance, they pay twenty pounds ſterling for every camel's load, which is uſually about eight hundred weight here; ſometimes they pay five per cent. for all the merchandize exported, and every traveller five crowns a head.

There is a little village called Elija, about ſix miles from the above city which contains only a few ſmall houſes built with mud; but is famous for an excellent bath, which is a neat octagonal building. The baſon is of the ſame form, and throws out two ſtreams of water as thick as a man's body. The Turks are continually flocking hither from Erzerum to bathe.

The city Van or Wan is ſituated on a lake of the ſame name, which is one of the largeſt in Aſia, in thirty-eight degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and forty-four degrees fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude: it is large, and ſtands at the foot of a high craggy mountain, on which there is a fortreſs deemed impregnable, that commands the town and country, and has a ſtrong Turkiſh garriſon. The lake produces a variety of fine fiſh, particularly one of the pilchard kind, great quantities of which are exported to many diſtinct places, as well as conſumed at home, being uſed in ſauces, and eaten in the ſame manner as anchovies. The lake is one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, receives many rivers into its boſom, and contains ſeveral iſlands, two of which, viz. Lindaſi and Adareton, are conſiderable, each having little villages and a monaſtery of Armenian monks on it.

The next conſiderable city to Erzerum abovementioned is Cars, or Kars, five or ſix days journey to the north-eaſt, in forty-two degrees odd minutes north latitude; and gives name to a river on which it ſtands. This place is the laſt frontier town of Turky towards Perſia. It is of an oblong figure, and has a double wall about it two miles in compaſs; but the place is very thinly inhabited: the caſtle ſtands on an inacceſſible rock next to the river; the houſes are very mean, more like dens than habitations for men; but there is a numerous garriſon in it, commanded by a baſſa. The river Arpagi joins the Cars a little below the city, and afterwards going by the name of Arpigi, falls into the Araxes, or Arras. The Turkiſh officers at Cars exact intolerably on travellers, but eſpecially on the Franks, who find great difficulties in paſſing through this town into Perſia.

The country about it, though naturally fertile, is but very little cultivated, through the indolence of the inhabitants.

The town of Irvan, Eriyan, or Chirvan, is ſituated in forty degrees ten minutes north latitude, and forty-five degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude. It is about one hundred and eighty miles eaſt of Erzerum, and has been alternately poſſeſſed by the Turks and Perſians a great many times, and in 1635 it was ceded to the Perſians. It was a ſpacious place, but ill built, and very dirty. The town is watered by two rivers, and the neighbouring country is extremely fertile. The caſtle is of no importance, and the fortifications are made of mud. Over one of the rivers called Zengeric, there is a fine bridge of four arches. Here proviſions are exceedingly cheap: particularly game, and the fruits and wine are admirable. The

public ſquare, or piazza is handſome; and the bazar or market capacious. The public buildings are elegant and large. The river Zengeric iſſues from the lake of Erivan, which is about twenty-five miles in circumference, and contains an iſland, with an Armenian monaſtery, the monks of which lead a life uncommonly auſtere, never ſpeaking to each other but four times a year. Though the lake which ſurrounds them is plentifully ſupplied with the moſt excellent fiſh, and their little iſland abounds with a variety of delicious fruits, they muſt touch neither, except on the four times when they are permitted to ſpeak to each other. All the reſt of the year they are obliged to live upon herbs and roots, and even thoſe muſt not be obtained by cultivation, but ſuch as are the ſpontaneous produce of nature are to be ſelected. Near Erivan is another famous monaſtery called the three churches, which is the reſidence of the great patriarch of the Armenians, under whom are forty-ſeven archbiſhops, who have each four or five ſuffragans. The archbiſhops and ſuffragans uſually reſide in the ſame monaſtery. Every Armenian, above the age of fifteen, is obliged to pay five-pence annually to the great patriarch, whoſe revenue amounts to about ſix hundred thouſand crowns, out of which he pays a conſiderable tribute to the Porte.

About ſeven leagues from the Araxes ſtands Nackſiſan. It was formerly called Artaxata, and was the reſidence of the antient Armenian kings. It is built upon a plain which Hannibal gave to king Artaras, who then made it the captial of all Armenia. The celebrated battle between Lucullus and Mithridates was ſought near it. This city contains many bazars, caravanſeras, public baths, coffee-houſes, handſome ſtreets, &c. It is in thirty-nine degrees north latitude, ſeventy-five degrees fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and ſtands about ſixty-three miles ſouth of Erivan, which in 1635 was ceded by the Turks to the Perſians.

On the Araxes ſtands Zulpha, or Old Zulpha, to diſtinguiſh it from the New, near Iſpahan in Perſia: the above river begins to be navigable about ſix miles below this town. Shah Abbas carried ſeventy-ſeven thouſand families from this province, to help to repeople ſome of the depopulated parts of his own kingdom. About Zulpha are ſeveral Armenian monaſteries, the monks of which are Roman Catholics of the Dominican order; many young Armenians are ſent to Rome to be educated, who on their return fill the vacancies that may have happened in the monaſteries. The diſtrict of Zulpha contains about ſix thouſand ſouls, who are all Roman Catholics, and do not in the leaſt differ in their worſhip from thoſe of Europe, except that maſs is celebrated in the Armenian inſtead of the Latin tongue. At the foot of a high mountain near Zulpha are ſome medicinal ſprings, which are celebrated for many virtues, but more particularly for curing thoſe that are bit by any venomous creature.

Though Armenia Minor was formerly very conſiderable, it is at preſent of no great importance: on the eaſt, it is bounded by the Euphrates; on the ſouth, by mount Tauris; and on the weſt and north, by a long chain of mountains called Antitauris, Amanus, &c. It is in general a mountainous country, but in ſome places there are fruitful vallies, abounding with olives, vines, &c. The manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the people always were, and ſtill are, the ſame as thoſe of Armenia Major. It is imagined that Armenia was firſt peopled by the immediate deſcendants of Noah; it then became a kingdom, and remained ſo till it was ſubdued by the Perſians, it was afterwards poſſeſſed by the immediate ſucceſſors of Alexander the Great, and afterwards conquered by the Romans. About the year 687 the Saracens made themſelves maſters of it, and kept poſſeſſion till they were driven out by the Turks and Tartars, from whom it had the name of Turcomania. The ark of Noah reſted on mount Ararat in Armenia; the aſcent to which is not only difficult and tedious, but even dangerous through the ruggedneſs of ſome parts, and deep ſands of others; not to mention the danger from the beaſts of prey, the horrid precipices are beheld with horror even by the guides themſelves.

V. The laſt province in the eaſtern diviſion of Aſiatic Turky is the county of Georgia, called alſo Gurgiſtan (the termination "tan," from the Celtic, ſignifying country); in treating of which, we ſhall comprehend Mingrelia, Imaretta, Abcaſſia, and Corrania. This province is bounded on the north, by Circaſſia; on the ſouth, by Armenia; on the eaſt, by Dagheſtan; and, on the weſt, by the Euxine, or Black ſea: it includes Colchis, Iberia, and Albania. It is partly ſubject to the Turks, and partly to the Perſians; but there is no dependence upon them; ſo that the ſovereignty of thoſe two powers over them is rather nominal than real; for as they are a hardy, warlike people, and can eaſily retire to and defend the paſſes of their mountains, it would be dangerous to quarrel with them, as no army could ſubdue them; and, from the nature of their country; they might become exceeding troubleſome by making excurſions into the neighbouring Turkiſh and Perſian provinces.

This country abounds with mountains and woods, which are interſperſed with a variety of beautiful vales and fertile plains. It has a dry air, cold in winter, and hot in ſummer; produces all kinds of fruits, which are excellent, and the bread is hardly to be paralleled. There is plenty of fine cattle: the pork is extremely fine, the wild and tame fowl are excellent; and the fiſh, both in ſea and river, equal any in the univerſe. The country likewiſe produces great quantities of excellent ſilk. The inhabitants have better wine, and drink more of that liquor, than any other people in the world. A horſe-load of the beſt (about three hundred weight) ſells for only eight ſhillings.

The Georgians are robuſt, valiant, and of a ſocial temper, very truſty and faithful, endowed with good natural parts, but for want of education, vicious. The women are generally very comely, and their features and complexion the moſt admired of any people in the eaſt, as well as their parts and genius: for hence it is, that the Turks and Perſians repleniſh their harams or ſeraglios: but ſome of the Georgians, who have more decency and conſcience than their neighbours, follow the Armenian cuſtom of marrying their daughters when infants, to prevent their being ſold for ſlaves, or taken away by the great lords for concubines.

They chuſe the moſt ſprightly and ingenious lads to be educated in their academies at Conſtantinople and Iſpahan, obliging them to apply themſelves to ſuch ſtudies and arts, as they find they have a genius for; and out of theſe, are all their beglerbegs or viceroys, beys, baſſas, and governors taken, when they are of an age proper to be employed in any commands or buſineſs.

From hence, alſo, are moſt of the young beauties collected, which furniſh and adorn their ſeraglios. The Jews of Conſtantinople and other great towns, are the factors for this unnatural kind of merchandize: they purchaſe them of their parents or maſters, when they are very young, diſpoſing of them again, either in the royal ſeraglios, or to the baſſas and great men; and to that end, give them ſuch an education, as may render them moſt agreeable to their maſters. As to the male ſlaves that are ſold, it is no wonder their maſters make money of them, it being the moſt ready road to their advancement, both in the Ottoman and Perſian courts.

The Georgians are poſſeſſed of many qualities: they are great liars, implacable in their hatred, and unforgiving to thoſe who have offended them. They do not deem drunkenneſs, luxury, or libertiniſm crimes, or even follies. The clergy in general are worſe than the laity, and the women are as vicious as either: they impair their beauty with paint, and their minds by the moſt licentious behaviour. They are all uſurers, and affect a grand deportment. Many individuals of the ſurrounding nations reſide here, and the Armenians in particular are more numerous than the Georgians themſelves. They are likewiſe richer, and occupy the principal places of truſt and power. All religions are tolerated in Georgia, every one being at liberty to think, pray, and ſpeak as he pleaſes.

They imitate the Perſians in eating, ſitting, lying, &c. they have buttons and loops to their veſts, and wear them open at their breaſts. The habits of the women are entirely Perſian; the men's covering for the legs and feet is in the Perſian faſhion, but their bonnets or hats reſemble thoſe of the Polanders. Their houſes are all built after the Perſian model.

The prince of Georgia is a Mahometan, but the generality of the people pretend to be Chriſtians, for they are ſo extremely ignorant, that they ſcarcely underſtand the meaning of what they profeſs. They build their churches upon high and almoſt inacceſſible places, where they are abandoned to the injuries of the weather, and ſuffered to be the habitations of birds. From their ſituation the Georgians can ſee them at a great diſtance, when they never fail to ſalute them with great reſpect, but take care ſeldom or never to enter them. In ſome of the towns, however, the churches are kept pretty decently. Beſides the patriarch, there are ſeveral biſhops, and a great number of inferior clergy.

Teflis, Gory, Caket, Zagan Suram, and Aly, are the only conſiderable and fortified towns in Georgia; and the

principal

principal rivers are the Kur or Cyrus and the Aragus; the firſt riſes in the Moſchian mountains, and diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, the latter ſprings from the mountains which ſeparate Iberia from Colchis, and falls into the Cyrus.

The capital city Teflis, is ſituated in forty-two degrees, forty-ſeven minutes noth latitude, and forty-ſeven degrees five minutes eaſt longitude, and is one of the beſt in Aſia: it is watered by the river Kur. The walls are ſtrong and handſome: it contains fourteen churches, ſix belong to the Georgians, and eight to the Armenians: the cathedral, called Sian, is a ſtone edifice, built near the river. A large dome ſupported by four maſſy pillars, riſes in the middle: the inſide is filled with miſerable Greek paintings, and the biſhop's palace adjoins to it. The inhabitants of this city are thought to amount to twenty thouſand.

There is a large fortreſs on the declivity of the mountain, containing an arſenal, a market, and a public ſquare. There is not a ſingle moſque; which is remarkable, as the city belongs to the Perſians, and the prince himſelf hath uſually been a Mahometan; but prince Heraclius, who is ſuppoſed to reign in Georgia at preſent, hath attempted to throw off both the Turkiſh and Perſian yoke, and to prevent the inhabitants from ſelling their progeny as ſlaves: it is hoped his laudable endeavours herein will prove ſucceſsful.

Their ſtaple commodity is furs: but great quantities of raw ſilk are ſent to various places, as the Georgians know nothing of weaving. The bazan, caravanſeras, and ſome of the houſes are built of ſtone, but the generality are only erected with mud and brick and are low and dark. The ſtreets are very badly paved, and conſequently diſagreeable either in wet or dry weather. The palace of the prince is a ſuperb building; it is adorned with extenſive and beautiful gardens, aviaries, falconries, &c. and before it there is a large ſquare ſurrounded by ſhops. Many tolerable houſes and fine gardens render the environs very pleaſant for ſeveral miles round. The grand viſir's houſe is the fineſt in the city, and the capuchin's monaſtery is pleaſant.

The Georgians deal by way of barter; travellers have therefore an opportunity of procuring the moſt excellent proviſions in great quantities, in exchange for necklaces, rings, bracelets, knives, pins, needles, &c. They uſe no weights or meaſures; and are ſuch bad arithmeticians, that they cannot count an hundred. The Italian fathers receive from Rome but twenty-five crowns each annually to maintain them; but are permitted to practice phyſic, of which they know very little. If the patient dies, they receive no pay, and if he recovers, ſlaves, wine, cows, ſheep, &c. are ſent to the convent, by way of gratuity.

A merchant in Georgia, is leſs reſpected than a mechanic: and a mechanic leſs than a huſbandman. The principal merchants and traders are Armenians, whom the Georgians naturally hate, and look upon them in the ſame deſpicable light, as Jews are conſidered in Europe. One of the moſt reſpectable employments in Georgia is that of a public executioner: the profeſſion is honourable, and the profeſſors become rich: if any man can trace a hangman amongſt his anceſtors, he is extremely proud of it, and never fails to mention it frequently with exultation; at the ſame time obſerving, that nothing is ſo noble as executing juſtice, and that the ſafety of the ſtate depends on the extermination of criminals.

When a war happens between Turky and Perſia, this country (like Flanders in Europe) is uſually the ſeat of it. In 1578, the Turkiſh forces, under the command of Muſtapha Baſſa, took Teflis; but the Perſians coming to the aſſiſtance of the Georgians, the Turkiſh troops were defeated and ſeventy thouſand of them ſlain. In 1583 hoſtilities were recommenced, but the Perſians were again victorious.

Beſides what is uſually allowed to the prince of Georgia, by the Perſian monarch, he has the cuſtoms of Teflis, the duties upon brandy and melons, and one ſheep for every fire-hearth in the whole country, amounting to forty thouſand; the crown eſtates ſupply him with wine, butter, wax, grain of all kinds, vegetables, fruits, &c. A great deal of gunpowder is made in Georgia, particularly at Teflis, the mountains near that city producing large quantities of nitre. The people eat and burn a great deal of linſeed oil, which they have in great plenty; but they value only the ſeed, as they have no idea of beating the ſtalk for ſpinning.

On the death of a Georgian, a biſhop ſays maſs over the corpſe, for which his pay is one hundred crowns. If the deceaſed has not left money ſufficient to diſcharge this exorbitant demand, ſome of his quondam friends very obligingly ſell his wife and children for ſlaves, to raiſe the money; for the clergy muſt not go unpaid; the biſhop then ſays maſs, and afterwards lays a letter upon the breaſt of the corpſe, which is only a complimentary card to St. Peter, to inform him, that the funeral expences have been honeſtly paid; and to intreat him therefore to be ſo obliging as to open the gates of paradiſe to the departed ſoul; the body is then wrapt up in linen, and buried. The ſame abſurd cuſtom of ſending a note by the dead to Mahomet, is practiſed by his diſciples.

The men in Georgia are generally more ignorant than the women, who receive ſome education in the monaſteries. Their language is remarkable for its beautiful ſimplicity. And with reſpect to the country in general, that ingenious traveller Mr. Tournefort obſerves, that "Paradiſe muſt undoubtedly have been in the way between Erzerum and Teflis, if it be allowed to take the Phaſis for Piſon, and Araxes for Gihon; and then, not to remove paradiſe too far from the heads of theſe rivers; it muſt of neceſſity be placed in the beautiful vales of Georgia."

Mingrelia, known to the antients by the appellation of Colchis, lies in the weſtern parts of Iberia or Georgia, and is bounded on the eaſt by Georgia properly ſo called; on the weſt, by the Euxine ſea; on the north, by mount Caucaſus; and on the ſouth by Armenia and part of Pontus. It is watered by many rivers, namely the Corax, Hippus Cyancus, Chanſtus, Abſarus, Ciſſa, Ophir, and Phaſis, where the Argonauts landed. All the above rivers empty themſelves into the Euxine ſea, but none of them are conſiderable, except the Pharis, which riſes in mount Caucaſus. The inhabitants of this celebrated mountain are ſaid, by the moſt credible writers, to have little beſides ſpeech, which can intitle them to humanity: they are tall and well-made, their looks are fierce, and indicate the ſavage diſpoſition of their minds. They are the moſt daring, ferocious, and determined robbers in the world.

This country is in many parts extremely woody, very uneven, full of hills, and but little cultivated; the ſoil is bad and ſterile; and the fruits ill-taſted and unwholeſome, except the grapes, which might be converted into ſome of the beſt wine in the univerſe, if the natives knew how to make it. The rains and humid vapours, which mingle with the hot exhalations frequent here, occaſion peſtilences, and a variety of other diſeaſes. The earth is ſo moiſt, that the few who turn their thoughts to agriculture, ſow their wheat and barley without plowing; and for their other ſeeds they turn up the land with little wooden ploughs, which are ſufficiently ſtrong to make the furrows in ſo ſoft a ſoil.

Colchis was ſaid by the antients to be exceedingly pleaſant and fertile, and even to abound in mines of gold, which gave riſe to the celebrated fable of the golden fleece, and the Argonautic expedition; for the inhabitants uſed to catch the gold duſt, which was brought down by the torrents from mount Caucaſus, by ſetting fleeces of wool acroſs ſome of the narrow paſſages of thoſe torrents. They have plenty of beeves, hogs, wild boars, ſtags, and other veniſon: likewiſe partridges, pheaſants, quails, &c. On mount Caucaſus, falcons, eagles, pelicans, tygers, lions, leopards, wolves, and jackalls breed.

They make their bread of a ſmall grain called gomm, it is agreeable to the taſte, ſalubrious, cooling and laxative; but the people of quality eat wheaten bread. The principal food is beef and pork, the latter being excellent. The nobility ſpend a great deal of time in killing and catching game, ſuch as pheaſants, water fowl, &c. but their favourite diverſion is flying the falcon at the heron; which is no ſooner taken, than they cut the beautiful tuft of feathers from its head and let it go again. They have a great number of excellent horſes, which are never ſhod nor fed with corn.

The houſes are every where interſperſed over the country; but there are no towns except two little ones by the ſea-ſide. With reſpect to caſtles, there are about ten in number, in the principal of which, named Rues, the prince keeps his court. Their caſtles are built of ſtone, to the height of about fifty feet, in the midſt of a wood. Here their treaſures are depoſited, though the garriſon conſiſts only of about ſixty perſons: near the caſtle are ſeveral magazines for proviſions, built of wood, which likewiſe ſerve for places of retreat upon emergencies. They have many huts made of branches of trees, canes, and reeds; and are ſo ſecure in theſe retreats, that none can come at them, but by one winding narrow paſſage, which is always ſtopped up when they are in danger of an attack from an enemy.

They

They build their houſes of wood, but never raiſe them above two ſtories. They have neither windows nor chimnies, but are furniſhed with beds and couches. The whole family, with the cattle, all lie in one room at night.

With reſpect to the natives of Mingrelia; the men are well-proportioned, and the women pretty, but they paint their faces and eyebrows; they wear their hair in curled ringlets, are witty and polite, but vain, luxurious, treacherous, and ferocious; dextrous thieves, and glory in the practice. They think it prudent as well as lawful to have many wives, becauſe they bring them many children, whom they can ſell for money, or barter for neceſſaries: when children, however, come too quick, they murder them without the leaſt remorſe; as they alſo do the ſick and aged, which they deem an act of benevolence. Adultery is thought but a trifle: when a man detects another in familiarity with his wife, he obliges him to pay a hog, which being immediately dreſſed, all three ſit down very lovingly to feaſt upon it together.

The peaſants are compelled to maintain the lords, who ſell them and their whole families whenever they think proper. They are the umpires in all diſputes between their vaſſals; but when there is a quarrel between any of their great lords, they have recourſe to arms. Bows and arrows, ſwords and lances, are their hoſtile weapons.

The laity ſuffer very little of their beard to grow, but thoſe of the eccleſiaſtics are very long. They ſhave the head, leaving only a little hair upon the forehead and round the ears. Their bonnet is made of felt, and in winter is lined with fur, but is not of much uſe to them, for when it rains they put it in their pocket, and go bareheaded to ſave it. They are ſo poor, that the common people go almoſt naked, and have only a covering of a triangular form, which they turn againſt the wind or rain. They wear a ſhirt, but have ſeldom more than one at a time; and that they only waſh three times in the year. The ſhirt is tucked into a pair of breeches, and on the feet they wear ſandals made of the untanned hide of a buffalo, which are faſtened with thongs of the ſame. They wear ſnow ſhoes in the winter.

Both ſexes of every claſs eat together. Thus grooms and ſcullions dine daily with the king and queen. On holidays they eat veniſon, beef and pork, but at other times the maſters have fiſh and pulſe, and the inferiors nothing but gomms. Both ſexes uſually get drunk at their entertainments, when the men boaſt of their theſts, and the women of their amours. If the weather will permit, they dine in the open court.

The revenues of the prince are eſtimated at about twenty thouſand crowns per annum, which are raiſed by fines, impoſitions, the ſale of ſlaves, and duties on all imports and exports; he ſpends very little of this money, for his crown lands are more than ſufficient to maintain him, and the people are obliged to work for him for nothing. His forces are principally cavalry, and do not amount to above four thouſand effective men. Every lord leads his own battle, but they are very badly diſciplined. They have money which bears the Perſian ſtamp, but is coined in Georgia, the value of which is always fluctuating. All commerce is carried on by barter.

Though the Mingrelians profeſs to be Chriſtians, they are extremely ignorant in all religious matters; few of the clergy can either write or read, but they greatly impoſe upon the people, by pretending to divination. When a perſon is ſick, the prieſt is ſent for, not to pray by him, but to predict whether he will live or die. Having opened a book, he gravely looks in it, though he is unable to read a line; then ſhutting the book ſuddenly, he declares that the patient will inevitably die, unleſs a very handſome preſent is made to himſelf. The ſick perſon being greatly terrified, intreats the prieſt to take what he pleaſes. The conſcientious clergyman does not want twice bidding, but packs up whatever he can lay his hands upon, and drives away all the poor man's cattle into the bargain: thus do the ignorant clergy plunder theſe ſuperſtitious people.

The governor allows the catholics four hundred vaſſals, who are obliged to work for him, that he may be ſupplied with whatever he wants. In return for their labour, he does not give them any pay, but takes away their wives, and ſells their children for ſlaves. Sometimes he makes a tour through his whole dioceſe, which extends not only over all Mingrelia, but throughout Imaretta, Gruiel, Abca, and Mount Caucaſus. In theſe excurſions, he does not attempt to regulate the paſtors, or inſtruct the people, but plunders and robs both clergy and laity of all he can find. The Catholicus has ſix biſhops immediately under him; and they make the whole Chriſtian religion to conſiſt in the abſtaining from fleſh. They neither preach nor pray; their moſt important buſineſs being to get drunk daily: it is therefore no wonder that theſe people have been deemed by travellers ſome of the moſt abandoned wretches upon the face of the earth.

After baptizing a child, which is done by immerſion, prieſt, parents, godfathers and gueſts indulge themſelves in gluttony and intoxication to the greateſt exceſs. When a man wants a wife, he muſt buy her: a tolerable good price is given for a virgin, leſs for a widow, and leaſt of all for a woman who has been divorced. They may divorce their wives either for barrenneſs or ill-nature. They keep their dead forty days above-ground, during which time they mourn; but after the body is buried, they get drunk in order to forget the deceaſed. A burial is frequently the ruin of the whole family, as the prieſt who ſays maſs lays claim to all that belonged to the deceaſed.

Beſides Mingrelia, there are two principalities in Weſtern Georgia, viz. Imaretta and Abaſſia. They lie to the ſouthward of Mingrelia, along the Euxine ſea: the princes of both are tributary to the Grand Signor. Imaretta is about one hundred and twenty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth: it contains many hills and woods, but the plains produce corn, cattle, pulſe, &c. They have ſome excellent iron mines, carry on a great deal of commerce, and coin money. The principal towns are Cotatis and Akalziki. Cotatis is now the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſſa. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a ſtrong caſtle to command and defend it: it is watered by the Phaſis. The town has no walls, and contains only about two hundred houſes. It lies open on all ſides, except where the rivers and mountain ſurround it. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there is a citadel on an eminence, which has a double wall, and is flanked with high towers. It lies in forty-two degrees twenty-three minutes north latitude, and forty-three degrees fifty-four minutes eaſt longitude. Akalziki is likewiſe the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſſa. It is ſituated in a hole, ſurrounded by about twenty hills, in forty-one degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and forty-four degrees fifty five minutes eaſt longitude; the river Kar flows very near it. The town contains about four hundred houſes; the inhabitants are a mixture of Georgians, Armenians, Jews, Turks, Greeks, &c. who have ſeveral churches and a ſynagogue. The walls and fortifications are old and ruinous, and the houſes are built of wood.

The northernmoſt of theſe countries is Abcaſſia, having the Euxine ſea to the ſouth; Circaſſia on the weſt, and mount Caucaſus on the north and eaſt. The principal traffic is in ſlaves: the inhabitants, however, deal in the ſkins of tygers, deer, &c. box wood, honey, wax, and thread, which they exchange with the merchants for other goods. They go almoſt naked, and live in little mean low huts. They were once Chriſtians, but now little better than ſavages.

It is proper to obſerve here, that the Mamlucks, who were once ſo celebrated in Aſia and Egypt, and contended ſo long with the Ottomans for ſuperiority, were originally Georgian children, who being brought up to a military life, became ſo powerful as to revolt againſt their maſters, and uſurp the throne of Egypt.

Comaniaci by moſt geographers is included in Georgia: it is bounded by the Caſpian ſea on the eaſt: by a ridge of mountains which part it from Circaſſia, to the weſt; by Aſiatic Muſcovy, to the north; and by Georgia, to the ſouth: the country is thinly inhabited, and badly cultivated; but the ſoil is flat, low, and fertile. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, which deſcend from the mountains about Caucaſus. The climate is rather cold, and pretty much ſubject to rains. The inhabitants, who are called Comani, or Kamouche, live principally by plunder. They wear Perſian linen and ſilks, but dreſs like the natives of Little Tartary: the men wear ſhort jackets and drawers, and the women long looſe gowns which reſemble ſhifts. They have nothing that can be called a town, but their little hamlets conſiſt of about ſixty huts. Their food is milk, game, the fleſh of their cattle, honey, ſuch fruits as their country ſpontaneouſly produces, and rice, which they have from the Perſians.

Guriel is too little known to admit of a deſcription: it is a ſmall diſtrict belonging to Mingrelia, and the manners of the people are ſaid to reſemble thoſe of that country.

The Dageſtan mountaineers are accounted ſome of the moſt ferocious of all the Aſiatics, and are deemed the deſcendants of the antient Parthians. Their country is

bounded

HABITS of DAGESTAN TARTARS of TARCU,

on the borders of Persia!

Goodnight scalp.

bounded on the eaſt by the Caſpian ſea; on the weſt, by mount Caucaſus; on the ſouth, by part of Perſia; and on the north, by Circaſſia. Theſe people extend themſelves from the capital of Circaſſia, for about forty leagues along the coaſt of the Caſpian ſea.

The Dageſtans circumciſe their children, and uſe ſome other Mahometan ceremonials, but are ſtupidly ignorant of religion in general. They wear coats of mail, carry helmets and bucklers, and uſe bows, arrows, darts, lances, and broad ſwords. Their faces are very ugly and tawny, and their hair black and diſhevelled: their dreſs is a long looſe gown made of a dark coarſe cloth, and over this they throw a cloak made of the ſkin of ſheep or ſome other animal. Their caps, which hang down to their eye-brows, are made of various ſlips of cloth or fur. Their ſhoes conſiſt of only one piece of ſkin, and are ſewed about the ancles in a clumſy manner. Their food is the fleſh of their numerous herds, and milk.

Theſe Tartars of the mountain ſpare neither age, ſex, or condition, but rob all alike, and even plunder their very neareſt relations, whoſe children they ſell without the leaſt remorſe. They oblige all merchants to pay them tribute, and, if ſtrong enough, rob them of every thing, which occaſion the caravans always to have a powerful eſcort.

There are as many petty lords, called myrſas, as towns: from them a chief is ſelected, called ſhemkal. On the death of the ſhemkal, the myrſas aſſemble in a ring, in the middle of which ſtands the prieſt, who throws a golden ball among them at random, and he that firſt touches it is duly elected. His power, however, is limited by the others, nor is he much reſpected. Theſe Tartars are ſometimes confounded with the Leſgee, who are a different people, though near neighbours. Tarchu, the capital of this country, is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian ſea, about forty miles north of Derbent: it conſiſts of about one thouſand wooden houſes, built after the Perſian manner, but with leſs elegance.

Between the Euxine and Caſpian ſeas ſtands mount Caucaſus: this is one of the higheſt mountains, or rather chain of mountains, in the univerſe; innumerable firtrees are found upon it. It is full of terrible rocks, hideous precipices, diſmal caves, &c. Paths have been cut through it with immenſe labour for the convenience of paſſengers, but by reaſon of the ſteepneſs they are difficult to paſs even in ſummer, but in winter much more ſo, on account of the vaſt quantities of ice and ſnow. The higheſt parts are covered with ſnow all the year, which makes the paſſage exceedingly dangerous in windy weather; for the clouds of ſnow, when driven by a hurricane, have been known to overwhelm whole companies of men and horſes. The paſſage quite acroſs the mountain is about one hundred and twenty miles in extent; by the way are ſeveral villages, well ſupplied with proviſions; for the ſoil of theſe aſtoniſhing mountains is fruitful, and produces plenty of corn, grapes, fruits, honey, cattle, &c. which is principally attributed to the richneſs of the manure yielded by the ſnow. The inhabitants have ſtore of poultry, eggs, pulſe, bread, &c. They breed hogs, whoſe fleſh is very fat and delicious. They call themſelves Chriſtians, but are in reality little entitled to that epithet: they are ſubject to the Ottomans.

The antients deemed the Euxine ſea only a lake. It has been uſually denominated the Black ſea, not from the colour of its water, or of its ſand, but from the furious tempeſts ſaid to rage here; though it has not more frequent nor more violent ſtorms than other ſeas. It extends about nine hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and about three hundred and eighty from north to ſouth, in ſome parts, but is leſs in breadth in others. It is encompaſſed by Crim Tartary and Circaſſia, on the north; Turky in Europe, on the weſt; Georgia, on the eaſt; and Anatolia, or Aſia Minor on the ſouth. None but the Turks are permitted to navigate this ſea, though infinite advantages would redound to the Porte, if it was open to the Franks, or Europeans, as the Ottomans are very unſkilful mariners, know little of navigation, are without charts, and do not underſtand the compaſs. As this ſea hath no communication with the Mediterranean, and receives many large rivers into its boſom, its waters are freſher and clearer than thoſe of moſt other ſeas. The principal rivers which fall into it, are the Danube, the Don or Tanais, the Nieper, the Phaſis, and the Nieſter. The Euxine ſea joins to the Palus Mœotis, or ſea of Azoph, by the ſtraights of Caffa, which were termed the Boſphorus Cimmerius by the antients.

SECT. III.

Containing a deſcription of the weſtern diviſion of Aſiatic Turky; comprehending Natolia, or Leſſer Aſia, divided into, 1. Natolia, or Anatolia Proper; 2. Amaſia; 3. Aladulia; 4. Caramania.

I. ASIA Minor, or Anatolia, is bounded on the north by the Euxine ſea; on the north-weſt, by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Propontis or ſea of Marmora, and the Thracian Boſphorus, or ſtraight of Conſtantinople; on the ſouth, by the Levant ſea, Syria, and the Euphrates; and on the eaſt, by the Mediterranean. It lies between thirty-ſeven and forty-one degrees, thirty minutes of north latitude, and twenty-ſeven and forty degrees of eaſt longitude, extending in length about ſix hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and in breadth about three hundred and twenty from north to ſouth. Modern geographers divide it into Anatolia, properly ſo called, Amaſia, Aladulia, and Caramania. Theſe provinces antiently included Galatia, Paphlagonia, Pontus, Bithinia, Myna, Phrygia, Lydia, Moenia, Ionia, Æolis, Caria, Doris, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Cappadocia, Lycia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia. Anatolia is under the government of a viceroy or beglerbeg, to whom ſeveral baſſas, and a great number of ſangiacs are ſubordinate.

This country naturally is, and always hath been deemed one of the fineſt in the univerſe; yet ſuch is the miſerable policy of the Turkiſh government, and the indolence of the people, that it hath been ſuffered to become a mere wilderneſs; and, though uncommonly rich, fertile, and well-watered, they have permitted it to be over-run with weeds, briars, and brambles. The air is exceedingly ſerene and temperate, and would doubtleſs become ſtill more ſalubrious, if the lands were properly cultivated; for the inhabitants are not incommoded by exceſſive heats, nor chilled by intenſe froſts. The few cultivated parts produce, with little labour, plenty of various ſorts of corn, exquiſite grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, figs, dates, &c. beſides abundance of coffee, rhubarb, opium, baliam, galls, and many other valuable drugs, gums, &c. The principal rivers are thoſe known by the name of Xanthus, Cydnus, Mæander, Granicus, Scamander, Cayſter, Hermus, Pactotus, and Caicus, which diſcharge themſelves into the Mediterranean and Euxine ſeas, the Archipelago and the Euphrates. Its principal lake is Guol-Bug-Shaw, fifty miles long and twenty-two broad.

Anatolia Proper is the neareſt to Europe, and the largeſt of the four provinces into which Aſia Minor is divided. It extends almoſt from twenty-ſix to thirty-five degrees of eaſt longitude, and from thirty-ſeven to forty-one degrees of north latitude, being bounded by the Archipelago and Propontis to the weſt; by the Euxine ſea, to the north; by Caramania, on the ſouth; and by Amaria and Aladulia, on the eaſt. This province is governed by a beglerbeg, who has ſubordinate to him five ſangiacs, two hundred and forty-five zaims, and ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and forty trinars; the number of troops are ſixty thouſand; the annual revenue of the beglerbeg is one million of aſpers. It contains the provinces of Bithynia, Myſia, the Leſſer Phrygia, Galatia, and Paphlagonia. Bithynia is ſeparated from Europe only by the Thracian Boſphorus: the ſoil is naturally rich, but is greatly neglected by the indolent Turks.

The capital of Bithynia is Pruſa, or Burſa, as the Turks call it: this city was the metropolis of the whole Ottoman empire before the Turks poſſeſſed themſelves of Conſtantinople. It lies in forty degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, and twenty-nine degrees thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſituate at the foot of mount Olympus, twenty miles from the ſea of Marmora, and fifty-eight ſouth of Conſtantinople: it is exceedingly well built, and deemed one of the beſt paved cities in all the Turkiſh empire; the ſtreets are ſpacious, the caravanſeras noble and convenient, and the moſques magnificient; the latter are adorned with cupolas covered with lead, and computed at about three hundred in number: in one of the moſques, the tombs of many of the antient Turkiſh ſovereigns are to be ſeen. This city is a place of conſiderable traffic. In the bezeſtine, all kinds of commodities of home manufacture, and others from the Levant, are expoſed to ſale: it is a large edifice, well built, and contains many excellent ſhops and warehouſes: the workmen here manufacture the beſt ſilks, hangings, carpets, tapeſtries, &c. in Turky. The city is about three miles in circumference, but the walls are falling to decay. It is computed to contain forty thouſand Turks. The ſuburbs, which are more

ſpacious and handſome than the city itſelf, are inhabited by four thouſand Jews, five hundred Armenians, and three hundred Greek families, beſides many foreigners. The fine orchards, gardens, plantations of mulberry, plantain, and other trees, &c. afford ſome of the moſt delightful and ſhady walks that imagination can conceive. All the neceſſaries and even luxuries of life, are excellent in their kinds, very plentiful, and quite reaſonable.

There is a caſtle on a hill, in the middle of the city; it was once the ſultan's palace; but is now going to decay. The ſeraglio, built by Mahomet IV. is a noble edifice. The city is governed by a baſſa, a cady or moula, and a janiſary aga, who has about two hundred and thirty janiſaries under him: the Greeks have three handſome churches in the ſuburbs, the Armenians one, and the Jews four ſynagogues. In the city are ſome excellent hot baths, and about a mile from it the baths of Calypſo, which are handſome ſtructures covered with domes, and much frequented on account of the great reputation the waters have obtained for their uncommon medicinal virtues.

About thirty miles from Conſtantinople, ſtands Nice, or as the Turks call it Nickor, in forty degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude, and twenty-nine degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, being ſituated near a gulf of the ſea of Marmora, called Aſcanioor Aſcu: it contains about ten thouſand inhabitants, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, whoſe commerce is very great in corn, fruit, tapeſtries, fine cloths, and other merchandize brought from the Levant: there is a ſeraglio in the higheſt part of the town. The ſtreets are large, and the houſes well built. This city was celebrated for being the ſeat of the firſt general council convened by Conſtantine, A. D. 325, to conſider the doctrine of the Arians, of which heterodox opinion great part of the Chriſtian world then were.

The city of Nicomedia received its name from Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, who made it his metropolis, reſided in it, and enlarged and embelliſhed it. The appellation which the Turks gave it is Iſuria, or Iſurigimid. It is large, handſome, and populous; and is ſituated at the end of a gulf of its own name, forty miles north eaſt from Burſa: in point of ſituation, it exceeds all the cities in the Turkiſh territories, Conſtantinople excepted: the inhabitants, compoſed of Turks, Greeks, Armenians and Jews, are ſaid to amount to thirty thouſand, who carry on a conſiderable traffic in ſilks, cotton, woollen, and linen cloths, earthen ware, and glaſs: it is alſo the principal place belonging to the Turks for building ſhips. Several curious antient inſcriptions in Greek and Latin are ſtill viſible in many parts of the city. To the weſtward is a fountain of mineral waters, much admired for its medicinal qualities, and a little beyond there is a mole, ſuppoſed to have been formerly made for the ſecurity of the ſhipping in the harbour, which is about a quarter of a league long, and twelve yards broad. The gulf, which receives its name from this city, is very long and deep, but only about a mile and a half broad.

The city of Chalcedon, which was once very opulent, is now an inconſiderable village; its ſituation is on the iſthmus of a peninſula, about ſeventeen miles to the eaſtward of Conſtantinople, on the oppoſite ſhore of the Boſphorus. This town has a tolerable harbour, and the river Chalcedon flows to the eaſtward of it: there was antiently in it a temple of Venus, and an oracle of Apollo. The once opulent city of Lybyſſa, famous for the death of Hannibal, ſtands between Nicomedia and Chalcedon; but it is now dwindled to a very poor and mean village.

Geographers uſually deſcribe Myſia and the Leſſer Phrygia together, as the exact limits are not aſcertained: in conjunction, they are bounded on the north, by the Propontis; on the ſouth, by Lydia and the Archipelago; on the eaſt, by Phrygia Major; and by the Helleſpont on the weſt. The famed mount Olympus, or rather the double chain of mountains ſo denominated, is ſituated in this country. Theſe are thought to be the higheſt mountains in the eaſt, particularly the central part, or the celebrated mount Ida of the antients: they are continually covered with ſnow, and the ſides abound with pine and other trees, with wild thyme and other ſhrubs, more particularly the laudanum ciſtos with broad leaves. About the beginning of the dog-days the air of mount Ida is ſo ſerene, that not a ſingle breath of air appears ſtirring, and at night the ſun's rays appear to dart all round the horizon, which make it appear as if on fire.

Among the principal rivers in this part of the country, we may reckon the Granicus and Æopus, which diſcharge themſelves into the ſea of Marmora; and the Simois and Xanthus, which empty themſelves into the Helleſpont: the Caicus, with the Pergamus, and Cayſter, flow through Myſia, which contains the following places.

Cizicus or Cyzium, (which is now Chizillo, and Spiga,) though antiently a magnificent city, is at preſent but an inconſiderable town, ſituated about thirty miles weſtward of Burſa, on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the ſea of Marmora: Oppoſite to this town, in the Propontis are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, which are called the Marble iſlands, from the great number of marble quarries in them: they likewiſe abound in corn, fruits, cattle, cotton, wine, &c.

The city of Lampſacus, or Lampſaco, hath loſt much of its antient ſplendor: it is but a ſmall place at preſent, thinly inhabited by a few Greeks and Turks: but its port is convenient. It is ſituated at the mouth of the Helleſpont, oppoſite to Gallipoli in Europe. The neighbouring country is exceedingly fruitful in vines and pomegranates: the former even the indolent Turks cultivate, and make excellent wine and brandy to mix with their ſherbet. It is related, that Alexander, having vowed the deſtruction of this place, and hearing that the inhabitants were coming to implore his mercy, he ſwore he would reject their petition; which the citizens being acquainted with they addreſſed him to deſtroy their city, and were ſaved by this ſtratagem, the young hero thinking his oath might not be diſpenſed with.

Abydos ſtands in forty degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, and twenty-ſeven degrees ſixteen minutes eaſt longitude, upon the ſtraight that divides Aſia from Europe, which is three miles over. It is now called Avido or Avio, and was formerly eſteemed the key of Aſia. Here Xerxes began his famous bridge, which was ſo well completed in a week, that one hundred and ſeventy thouſand foot and eighty thouſand horſe, incluſive of carriages and camels, marched over it. About the year 1235 a mine of gold was found near this city, which enabled Priam king of Troy, to carry on many uſeful and magnificent public works. Philip of Macedon laid ſiege to this city, and took it by ſtorm; but the citizens ſooner than be carried into ſlavery by the conqueror, ſet fire to the city, and then murdered their wives, children, and themſelves. Abydos was an epiſcopal ſee, Hermias, the biſhop thereof, having aſſiſted at the council of Chalcedon. In A. D. 1330 it was betrayed to the Turks by the treachery of the governor's daughter; and Avido is at preſent one of their caſtles upon the Dardanelles.

The following are the principal places in Leſſer Phrygia; Aſſos, formerly a conſiderable ſea-port town on the ſouth coaſt, now an inconſiderable village. Antandros, now called St. Demitri, is ſituated further eaſt of the foot of mount Ida. Though it was formerly a place of importance, it now ſcarcely deſerves mentioning. Adramy Hum, or Endromic, as the Turks call it, ſtands at the mouth of the gulf to which it gives name, oppoſite the iſland of Leſbos. At preſent, like the laſt mentioned places, it is not of the leaſt importance, though formerly it was a place of note, and is mentioned in the Acts of the Apoſtles. Pergamus, which was formerly the metropolis of a kingdom, and is now dwindled to a ſmall village, is ſituated ſixty miles north of Smyrna, on the banks of the Caicus. Here ſtood one of the ſeven churches mentioned in the Revelations: here alſo the celebrated phyſician Galen was born, and parchment invented: ſome affirm that tapeſtry was likewiſe invented at this place. A ſtately temple of Æſculapius once embelliſhed this town. The Turks have a moſque, and the Greeks a church in this town.

Troy, or Ilium, at leaſt the ruins of that once celebrated city, is ſituate near the coaſt of the Ægean ſea or Archipelago, in twenty-ſeven degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-nine degrees thirty minutes north latitude, twenty miles ſouth of the Helleſpont, oppoſite to the iſland of Tenedos, rendered memorable by Homer, Virgil, and other poets, for the ten years ſiege it ſuſtained againſt the united power of the Greeks; the magnificent ruins of which town ſtill remain. This ſiege is ſuppoſed to have happened about the year of the world 2816, before Chriſt 1184 years. The Turks have lately diſcovered a rich ſilver mine near theſe ruins.

Ionia and Eolis being uſually laid together are a long tract of land upon the coaſt of the Ægean ſea or Archipelago, extending from north to ſouth, oppoſite to the iſland of Leſbos. The chief towns are, 1. Elea, ſituate on a bay of the ſea, at the mouth of the river Caicus, the port town to Pergamus. 2. Cuma, antiently the capital of Eolis, from whence one of the ſybils obtained her name. 3. Phocea, ſituate on the ſame coaſt, to the ſouthward of Cuma.

Smyrna,

Smyrna, or Ismir, is situate on the bottom of a fine bay in that part of this division called Ionia, in twenty-seven degrees of eastern longitude, and thirty-seven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, one hundred miles north of the island of Rhodes, and opposite to the island of Scio. It has a large commodious harbour, and a very great foreign trade, consuls from many of the European nations residing here; besides the Turkish inhabitants, which are very numerous, there are several thousands of Greek and Armenian Christians, and abundance of Jews; there are also some hundreds of Franks or Latin Christians, several Popish convents, an archbishop of the Greek church, and a Roman Catholic bishop. The gardens, vineyards, olive-yards and groves about Smyrna, render it exceeding pleasant. The town is about four miles in circumference; the river Melus runs through it, on the banks whereof they have a tradition that Homer was born; but many other places contend with them for that honour. A castle stands at the entrance of the harbour, which commands the shipping going in and out: though the situation of Smyrna is exceeding pleasant, yet few people would chuse to reside there, unless drawn thither in hopes of gain, it being great part of the year excessive hot, unhealthy, and very subject to earthquakes. The town is scarce free from them two years together, and they have continued sometimes forty days without intermission; in a terrible one which disappeared in 1688, the earth opened, the castle and great part of the town were swallowed up, with some thousands of the inhabitants.

This town is plentifully supplied with provisions: the tails of the sheep weigh ten pounds, and are deemed a great dainty. The fish taken in the bay are excellent; wild hogs, hares, and all other kinds of game, fowls, &c. may be had in abundance: the wine, olives, fruits, &c. are all admirable. The musquitos, as well as a much smaller fly, common here, are extremely troublesome, especially to strangers; lemon juice is the best remedy for the fiery tumors which ensue. The European merchants bring hither a great variety of goods from Europe, the East and West-Indies, &c. export fine and coarse wool, silk, cotton, mohair, wax, rhubarb, gall-nuts, opium, aloes, scammony, tutty, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacanth, ammoniac, and Arabic myrrh, frankincense, &c. The Jews generally manage most of the commercial affairs here and in other parts of Turky. This city was the seat of one of the seven Asiatick churches mentioned in the Apocalypse. In the environs, Roman medals have been frequently found: near it are the remains of an antient Roman circus, theatre, and other ruins, &c. In the neighbourhood, a kind of earth is found, which, being boiled with oil, makes excellent soap. The whole country is exceedingly rich and fertile.

The Turks bury without the town, and place either grave-stones or pillars, at the head and feet of the graves, which in general are shaded with cypress trees. In their cemeteries, as well as those of the Christians and Jews, many antiquities in architecture are found: the burying-ground belonging to the English is walled in, and contains some curious monuments, the sculpture of which is admirable. They were, however, not executed at Smyrna, but brought from Italy: one in particular is to the memory of Mr. Bouvrie, who died at Magnesia.

Near Smyrna are several places which are greatly dwindled from their antient splendor; the first we shall mention is, Clazomene, situated on the Ionian peninsula, twenty-eight miles to the South-west of Smyrna: it was one of the twelve antient cities of Asia, and famed as the birth-place of Anaxagoras. It is now called Urla or Vourla, was a city of importance in the time of the Romans, but is now a despicable village. 2. Erythræa, like the last-mentioned place, was formerly a considerable city, but is now only a mean village: it is on the Ionian coast, between Teos and Clazomene. 3. Teos, the birth place of Anacreon, was antiently a good sea-port, but scarce retains any vestige of what it formerly was. 4. Lebidus, or Lebidos, is now a poor sea-port, near the isthmus of the peninsula, though it was formerly one of the twelve capital cities of Asia, and was famed for the games of Bacchus, which were celebrated there. 5. The city of Colophon, about thirty miles south of Smyrna, is one of those which laid claim to the birth of Homer: it had a temple and an oracle, but at present is very inconsiderable. There are scarce any vestiges left of the antient cities of Heraclea, Lathiatum Beryglia, Mylassa, Mnyzon, Alabanda, Stratonice, and Alinda. From the instability of human glory, and the mouldering remains of the strongest and the most magnificent structures we may be taught to reflect on our own approaching mortality, the vanity of life, and the general dissolution which must await all sublunary things.

Ephesus, situate fifty miles south of Smyrna, near the mouth of the river Caistrus, now a poor village of twenty or thirty houses: it is in thirty-eight degrees sixteen minutes north latitude, and twenty-seven degrees three minutes east longitude. It was pleasantly seated near a fine haven, and under the Romans was the metropolis of Asia. It was antiently famous for the temple of Diana, esteemed one of the wonders of the world. This structure, it is said, was four hundred and twenty-five feet long, and two hundred and twenty broad, supported by one hundred and twenty-seven marble pillars, seventy feet in height, destroyed by Erostratus, to eternalize his name, who set it on fire the same night Alexander the Great was born. St. Timothy was the first bishop of this city: and St. Paul honoured them with an excellent epistle, which is part of our canon; but the inhabitants are so exceedingly ignorant that none of them are able to read it. And the third general council was held here. There are still the vestige of a Roman theatre, circus and aqueduct; and heaps of stately ruins, which some suppose to be the remains of Diana's temple; for there was a second temple, it seems, built to the honour of that goddess, after the destruction of the first, not at all inferior to the former in magnificence. The Greeks call this city Efeso, and the Turks have given it the name of Ajasalouch. There is yet standing a church dedicated to St. John the Evangelist, who was buried here: it was erected by the primitive Christians, but is at present converted into a Turkish mosque. The celebrated painter Parrhasius and the weeping philosopher Heraclitus were natives of this place.

An ingenious modern writer observes, that "the Ephesians are now a few Greek peasants, living in extreme wretchedness, dependence, and insensibility: the representatives of an illustrious people, and inhabiting the wreck of their greatness." With respect to the state of religion, the same author says, that the glorious pomp of its heathen worship is no longer remembered; and Christianity, which was there planted and nursed by the apostles, and fostered by general councils, till it increased to fullness of stature, barely lingers on in an existence hardly visible. Such are the present citizens of Ephesus, and such is the condition to which that renowned city has been gradually reduced.

Caria and Doris are usually thrown together, and now called Adinelli, being bounded by the sea on the south and west; and by the river Meander on the north. The chief town in Caria Proper is, Miletus or Miletum, now Palatschia, situate on the south side of the river Meander, near the sea. It was antiently a large city, and had a magnificent temple dedicated to Apollo, once the seat of the oracle. It was also famous for being the place of Thales's nativity. It is now only an inconsiderable village, consisting of shepherds cots, though the ruins of the antient city are very large. Near this place is the mountain Latmus, where the poets feign the moon made her visits to Endymion, with whom she was enamoured.

In Doris, which is the southern part of Caria, the chief towns are, 1. Mindus, a sea-port, situate on a small bay called Iasicus Sinus, and is the seat of a Turkish bassa, or sangiac. 2. Halicarnassus, situate to the southward of Mindus, once the capital of Caria, but now a heap of ruins, famous heretofore for the tomb built by queen Artemisia, in honour of her husband Mausolus, being so noble a structure that it was esteemed one of the wonders of the world. And in this city those two celebrated historians Herodotus and Dyonisius were born. Ceramus, Cyndus, and Cressa on this coast, were once good towns, and famous for their harbours, but have now nothing that renders them remarkable.

Lydia, or Mœnia, is bounded by Phrygia Major, on the east; Cari, on the south; and by Æolis and Mysia on the west. It was a fruitful country, being well watered by some considerable rivers, particularly the Caicus, Hermus, Caistratus, and Pactolus, which run through it from east to west. Of this country the wealthy Crœsus formerly was sovereign. The chief towns are, 1. Sardis, antiently the capital city, and the seat of Crœsus, but now a poor village on the river Pactolus, about forty-eight miles to the eastward of Smyrna. It was a bishop's see, and one of the seven churches of Asia, demolished by an earthquake, and there are still some noble ruins to be seen where the city stood. It contains, however, a large caravansera for the accommodation of travellers and caravans, who pass through it from Smyrna and Aleppo in their way to Persia. 2. Philadelphia, or Alla-Scheller, the seat of the metropolitan, and another of the seven churches. It is situate in a fruitful plain, on the north side of the mountain Molus,

Molus, but fallen much from its primitive grandeur: however, ſome travellers relate, it ſtill contains about ſeven thouſand inhabitants, are principally Greeks, and have four churches in the place. As the neighbouring country is very fertile, proviſions are pretty plenty. 3. Thyatira, a biſhop's ſee, and another of the ſeven churches, now called Akhiſar, is ſituate about thirty miles to the north-weſt of Philadelphia, near the ſouth bank of the river Hermus, where are ſeen the ruins of antient marble ſtructures, but the preſent buildings have no better than clay walls. It is however ſaid to be a place of ſome trade for corn and cotton. It contains about five thouſand inhabitants, who are chiefly Turks. 4. Magneſia, now Siphylum, ſituate on the river Meander, about fifty miles ſouth of Sardis, was antiently a conſiderable city, as appears by its ruins, and is ſtill a pretty large walled town, trading to Smyrna with cotton-yarn. The inhabitants are compoſed of Turks and Jews, the latter having three ſynagogues. 5. Laodicea, or Eſkihiſar, ſituate on the eaſtern boundaries of this province, and has been reckoned part of Phrygia. It was antiently one of the ſeven churches, and a very large city, as appears by the ruins; among which are three theatres of white marble, almoſt entire, and a ſtately circus: but the place is perfectly uninhabited at preſent.

Phrygia Major, called by the Turks, Germian, is an inland province, having Bithynia on the north, Pamphylia on the ſouth, Myſia on the weſt, and Galatia on the eaſt. The rivers Hermus, Meander, Marſias, and Sangarius, riſe in this province, which with proper cultivation would be exceedingly fruitful. The chief towns are, 1. Cotyœum, or Kutahia, or the river Sangar, about ſeventy-three miles ſouth-eaſt of Buſſa. It was a very conſiderable city antiently, and is ſtill a very flouriſhing and populous town; is at preſent the ſeat of a beglerbeg, and was formerly the Turkiſh emperor's place of reſidence, prior to the taking of Conſtantinople. 2. Mideum, or Middæum, antiently the royal ſeat of the celebrated King Midas. The antient geographers placed this town near the north-eaſt limits of Phrygia, on the river Sangarius; but there are no veſtiges of it at preſent to be ſeen. 3. Gordium, once the reſidence of Gordius king of Phrygia, who tied the knot in Apollo's temple, which Alexander cut with his ſword. 4. Apamea, ſituate on the river Meander; this was once one of the moſt conſiderable cities of Aſia, but is now quite run to decay. 5. Coloſſa, Coloſſus, or Chonos, was ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the river Meander. St. Paul's epiſtle to the Coloſſians was addreſſed to the inhabitants of this city.

Scarce any traces are now to be found of Hierapolis, Synnada, Eucarpia, Prymneſia, Tiberiopolis, Hipſos, &c. except the hot ſpring and ſuperb ruins of Hierapolis. Apamea is alſo now quite run to decay, though it was once one of the moſt conſiderable cities of Aſia: this city was ſituated on the river Meander, a little above where the Marcias falls into it, and aroſe out of the ruins of the antient Celene, whoſe inhabitants were tranſplanted into it by Seleucas, who named it after his wife Apamea.

Galatia, called at preſent by the Turks Chiagare, is bounded, on the north, by Paphlagonia; on the ſouth, by Pamphylia; on the eaſt, by Cappadocia; and on the weſt, by Phrygia Major. It received its name from a colony of Gauls, who paſſed through Greece into Aſia, and ſettled in it. A great number of Greeks afterwards mingled with them, whence it was called Gallo Græcia: it was always a fine fertile country, and was formerly well cultivated, but at preſent lies neglected like other places, through Turkiſh indolence. St. Paul addreſſed his epiſtle to the Chriſtian inhabitants of this city.

The city of Ancyra, or as the Turks call it, Angouri, or Angora, is in forty degrees north latitude, and thirty-two degrees fifty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, two hundred and fifty miles eaſt of Smyrna. It is the reſidence of a ſangiac, and a very populous trading place. The inhabitants are eſtimated at forty thouſand Turks, five thouſand Armenians, and one thouſand Greeks. The chief manufacture was camlets: the evidences of its primitive grandeur are innumerable; the ſtreets, piazzas, &c. being full of ſtately remains, columns, &c. of the fineſt marble, porphyry, red jaſper, and other beautiful ſtones elegantly wrought; the modern buildings, however, are mean, low, and formed only of mud and turf. A great variety of inſcriptions in ſeveral languages appear upon the gates. In the caſtle there is an ancient, little, dark Armenian church, built one thouſand two hundred years ago. It has only one window, which is not glazed, but hath its vacancy filled by a tranſparent marble, through which the light penetrates into the church, but receives a reddiſh tinge from the nature of the ſtone. This city was once an archbiſhop's ſee, with ſix ſuffragans under him. The ſheep bred here are ſome of the fineſt, and the goats the moſt beautiful in the univerſe; the hair of the latter is of a dazzling whiteneſs, as fine as ſilk, it is curled naturally into locks of eight or nine inches long, which make the fineſt camlets. This hair is ſpun in the country, and manufactured in Angora. Theſe goats are only to be ſeen within a few miles of this city, as the breed degenerates, if they are removed to other places.

Belli is the metropolis of the province, and the reſidence of the fifteen ſangiacs under the beglerbeg of Anatolia Proper. The other places are Andres, ſituated a little to the eaſt of Ancyra; Thormæ, ſo called from its hot baths; Germaſte, formerly Germia, on the Sangarius; Ophium, a dirty, ill-built town which receives its name from the opium made in and about it, its environs being covered with poppies, from which the Turks extract their opium.

Pontus and Paphlagonia or Pender are bounded by the Euxine ſea on the north, Cappadocia on the eaſt, Galatia on the ſouth, and Bithynia on the weſt: the name of Pontus extended formerly to all the coaſt of the Euxine ſea, then called Mare Ponticum. This, which we treat of with Paphlagonia, is but a ſmall part of it: the chief towns whereof are, 1. Heraclea Ponti, now Penderachi, a ſea-port in the north-weſt part of this country. It was once celebrated for being the reſidence of the Comneni family, the founders of the Trebizond empire. The houſes are ſmall, mean, and ill-built, 2. Amaſtris, now Semaſtro, alſo a ſea-port, ſituate at the mouth of the river Parthenius. 3. Claudianopolis or Bithynium now Caſtromena, is a very ſmall town though once an epiſcopal ſee. 4. Tewthramia, now Tripoli, is ſtill a good town on a bay of the Euxine ſea; but it muſt be obſerved that there is a town of the ſame name in Anatolia, ſituated on the Meander.

Amaſus, now Amid; Gangara, now Zagyra; Junopolis, now Cinopolis; and Pompeiopolis, or Cimolis, though formerly conſiderable, are now either totally deſerted, or nearly in ruins.

Sinope is the moſt conſiderable city in this part: it was antiently the metropolis of the kingdom of Pontus, and the birth and burial place of the celebrated king Mithridates. It is ſituated in forty-one degrees fourteen minutes north latitude, and thirty-four degrees fifty-two minutes eaſt longitude, and is at preſent a good trading town. In Strabo's time moſt of the ſtately walls, edifices, and the caſtle were ſtanding. The walls which now ſurround it, were built by the Greek emperors. They have double ramparts, and are flanked with pentagonal and triangular towers. On the land ſide, however, it is commanded by eminences which would greatly expoſe it to an enemy, but by ſea it would require two fleets to beſiege it. The caſtle is now decayed, and there are but few janiſaries in it; yet the Turks are ſo jealous of it, that they ſuffer no Jew to live in it, and confine the Greeks to a certain ſuburb. Here is a profitable fiſhery, and a great deal of trade carried on. Many magnificent antique remains are to be ſeen, and the new buildings are intermixed with innumerable noble fragments of the old. Diogenes, the celebrated cynic philoſopher, was a native of this place. The water here is excellent, and the country fertile; abounding with walnut, olive and maple-trees; and a fine ſort of wormwood.

II. The province of Amaſia which contains the whole or the principal part of the antient provinces of Pontus Cappadocia, Pontus Galaticus, and Pontus Ptolemoniacus, has the Euxine ſea on the north, Caramania and Aladulia on the ſouth, Anatolia Proper on the weſt, and Armenia and Georgia on the eaſt. The chief towns are, 1. Amaſia. 2. Themiſcyra; and, 3. Comana. 1. Amaſia, which the Turks call Amnaſan, is ſituate near the banks of the river Iris, in thirty-ſix degrees of eaſtern longitude, and forty-two degrees of north latitude, ſeventy miles north-weſt of Tocat, and ſeventy miles ſouth of the Euxine ſea. It was antiently the reſidence of the kings of Cappadocia, and ſometimes of the beglerbeg or Turkiſh viceroy: it is pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence, from whence there is a proſpect over an extenſive plain on the ſouth. The buildings are mean, nor is it a place of any great trade; but there are ſome magnificent ruins, where the palaces of their ancient princes ſtood. The Greek Chriſtians have an archbiſhop here: Selim the firſt emperor of the Turks, and Strabo the geographer were natives of this place. 2. Themiſcyra, now Lerio, ſtands

on



He Goat of Angora.



She Goat of Angora.



Female white footed Antelope.



Male white footed Antelope.

Illustrations of Natural History included in this Work.

Thornton sculp.

on the Euxine ſea, ſixty miles north-eaſt of Amaſia. 3. Comana, eight miles to the eaſt of Amaſia, formerly a biſhop's ſee; but it is now dwindled to a village. 4. Tocat is ſituate at the foot of a mountain, in thirty-ſeven degrees of eaſtern longitude, and forty-one degrees thirty minutes north latitude, about one hundred miles ſouth of Sinope and the Black ſea, a populous city, inhabited by Turks, Armenians, Grecians, and Jews. It is large, ſtrong, and well-built: on the top of two marble rocks are two old caſtles: every houſe hath a fountain of freſh water in it. It is governed by a cadi, a wayvode, and a janiſary aga. The Armenians are moſt of them mechanics, working in copper and other hard-ware; and there is a good manufacture of Turky leather. It is a great thoroughfare of the caravans bound from Turky to Perſia, Arabia, and India. The Chriſtians make excellent wine here, and the adjacent country abounds in good fruit; there is no part of Turky that produces more ſaffron. When the caravans ſet out, either eaſt or weſt, from hence, they pay a duty of half a crown for every camel loaden with merchandize, and half as much for other beaſts of burthen, but nothing for the beaſts that carry proviſions or paſſengers; and the government raiſe or lower theſe duties as they ſee fit.

Sivas, formerly Sebaſte, lies about two days journey ſouth of Tocat, where the beglerbeg ſometimes reſides. The Amazons, if ever there were any ſuch people, are ſuppoſed to have reſided in this part of the country. The environs are extremely fertile; ſome excellent plants are produced, and curious foſſils found, particularly many ſubterraneous vegetations of admirable beauty. Like our flints, they are incloſed in matrices, which when broken diſplays ſome of the fineſt of cryſtallines imaginable, ſome are like petrified mother of pearl, and others appear like candied lemon and orange peal. This city is governed by a cadi or wayvode, and a janiſary aga. The garriſon conſiſts of about one thouſand janiſaries and ſpatins. It has twelve moſques, ſeven Armenian churches, and a Greek chapel.

Trebizond is ſituate at the foot of a mountain, on the ſhore of the Euxine ſea, in forty-two degrees twenty minutes eaſtern longitude, and forty-two degrees twenty-ſix minutes north latitude. It is a large, populous city, pretty well built, and within the walls are groves and gardens, intermixed with the houſes. It had a ſtrong caſtle founded on a rock for its defence, but now much decayed, and the harbour, which lies eaſt of the city, was formerly eſteemed a very good one; but is now ſo landed up, that great ſhips cannot enter it. The ſuburbs, which are inhabited by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians, are larger than the city: the country about it is very fruitful, but their trade is much declined: the fineſt foreſt lies about twenty-five miles ſouth of the city, in the midſt of which ſtand the famous convent of St. John, built all of wood, upon a large rock, and ſurrounded by one of the moſt romontic wilderneſſes in the univerſe. A great deal of rock honey is found in the neighbourhood of that city, which is ſo exceedingly luſcious, as to render the eating much of it dangerous. It was ſubject to the Roman and Grecian emperors: and David Comnenus, a French gentleman, uſurped the dominion of it, with the title of duke, about the year 1209. His ſucceſſor, John Comnenus, aſſumed the title of emperor, and his ſucceſſors were ſovereigns of this city and the neighbouring country, till the year 1462, when Mahomet II. took it, and having put to death all the remains of the Comneni family, added it to the Turkiſh empire.

The town of Phamacia is about forty-four miles weſt of Trebizond, and ſituated near the coaſt of the Euxine ſea, the Turks call it Keriſan; it is a large and populous place, but its harbour is only fit to receive thoſe ſmall veſſels called ſaics. It is generally thought to be the antient Ceraſunta, and to have been ſo denominated on account of the great number of cherry-trees with which its environs abound.

III. The third diviſion of Aſia Minor is Aladulia, or Anadulia, called by the Turks Dulgadir. This country is unfit for the purpoſes of agriculture, being rough and hilly; but it abounds in excellent paſtures, and produces abundance of admirable fruit, wines, and cattle, particularly horſes and camels, beſides vaſt herds of goats and ſheep, veniſon, all kinds of game, &c. There is ſilver, copper, iron, allum, &c. in the mountains. The province is divided into four ſangiacſhips, which are again ſubdivided into zamets and timariots. The plundering banditti, or free-booters, are very troubleſome in this country.

The principal places are, 1. Caiſar, the antient Cæſarea: it is a large town on the banks of the Milas, near mount Argæus, and about ſeventy miles weſt of Secias. The walls are ſtrong, and flanked with towers. The caſtle is in the center of the city. The bazar is handſome, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of merchandize: the houſes in its neighbourhood are built either in the form of a tower with a cupola, or they reſemble a loaf. The city is well ſupplied with water from the river; and their principal trade is in cotton. 2. Malathiah, at the confluence of the Euphrates and Arſu, was antiently called Mytilene. It is in thirty-eight degrees twenty-two minutes north latitude, and thirty-eight degrees fifty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It was formerly the ſeat of the Ottoman princes, and now of a Greek archbiſhop. It is ſtill a conſiderable town. 3. Mars, or Maraſch, is a large well built city in the ſouth-eaſt boundaries of the province. It is ſituated on a ſmall river, which falls into the Euphrates, about two miles to the ſouthward of Trebizond: it is the reſidence of a baſſa, and a place of ſome commerce. Pauſanias the Greek hiſtorian, the two Gregories of Nazianzen, St. Baſil, and St. George the tutelar ſaint of England, may be ranked the foremoſt among the eminent men who were born in this province.

IV. Caramania is the fourth and laſt diviſion of Aſia Minor. It extends itſelf along the Mediterranean coaſt from north to ſouth, compriſing the antient Lycia, Pamphilia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia, with part of Tſauria, Phrygia, Pacatiana, Galitia, Salutaris, and Cappadocia. It reaches from the neighbourhood of Alexandretta to the gulf of Macri, at the mouth of which lies the iſland of Rhodes. This country is called Caraman-Ili by the Turks, and is divided into the Greater and Leſſer; the latter lying along the ſea-coaſt, and the former to the north of mount Tauris. It is governed by a beglerbeg, whoſe revenue is exceedingly large, and ſeven ſangiacs, with many zaims and timars, are ſubordinate to him. The following are the principal places in this province.

1. Myra, or Myrra, called by the Turks Strumita. This was once a conſiderable city, but is now dwindled almoſt to nothing, it is about twenty-two miles north-eaſt of Patora, ſituated near the mouth of the Limyrus.

2. Patora; which was once the metropolis of Lycia: but is now a very inconſiderable village near the mouth of the Xanthus, between the gulfs of Satalia and Macri.

3. Satalia, called by the Turks Sataliah, is the antient Attalia. It was formerly an important city in Pamphylia, at the bottom of the gulf of its name, in thirty-ſix degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and thirty-one degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude. It is the ſtrongeſt place the Turks have upon this coaſt. The entrance of the harbour is both difficult and dangerous. This ſingular place is divided into three diſtinct towns, each of which is ſeparated from the others by its own ſtrong walls, and the gates are ſhut up preciſely at noon every Friday till one o'clock, from a pretended prophecy, that on ſuch an hour the Chriſtians are to ſurprize it. The whole is about ſix miles in circumference; the buildings are good, the place populous, and the trade conſiderable. The ſummers are ſo hot, that thoſe who can afford it retire towards the mountains, where there is more air and ſhade. The caſtle, which commands the town, is a very good one. The Chriſtians had formerly a fine church in one of the towns, but it is at preſent converted into a Turkiſh moſque. The neighbouring country is fertile and delightful, being covered with citron and orange groves, which afford an excellent odour.

4. With reſpect to Sagaluſſus, though antiently a tolerable town, it ſcarcely merits at preſent the name of a village. The ſame may likewiſe be ſaid of Antiochia Piſidiæ, or Cæſarea, which ſtands at the foot of mount Tauris, and was once the metropolis of the province.

5. Iconium which the Turks call Cogni, is the metropolis of the beglerbegate. It ſtands in the antient Lycaonia, in a fertile pleaſant plain, near a fine lake of freſh water, which was antiently called Palûs Trogilis. It is about one hundred and ten miles from the Mediterranean ſea.

It is ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, adorned with towers, and a broad ditch. The Turks only inhabit the city; the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, inhabit the ſuburbs, which are ſpacious. The city is commanded by a ſmall caſtle, and adorned with ſeveral moſques, a ſeraglio, and ſome ſpacious caravanſeras. The mutton here is exquiſite, the wool of the ſheep admirable, and their tails ſo large, that they are drawn upon ſledges faſtened to the animal.

6. Tarſus, which was antiently the capital of Cilicia, and one of the fineſt towns of the Leſſer Aſia, but is at preſent quite decayed. It was the birth-place of the great apoſtle St. Paul; and is ſituated upon the Cydnus, about ſix miles from its mouth. The Turks call this town Tarſon, Tariſſu, and Hom. If we may judge by the ruins of the old wall, it appears to have been near twelve miles in circumference.

cumference. At the mouth of the river there is a good commodious harbour: and about a mile below the town there is the lake Rhegma, through which runs the Cydnues.

7. To the eaſtward of Terſus, is Adana, a conſiderable town on the river Choquen: it ſtands about thirty-five miles on the road to Aleppo, and about eighteen miles from the Mediterranean. This town contains a great number of beautiful fountains ſupplied with water by aqueducts, and over the river there is a ſuperb bridge of fifteen arches. The adjacent country is exceedingly pleaſant, and the ſoil extremely fertile.

8. The laſt place is Ajazzo, or Lajazzo, formerly called Iſſus, and is ſituated on a gulf of the Mediterranean, to which it gives its name. It was antiently a place of very great importance, and is at preſent a neat, ſtrong, opulent, ſea-port town.

Azar, Ainzarba, Teleneſſus, Xanthus, Pheſelis, Pignara, Olbia, Magidis, Side, Perga, Sitnum, Arpendus, Termeſſus, Olbaza, Lyſtra, and ſeveral other cities and towns, which were known to the antients, but of which the moderns have very imperfect accounts, are now ſo reduced to poor, mean, little hamlets, or ſo totally ruined and deſerted, as not to merit any particular deſcription.

The rivers of moſt note in Caramania are the Xanthus, Lamus, Ceſtrus, Eurymedon, Cydnus, Sarus or Smarus, Pyramus, Limyras, Latamno, &c.

Caramania contains many celebrated mountains, moſt of which are branches of mount Tauris or Taurus, viz. Olympus, there being many mountains in Aſia of this name; Cragus, the etymology of which Bochart derives from the Arabic word Crac, which ſignifies a rock; from whence it is probable the Engliſh word Crag originated; and Antipagus, all in Lycia. The great chain called mount Tauris begins in Lycia, and runs eaſtward. In Cilicia, the moſt remarkable is Amanus.

We muſt not omit to mention the celebrated Lycian volcano mountain, called by the antients Chimæra. Its bottom was infeſted with ſerpents, the middle parts afforded paſture for goats, and the top was haunted by lions. This gave the idea to the poets to feign the monſter Chimæra, which was repreſented with the head of a lion belching fire, a goat's body, and a ſerpent's tail. Hence incongruous ideas are called chimæras, and inconſiſtent ſtratagems are ſaid to be chimerical. The Lycians built the city of Hepheſtiæ near this mountain, in honour to Vulcan, on account of its volcano.

SECT. IV.

Gives an account of Syria, its diviſion, ſituation, extent, cities, towns, climates, ſoil, fertility, produce, inhabitants, &c.

SYRIA, called by the Turks, Sourie and Soriſtan, was originally ſo called from its capital Tzor and Tzur, which the Greeks ſoftened into Sur and Tyre. This country is ſituate between thirty-five and forty-one degrees of eaſt longitude, and between thirty-one and thirty-ſeven degrees of north latitude, and, in the moſt extenſive ſenſe, includes Syria, properly ſo called, Phœnica or Phenice, and Judea or Paleſtine. It extends from north to ſouth about four hundred miles, and about two hundred from eaſt to weſt. The antient kingdom of Syria, which Seleucus and his ſucceſſors governed, extended as far eaſtward as Perſia.

The modern Syria is bounded by Turcomania or Armenia, and Aladulia on the north, by the river Euphrates, which divides it from Diarbeck or Meſopotamia, on the eaſt, by Arabia on the ſouth, and by the Levant ſea, and Cilicia or Caramania on the weſt. Syria is at preſent divided into three governments, or beglerbegſhips, viz. 1. That of Aleppo. 2. Tripoli; and, 3. Damaſchus or Scham; every one of which are ſubdivided into ſangiacſhips or little governments, which have their reſpective baſſas who command them under the beglerberg of the province.

The beglerbergſhip of Aleppo is the moſt northerly of theſe, the capital whereof is of the ſame name, ſituate in thirty-ſeven degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude, about ninety miles eaſt of the Levant ſea, but on four hills, in the middle of a ſpacious plain, being of an oval figure, and about three miles in circumference, and ſurrounded by a ſtone-wall. The caſtle ſtands on the higheſt hill in the middle of the city. The town is better built than moſt of the towns of Turky, and there are a great many moſques, caravanſeras, bagnios, fountains, and reſervoirs of water, fine gardens, vineyards, and orchards of apples, oranges, lemons, cherries, and ſome other fruits, which are but indifferent. It is one of the briſkeſt towns of trade in Turky, where the merchants purchaſe ſilks, carpets, mohair, yarn, ſhagreen, Turky leather, cotton, and other produce of Perſia and Turky: the churches and houſes of the Chriſtians are in the ſuburbs, of which there are four ſects of eaſtern Chriſtians, viz. Greeks, Armenians, Jacobites, and Maronites or Syrians. It is computed there are two hundred thouſand ſouls in the city and ſuburbs, of which thirty thouſand are Chriſtians, beſides five thouſand Jews; for moſt of the maritime powers in Europe have their conſuls and factors here, and are allowed their chapels and public worſhip in them. There are about forty Engliſh factors, who live in a large ſquare building, like a college, and have their chaplain, to whom they allow a handſome revenue, and he performs divine ſervice as in a college. No people live more genteelly than theſe factors do; they ride out in the country, and follow their ſports at vacant hours, with as much freedom as they could in England. The beglerberg of Aleppo commands all the country between the Levant and the river Euphrates, but the governor of the caſtle is independent, and ſome check upon him. Twelve miles ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo there is a ſalt lake ſeven miles wide, having a dry cruſt of ſalt on the ſurface, with which the magazines about Aleppo are filled.

The ſoil in the neighbourhood of Aleppo produces good crops of wheat and barley, and their vallies abound in olive trees and capers, but there is very little paſture; their graſs is burnt up in the fair ſeaſon. Their kitchen gardens produce ſallads, cauliflowers, artichoaks, melons, kidney beans, and other pulſe.

As Aleppo is accounted the fineſt and moſt opulent city in all Syria, we ſhall here give our readers a more particular deſcription of it and the environs. The houſes are of ſtone, built in a quadrangular form, conſiſting of a ground floor and an attic ſtory; the roofs are flat, and either ſpread with plaiſter or paved with ſtone: the ceilings, pannels, doors, windows, &c. are neatly gilded and painted, and adorned with inſcriptions from the koran, or the beſt of Aſiatic poets. The doors of the houſes are ſtrongly caſed with iron, but the locks are only ſlightly made of wood. The ſtreets have a dull appearance, being ſhielded from the view by dead walls. The beſt houſes have uſually on the ground floor a hall covered with a dome, with a fountain in the middle to cool it. There is a fountain of ablution, and ſometimes a little garden in the area of each; and in every garden there is cypreſs. The kans are ſpacious and elegant, but the ſhops are ſmall: the buyer ſtands always without, none being admitted within a ſhop but the maſter and his clerk. They uſually ſhut them about an hour and a half after ſun-ſet. The ſtreets, though narrow, are extremely clean, and always well paved: all offenſive manufactures and diſagreeable trades are confined to the ſuburbs; in which, among others, there is a glaſs manufactory. Every houſe has a well; but the waters being briſkiſh, are not uſed in dreſſing proviſions, or to drink; the water for theſe purpoſes being brought from ſome fine ſprings by means of an aqueduct, and properly diſtributed by communicating pipes. The houſe fuel is wood and charcoal, but the bagnios are heated with dung, the parings of fruit, &c. in the collection of which many poor people are employed.

The weſtern part of the city is waſhed by a ſtream called Coic, which, with the wells in the city, and the water brought by the aqueduct, is all the water that is to be found for the ſpace of thirty miles round; the neighbouring villages having no water but rain water, which they ſave in large ciſterns. The air is ſo pure, and free from damps, that the inhabitants ſleep on the houſe-tops without the leaſt inconvenience.

Their only winter is from December 12, to January 20, but even then the ſun has great power in the middle of the day. The ſnow never lays more than a day upon the ground, and the ice is ſeldom ſtrong enough to bear the weight of a man. From May to the middle of December, the air is extremely hot; but the moſt malignant heat continues only about five days, during which the inhabitants keep within doors as much as poſſible, and defend themſelves from the pernicious winds by ſhutting cloſe their windows and doors. The harveſt commences at the beginning of May, and uſually laſts about twenty days.

Near the city, but more particularly in the neighbouring country from Shogre to Letachia, are a great number of tobacco plantations, a conſiderable trade being carried on in that article with Egypt. At ſome diſtance from the

city

city a ſpecies of fullers earth is found, which is an excellent ſubſtitute for ſoap. Black cattle are ſcarce, the larger ſort are kept for labour, the ſmaller have ſhort horns, and the buffaloes are valued on account of their milk. The Turks or Jews ſeldom eat beef, their food being mutton, of which they have plenty at Aleppo. There are two ſorts of ſheep, the one reſembling the Engliſh ſheep, and the other with large tails, already mentioned. The goats have long ears and give excellent milk. The people are very fond of leban or coagulated milk. The butter and cheeſe is made either from the milk of cows, buffaloes, ſheep, or goats. The common bread is made of wheat badly fomented, and badly baked: people of faſhion have, however, a better ſort. Beſides theſe, they have biſcuits and ruſks ſtrewed with fennel flour.

Here are plenty of hares and antelopes; the latter are of two ſorts, viz. the antelope of the mountain, and the antelope of the plains. The former is the moſt beautiful, the back and neck being of a dark brown; the latter, though the colour is brighter, is neither ſo ſwift nor ſo well made. Tame rabbets are kept in the city, and ſome few wild ſtags are found in the country, as well as porcupines; the Franks of the Romiſh perſuaſion, often eat land turtles and frogs. The camels of this country are good and ſerviceable; but the horſes are very indifferent; theſe laſt are fed with barley, as oats do not grow nearer than Antioch. Hyænas are found among the rocks; they ſeldom attack the human race, but commit great ravages among the flocks, and even plunder the ſepulchres. In the city of Aleppo are a vaſt number of dogs, and the environs are infeſted with wolves: ſerpents are very numerous, particularly a white ſnake, which is found in houſes, but whoſe bite is not venomous. The ſcolopendra and ſcorpion often ſting the natives, but a few hours pain is the only conſequence. Here are alſo locuſts, lizards, bees, ſilk-worms, all kinds of fowls, &c. Hawking and hunting are favourite amuſements: the ſportſmen have a very beautiful ſpecies of the greyhound: ſhooting is exerciſed only for a ſubſiſtence.

The common language is vulgar Arabic; Turks of condition ſpeak the Turkiſh; the Jews, Hebrew; the Armenians their native tongue; and ſome of the Syrians underſtand the Syriac; but the Greeks know little or nothing of either the antient or modern Greek language.

The people are in general well made, of a middle ſtature, inclining to lean, but inactive and languid: the citizens are uſually fair: but the peaſants, who are expoſed to the ſun, ſwarthy; both have black hair and black eyes; they are tolerably handſome when young, but ſeem to appear old by thirty. The females marry about the age of fourteen. It is very ſingular, that the men gird themſelves very tight about their waiſt in order to make themſelves look ſlender; and the women do all they can to render themſelves plump, as they deem a ſlender waiſt a great deformity. They are for the moſt part polite: and though they often quarrel, never fight: the coffee-houſes are frequented only by the vulgar. The amuſements within doors are cheſs, back-gammon, draughts, and the game of the ring, which only conſiſts of gueſſing under what coffee-cup the ring is put; the winner blacks the face of the loſer, and puts a fool's cap on his head. Though Chriſtians are fond of playing for money, the Turks only play for amuſement, or ſometimes for a feaſt to entertain their friends. Dancing is deſpiſed, and only practiſed by buffoons, who, as well as wreſtlers, are attendants at all entertainments.

They entertain their viſitors with a pipe of tobacco, wet ſweetmeats, and coffee, without ſugar or milk. When particular reſpect is intended, ſherbet and a ſprinkling of roſe water are added. But as ſoon as the hoſt begins to wiſh his viſitor gone, the wood of aloes is produced, which implies, that the viſit has been ſufficiently long. Men and women here ſmoke to exceſs. The tube of the pipe is made of the wood of the roſe-tree, but the bowl is of clay. Opium is in little eſteem at Aleppo, and they who take it to exceſs are looked upon as debauchees. Here are no coaches; the better ſort of people ride on horſeback, with a number of ſervants on foot parading before them. Women of rank are carried in litters, and the lower claſs in covered cradles on mules.

The people here go to bed early, and ſleep in the principal part of their cloaths. Their bed conſiſts of a mattreſs, and over it a ſheet, in ſummer; and a carpet, with a ſheet ſewed to it in winter. The men are either lulled to reſt by muſic, ſmoke themſelves to ſleep, or are talked to ſleep by their women, who are taught to tell innumerable ſtories for that purpoſe. The people in general are groſly ignorant, few even of the better ſort can read. The clergy are not only divines, but lawyers and phyſicians: they have many colleges, but little or nothing is taught in them. The government permits not the practice of anatomy: their phyſicians and ſurgeons, therefore, can know but little of the ſtructure of the human body, or the medical art.

The women in the villages, and all the Chinganas and Arabs, wear gold or ſilver rings, through their right noſtrils. The old men colour their beards black, to conceal their age: and the old women dye their hair red, with henna, to render it graceful. They likewiſe dye their hands and feet.

The ſlaves in Aleppo are in general white, being Georgians, but they have a few that are black, and are brought from Ethiopia, by the way of Cairo. Criminals here are hanged, impaled, or beheaded, at the option of the judge; but janiſaries are ſtrangled by a cord twiſted twice round the neck, and drawn tight with a piece of ſilk.

A Maronite nuptial ceremony is thus conducted: the bridegroom's relations are invited to an entertainment at the houſe of the bride. After ſupper, they return to the bridegroom's houſe, who hitherto has not appeared: for he is obliged to hide himſelf, and not to be found without a pretending ſearch. At length he is brought out in his worſt cloaths; but ſoon after the bridemen conduct him to a chamber, which contains the wedding garments, where he is left to dreſs himſelf. After midnight, the company, preceded by a band of muſic, each carrying a lighted candle, go to the bride's houſe and demand her. Admittance is refuſed. A mock fight then enſues. The bride is taken priſoner, and, being cloſely veiled, is conducted to the bridegroom's houſe. The night is ſpent in feaſting and mirth: but the bride muſt not ſpeak the whole time. The biſhop or prieſt comes the next morning to perform the ceremony, in which he puts crowns on their heads, and joins the hands of the bride and bridegroom, who each have a ring to put on the finger. A few ridiculous and riotous ceremonies enſue; and the bridegroom is not left to himſelf till twelve o'clock at night, when he is permitted to retire to the bride. All the bride's female acquaintance ſend flowers to her as preſents for ſome days after her marriage, but ſhe is not allowed to ſpeak for the ſpace of a month, even to her huſband.

The Engliſh have a conſul, chaplain, chancellor, and chiau, at Aleppo. The French have their conſul, dragomen, and other officers, and are more numerous than the Engliſh. No Dutchmen reſides here except the conſul. A few Venetian merchants and Italian Jews are, however, ſettled in the place. The plague is the moſt dreadful calamity at Aleppo; it begins to rage in June and decreaſes in July; and uſually viſits the inhabitants every ten years, when it commits vaſt devaſtations. To avoid the infection, the following particulars are to be obſerved: "Never go abroad faſting; drink plentifully of acids; live regularly, but not abſtemiouſly; avoid exceſs and paſſion; breathe through a handkerchief or ſponge wetted with vinegar, or an infuſion of rue; ſwallow not the ſpittle; waſh your mouth, face, and hands often with vinegar; air your cloaths well, change them often, and ſmoak them with ſulphur."

Scanderoon, the port town to Aleppo, is ſituate on the Levant ſea, in thirty-ſeven degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, about forty miles north-eaſt of the iſland of Cyprus; it had antiently the name of Alexandretta, and is ſuppoſed to have been built by Alexander the Great. The town makes no great figure at preſent, and is inhabited chiefly by ſeafaring men: few people care to reſide there that can help it, the ſalt marſhes rendering it very unhealthy. When ſhips arrive, the factors who reſide here, ſend advice of it to Aleppo immediately by carrier pigeons bred there, which fly home in about in five hours, though Aleppo is near ninety miles diſtant from this port.

Antioch is ſituate in a fine plain, eighteen miles in extent, on the river Haſi, once Orentos, near the Levant ſea, in thirty-ſeven degrees of eaſtern longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees of north latitude, about thirty miles ſouth of Scanderoon, once the capital city of all Syria, but now in ruins. Here the diſciples of the bleſſed Jeſus firſt obtained the name of Chriſtians. The Greeks gave this town the name of Epidaphne, from the grove and oracle of Apollo that was conſulted here. The Turks call it Antzochia. The vaſt number of plantanes, poplars, ſycamores, fruit-trees, &c. in the gardens of the town, make it at a diſtance look like a foreſt. It has a caſtle which commands the town and river, and ſome conſiderable remains of antient temples, walls, churches, &c. together with

with an extenſive canal. St. Paul and St. Barnabas preached a twelvemonth in this place; St. Luke the evangeliſt, and St. Ignatius the martyr, were born here.

Aſiatic Tripoli, is ſituate on the Levant ſea, at the foot of mount Libanus, in thirty-ſix degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-four degrees thirty minutes north latitude, the capital of this diviſion of Syria, antiently ſtiled Phœnicia, the firſt and greateſt of all the maritime powers on this continent; their navigation extending eaſtward to the fartheſt ſpice iſlands in the India ſeas, and to the moſt weſterly coaſts of Europe and Africa; Tripoli is now the capital of the province, and ſeat of the beglerbeg or viceroy, and garriſoned by two hundred janiſaries: it is rather a road than a harbour, there being very little ſecurity for the ſhipping which lies here. It is ſaid to be called Tripoli, as conſiſting formerly of three towns, which ſtood upon as many hills, about a furlong diſtant from each other; a rivulet runs through their gardens, which abound in plantations of oranges and mulberry trees; and they have a pretty good ſilk manufacture.

This city contains eight thouſand houſes, and ſixty thouſand inhabitants, who conſiſt of Turks, Jews, and Chriſtians. It is watered by a little river, which has a ſtone bridge over it, and turns ſeveral mills. The air is clear and healthy, the country rich and fertile, and the town plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions. The Chriſtians have ſome monaſteries and chapels, and the Jeſuits a handſome chapel: here is a large handſome moſque, which was once a Chriſtian church.

Sidon or Sayd, is ſituate on the ſame coaſt, in thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-three degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, about ſeventy miles ſouth of Tripoli, and about as much to the northward of Jeruſalem; this was the mother of Tyre, and the firſt city that attempted a foreign trade by ſea. It is at preſent a ſangiacſhip, and governed by a Turkiſh baſſa, ſubject to the beglerbeg of Tripoli; the town though ſmall is ſtill well peopled, containing about ſix thouſand inhabitants; and near the place are magnificent ruins, which diſcover its ancient grandeur. The exports conſiſt of Turkey leather, piſtachios, ſenna, buffaloes ſkins, cotton, blue ſilks, rice, ſoap, aſhes, oil, raiſins, &c. Here are many moſques, two kans, a public bagnio, and a fine ſquare building called the cotton market.

Tyre or Sur, is ſituate on the coaſt of the Levant, in thirty-ſix degrees of eaſtern longitude, and in thirty-two degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude, twenty miles ſouth of Sidon: it ſtands on a peninſula, and at diſtance makes a grand appearance, but when you approach it there is little elſe to be found beſides ruins. On the north was an old Turkiſh caſtle, where we meet with only broken walls and pillars at preſent: the inhabitants are poor fiſhermen who live in vaults and caves. The iſland of Tyre, which was joined to the continent by Alexander, ſeems to have been of a circular figure, and not to have contained above forty acres of ground, round which are ſtill the remains of an ancient wall: in the middle of the ruins ſtands a pile higher than the reſt, being the eaſt end of a great church, which Mr. Maundrel conjectures to have been the cathedral of Tyre, for it was a biſhop's ſee; and he obſerves, that of all the ruined churches which he ſaw in this country, he always found the eaſt end ſtanding and tolerably intire; and that he did not ſee fewer than an hundred of theſe inſtances; from whence he ſeems to be of opinion that they have been preſerved by a miraculous providence, as ſtanding monuments of Chriſtianity in theſe unbelieving regions, and are preſages of its future reſtoration. This is not the antient Tyre which was deſtroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, after eleven years ſiege, but that which was built on an iſland about half a mile from the coaſt, which Alexander could not take till he had made a cauſeway from the continent to the iſland; and the citizens ſtill making a very brave defence; Alexander, after he took the city, crucified two thouſand of the inhabitants on croſſes, erected upon the ſhore, which muſt ever render his memory infamous to poſterity. It is aſtoniſhing the world ſhould ſo far miſtake his character, as to compliment him with the name of Great, unleſs they eſteem him great for perpetuating what all the virtuous part of the world abhor, namely the moſt cruel murders, robberies, drunkenneſs, ingratitude to his friends, and, after all his prepoſterous vanity, in forcing the people he had enſlaved to pay him divine honours. Louis IV. in imitation of him, alſo expected to be adored, for acting the part of the common enemy and ſcourge of mankind.

Between forty and fifty miles to the ſouth of Sidon, on the ſame coaſt, ſtands the town of Acra, antiently called Acho: it was enlarged by Ptolemy the firſt, and called by him after his own name Ptolemais, but ſince it has been in the poſſeſſion of the Turks, it has almoſt acquired its antient name again, being called Acca or Acra. On the eaſt and north of it lies a ſpacious fertile plain; on the weſt it is waſhed by the Mediterranean, and on the ſouth by a large bay, extending from the city as far as mount Carmel. The Saracens took it from the Chriſtians in the time of Omar, and afterwards with the reſt of Syria it fell into the hands of the Turks; it was ſeveral times taken and retaken in the holy war. In the year 1191 it was taken by King Richard the firſt of England, and Philip of France, and given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, who kept poſſeſſion of it an hundred years, when the Turks again made themſelves maſters of it, and razed it to the ground.

There being a fine nunnery in the town of Acra when the Turks took it the laſt time by ſtorm; it is related of the abbeſs, that fearing ſhe, and the virgins under her care, ſhould be obliged to ſubmit to ſuch brutal uſage as is frequently practiſed by the ſoldiers on ſuch occaſions, ſummoned the nuns together, adviſing them to cut and mangle their faces, as the only means to preſerve their virgin purity, and immediately cut and diſfigured her own, to ſet them an example; the nuns thereupon gaſhed and tore their faces, and cut off their noſes, and made themſelves ſuch diſmal ſpectacles, as they might be infallibly ſure would preſerve them from a rape; at which, it is ſaid, the Turkiſh ſoldiers were ſo enraged, who expected here to have found a kind of paradiſe on earth, and to have indulged their wanton flames among the beautiful young nuns, that they put them every one to the ſword; thus reſtoring them, ſays an ingenious traveller, to a new and inviolable beauty.

We proceed now to enquire into the preſent ſtate of Damaſcus, the capital city of the ſouth part of Syria, and the ſeat of a Turkiſh beglerbeg or viceroy. This city is called Sanchor Scham by the Turks, and ſtands in thirty-three degrees of north latitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees four minutes eaſt longitude, two days journey to the eaſtward of Sidon and the Mediterranean ſea. As we approach this town, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of it, there is erected a little building on the top of a high precipice, under which runs the river Barrady, from whence Damaſcus appears a perfect paradiſe. It is ſituate in a plain of that extent, that the mountains which encompaſs it on the farther ſide are but juſt diſcernable. The town is built on the weſt ſide of the plain, about two miles from the place where the river Barrady falls from the mountains, the gardens extending almoſt thither. The city ſtretches itſelf from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, extending near two miles in length, and is narrow in the middle, but ſwells to a greater bulk at each end. It hath eight gates, and ſtrong walls; and the principal ſtreets, both in the city and ſuburbs, are arched, to keep off the ſun and rain. It is encompaſſed with gardens for near thirty miles about; which are well planted with fruit of all kinds, and ever freſh and green, being watered by ſeveral branches of the river Barrady. You ſee alſo towers, and ſteeples, and pleaſure houſes in every part, lifting up their heads among the trees, which renders the proſpect ſtill more entertaining. The Barrady, which plentifully ſupplies both the gardens and city with water, as ſoon as it iſſues from the clefts of the neighbouring mountains, immediately divides itſelf into three ſtreams, of which the middlemoſt and biggeſt runs directly to Damaſcus, through a large field called the agar damaſcenus, and ſerves all the fountains and receptacles of water in the city. The other two branches, which ſeem to be the work of art, flow on the right and left, on the borders of the gardens, into which they are let by little channels, and diſperſed into every part of them. There is not a garden which has not a fine quick ſtream improved into fountains, caſcades, or other water-works, though it muſt be confeſſed they are not contrived with ſo much art, as in ſome gardens of Europe. This river having thus contributed to the beauty and fertility of the fields and gardens about Damaſcus, loſes there ſo much of it waters, that in a few leagues beyond the city it is intirely dried up, and never reaches the ſea. The Greeks, and, from them, the Romans, called this river Chryſorrhous. It is ſuppoſed the branches of the Barrady were the Abana and Pharphar; mentioned in 2 King.

The moſques, bagnios, bazars, kans, &c. are magnificent, but the private houſes are low and mean, being erected either with ſun-burnt bricks or mud; yet though the houſes are deſpicable, they are in general accommodated with ſtately apartments, ſquare court yards, marble fountains,

fountains, and marble portals. One coffee-houſe in the town will contain five hundred people; it is divided into two parts, the one for ſummer, the other for winter. In a large field, called the meidan, near the city, is an hoſpital for pilgrims and ſtrangers of all religions, who are maintained at the Grand Signor's expence. The grand moſque is a magnificent edifice, and was formerly a Chriſtian church, built by the emperor Heraclius, in honour of Zechariah, the father of John the Baptiſt; but at preſent it is death for any one except a muſſulman to enter it. The Jews have ſome handſome ſynagogues, and Chriſtians of all denominations have their churches of worſhip according to their own communion. About the middle of the city there is a caſtle of an oval form, with ſtrong walls fourteen inches thick, flanked with ſquare towers mounted with cannon, and well furniſhed with arms, water, &c. it is garriſoned by fifteen thouſand janiſaries; five thouſand to guard the city, five thouſand to attend the Sultan when he goes to Badgat, and five thouſand to eſcort the Mecca caravan. There is a large bake-houſe, where biſcuits are made for the pilgrims that are going to Mecca, as the Grand Signor allows them two hundred camels load of biſcuit, and the ſame quantity of water. The manufactures of Damaſcus are ſcymetars, knives, ſword-blades, bridle-bits, and many other iron and ſteel wares, in which about twenty thouſand of the inhabitants are employed. Caravans bring hither the merchandizes of Turky, Arabia, and India, and caravans are continually going to and returning from Bagdat, Aleppo, Mecca, &c.

The neighbouring territory is pleaſant and fertile; the grapes are remarkably fine, ſome of the bunches weighing from thirty to forty pounds; and the ſheep, which are exceedingly large, and their meat delicious eating, have tails that weigh in general ſixty pounds. Near the city, alabaſter is found in great quantities, and a red earth, as an efficacious remedy againſt the bite of venomous creatures. The corn is not here threſhed as in moſt other countries; but the ſtraw is cut off with iron pincers faſtened to wooden rollers, drawn over the corn by a horſe. The emperor Julian formerly ſtiled Damaſcus the city of Jupiter, the eye of the eaſt, and the ſeat of magnificence. Mahomet, beholding it from a neighbouring mountain, was ſo delighted with the appearance of the city, and its environs, that he refuſed to enter, or even approach any nearer to it, ſaying, "I am ſure there is but one paradiſe deſigned for man, and I will not enjoy mine in this world."

We ſhall conclude our deſcription of the cities and places in this diviſion of Syria with an account of the venerable ruins of what was once one of the moſt magnificent cities in the univerſe, called by the Greeks Heliopolis, or the city of the ſun. About thirty miles north of Damaſcus, and the ſame eaſt from the ſea-coaſt, in thirty-three degrees north latitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, ſtands the city of Balbeck, in a moſt engaging ſituation, on the eaſt ſide of the valley of Bocat, for it is encompaſſed with pleaſant and fruitful gardens, through which run ſeveral fine rivulets. The city is of a ſquare figure, and ſurrounded with a tolerable good wall, with towers at equal diſtances, each ſide of the ſquare being about a quarter of a mile in length, but the houſes within are very mean, ſuch as we uſually find in Turkiſh villages. On the ſouth-weſt ſide of the city are the ruins of a noble heathen temple, with ſome other buildings belonging to it, all of them exceeding magnificent; but of late years theſe antient ſtructures have been pieced up, and the whole converted into a caſtle. The additional buildings are of no mean architecture, but are however eaſily diſtinguiſhable from the more antient.

As we approach the ruins, the firſt thing we obſerve is a little round pile of building, all of marble encompaſſed with beautiful pillars of the Corinthian order, which ſupport a lovely cornith that runs all round the ſtructure, and though this part of the fabrick be in a very tottering condition, the Greeks have converted it into a church, and celebrate divine ſervice in it at preſent. From this place we come to a large firm pile of building, very lofty, and compoſed of vaſt ſquare ſtones, but yet does not ſeem to be part of the original building. Through this we advance into a ſtately arched walk or portico, an hundred and fifty paces long, which reaches to the temple.

The form of the temple is an oblong ſquare, thirty-two yards in breadth, and ſixty-four in length, of which the anti-temple took up eighteen, and is now tumbled down. The body of the temple, which is ſtanding, is encompaſſed with a noble portico, ſupported by pillars of the Corinthian order, ſix feet and three inches in diameter, and forty-five feet high, conſiſting each of three ſtones only. These pillars ſtand at the diſtance of nine feet from each other, and as much from the wall of the temple. A ſtately architrave runs round the capitals of the pillars, and a corniſh exquiſitely carved. The portico is covered with large ſtones, hollowed like an arch, and extending between the columns and the wall of the temple, and the figures of ſome Heathen gods and goddeſſes or heroes are carved on each ſtone: among the reſt there is a Ganymede and an eagle flying away with him, done to the life.

In the walls of the temple all round are two rows of pilaſters, one above another, and between the pilaſters, niches, which ſeem deſigned for images. About eight yards from the upper end of the temple are ſtanding part of two fine fluted pillars, which ſeem to have made a partition in that place, and to have ſupported a canopy over the throne of the chief idol. On that part of the partition which is remaining are ſtill to be ſeen carvings in relievo, repreſenting Neptune, tritons, fiſhes, ſea gods, Arion and his dolphin, and other marine figures. The roof of the temple is entirely broke down, but yet, ſays Mr. Maundril, the whole, as it now ſtands, ſtrikes the mind with an air of greatneſs beyond any thing we have ſeen, and is an eminent proof of the magnificence of the ancient architecture. This temple was antiently accompanied by ſome other magnificent buildings, as is evident from four aſcents to it, one upon each angle, with marble ſteps long enough for ten people to go a-breaſt.

The old wall, which encompaſſes all the ruins abovementioned, is built with ſtones of that prodigious bigneſs, that the natives aſcribe the architecture to the devil. A gentleman who travelled to theſe parts, was at the pains of meaſuring three of the largeſt of theſe ſtones, and found one of them twenty-one, and the other two twenty yards apiece in length; each of them being four yards broad, and as much in depth, and theſe three ſtones lay in the ſame row, end to end, extending ſixty-one yards; and which was equally ſtrange, they were lifted up into the wall more than twenty feet from the ground.

The palace, which is what the Turks call the caſtle, muſt have been one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures that imagination can conceive, but it is much more decayed than the temple. A dark arched vault, containing many buſts, leads to an hexagonal building which forms a ſpacious theatre; the end opens to a terrace which is aſcended by marble ſteps; you then enter a ſquare court ſurrounded by magnificent buildings: on each hand are double rows of pillars, which form galleries of ſixty-ſix fathoms in length, and eight in breadth. The bottom of this court is overſpied by a building amazingly ſumptuous, which appears to have been the body of the palace; the columns are as large as thoſe of the Hippodrome at Conſtantinople; nine of them are ſtanding, and a good piece of the entablature: but it is ſurpriſing that each of theſe large columns is made of one intire block only. All the buildings in this caſtle front the eaſt, and the Corinthian order prevails throughout the whole: there is no place where ſuch precious remains of architecture and ſculpture are to be found, in which the fine taſte of Greece and the magnificence of Rome ſeem to be blended; the ornaments are at once innumerable and exquiſite. Beneath the whole are vaults in which vaſt flights of marble ſtairs, of two hundred ſteps in a flight, are frequently found. The turn and elevation of theſe vaults are bold and ſurpriſing; they contain many noble halls and ſuperb apartments, admirably decorated. Some of theſe vaults are dark, others receive light from large windows, which ſtand on a level with the ground above, but the moſt ſingular circumſtance is, that all theſe aſtoniſhing edifices are built with ſuch enormous ſtones, as thoſe before mentioned, without any viſible ſigns of mortar, or any kind of cement whatever. Many houſes, which contain various apartments, are cut out of the ſolid rocks. It is inhabited by about thirty or forty Chriſtian families, a few Jews, and near eight hundred Turks.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe thoſe towns in Syria which are of inferior note; the principal of which, on that ſubdiviſion of Syria Proper, called Comagene, are, 1. Tamoſata, which the Turks now call Scempſal, and was once the capital of Comagene, but at preſent is only a wretched village, ſurrounded by heaps of ruins. It ſtands on the Euphrates, on the confines of Armenia Major, twenty-two miles from Ediſſa: this was the birth-place of the celebrated ſatirical poet Lucian. 2. Dolica, called by the Turks Doliche, once an epiſcopal ſee, but at preſent a mean, ill-built town, thinly peopled, and of little conſideration. It is ſituated on the river Marſyas, which diſembogues itſelf into the Euphrates. Nothing now remain but the names and a little rubbiſh of the antient

tient cities Germanicia, Singia, Antiochia ad Taurum, Catamana, Deba, Chaomia, and Chelinadura.

Tertaſo, formerly called Orthoſia and Antaiadas, from its being ſituated over againſt the little iſle of Aradus, was once a famed ſea-port, and an epiſcopal ſee; at preſent, it is a very inconſiderable place, and inhabited only by poor fiſhermen: it is about nine miles to the northward of Tripoli.

Latakia, or Ladhikiya, the antient Laodicea, was founded by Seleucus Nicanor, or the Victorious, and called by him after his ſiſter's name. It is the moſt northern city of Syria, ſituated on a riſing ground, with a full proſpect of the ſea, in thirty-five degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and is a conſiderable maritime town. It contains many antique remains, particularly ſeveral rows of columns of granite and porphyry, with part of an aqueduct, which Joſephus affirms was built by Herod: the ſtructure is ſpacious, but not arched. Here is a moſque formed of a magnificent antient triumphal arch, ſupported by Corinthian pillars; the architrave is embelliſhed with a variety of warlike trophies. Many Greek and Latin inſcriptions are found among the ruins, but they are in general ſo much defaced as to be illegible. To the weſtward of the city are the remains of a cothon, big enough to hold the largeſt navy in the univerſe. The mouth which is about forty feet wide, is defended by a caſtle, and the whole is an amphitheatrical form; it is ſo choaked up at preſent, as to admit only a few veſſels.

A little to the northward of the city are thoſe remarkable catacombs which excite the attention of travellers. They contain large ſtone coffins, embelliſhed with emblematical figures, ſhells, &c.

The covers of ſome are ſupported by pilaſters, generally of the Corinthian, but ſometimes of the Ionic order: theſe coffins are depoſited in cells on the ſides of a number of chambers hollowed deep into the rock, being each from ten to thirty feet ſquare. The moſt reſpected of theſe ſepulchral chambers is that called St. Teckla, which is dedicated to that firſt virgin martyr; in the midſt of it is a ſpring, to which many marvellous effects are aſcribed.

The intermixture of rocks, woods, ſepulchres, plains, grottoes, fountains, caſcades, &c. render the whole of the adjacent country extremely romantic.

A few miles from a place called the Serpent Fountain, are the Spindles, or Maguzzels, a name which is given to ſeveral painted cylindrical buildings that are erected over a number of ſepulchres.

Oppoſite to the northern extremity of mount Libanus, are the ruins of the antient city of Arka, to the eaſtward a romantic chain of mountains appear; a fine extenſive plain, interſperſed with caſtles, villages, ponds, rivers, &c. opens to the north; and the ſea is ſeen to the weſt. The city was erected on the ſummit of a hill of a conical form, which appears to have been a work of art: the inhabitants were ſupplied with water from mount Libanus, by means of a magnificent aqueduct, notwithſtanding a fine ſtream waters the valley below the city. The places of inferior note in Cœlo-Syria come next under conſideration.

Apamea, founded by Seleucus Nicanor, and ſo named in honour of his mother, is greatly fallen from its antient ſplendor, but ſtill remains a conſiderable town, ſtanding on a ſpot of ground which is almoſt ſurrounded by a lake formed by the river Orontes, about ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Aleppo: ſo that it hath no communication with the land but by an iſthmus, or ſmall rock. The Turks and Greeks call it Hama: it is the reſidence of a beglerbeg, whoſe government is very extenſive: the adjacent territory is exceedingly rich and fertile; the city is well watered, retains many marks of its antient magnificence, and was very early an epiſcopal ſee. It lies in thirty-five degrees ſix minutes north latitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees eighteen minutes eaſt longitude. Seleucus conſtantly fed five hundred large elephants near this city.

Near mount Liſa, between Antioch and Tortoſa, there is a little mean village called Margat, which was antiently a conſiderable place, called Marathos.

On the river Orontes, between Apamea and Laodicea, the town of Emeſa, Emiſſa, or Emiſa, is ſituated. The mad Roman emperor Heliogabalus was born there, and on that account took the whim into his head, to be made one of the prieſts of its temple; the Turks at preſent call it Haman, or Aman. It is under the juriſdiction of the beglerbeg of Damaſcus, who governs it by means of a deputy. It ſtill makes a conſiderable figure, notwithſtanding what it has ſuffered by earthquakes, and the various changes it has undergone. It is ſurrounded by good ſtone walls, with ſix ſuperb gates, and ſeveral magnificent towers at proper diſtances. The walls are environed by a ſpacious ditch, and on an eminence there is a caſtle which commands and defends the town. Here are ſome fine churches, the greateſt part of which are converted into moſques. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, ſupported by thirty-four marble columns, adorned with baſſo-relievos and Greek inſcriptions. The Chriſtians are permitted to pray in it at certain times, beſides which they have ſome churches appropriated entirely to their own uſe. The bazans, kans, caravanſeras, &c. are in general very handſome ſtructures. The inhabitants trade in ſilks, and a fine kind of needle-work of ſilk, gold, and ſilver, curiouſly intermingled together. The adjacent country is very rich and fertile, and the gardens in the environs exceedingly delightful, abounding in a great variety of excellent plants and delicious fruits. In all the gardens great number of mulberry-trees are planted in regular rows, and well-watered, as the demand is very great for mulberry-leaves to feed their ſilk-worms with. This city and Aleppo are the principal places in the diviſion of Cœlo-Syria.

The town of Botrys, or Botrus, in Phœnicia, was once a conſiderable place, but is now a poor village of fiſhermen, ſtanding on the coaſt to the ſouth of Tripoli, and called by the Turks Patron, or Elpatron.

On the coaſt, about twenty miles ſouth of Tripoli, is ſituated Byblus, or Byblos, formerly a fine city, but now a mean village, denominated Gebail. The river Adonis, deſcending from mount Libanus, runs through the town. This river is ſubject to ſwell to an immoderate degree by the melting of ſnow or falling of rains, and at certain times the waters appear bloody, which the ſuperſtitious inhabitants uſed to impute to the death of Adonis, who is alluded to in ſcripture under the name of Tammuz, or Thammuz, Ezek. viii. 14. The natural cauſe of this pretended bloodineſs, is only a kind of minium, or red earth, which is brought away by the waters when they ſwell to an unuſual height, and give the river a crimſon tinge. In this town there is a deputy governor ſubordinate to the beglerbeg of Syria, and a ſmall garriſon; there is, however, but little trade, the harbour being almoſt choaked up.

The city of Berytus was once in a flouriſhing ſtate, but is now upon the decline: the ſtreets are narrow, dirty, and dark. It is, however, a trading place, and a ſtage for the caravans that go to Grand Cairo. It is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, in a fertile and delightful country, about four miles from Tripoli. Some ſtately ruins are ſtill viſible about the town, particularly thoſe of the palace and gardens of Taccar-dine, the fourth emir or prince of the old Druſians, and of an old amphitheatre ſuppoſed to have been built by Agrippa. The trade conſiſts of fine tapeſtry, camlets, ſilks, cinnamon, nutmegs, ginger, caſſia, pepper, rhubarb, cochineal, &c. gourds, colocynth, &c. alſo mulberry and other trees, abound along the coaſt.

Serepta, Serphant, or Serphanda, a city antiently celebrated for the abode which the prophet Elias made in it with a poor widow whom he relieved, is at preſent but an indifferent village about a mile from the ſea, and ſituated on a hill.

SECT. V.

Treats of Paleſtine, or the Holy Land, being in the ſouthern diviſion of Aſiatic Turky, its ſituation, extent, air, climate, ſoil, mountains, rivers, lakes, cities, towns, &c.

PALESTINE, called alſo Judæa and the land of Canaan, is ſituated between thirty-one degrees thirty minutes, and thirty-two degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and from thirty-four degrees fifty minutes, to thirty-ſeven degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, being bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, on the weſt; Syria and Phœnicia, on the north; Arabia Deſerta, on the eaſt; and Arabia Patræa, on the ſouth. It is therefore near two hundred miles in length, and about ninety in breadth towards the middle, but increaſes or diminiſhes twelve or fifteen miles in other places; the longeſt day is about fourteen hours fifteen minutes. The air of Judæa is the moſt ſalubrious and pleaſant imaginable; neither heat nor cold are felt in the extreme; but an agreeable ſerenity diffuſes itſelf throughout the year, which puts the ſtranger in mind of the golden age; and as the climate is the moſt admirable in the univerſe, we have no doubt but in the early ages of the world, when the paſtoral life was the moſt honourable, and agriculture the moſt reputed employ, it far exceeded its preſent excellency, by means of the general cultivation of the country.

We

We have the moſt authentic teſtimonies of the richneſs and fertility of its ſoil: in particular, that it abounded in corn, wine, oil, honey, pomegranates, dates, figs, citrons, oranges, apples of paradiſe, ſugar-canes, cotton, hemp, flax, cedars, cypreſſes, and a great variety of other ſtately, fragrant, and fruitful trees, balm of gilead, and other precious drugs, &c. cattle, fowl, fiſh, game, and other delicacies as well as neceſſaries of life. Whoever, indeed, conſiders the very ſmall extent of Judæa, will be ſenſible that nothing but ſuch aſtoniſhing fertility could enable it to maintain ſuch a number of inhabitants as reſided in it in the time of king David, ſince they amounted to ſix millions. The produce of the land not only ſubſiſted this prodigious multitude, but there was a ſufficient ſuperfluity to export to Tyre and other places. Yet the ſoil was only cultivated ſix years in ſeven, as the ſeptennial year was always a time of reſt from the affairs of agriculture; but we muſt obſerve, that the whole of the country was cultivated, and that woods, parks, waſte grounds, &c. were unknown. An eminent writer affirms, that with a little cultivation it would yield as much as in the days of king David and his ſon Solomon; but that it is now unhappily inhabited by the moſt indolent people exiſting.

Libanus and Anti-Libanus, are the principal mountains of Paleſtine, forming a chain that divides Syria from Paleſtine: the whole is about one hundred leagues in compaſs, and conſiſts of four ridges one above another, two of which are fertile, and two barren, viz. the lower is rich in grain and fruit, the next is rocky and barren; the third abounds in gardens and orchards; though higher than the preceding, and the ſummit is ſteril and uninhabitable, by reaſon of the exceſſive coldneſs on its airy brow: the Maronites inhabit its lower regions, and Arabs all the other parts except the top. In this mountain ſeveral celebrated rivers have their ſource, viz. Jordan, Rocham, Nahur-Roſſian, Naha-Codicha, and Abouali, the firſt only of which runs through Paleſtine. Of theſe mountains the weſtern part alone is properly called Libanus, the caſtern being named Anti-Libanus, and the intervening part Cœlo-Syria. The whole chain, however, always was, and is ſtill looked upon, as a retreat for robbers.

Hermón, like Libanus, is very high, and for the greateſt part of the year capped with ſnow.

Tabor, anciently called Mons Alabyricus, and Ilabyrieum, from a city of that name which ſtood upon it, is admirable with reſpect to its conſtant verdure, beauty, fertility, and regularity, as well as for its ſituation, which is in the middle of a large plain, at a diſtance from any other hill: a winding aſcent of about two miles leads up to it; and the plain, on its top, is half a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth. This mountain is held in great veneration, and has been much reſorted to by Chriſtians of all ages, as it was the ſcene of our Saviour's tranſfiguration.

Carmel, ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, is the moſt remarkable head-land on that coaſt. The prophet Elijah is ſuppoſed to have reſided here in a cave, previous to his being taken up to heaven. The cave is eighteen feet in length, and eleven in breadth, and is ſtill ſhewn to travellers.

Olivet, or the mountain of olives, is only about a mile from Jeruſalem, being ſeparated therefrom by the brook Kidron, and the valley of Jehoſhaphat. It is of a conſiderable height, and from its ſummit there is a fine proſpect of Jeruſalem. It runs in a ridge, and has three or four heads higher than the reſt; from one of the principal Chriſt aſcended into heaven; and the impreſſion of a foot in a hard rock, ſhewn there at this day, is ſaid to have been made by him!

Calvary, or Golgotha (the place where our Saviour was crucified), is a rocky hill on the weſt ſide of Jeruſalem, and was antiently uſed as a general charnel-houſe to that city, from whence it derived its name of Golgotha. This mountain, according to the authority of the antient fathers, is the ſame on which Abraham went to offer up his ſon Iſaac. It was formerly the place where criminals were executed; but, ſince the crucifixion of Chriſt, it hath been ſo reverenced and reſorted to by Chriſtians of all denominations, that it hath, if we may be allowed the expreſſion, drawn the city round about it, for it now ſtands in the midſt of Jeruſalem. Conſtantine the Great encloſed it within the new walls: and, that none of Calvary ſhould be excluded, he even left out ſome part of mount Sion.

Moriah is the mountain on which the temple of Solomon was built.

Gibion ſtands about a quarter of a mile from Jeruſalem, and the pool from whence Hezekiah brought water by an aqueduct into the city, is ſtill to be ſeen on it.

Ebal or Hebal, and Gerizim, though leſs conſiderable than the former, are nevertheleſs remarkable for being the mountains on which the twelve tribes of the Iſraelites were placed, ſix tribes on each, to hear the curſes pronounced by the Levites on the tranſgreſſors of the law of Moſes, as recorded in Deuteronomy xxvii. There is likewiſe Engedi, near the lake of Sodom; Amalich and Gahaſh, in the tribe of Ephraim; Piſgah and Nebo, on the other ſide Jordan; whence Moſes was permitted to view this country, called The Land of Promiſe; the mountains of Gilboa, famed for the defeat of Saul and Jonathan by the Philiſtines, and the chain of hills called the mountains of Gilead, extend from north to ſouth beyond Jordan, and are celebrated for their excellent reſin or balm.

The chief inland ſeas, or rather lakes, are, the Dead ſea, or lake of Sodom; the ſea of Galilee or lake of Tiberias; and the Samachonite ſea, ſea of Jezar, or lake of Samachon.

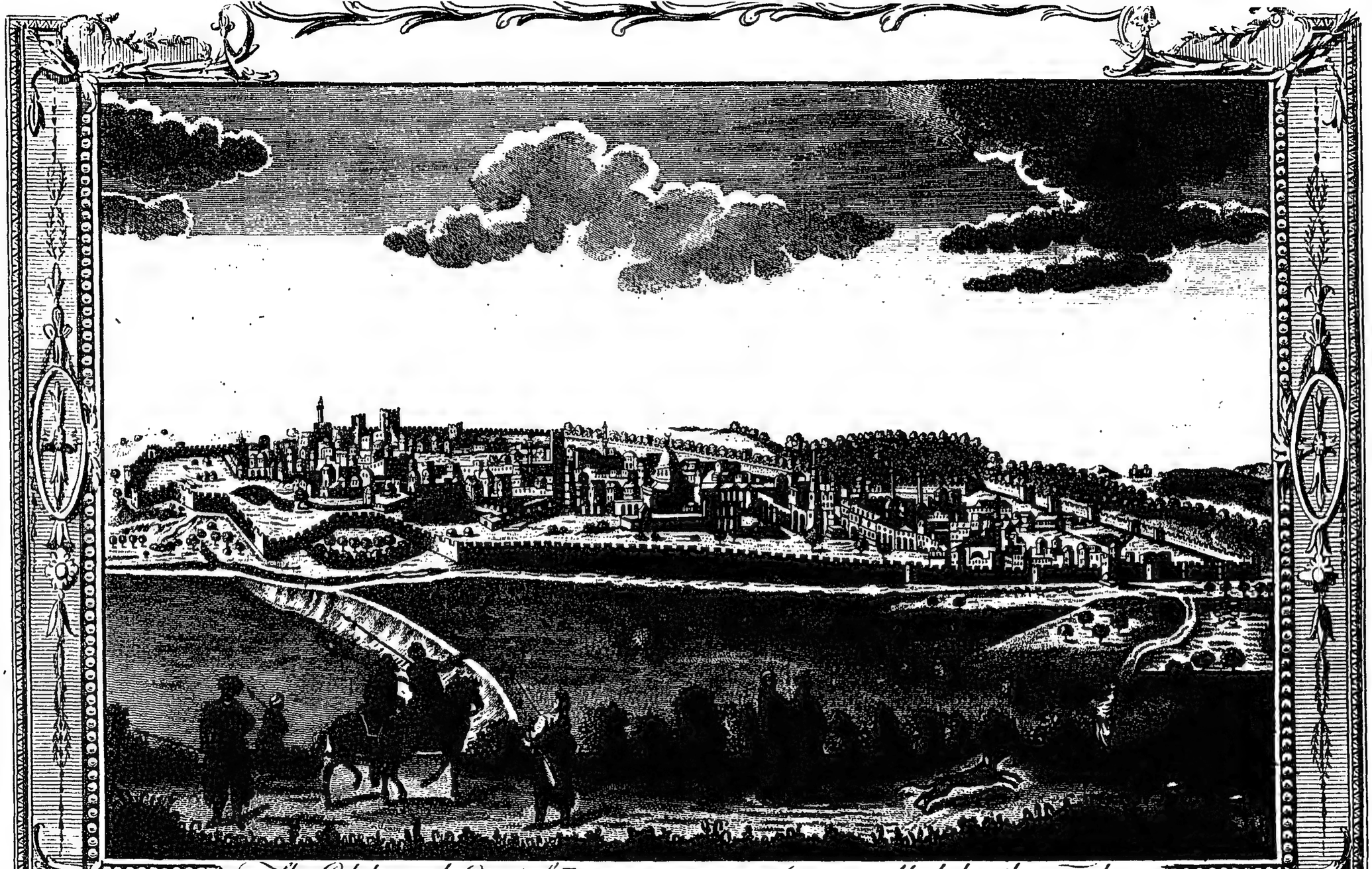
The firſt of theſe, called by the ſeveral names of the Dead ſea, lake of Sodom, Aſphaltic lake, or Salt ſea, hath had many erroneous reports concerning it; namely, that nothing would ſink in it; that it caſt ſuch a ſtench and ſmoke, that the very birds died in attempting to fly over it; hence, and becauſe nothing would live in it, it was termed the Dead ſea; that there grew apples about it fair without, but all aſhes and bitterneſs within; and that the ruins of the five cities that were deſtroyed by fire from heaven, were ſtill to be ſeen under the water in clear weather; that a ſmoke conſtantly aſcended from it, &c. All theſe abſurd notions have been refuted from ſcripture itſelf, by Reland, in his Paleſtine illuſtrated. This lake is called Aſphaltite, from the quantity of bitumen in and about it. Formerly it was imagined that great quantities of this combuſtible matter were thrown up by the ſea; but the mountains on both ſides produce it, and not the lake. It reſembles pink, and is only to be diſtinguiſhed from it by the ſulphureouſneſs of its taſte and ſmell. For the bitumen itſelf, ſome have miſtaken a black pebble found on the ſhores of the lake, which being held in the flame of a candle, preſently takes fire, and burns with a moſt intolerable ſtench. Beſides the above quality, theſe pebbles have this ſingular property, that by burning, their weight only, and not their bulk, is diminiſhed. A traveller of credit affirms, that it contains fiſh, though he confeſſes, that no collection of waters in the univerſe have ſo great a degree of ſaltneſs, from which quality it is denominated the Salt ſea. Galen obſerves, that the exceeding ſaltneſs of the water is mixed with an unpleaſant bitterneſs; and that with reſpect to ſpecific gravity, it as much exceeds other ſea-waters, as they do river-waters Its waters are clear, limpid, and tranſparent. It is about twenty-four leagues in length, and between ſix and ſeven in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt and weſt by exceeding high mountains; on the north, by the plains of Jericho; but to the ſouth, the view is intirely open beyond the reach of the eye.

The lake of Tiberias, or ſea of Galilee, is much ſmaller than the lake of Sodom, but abounds in fiſh, and is highly commended for the excellency of its waters: the river Jordan paſſes through it. On this ſea, St. Peter, Andrew, John, and James, followed their employ as fiſhermen, till Chriſt called them to be fiſhers of men.

The Samachonite ſea, or lake of Samachon, is an hundred furlongs north of that of Tiberias, near the ſource of the river Jordan; it is not above half a mile broad in the wideſt part, but is between ſeven and eight miles in length.

The moſt conſiderable, or indeed the only river in this country, is Jordan. It takes its courſe at the lake of Phiala, enters the Samachonite lake, whence proceeding it divides the ſea of Galilee, and at length diſcharges itſelf into the Dead ſea; after riſing at Phiala, it runs under-ground for the ſpace of fifteen miles; then appearing again at Panoum, is paſſes the before-mentioned Samachonite lake, flows for fifteen miles more, enters the ſea of Tiberias, and, having paſſed it, ſtreams through a deſert till it diſembogues itſelf into the Aſphaltite lake. Contrary to the general nature of rivers, it is fulleſt in ſummer-time: its banks are ſo covered with tall reeds, willows, tamariſks, &c. that they harbour innumerable lions, and other wild beaſts. Its ſtream is ſo rapid and ſtrong, that a man cannot ſtem it in ſwimming. The breadth in the wideſt part does not exceed ſixty feet: the waters are turbid or muddy, the natural conſequence of its rapidity; but they are at the ſame time ſalubrious and incorruptible.

Arnon-Jabok, Cherith, Soree, Kiſhon, Boſor, Belus, Nahâr-al-Sarat, and Jezreel, are the other rivers, or rather rivulets, in this country.



The Celebrated City of JERUSALEM (*now called by the Turks* Cudsembaric) *including it's several famous Buildings now in decay.*

Bolge sculp.

being punished for his remissness, he sat down and comprized the whole in the following admirable line:

"The modest water saw the Lord, and blush'd:"

The master was so charmed with the energy and beauty of this sentence, that he easily pardoned the young pupil for not rendering the theme more copious. Cana was the native or at least dwelling-place of the apostle Nathaniel, of Cana in Galilee; see John xxi. 2.

7. The lot of the tribe of Issachar was bounded on the north by Zebulun; on the south, by the other half of Manasseh; on the east, by Jordan; and on the west, by the Mediterranean. It contained the mounts Carmel and Gilboa, the valley of Jezreel, and plain of Galilee, now called Saba: though its fertility is astonishing, it contains only a few miserable inhabitants, who reside in scattered huts, and has scarce any remaining traces of the towns or villages it might formerly contain. But as the following places in their antient state, were remarkable, on account of some curious circumstances with which they were connected, we shall here give some description of them.

According to Joshua, chap. xix. the city of Shunem, or Shunen, was situated on the borders of the tribe of Issachar. In 1 Samuel xxviii. 4. it mentions, that the Philistines pitched here, as the Israelites did in Gilboa. This city was likewise famous as the place of residence of the hospitable Shunammite, who was so kind to the prophet Elisha.

Another remarkable place is Endor, mentioned 1 Sam. xxviii. as the place of residence of a witch, or woman who had a familiar spirit, to whom Saul applied, that she might raise the spirit of Samuel: it was situated on the west of the river Jordan. St. Jerom and Eusebius inform us, that in their days there was a considerable town of that name at about four miles to the southward of mount Tabor.

The other half tribe of Manasseh had Issachar on the north, Ephraim on the south, the Mediterranean on the west, and Jordan on the east. It was a beautiful country, finely diversified with mountains, vallies, lawns, springs, &c. The most considerable place was Bethsan, or Bethshan, situated on the west of Jordan, and the south coast of the sea of Galilee: it was considerable in the time of St. Jerom and Eusebius: the Turks call it Elbyzan; the Jews called it Bethsan; and the Greeks, Scythopolis, as it is likewise named in the Apocrypha.

Salem, or Solyma, was another remarkable place: but no traces are at present left of this or any of the other last mentioned towns; nor can their situation be ascertained.

8. The lot of the tribe of Ephraim, afterwards known by the name of Samaria, had the river Jordan on the east; the Mediterranean on the west; the tribe of Benjamin, on the south; and the half tribe of Manasseh, on the north: the rupture between the kingdoms of Israel and Judah originated here. The principal places in this lot were these which follow:

Sichem or Sechem, since Neopolis; it was once considerable, being a city of refuge, and, after the destruction of Samaria, the capital of the revolted kingdom: on the place where it stood, there is at present a town known by the name of Naplosa or Naplouse, between the mounts Ebal and Gerizim. It is the seat of a Turkish sangiac, and capital of a territory consisting of one hundred villages. It consists of only two streets lying parallel under Gerizim, but well built and full of people; though travellers reckoned it to be in a poor condition, compared with what its antient ruins shew it to have been.

Arimathea, or Ramah in Hebrew, which signifies a high place, was the place of the nativity of the prophet Samuel.

Samaria, antiently called Someron, from the mountains on which it was built, but now Sebaste, was the capital of the revolted kingdom, and raised by its monarchs to great splendor; it was destroyed by the Assyrians, but Herod rebuilt it, and embellished it with many magnificent edifices, of which there are still some remains, particularly a large square piazza encompassed with marble pillars, some standing, others lying; the fragments of some strong walls, and the church built by the empress Helena over the place where John the Baptist was beheaded, or, as some say, buried. The remains of this church are divided into two parts, one of which belongs to the Christians, and the other to the Turks; the latter division is paved with marble, and has a chapel under-ground, to which there are twenty-three steps to descend; there are three tombs in it, where it is affirmed the Baptist, Elisha, and Obadiah are buried. The Turks likewise say, that in this chapel St. John was imprisoned and beheaded; for a trifle of money they let Christians down to see the tombs, or rather to peep at them through some openings in the wall. Not far from these ruins, Jacob's well is shewn, where Christ held the conference with the Samaritan woman; it is covered by a stone vault; and they who are desirous of seeing it are obliged to be let down through a narrow hole, where they may discover the mouth of it: it is hewn out of the solid rock, is three yards in diameter, and thirty-five in depth, five of which are filled with water.

There is at present nothing remaining of Shiloh, or Sio, celebrated for the tabernacle in which the ark was kept, till just before the death of Eli; see 1 Sam. iv. 3, &c.

To the southward of the whole country lay Judea, properly so called, which contained the tribes of Benjamin, Judah, Dan, and Simeon.

9. The lot of the tribe of Benjamin had Samaria on the north, Jordan on the east, and Dan on the west. The principal places in this lot are the following:

Jerusalem, antiently the regal seat of the Jewish monarchs, and the centre of the Jewish religion. In its most flourishing state, the city was divided into four distinct parts, each being enclosed by its own walls, viz. The old city of Jebus, which stood on mount Zion, or Sion, where the prophets dwelt, and where king David built a superb palace, which became the residence both of himself and his successors, on which account it was called the city of David. 2. The Lower City, or the Daughter of Zion, so called on account of its having been built subsequent to the other. In this division stood the two magnificent palaces which Solomon built for himself and his queen; the fine palace of the Maccabæan princes; the noble amphitheatre erected by Herod, which was said to be capable of containing eighty thousand spectators; the citadel built by Antiochus, which was destroyed by Simon the Maccabee; and the second citadel called Antonia, which was erected by Herod upon a craggy rock. 3. The New City, principally inhabited by merchants, artificers, mechanics, &c. and, 4. Mount Moriah, on which the temple of Solomon was built, of which an ample description is given, 1 Kings vi. vii.

Jerusalem is still reckoned the capital of Palestine, situate on a mountain, about thirty miles east of the Levant, in thirty-six degrees of eastern longitude, and thirty-two degrees of north latitude, about ninety miles south of Damascus, and two hundred and thirty miles north-east of Grand Cairo in Egypt, from which it is divided only by the territory of Arabia Petræa. The situation of the city is altered from what it was at the crucifixion of our Saviour; for mount Calvary then stood without the walls, but has now drawn the city round about it, and the church of the sepulchre built upon it now stands almost in the middle of the town, and mount Sion, which stood near the center, is now left without the walls. The present town is not more than three miles in circumference, but is presumed to have been much larger in its flourishing state; it is but thinly inhabited at present, and the buildings mean; the resort of Christian pilgrims to it is the most considerable advantage it has now, and the accommodating them with lodgings and provisions the chief business of the inhabitants. A bassa and a good garrison is kept here by the Turks, to keep good order, collect the Grand Signor's revenues, and protect the pilgrims against the Arabs, who possess the adjacent country. The grandest building in the place is the church of the sepulchre, in which every Christian nation almost has a chapel. The middle of the church is covered with an open dome or cupola, from whence the church receives light; and under this open cupola stands the glorified sepulchre. There are also in this church twelve or thirteen places, consecrated on account of some particular actions done in them, relating to the death and resurrection of Christ, as the place where he was nailed to the cross, the place where the soldier stood who pierced his side, where the angels appeared to the woman after the resurrection, &c. and on Good-Friday, annually, our Saviour's passion is solemnized in this church, and all parts of it acted; such as nailing him to the cross, crowning him with thorns, taking the body down from the cross; and here is to be seen the cleft of the rock which was made by the earthquake, when our Saviour expired.

The wall and fortifications are very antique, having old square towers upon them instead of bastions; but these are sufficient for its defence, there being no other enemy near it, but the wandering Arabs, who have no artillery. The ditch is inconsiderable; and the gates are six in number, viz. Damascus, St. Stephen's, Herod's, Sterquiliana, Bethlehem, and Mount Sion gate; besides the Golden

gate, which is ſhut up, on account of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that the Chriſtians are to take Jeruſalem by that gate.

In the ſouth part of the city, on mount Moriah, ſtand the edifices called Solomon's temple, which is ſituated upon the antient temple above-mentioned; but it is uncertain by whom this was erected. The middle part, where the Jewiſh ſanctum ſanctorum was ſuppoſed to have ſtood, is converted into a Turkiſh moſque.

The Turkiſh ſangiac, who governs this city, reſides (as they tell us) in the very houſe where Pontius Pilate is ſuppoſed to have lived. Moſt of the churches have been converted into moſques. The prieſts and other Chriſtians are kept miſerably poor by the tyranny of the government, and have ſcarce any ſubſiſtence but what they procure by accommodating ſtrangers with food and lodging, and ſelling them relics.

The moſt remarkable antiquities in the neighbourhood of Jeruſalem are:

The pools of Bethesda and Gihon; the former is one hundred and twenty paces long, forty broad, and eight deep; it is at preſent dry, and the arches dammed up; but Gihon, which is about a quarter of a mile from Bethlehem gate, is a magnificent relic, one hundred and ſix paces long, ſixty broad, lined with a wall and plaiſter, and well ſtored with water.

In the valley of Jehoſhaphat is the tomb of the Virgin Mary: there is a deſcent to it by a flight of forty-ſeven magnificent ſteps. On the right hand is the ſepulchre of St. Anne, the mother of the bleſſed Virgin; and on the left hand is that of Joſeph her huſband; the whole is cut into the ſolid rock.

The next thing remarkable is Abſalom's pillar or place, which they aſſure us was erected by that prince in order to perpetuate his memory, as he had no male iſſue: it reſembles a ſepulchre, though it is not known that he was buried there. A great heap of ſtones lie about it, which are always increaſing; for all Jews and Turks, who paſs by it, make a point of throwing a ſtone each upon the heap, as a token of abhorrence to Abſalom for his unnatural rebellion againſt his father. The ſtructure itſelf is twenty cubits ſquare, and ſixty high, adorned below with four columns of the Ionic order. From the height of twenty to forty cubits it grows leſs, and is plain, a ſmall fillet at the upper end excepted; from thence to the top it is circular, and runs up ſpirally to a point, the whole being cut out of a ſolid rock: there is a room within conſiderably higher than the level of the ground without, on the ſides of which are niches, probably to receive coffins.

Eaſtward of the above is the tomb of Zechariah, the ſon of Barachiah, whom the Jews ſlew between the temple and the altar, as it is commonly ſuppoſed. It is cut out of the rock, eighteen feet high, and as many ſquare, and adorned with Ionic columns on each front, cut out of the ſame rock, and ſupporting a cornice: the whole ends like a diamond, in a jointed top.

The moſt elaborate, curious, and magnificent antique remains that imagination can conceive, are, the royal ſepulchres without the walls of Jeruſalem. It is uncertain by whom they were built, but they conſiſt of a great number of apartments, moſt of which are ſpacious, all cut out of the marble rock.

There is a ſpot of ground near Jeruſalem, of thirty yards long and fifty broad, which is now the burial place of the Armenians. It was formerly the Aceldama, field of blood, or potter's field, purchaſed with the price of Judas's treaſon, as a place of interment for ſtrangers. It is walled round, to prevent the Turks from abuſing the bones of the Chriſtians; but one half of it is occupied by a charnel houſe.

The remains of an old caſtle are ſhewn at Bethany, which ſtood in the road between Jeruſalem and Jericho: this place, it is affirmed, belonged formerly to Lazarus: there is a deſcent of twenty-five ſteps to the room where he was laid, and the tomb out of which he was raiſed.

Jericho is about twenty-three miles from Jeruſalem, and was remarkable for being the firſt city invaded by the Iſraelites after their paſſage over Jordan, when it was taken by the ſingular fall of its walls. It is reduced from a magnificent city to a little mean village, without any veſtiges of its former ſplendor, except ſome grand arches of an old conduit.

10. The lot of the tribe of Judah was bounded, on the ſouth, by the mountains of Edom; on the north, by Benjamin; on the eaſt, by the Dead ſea; and on the weſt, by the Mediterranean. This was the moſt fertile, populous, and largeſt of all the twelve lots, but at preſent there are no remains of any places which it might formerly contain, except Bethlehem, the place of the nativity of our Saviour Jeſus Chriſt, and therefore the moſt worthy to be held in eſteem by all mankind, for the bleſſings beſtowed upon them by the Redeemer.

Bethlehem is diſtant about ſix or ſeven miles from Jeruſalem to the ſouth-weſt in the way to Hebron: it lies in thirty one degrees thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in ſixty-five degrees fifty minutes longitude. It was antiently called the city of David, having been the birth place of the royal pſalmiſt; it is ſeated on a pleaſant hill, in a fine fertile plain, and enjoys a moſt excellent air. It was once a fine and flouriſhing city, but is now a poor village, only reſorted to at this day on account of its being the place of our Lord's nativity, over which Helena, the mother of Conſtantine, erected a magnificent temple, the roof whereof is cedar, ſupported by four rows of white marble pillars, ten in each row; the walls of the church is built in the form of a croſs, of which the chancel conſtitutes the upper part, and is covered with a noble cupola. Under the church in a cave hewn out of the rock is the chapel of the nativity, where they ſhew the manger our Saviour was laid in, cut alſo out of the rock, and now cruſted with marble. An altar with the repreſentation of the nativity is erected here, and lamps kept burning before it. Here is alſo the chapel of St. Joſeph, the ſuppoſed father of our Lord and of the Holy Innocents: and adjoining to the church is a monaſtery of Franciſcans: they ſhew a valley near this town where they ſay Jacob kept his flocks; being the ſame, as they relate, where the angels appeared to the ſhepherds, declaring the birth of Chriſt. Here the ſame pious empreſs alſo built a church, but it is now in ruins.

In the neighbourhood of Bethlehem, are thoſe famous fountains, pools and gardens, ſaid to have been the contrivance and delight of Solomon, and to theſe works this king is ſuppoſed to allude, Eccleſ. ii. 5, 6. where, among other inſtances of his magnificence, he reckons his gardens, vineyards and pools. Theſe pools are ſo diſpoſed, that the waters of the uppermoſt deſcend into the ſecond, and thoſe of the ſecond into the third; their figure is quadrangular, and their breadth the ſame in all, but their length is different, the firſt being about an hundred and ſixty paces long, the ſecond two hundred, and the third two hundred and twenty. They are all lined with a wall, and contain a great depth of water: and about an hundred and twenty paces from them is a fountain, from whence they principally derive their waters, which are carried thither by a large ſubterraneous paſſage: but there is an aqueduct laid from it, which receives part of the ſtream, which carries it by many turnings and windings about the mountains of Jeruſalem. And our author does not think it improbable that the pools abovementioned are the ſame with Solomon's, there being not the like ſtore of excellent ſpring water in all Paleſtine. But I ſhould tire the reader's patience to enumerate every little place which ſcripture ſtory has rendered remarkable in the Holy Land; I ſhall mention therefore but very few more, before I take my leave of it, and one is a convent of Greeks, between Bethlehem and Jeruſalem, called the convent of the holy croſs, having obtained that name, becauſe, according to tradition, here is the ground which nouriſhed the root that bore the tree which yielded the timber that made the croſs of our Saviour, and under the high altar is ſhewn the hole where the ſtump of the tree ſtood, which the pilgrims frequently fall down before and worſhip; and this perhaps is as remarkable an inſtance of the credulity and ſuperſtition of the poor bigotted people, as is to be met with in the Chriſtian or heathen world; and cannot but excite the laughter of infidels.

Another pious fraud of the Greek fathers is their pretending, that upon every Eaſter eve a miraculous flame deſcends into the holy ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, and kindles all the lamps and candles there. But we ſhall quit this place, and paſs on to Hebron, the antient ſeat of David before he took Jeruſalem, but which hath long ſince been ruined; near it ſtands the village called Elkapil, on a pleaſant hill that overlooks a moſt delightful valley. Ruinous as its preſent condition is, it ſtill contains a handſome church, built by the empreſs Helena, over the ſepulchral cave, where Abraham and Sarah, Iſaac, Jacob, and Leah lie buried. The Turks, Chriſtians, and Jews, all regard it with equal veneration. This town is the capital of a diſtrict, conſiſting of about twenty-four little villages, which the Turks call the territory of the friends of God.

There was formerly a very ſtrong fortreſs called Bethzor, or Bethzora, which is ſuppoſed to have ſtood upon

a craggy hill twenty miles to the ſouthward of Jeruſalem, where there is now a village named St. Philip, from a tradition that it was from a fountain near this place where St. Philip baptized the eunuch of queen Candace.

The village of Engaddi, on the top of a rock near the Dead ſea, about four miles eaſt of Tekoah, is famed for the great quantity of palms, and other odoriferous trees, which grow on the mountains above it. Among the caverns of theſe mountains, two are very remarkable; the one for being the retreat of Lot and his daughters after the conflagration of Sodom, &c. and the other for being the cavern in which David ſo generouſly ſpared the life of Saul, contenting himſelf with only cutting off the ſkirt of his garment.

11. The lot of Dan was bounded, on the ſouth by Simeon; on the north, by Ephraim; on the eaſt, by Judah and Benjamin; and on the weſt, by the Philiſtines country and the Mediterranean; the length being forty miles from north to ſouth, and the greateſt breadth not exceeding twenty-five miles. It abounded in all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life; and the ſpies brought to the Iſraelitiſh camp from this country noble ſpecimens of its admirable fertility.

12. The lot of the tribe of Simeon lay in the moſt ſouthern corner of Judea; and was bounded by Dan, on the north; by Gihon, on the ſouth; by Judah, on the eaſt; and a neck of land, towards the Mediterranean, on the weſt. This part was not ſo fertile as the reſt of the land of Canaan, nor were the towns either many or conſiderable, none deſerving any mention, even in antient times, except Anthedon and Rhinocolura, which are now poor ruined towns ſtanding on the ſea coaſt, and Beerſheba, of which, in Gen. xxi. we learn, that Abraham, having entered into a ſolemn league of friendſhip with Abimelech, king of the Philiſtines, who had before taken ſeven wells from him, preſented the king with ſeven young ſheep; and intreated him to accept of them as a token that he had dug ſuch a well, and ſhould thenceforth be permitted peaceably to enjoy it: upon which occaſion the place was called Beer-Sheba, or the Well of the Oath, becauſe of the covenant made relative thereto. Hence the name of Beerſheba was in proceſs of time given to the city erected near it.

The following are the moſt remarkable places compriſed in a ſmall part of the preſent Paleſtine, ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and extending to the ſea-port of Jamnia, which was long ſubject to the five lords of the Philiſtines.

1. Aſkalon, which is dwindled into a very trifling village: it ſtands on the ſea-coaſt, and was the native place of Herod the Great, who was thence called Aſcalonites. This was an epiſcopal ſee from the earlieſt ages of Chriſtianity; and, during the holy wars, had many ſtately edifices remaining, which have ſince been all ruined by the Turks and Saracens.

2. Gaza lies in thirty-one degrees twenty-two minutes north latitude, and thirty-five degrees eaſt longitude, and is ſituated between two and three miles from the Mediterranean ſea. It retains many monuments of its priſtine grandeur, and on all ſides ſome noble remains of antiquity are to be ſeen, viz. ſeveral rows of ſtately marble columns with all their ornaments intire, magnificent ſepulchres, monuments, &c. Among theſe is one in particular ſurrounded by a high wall, which belongs to a Turkiſh family. Near the city ſtands a round caſtle, flanked with four ſquare towers, defended by two ſtrong iron gates, and other works; oppoſite to which is the ſeraglio, where the baſſa's wives and attendants are kept, and a little above are the remnants of an old Roman caſtle, the materials of which are ſo firm, that the hammer can make no impreſſion on them. The Greeks and Armenians have each a church here; and near to that of the latter, the ſpot is ſhewn where the temple ſtood which Sampſon pulled down over his head, and deſtroyed at once himſelf with a great number of Philiſtines. The caſtle is the reſidence of a ſangiac, who is ſuppoſed to have near three hundred ſmall villages or hamlets under his juriſdiction. At a little diſtance from the town quite up to Egypt, the country is inhabited by a race of wild Arabs, who not being ſubject to any regular government, are continually roving about from place to place.

3. Maſſuina, or New Gaza, ſtood about ten miles from Aſkalon, near the mouth of the river Bezor: it was the antient ſea-port to the former, or Old Gaza, and on that account only was of note: about it are ſtill ſome antique remains, but it is uncertain whether they belong to New or Old Gaza.

4. Two miles from the ſea, and about three miles ſouth from Gaza, ſtands a town named Lariſſa; it is at preſent a poor mean place, defended by an old caſtle, and a garriſon of two hundred men, but was formerly celebrated as the burial place of Pompey the Great, who was killed in its neighbourhood.

5. Raphia ſtands at a little diſtance from the above; but is now ſo inconſiderable as ſcarcely to deſerve mentioning; though in the time of the Maccabees it was a place of ſome account.

6. Gath was antiently the principal of the five capital cities of the Philiſtines, being the regal ſeat; but it dwindled away ſo early, that no veſtiges of it are now remaining, and it is even uncertain where it exactly ſtood. It was famed as the reſidence of the remnant of the giant race, and was the place of Goliah's nativity.

7. Ekron was the northernmoſt of all the five cities which gave name to the five lordſhips of the Philiſtines; it was once a place of great wealth and power, and frequently mentioned in the ſacred writings, but is now little noticed by any profane authors, being almoſt dwindled to nothing.

8. Aſhdod, or Azotus, bore an extraordinary fame among the antients: it was ſituated about twelve miles to the north of Aſkalon. The ſituation was inland, and the circumjacent country exceedingly fertile and pleaſant. It was famous for the temple of Dagon, where was the grandeſt and moſt famous god the Philiſtines had. To him they attributed the invention of agriculture. Some inſiſt that the idol Dagon repreſented a man; while others affirm, that it reſembled a ſea-monſter. There are at preſent no traces of this city left, though in the times of primitive Chriſtianity it was an epiſcopal ſee, and was even a fair village in the time of St. Jerom.

Thus having given a geographical deſcription of the antient as well as preſent ſtate of the Holy Land, which was the ſcene of a great variety of the moſt remarkable and intereſting tranſactions, in which the antient Jewiſh patriarchs, prophets, and kings, bore a conſiderable part; and alſo the ſpot in which our glorious Redeemer wrought many miracles, and accompliſhed the work of redemption; as foretold in the Old Teſtament, and fulfilled in the ſacred and inſpired pages, written by the four evangeliſts; we think it unneceſſary to recapitulate thoſe memorable events in this place: but for the general ſatisfaction of our readers, beg leave to refer them to the Rev. Dr. *Wright's New and Compleat Life of Chriſt*, printed in crown folio; and now publiſhing in thirty-ſix weekly numbers, at only ſix-pence each, with elegant copper-plates.

SECT. VI.

Contains an account of the original of the Turks, their genius, temper, perſons, habit, diet, liquors, diverſions, ceremonies, &c.

THE Turks are generally agreed to have been of Scythian or Tartarian original, and to have been very little known till the eighth century, when they came down upon Georgia, and plundered that country. In the year 844 they penetrated as far as Armenia Major, where they fixed themſelves; and from them this country obtained the name of Turcomania. But we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak more particularly of them as a nation, when we come to treat of their hiſtory.

With reſpect to their genius and temper, they affect to appear ſedate, paſſive, and humble, but they are eaſily provoked, and their paſſions are furious and ungovernable: they are full of diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive: in religious matters, narrow-minded, bigotted and enthuſiaſtic: they ſeem to have no manner of inclination for the improvement of arts and ſciences, any more than for the manuring or cultivating their lands; a ſluggiſh indolent way of life is preferred to every thing elſe: and the greateſt of them ſaunter away the beſt part of their time among the women, in their harams. Anatolia, the moſt fertile country in the world, lies great part of it unmanured; and ſeveral provinces of that empire, which formerly were exceedingly populous, and abounded in all things, are now become perfect deſarts for want of culture; and ſcarce any thing but ruins are to be ſeen in thoſe countries which were heretofore famous for fine cities and elegant buildings.

Theſe people, as they ſeldom or never travel, ſo they have no curioſity to be informed of the ſtate and condition of other countries, or indeed of their own: they never enquire after news, and if a miniſter of ſtate happen to

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be diſplaced, or ſtrangled, they do not concern themſelves about the reaſon of it; you hear them ſay no more on ſuch an occaſion, but that there is a new vizier, or a new baſſa, of ſuch a province; but, perhaps, that is as much as they dare ſay in ſtate matters; however, it is certain they are far from being talkative; for we frequently ſee five or ſix of them ſit ſmoaking together, and a word ſhall ſcarce drop from any of them in a quarter of an hour. Some women are alſo, among the common people, addicted to ſmoaking: the ſtems of their pipes are of roſe or cherry-tree wood, ſome of them carved or ornamented with ſilver: the bowls are neatly made of clay: the rich uſe the Perſian caalean, which is, making the ſmoke paſs in ſilver tubes through a veſſel of water before it reaches the mouth, which renders it leſs diſagreeable to the ſmell and taſte. Friendſhip, wit, and agreeable converſation they are perfect ſtrangers to, as a modern traveller obſerves; but in matters of trade they are ſharp enough, and will carry long accounts in their heads, without the help of books, by a natural arithmetic, improved by cuſtom and neceſſity.

Walking is no leſs their averſion than talking: the taking a walk, as we call it, for walking ſake, is to them the moſt ridiculous exerciſe in the world, and they look upon our people to be diſtracted or mad, when they ſee them taking a turn backwards and forwards; they chooſe rather to loll all day long or ſit croſs-legged on their ſofa's: and though they have company about them, there is no more converſation amongſt them than among ſo many horſes: they aſſociate themſelves together at certain times, as animals of a lower ſpecies do, but their ſatisfaction ſeems to ariſe only from their ſitting near each other. Thoſe who have country houſes or gardens diſtant from the towns, will ſcarce ſubmit to the toil of viſiting them; becauſe where coaches, and other ſuch like vehicles are little in uſe, they are under the neceſſity of breaking through that fixed and ſettled habit of indolence which ſeems univerſally to poſſeſs them.

The honeſty and probity of the Turks is highly cried up by ſome travellers; but our merchants obſerve, that thoſe who deal with them ought to be upon their guard; and indeed, as all people agree that covetouſneſs and extortion are the faſhionable vices of Turky, and univerſally practiſed by their governors and miniſters of ſtate, who expoſe offices and every thing to ſale, it is not likely that their inferiors are perfectly innocent: they will not perhaps be guilty of an open fraud, or a downright lie, which might affect their credit in trade, and ruin their reputation; but where they can circumvent another ſecurely, it is not to be ſuppoſed they will reſiſt the temptation, where covetouſneſs is ſo predominant. Some I find make a diſtinction between native Turks and thoſe who have changed their religion upon ſecular views: theſe latter are by all people held to be the moſt abandoned villians, whatever ſhews of ſanctity they may put on; and for the reſt, I do not at all doubt but the probity of our own merchants is at leaſt equal to that of the Mahometan traders.

The temperance of the Turks has been obſerved alſo to exceed that of the Chriſtians; but there are few of them which abſtain from wine in private, notwithſtanding their law prohibits it; and the government puniſhes ſeverely thoſe that are found diſordered by it in the ſtreets: nay, thoſe very magiſtrates who puniſh others for drunkenneſs, will, like thoſe of ſome Chriſtian nations, drink in the night to a very great exceſs; and ſo as they behave themſelves quietly and inoffenſively in their liquor, do not think they have committed any great crime. Sodomy alſo is a vice which they are intolerably addicted to, notwithſtanding they are indulged in taking as many women as they pleaſe.

Their charity however, if it be not done for oſtentation, as ſome travellers ſuggeſt, is very commendable: they are careful even to prevent the unfortunate being reduced to neceſſities; they viſit the priſons, and pay the debts of the poor who lie there. In caſe of fires, which are very frequent in their timber buildings, the loſſes of the ſufferers are ſoon made up by the contributions of others. They repair highways, erect fountains and ciſterns at their own expence, for the conveniency of travellers: build caravanſeras for the entertainment of them; and ſome devout people, it is ſaid, ſet up ſheds by the way ſide purely to be aſſiſtant to people in their journies, and refreſh the wearied traveller. The charity of ſome of them extends even to animals and plants: they will purchaſe the liberty of impriſoned birds, procure food for others, and religiouſly water certain trees.

Their quarrels ſeldom proceed to blows, and duelling is not known amongſt them; but no people exceed them in billingſgate language and complicated curſes, when they are provoked, but never prophane the name of God, or make themſelves merry with ſacred things, as Chriſtians often do. Their pride is inſupportable, deſpiſing and contemning all people but their own, eſpecially thoſe of a different religion: themſelves alone they eſteem wiſe, valiant and holy; the reſt of the world are a pack of reprobates, not entitled to the good things of this life or another. It is not only held lawful, but their duty to extend their conqueſts to the ends of the earth, and bring all nations in ſubjection to the Mahometan yoke; and they are taught that by dying fighting in this cauſe they purchaſe ſeats in paradiſe.

The doctrines of fate and predeſtination have ſuch an influence here, that no man flies from his houſe in the plague, which is very common amongſt them, nor do they ſend a ſlave away who is infected with it, but attend the ſick as if the diſtemper was not contagious. This perſuaſion alſo inſpires them with courage in the field.

As the Turks make choice of wives for their beauty or merit, it is no wonder that both men and women are handſome; they ſearch every country where beauties are to be met with as diligently as our gentlemen purſue the ladies for their fortunes: people here ſeem more careful in the breed of their dogs and horſes than their children, and their iſſue frequently ſhew it.

In Turky the men ſhave their heads, leaving one lock upon the crown; and uſe a proverbial expreſſion in juſtification of the practice, that "the devil neſtles in long hair;" they wear their beards long, except the officers in the palace and military men, and theſe leave only whiſkers on the upper lip. All of them wear turbans uſually white, but the family of Mahomet green. A turbant contains a whole piece of linen or ſilk, wound about their heads to the bigneſs of half a buſhel almoſt, and adorned ſometimes with lace or fringe; the greater the quality of the man, the bigger his turbant is uſually. (Their Chriſtian ſubjects, the Greeks and Armenians, are not ſuffered to wear white turbants.) Next their ſkins the Turks wear a kind of ſhirt, without collar or wriſtbands, and over it a long veſt tied with a ſaſh, the ſleeves cloſe and reaching down to their wriſts; over the veſt they uſually wear a looſe coat of the banjan make, of almoſt any colour; their breeches or drawers are cloſe before and behind, and let down when they water, which the men do ſitting as well as the women. The ſtockings are of a piece with their breeches; inſtead of ſhoes they wear yellow ſlippers, which is another mark of diſtinction; they will not ſuffer a Chriſtian to wear ſuch: the ſlippers are always put off in entering a houſe or temple, but the turbant or cap never. They put their knife, handkerchief and purſe in their boſoms, and have a daggar or poinard in their ſaſh.

The firſt part of the ladies dreſs is a pair of drawers very full, which reach to the ſhoes, and conceal the legs more modeſtly than petticoats; theſe are made of thin roſe-coloured damaſk, brocaded with ſilver flowers. The ſhoes are of white kid leather embroidered with gold: over this hangs a ſmock of a fine white ſilk gauze, edged with embroidery; this ſmock has wide ſleeves hanging half way down the arm, and is cloſed at the neck with a diamond button; but the ſhape and colour of the boſom are very well to be diſtinguiſhed through it. The antery, is a waiſtcoat made cloſe to the ſhape, of white and gold damaſk, with very long ſleeves falling back, and fringed with deep gold fringe, and ſhould have diamond or pearl buttons. The caftan, of the ſame ſtuff with the drawers, is a robe exactly fitted to the ſhape, and reaching to the feet with very long, ſtrait falling ſleeves: over this is a girdle about four fingers broad, which all who can afford it have entirely of diamonds or other precious ſtones; thoſe who are not at that expence, have it of exquiſite embroidery on ſattin, but it muſt be faſtened before with a claſp of diamonds. The curdee, with a looſe robe, is put on or thrown off according to the weather, being a rich brocade lined either with ermine or ſables, and has ſleeves which reach very little below the ſhoulders. The headdreſs is compoſed of a cap called talpoc, which in winter is of fine velvet embroidered with pearls or diamonds, and in ſummer of a light ſhining ſilver ſtuff; this is fixed on one ſide of the head, from which it hangs a little way down with a gold taſſel, and is bound on either with a circle of diamonds, or a rich embroidered handkerchief: on the other ſide of the head the hair is laid flat; and here the ladies are at liberty to ſhew their fancies, ſome putting flowers, others a plume of heron's feathers, in ſhort what they pleaſe; but the moſt general faſhion is a large bouquet of jewels made like natural flowers, the buds of pearls, the roſes of different coloured rubies, the jeſſamines of diamonds

diamonds, the jonquils of topazes and the like, ſo well ſet and enamelled, that it is hard to conceive any thing of that kind ſo beautiful. The hair hangs at its full length behind, divided into treſſes, braided with pearl or ribbands, in great quantities.

Their food is chiefly rice, mixed with the ſoup or gravy of ſtewed meat, which ſcarce wants a knife to cut it; both their roaſted and boiled meat are ſo much done, that they can pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their grand diſh here, and in all the Eaſt, is pilau, which conſiſts of mutton and fowls boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled perfectly dry, the ſoup made of the meat, which is very high ſeaſoned, is poured upon it. Thoſe that do not chuſe rice have cakes baked upon the hearth, which they eat inſtead of bread. Their uſual liquors are water, ſherbet, or coffee. As for the common people, they live very much upon cucumbers, melons, roots, and other garden ſtuff, and have the ſame ſmall liquors as their betters.

Few of the Turks lie in beds, but on carpets, mattreſſes or mats, on a ſopha or raiſed floor, on the ſides of the room, or at the end of it, and cover themſelves with quilts. They lie in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, as they do in other eaſtern countries, and have no need of ſheets.

The uſual ſalutation among the Turks is, a little inclination of the head, and clapping the right hand to the breaſt: but when they ſalute a perſon of diſtinction, they ſtoop ſo low, as to take up the hem of his veſt and kiſs it. They uſually ſit in an open hall upon a ſopha, (which is a bench or ſtage about five feet broad, and a foot and a half high, at the upper end of the hall, and ſometimes on all ſides of the room, covered with carpets and cuſhions to lean on.) Here they ſpread a piece of leather when they eat, and ſet little wooden tables about half a foot high, ſometimes, upon which they place a great bowl of rice, with a ladle, meat and plates, and the maſter of the houſe ſays a ſhort prayer of grace, which he begins, "In the name of God almighty, merciful," &c. and one napkin of blue linen ſerves all the company.

The Turks play at drafts and cheſs to paſs away their time, but not for ſums of money; and thus they think they comply with the intention of their law, which prohibits gaming chiefly upon account of the quarrels it creates, there being no likelihood of falling out where nothing is hazarded. Some of the natives delight in their country muſic, which is not the moſt harmonious in the world; and their derviſes have a kind of religious muſic, to which they dance with all their might, till they are ready to drop down. They have their dancing-girls here alſo as well as in Perſia and India, with whom they entertain themſelves ſometimes. Their manly exerciſes are ſhooting at a mark with fire arms, or bows and arrows on horſeback, in every poſture almoſt; and they are taught to dart a little ſtaff, with which they attack and purſue one another on horſeback, and ſometimes give and receive dangerous bruiſes.

Their manner of travelling over the deſerts with the caravans, does not differ from that of the Perſians and Arabs, which we have mentioned already; we therefore beg leave to add here ſome obſervations of Mr. Motraye upon the ſame ſubject, who aſſures us, that it is cheaper travelling in Turky than in any country in the world, not only on account of the great plenty of proviſions, but the ſmall expence of horſe hire, and particularly for Franks, or European Chriſtians; for if a gentleman is about to undertake a journey, he need only apply himſelf to the ambaſſador or reſident of his nation, who will ſend his interpreter with him to court, or the governor of the place, and procure him a menzil firman, or a yoll firman, which are never refuſed: by the firſt of theſe all his expences are borne, whether of horſes or proviſions, during the whole journey at the Grand Signor's charge, who at the diſtance of every three or four leagues, has houſes of entertainment, and horſes laid to furniſh the couriers and expreſſes he ſends to the ſeveral parts of the empire, and for any other perſon to whom the court grants one of theſe firmans or orders, for there are no ſtated general poſts in Turky, as with us: however, the expreſſes which the court ſends will take the letters of the Frank merchants with them upon very reaſonable terms, and deliver them at Aleppo, Smyrna, Bagdat, &c.

When a gentleman who has the Grand Signor's order, or firman, arrives at any ſtage, there are people ready to take care of his horſes and baggage, and provide freſh horſes while he refreſhes himſelf; and there is alſo ſomething dreſſed, as meat, fiſh and rice, at whatever hour of the day or night he comes in. If the traveller has only a yoll firman he pays ten aſpers (half-pence) for every three miles for his own horſe, but nothing for his guide or proviſions.

As for the caravanſeras or inns where travellers lodge who have no firman, we meet with them in almoſt every town and village at proper diſtances: thoſe in the towns are magnificently built of ſtone and covered with lead; they are generally in the form of a ſquare with a little piazza or cloyſter in the inſide, and cells for lodging, like thoſe in monaſteries. They are furniſhed with mats or ſtraw, but no beds to lie on; and the traveller does not only lodge gratis, but in ſome they give boiled rice, meat and bread to ſuch travellers as will accept it; but proviſions are ſo cheap, that people generally make uſe of their own; and ſuch is the hoſpitality of the Turks, it is obſerved, that if a poor traveller has no proviſion of his own, he may without any ceremony ſit down and eat with any of his countrymen.

The roads, bridges, ciſterns, and caravanſeras for entertainment of travellers, are kept in repair in Turky by the contributions and labours of private people, who look upon it to be a work of charity, and highly acceptable to heaven, to provide for the neceſſities of the wearied traveller; even thoſe who live by their labour, and have nothing elſe to contribute, will ſpend part of their time gratis in theſe employments, and travellers relate, that in the eaſtern parts of this empire towards Meſopotamia, the hoſpitable natives, like Abraham of old, will invite travellers to their tents and houſes as they paſs through their country, and contend for the honour of entertaining them.

SECT. VII.

Treats of the produce, manufactures, and trade of the Turks.

TURKY in Aſia produces rice, wheat, barley, raw ſilk, carpets, goats-hair, mohair yarn, goats-wool, cotton wool, cotton yarn, dimities, burdets, ſhagreen-ſkins, blue, red, and yellow cordovants, coffee, (the product of Arabia) rhubarb, turpentine, ſtorax, gum ſenegal, gum traganth, gum arabic, opium, galls, maſtic, worm ſeed, ſenna, emeralds, terra lemnia or ſigillata, pomgranates, ſponges, piſtachio nuts, dates, almonds, wine, oil, figs, raiſins, mother of pearl, viſacy, valinia for dying, ſal ammoniac, china root, alum, botargo, Roman vitriol, box wood, bees-wax, and ſaffron.

We have before obſerved, that the Grand Signor's dominions are the beſt ſituated for a foreign trade, of all countries in the world, as they lie in the middle of the continent; and the ſeas bordering upon them give the Turks an opportunity of trading with every nation, more eaſily than other people can. The Red ſea and the gulf of Perſia render the voyage very ſhort to India and China; by the Mediterranean, the Ægean, and the Black ſea, they might trade with every country of Europe and Africa. They have timber and naval ſtores in their own territories ſufficient to build the largeſt fleets! but for want of application all theſe advantages are loſt. They ſeldom or ever undertake diſtant voyages either to the eaſt or weſt: the product of Turky is exported in foreign bottoms, and by the ſame veſſels all the product of foreign countries is carried thither. They concern themſelves very little in navigation; their own ſhips do little more than tranſport the produce of one province to another, and their ſhips of war, their royal navy, is not able to contend with the meaneſt of the maritime powers of Europe.

The raw ſilk imported from the Grand Signor's dominions is for the moſt part of the growth of Perſia; the ſilk which Turky produces being manufactured and ſpent there. There are no wrought ſilks imported into England from Turky, or any other country, becauſe they are at preſent prohibited by act of parliament to be worn here: but the Turky burdets, which have a mixture of ſilk, are however pretty much worn amongſt us, and wrought ſilks may be brought to England, provided they are exported again.

It ſeems to be much more for the intereſt of the Chriſtian princes, that theſe fine countries ſhould be in the hands of the indolent Turks than of any Chriſtian power, not only as it would make that power which ſhould poſſeſs them dangerous to the reſt; but they might monopolize moſt of the trade of the world; for it is not much more than a month's voyage from Baſſora, or the Red ſea, to India, from whence might be imported all the riches of the eaſt, and from the ports on the Mediterranean they might be diſtributed to all the kingdoms of the weſtern world in their own bottoms, and conſequently they might ſet what price they pleaſed upon them: the trading nations

of Europe were ſo ſenſible of this, that when they ſaw it in the power of the imperialiſts to drive the Turks out of Europe, as was once the caſe, when prince Eugene, the imperial general, drove them before him almoſt to Adrianople, then the Engliſh and Dutch interpoſed, and by their mediation put a ſtop to the imperial arms.

The prices of the moſt conſiderable articles we import from Turky were, not long ſince, as follows:

Sherburf ſilk and Ardept ſilk imported from Smyrna, is ſold by the batman of two thouſand four hundred drachms, which ought to hold out eleven great pounds of twenty-four ounces, (as this and all raw ſilk is ſold) for ſixteen pounds and a half of ſixteen ounces to the pound; is worth about ſixty-five dollars per batman, the firſt ſort, without the charges of cuſtom, &c.

	Dollars.	
Cotton wool — —	14	Per quintal of 100 rotillo's, which ought to weigh 122 pounds Engliſh.
Cotton yarn as in goodneſs	20 to 37½	
Galis — — —	20	
Valinia — — —	1½	
Box-wood — — —	1½ to 2	
Bees-wax — — —	44	

Goats wool, the oque of eight hundred drachms, or five pounds ſix ounces Engliſh, Dollars 3¼.

	Dollars.	
Scammony — — —	7½	Per oque of 400 drachms, or 2 pounds 11 ounces Engliſh.
Worm-ſeed — — —	1½ to 2	
Roman vitriol — —	¼	
Mohair yarn from —	1½ to 5	
Scio Turpentine — —	2	
Gum tragant — —	⅔	

SECT. VIII.

Containing an account of the forces and revenues of the Grand Signor.

THE Turkiſh forces are of two ſorts. The firſt may be compared to our guards and ſtanding forces that are paid out of the treaſury, namely, the ſpahis and janiſaries; the one horſe and the other foot. The ſecond ſort of ſoldiers are thoſe which are raiſed and paid by the gentlemen of the country, who hold their eſtates of the prince, on condition of bringing a certain number of men and horſes into the field whenever they are required; theſe are called zaims or timariots. We ſhall ſpeak firſt of the ſtanding forces, the ſpahis and janiſaries.

The ſpahis or horſe, were originally gentlemen, who had their education in the academies of the ſeraglio, and are about twelve thouſand in number, divided into two bodies, viz. the ſilachtari, whoſe colours are yellow; and the ſpahaoglari, whoſe colours are red: theſe laſt were the eſquires or ſervants to the former, but are now equal, having in ſome battle ſtood their ground, when their maſters ran away, whereupon the emperor ordered that there ſhould be no diſtinction made between them for the future. Bows, arrows, and darts, were formerly their weapons; but now they have carbines and piſtols like our troopers. The ſpahis of Aſia are ſaid to be generally beſt mounted; but thoſe of Europe beſt diſciplined. Their pay is very different, from twelve to one hundred aſpers a day; but none have more than one hundred, which is about four ſhillings and two-pence of our money; and though it may be imagined that thoſe of the lower claſs could not ſubſiſt, and keep themſelves and their horſe, on ſix-pence a day, yet proviſions are ſo exceedingly cheap in Turky, that it is very poſſible to maintain themſelves with that allowance, eſpecially as their ſons are allowed to be enrolled in that body, and receive twelve aſpers a day each; and when the Grand Signor takes the field in perſon, he advances to the ſpahis five thouſand aſpers a man, to furniſh them with arms and accoutrements. Theſe gentlemen manage their arms and horſes very dexterouſly, but charge in no manner of order, though with a great deal of fury; which if their enemies can ſuſtain a little while, they retire in more haſte than they advanced, and can never be brought to return to the charge again. Great numbers of volunteers uſually join the ſpahis when the Turks enter into a war, in hopes of being preferred in that body.

The janiſaries, who are all foot, are educated alſo in the ſeminaries of their ſeraglios, where they are traihed up to arms; and in order to increaſe and recruit this body, every fifth Chriſtian captive, under fifteen years of age, is reſerved for the Grand Signor's ſervice; and the moſt comely lads amongſt them have a ſuitable education given them, being firſt inſtructed in the Turkiſh language and religion. The body of janiſaries did not at firſt exceed ſeven thouſand, but were afterwards increaſed to twenty-five thouſand, and there may be one hundred thouſand more that purchaſe the name and privileges of janiſaries; but theſe ſeldom ſerve in the army, or receive pay: the reſt of the ſlaves that are not incorporated in this body, are brought up to ſuch buſineſs and employments as are found fitteſt for the ſervice of the ſeveral royal palaces; the moſt ingenious are prepared for offices in the ſtate; others are made gardeners, ſmiths, carpenters, &c. and ſome are quartered on the lands and eſtates in Anatolia, from whence this body is frequently recruited.

As ſoon as a young janiſary is enrolled, he receives from one aſper a day to ſeven, beſides his diet; but this pay is never increaſed to more than twelve aſpers till he is an officer. Thoſe that are unmarried live in a particular quarter of the town, and eat in common as in a convent, and have their cloathing alſo provided for them by the government; but living idly, and having nothing to do in time of peace, they frequently grow mutinous, and pretend to direct the adminiſtration: and if they apprehend any of the miniſtry are not their friends, they demand their heads, nor will this always ſatisfy them; they proceed ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the Grand Signor, and advance one of his relations to the throne.

Their diſaffection is uſually diſcovered when they come to the divan, whither they are ſummoned twice a week by their aga, or general, and have an entertainment provided for them from the Grand Signor's kitchen. If they apprehend that they are like to be oppreſſed, or diſcountenanced by any great man, they overturn their plates, and ſlight the meat provided for them; which when the court are appriſed of, they endeavour to ſatisfy them by gratuities and fair promiſes, to prevent the diſaffection becoming general. There are about one hundred and ſixty houſes or apartments of the janiſaries in Conſtantinople, which are called chambers, and every chamber has its tchorbagi, or captain; the odabaſhee, or maſter of the chamber, who is lieutenant of the company; the wekilbarg, or pay-maſter; the baizacktie, or enſign, who carries the colours; the cook, who puniſhes them when they have committed any fault; and the under-cook, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſummon all married janiſaries, who live at Conſtantinople, to attend when there is occaſion for them: but their marrying being a bar to their preferment, moſt of them live ſingle, and have two meals a day provided for them. Theſe troops are moſt relied on in the day of battle; and indeed the reſt are little better than our militia; nor can the diſcipline either of the ſpahis or janiſaries be much applauded, for though they charge an enemy with great fury, they obſerve very little order, and it is very well for their enemies that they are too proud to learn. Baſſa Boneval was very well qualified to have inſtructed them, but they would not bear the mention of it; and he ran the hazard of being ſacrificed to their reſentment by propoſing it. No Chriſtian power would be able to oppoſe the Turks, if their numerous armies were diſciplined like thoſe of the Europeans.

Beſides the ſpahis and janiſaries, which are the flower of their armies, there is that other militia, already mentioned, which is much more numerous; and are raiſed and maintained by ſuch gentlemen as hold their lands of the government by military tenures; and ſuch gentlemen are denominated either zaims or timariots, according to the number of men they are obliged to bring into the field. The revenues of the lands of a zaim are from twenty thouſand aſpers to ninety-nine thouſand nine hundred and ninety-nine; if they are valued at an aſper more, it is the revenue of a ſangiac, bey, or baſſa, which is from one hundred thouſand aſpers to nine hundred and ninety-nine thouſand nine hundred and ninety-nine: If it amounts to more, it is the revenue of a beglerbeg, or viceroy, who has ſeveral governments or ſangiacſhips under his command. A zaim is obliged to raiſe from four to nineteen ſoldiers; and a timariot is not obliged to maintain more than four. Some timariots hold their lands directly of the Grand Signor; and others of the beglerbeg or viceroy of the province.

In time of war the zaims bring grand tents or pavilions into the field, to which are annexed kitchens, ſtables, and all manner of conveniences; and for every five thouſand aſpers yearly rent, muſt find a trooper compleatly armed, which does not amount to nine pounds ſterling; and that it is ſaid, will maintain a trooper there, proviſions are ſo cheap, though it would not maintain a foot ſoldier here; and in time of peace the zaims and timariots are no expence. Theſe ſoldiers are formed into regiments, having their ſeveral colonels, captains and other commiſſion officers.

officers, and have different colours: the colonels are commanded by ſangiacs or baſſas, and theſe by the beglerbeg or viceroy of the province; and the whole army is commanded by the Grand Signor; and when he is not in the field, by the prime viſir or ſeraſkier. The zaims and timariots are obliged alſo to find men for the ſea-ſervice; and both of them are obliged to ſerve in perſon by land; but the timariots only on board the fleet.

The province of Natolia Proper brings about twenty-ſix thouſand men into the field; Caramania or Cilicia, five thouſand; Diarbec, eleven thouſand; Damaſcus, three thouſand; Sivas (part of Armenia Major), eleven thouſand one hundred; Erzerum, twelve thouſand three hundred; Van, three thouſand five hundred; Maroſeli, one thouſand three hundred; Cyprus, two thouſand five hundred; Tripoli, one thouſand eight hundred; Rika, two thouſand; Trebizond, one thouſand four hundred; Aleppo, three thouſand two hundred; Tchilder (part of Georgia), two thouſand four hundred; the captain baſſa for the iſles, three thouſand five hundred; Romania, in Europe, twenty-ſeven thouſand; the militia on the frontiers of Hungary ſeventy thouſand.

The horſe raiſed by the zaims and timariots only are computed to amount to one hundred thouſand men and upwards; to which are added a great number of volunteers, that ſerve at their own expence, in expectation of ſucceeding the zaims and timariots that fall in battle, who chuſe to engage in the moſt deſperate enterpriſes. When a zaim is ſuperannuated or diſabled, he may reſign to his ſon, or ſome other relation. A peaſant or farmer cannot be a ſpahi or trooper, unleſs on the frontiers where he has manifeſted his courage againſt the enemy; and in that caſe he is allowed to be a candidate for the lands of a zaim or timariot that is dead. In Romania, when a zaim or timariot dies in battle, his lands are divided equally among his children; but when he dies a natural death, the beglerbeg or viceroy of the province has the diſpoſal of the eſtate, and ought to give it to the perſon who is moſt capable of ſerving the government; but he conſiders principally his own intereſt, and gives it to him that advances moſt money, which has rendered that militia much leſs conſiderable than they were heretofore. But there are many zaims and timariots in Anatolia, whoſe lands deſcend to their heirs.

The forces of the Grand Signor in Egypt are computed to amount to eighty thouſand men; notwithſtanding which his authority is often diſputed by the Egyptian princes, which are about twelve in number, and whoſe concurrence ſeems neceſſary to the raiſing money and the making laws in that kingdom; and, if any incroachments are made on their liberties and properties, they are ready to defend them; and have ſometimes depoſed the beglerbeg, and compelled the Grand Signor to appoint another more acceptable to them. Theſe are moſt of them the deſcendants of the Mamelukes, or Mamlucks, who were for ſome hundreds of years ſovereigns of this kingdom. In Egypt, therefore, the Grand Signor ſeems to be but a limited monarch. The tributary countries, ſuch as Tartary, Walachia, and Moldavia, are obliged to raiſe a certain number of troops, and join the Turkiſh army when required. The kan of the Crim Tartars is obliged to raiſe one hundred thouſand men; and the princes of Moldavia and Walachia are obliged to bring ſixty or ſeventy thouſand men into the field. The two laſt are Chriſtian princes of the Greek communion.

The revenues of the Grand Signor ariſe from the demeſne lands, or lands of the ſtate; from the duties of import and export, or cuſtoms; by the tribute paid by the kan of Crim Tartary, Moldavia, Walachia, and the Grecian iſlands; by a poll-tax on the Chriſtians, and thoſe who are not of the eſtabliſhed religion: and the armies raiſed and paid by the zaims and timariots in time of war may well be reckoned part of the revenue, as it ſaves him ſo great an expence; but the greateſt part of the public revenue ariſes from the preſents and annual payments which are made by the governors and other great officers of ſtate, and the confiſcation of their eſtates when they die or are diſplaced; for whatever his beglerbegs, viceroys, or governors, have amaſſed or extorted from the people, falls to the Grand Signor at laſt, who is heir general to all of them, and only allows their wives and families a ſubſiſtence out of them; but it is not ſo with the native Turks, the gentlemen of the country, who are not in office, their eſtates uſually deſcend to their children, and ſo it is in that rich province of Egypt. The Grand Signor has not more than half a million ſterling from thence, more than what bears the charges of the government; and if he ſhould attempt to raiſe more in that kingdom, it would probably occaſion a general revolt of the Egyptian princes, who may be looked upon as independent ſovereigns almoſt in their reſpective territories, and cannot be diſplaced by the Grand Signor: as to the reſt of his dominions, this prince is not only heir to all his officers of ſtate, but has vaſt ſums of them, when they enter upon their poſts, and annually afterwards. When a great man in the ſeraglio is nominated to a government, he immediately makes a preſent to the throne, and, if he has no treaſure of his own, uſually borrows it of the eunuchs of the ſeraglio, who are generally great uſurers, and know how to get paid again. For if ſuch governors are not punctual in repaying what they borrow, the eunuchs know how to miſrepreſent their actions at court, to the endangering their heads: the firſt money, therefore, a baſſa extorts from the people, is paid to the eunuch he borrowed it of.

Beſides the conſtant revenue, if there happen to be a war with the Chriſtians, or any other preſſing neceſſity, the treaſures of the moſques or churches, which are very great, may be made uſe of to ſave the ſtate.

The emperor has alſo a private treaſure lodged in vaults, as a reſerve in extraordinary caſes, where none but the officers of the treaſury and the prime viſier ever enter. And as this is an arbitrary government, the Grand Signor is, in reality, maſter of the purſes of all his ſubjects: and it is not an uncommon thing, when the treaſury is low, to borrow ſums of thoſe that are known to abound in wealth; and what is borrowed of private men, is always punctually repaid; but what is borrowed of governors, or officers of ſtate, is ſeldom returned; for theſe are not ſuppoſed to have a property in any thing, but what the ſovereign can demand when he pleaſes. Theſe are creatures raiſed by him, and have nothing but what they receive from his bounty; and though they are veſted with great power and wealth for a time, they are really in a worſe ſituation than the lower claſs of people, who enjoy what they have with as much eaſe and freedom as the ſubjects of any other country, though they are ſeldom preferred to any poſts in the government.

SECT. IX.

Affording a deſcription of the Grand Signor's court, alſo of his haram or ſeraglio, women and other inhabitants of it, great officers of ſtate, and ſome maxims of the Turkiſh policy.

THE dominion of the Turkiſh emperors being founded in force, their power is unlimited, and they look upon their people, as well as their country, to be their property, and at their diſpoſal; the Grand Signor is reſtrained by no laws or compacts but thoſe of his religion; nevertheleſs, we muſt alſo obſerve, that though he exerciſes an arbitrary dominion over his governors and officers, who depend upon him for all that they enjoy, yet private gentlemen, native Turks, who are not in any poſt, enjoy their liberties and properties as fully as if it was a limited monarchy, as Motraye aſſures us, who lived amongſt them, and made it his buſineſs to inform himſelf of the nature of their government and adminiſtration: and ſhould their ſovereign break in upon their properties, it would very probably occaſion an inſurrection. Over his Chriſtian ſubjects, indeed, which are almoſt as numerous as the Turks, he tyrannizes moſt unmercifully, as well as over the great officers of ſtate, and ſuffers his Mahometan ſubjects to inſult and abuſe the Chriſtians with impunity; though they are the moſt uſeful of his people, and chiefly carry on their manufactures and foreign traffic, without which it would be difficult for the government to ſubſiſt. He compels the Chriſtians, alſo, to diſtinguiſh themſelves by the colour of their cloaths and other marks of contempt, by a burdenſome poll-tax, and other duties, from which the native Turks are exempted.

The Grand Signor, among his other titles, aſſumes theſe; namely, "The Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother of the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns;" and as long as he is ſucceſsful, his ſubjects adore him; but if he is unfortunate in his wars, he loſes his dignity, is ſlighted, and frequently depoſed. This prince is never crowned, but, on his acceſſion, is carried from the palace, and inaugurated at a place called Job, near the walls of Conſtantinople, where the tomb of ſome of their prophets ſtands, which according to their traditions is the tomb of Job. Their traditions add, that Job was

a judge in the courts of Solomon, and that Alexander was the general of Solomon's army; which diſcovers their extenſive knowledge of hiſtory and chronology! At the inauguration, after ſolemn prayers for the proſperity of the Grand Signor, the muſti gives him his benediction and his majeſty ſwears to maintain the laws of Mahomet, by which is underſtood only that part of the law which concerns religion; for he is at liberty to repeal and alter any other part of it.

Thoſe who receive any pay or ſalary from the government, or are in any office under the crown, are ſtiled the Grand Signor's ſlaves, which is a much more honourable title than ſubject here, as well as in Perſia; and in effect, they have the command of thoſe ſubjects who are not in the Grand Signor's pay, and inſult them at their pleaſure. The term "ſlave," in Turky, ſignifies one who is entirely reſigned to the emperor's will, and ready to execute whatever he commands, how difficult or dangerous ſoever it be.

The young lads who are educated in the ſeraglio, and deſigned for employments in the government, are called ichoglans; they are the children of Chriſtian parents taken in war, or preſents of the viceroys and governors from Georgia, Circaſſia and the remote parts of the empire. The moſt beautiful, well ſhaped, ſprightly children that can be met with. The Grand Signor reviews them before they are admitted, and orders them to be received into the ſeraglios of Pera, Adrianople or Conſtantinople, which are the three colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated according to the opinion he entertains of them; but thoſe who are ordered for the ſeraglio of Conſtantinople are eſteemed moſt in the way of preferment, and are placed under the care of the chief of the white eunuchs called the capi agaſi. The eunuchs (who ſtudy every lad's genius, directing his ſtudies towards what he ſeems beſt qualified for) treat their pupils with extraordinary ſeverity, it is ſaid, not paſſing by the ſmalleſt faults; ſometimes they order them a certain number of blows upon the ſoles of their feet, and at others puniſh them by watching, faſting, &c. making them undergo a ſeverer diſcipline than the novices in a monaſtery.

The firſt leſſons which are taught them are, ſilence, and an humble modeſt behaviour: then they are inſtructed in the rites of the Mahometan religion, and to ſpeak, read and write the Turkiſh language, and afterwards the Perſian and Arabic. Their diet is rice, and other wholeſome food fit for ſcholars, and their cloathing generally of Engliſh cloth. They are never from under the eunuchs eyes, and lodge in long rooms upon ſofas, where lamps are always burning, and an eunuch between every five to inſpect their behaviour. When they are fit for manly exerciſes, they are taught to handle the ſpear, to draw the bow, and throw the gerit or dart, in which they ſpend ſeveral hours in a day, and are ſeverely corrected if they make no proficiency. Thus by conſtant exerciſe they improve their health and ſtrength, and become fit for military employments: they are taught, as in Perſia, to ſhoot their arrows on horſe-back in a full career, backwards, forwards, ſideways, and almoſt in any poſture: and at theſe exerciſes the Grand Signor himſelf is ſometimes preſent.

From theſe ſeminaries, the emperor makes choice of all the officers of his houſhold, which are forty in number, of whom twelve are the principal; and as governments fall, they are preferred, but ſeldom till they are forty years of age. When they leave the ſeraglio, they recommend themſelves to the favour and patronage of the principal eunuchs; and, on theſe occaſions, appear as polite and obſequious in their addreſſes as our courtiers do in this part of the world; for they treat thoſe of a different faith with great haughtineſs, or rather inſolence, yet they behave with as much civility towards each other as gentlemen do elſewhere.

As the lads of the ſeraglio never have the ſight of a woman, they frequently fall in love with one another, to which is ſometimes given the name of platonic love, which frequently ends, however, in luſt; nor can the ſevereſt puniſhments deter them from purſuing it. The old eunuchs watch them ſtrictly, when they perceive any ſymptoms of this paſſion; but they will carry it on by ſigns, when they are prohibited the converſation of the amiable object; and there are ſometimes ſuch jealouſies among rivals, and ſuch ſchemes for deſtroying thoſe they ſuſpect, as ſometimes throws the whole apartment into confuſion. The great officers of the ſeraglio, alſo, ſometimes make love to the pages, who are uſually the moſt beautiful boys, and make intereſt to get them retained in their ſervice, ſuffering themſelves to be governed and influenced by them. There are inſtances of emperors, who have kept ſuch boys, and admitted them to a ſhare in the government.

The ladies of the ſeraglio, alſo, make love to one another ſometimes; which would tempt one to think, there is no ſtifling an amorous flame, but if it is not ſatisfied in the way nature directs, will find another vent. The deaf and dumb, or mutes, in the ſeraglio, are about forty, who converſe by ſigns; ſome of theſe conſtantly attend the emperor. Dwarfs that act the part of buffoons are ſtill retained in this court, as they were in courts and great families here in the laſt age, when gentlemen made themſelves merry with the defects and deformities of their own ſpecies. But no people have a greater ſhare in the government of the ſeraglio, or a greater influence on affairs of ſtate without, than the eunuchs and caſtrated inhabitants. Theſe princes ſeem to confide more in their eunuchs, than in any of their officers or ſervants, not only to guard the chaſtity of their women, but in the moſt important affairs. The kiſlar agaſi, a black eunuch, is the ſuperintendant of the women; and the capi agaſi, a white eunuch, is governor of the pages and white eunuchs belonging to the court.

The ſeraglio is ſupplied from time to time with young blooming beauties taken in war, or purchaſed in Georgia and Circaſſia, but chiefly by the governors of provinces, who never fail to make preſents to the court of ſuch young ladies, in their reſpective provinces, as are eminent for their beauty: and when theſe young ladies are admitted into the ſeraglio, they are taught muſic and dancing, and whatever may render them moſt agreeable to their lord. When any of them are made choice of to attend the Grand Signor in his apartment, ſhe is complimented, on the occaſion, by the reſt of the ladies of the court; and ſhe that has the firſt ſon, is in a manner empreſs, and ſtiled the haſaki ſultana. For the Grand Signor never marries any of them, ſince Bajazet was taken priſoner with his wives, and ſaw them abuſed by the conqueror's officers.

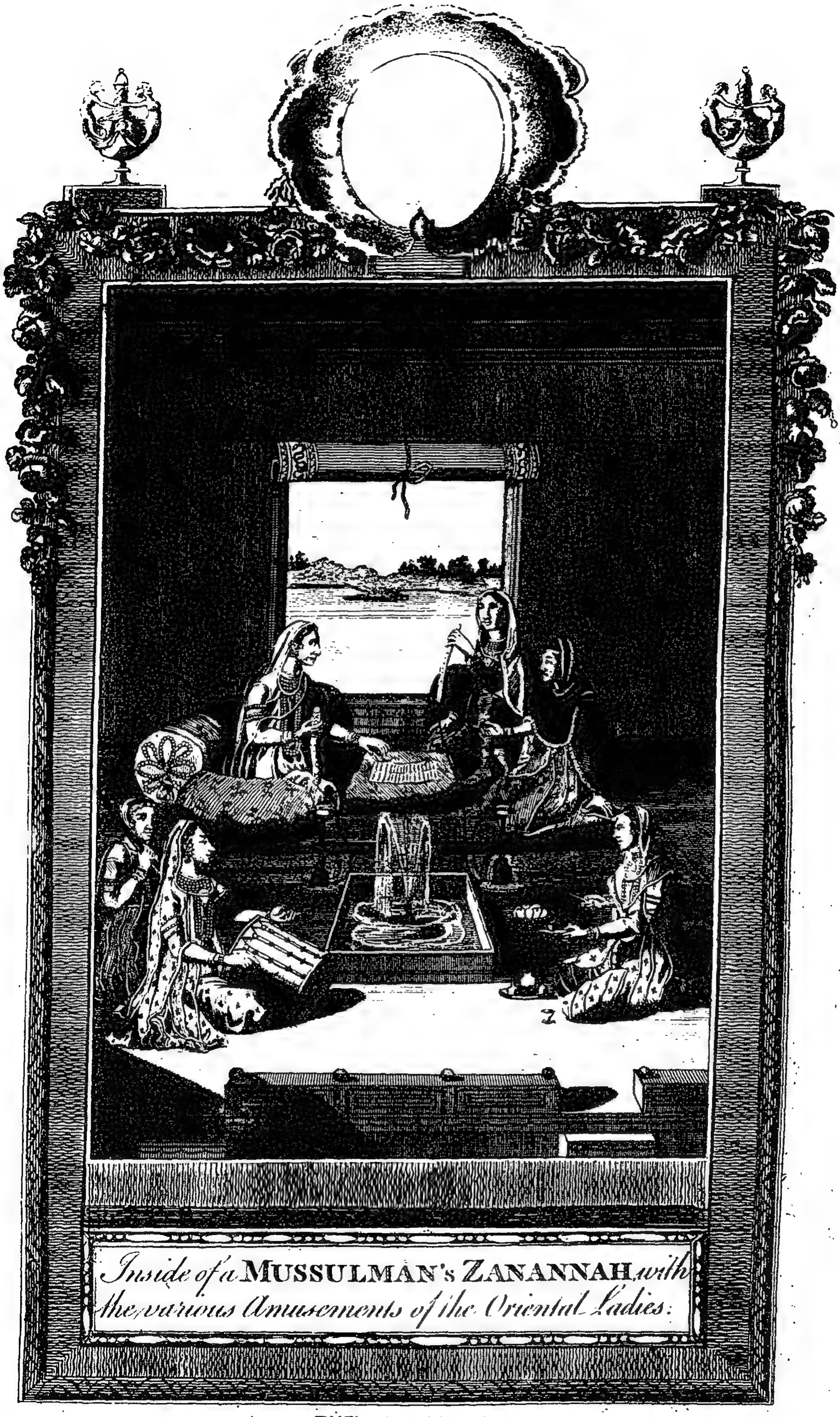
The only women that have a man to themſelves in Turky, are the Grand Signor's ſiſters or daughters, whom he marries to the governors of provinces, and other great men: theſe ladies aſſume the ſtate of queens, and have their huſbands in as much ſubjection as other Turkiſh huſbands have their wives, and oblige them to put away all the reſt of the wives and concubines, how long ſoever they have lived with him. And it ſeldom fails to prove fatal to him, if he takes another woman to his bed.

If the chief ſultana loſes her ſon, ſhe loſes her title, and the next who has a ſon ſucceeds her. The Grand Signor frequently takes the air with his women in the gardens of the ſeraglio, after the gardeners and all others have had notice to keep their diſtance; and he ſometimes goes over the Boſphorus with them to the palace of Scutari on the Aſian ſide, which is not much more than a mile from Europe; the ladies being carried thither in covered boats, ſo that no man can ſee them; and when the emperor removes with the court by land to any other palace, the ladies ride in cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made for all men to quit their houſes which lie near the road, and remove a good diſtance from it.

We come next to give an account of the great officers of ſtate, who are generally of the number of the royal ſlaves, who have had their education in the ſeraglio: and at the head of theſe is the grand vizier, on whom the Grand Signor, in a manner devolves his authority, leaving the adminiſtration entirely in his hands. He has the ſole command both in peace and war; has the direction of the revenue, and is the ſupreme judge in civil as well as criminal cauſes; though it is very rare they meet with a genius capable of executing ſo many different charges.

There are, beſides the grand vizier, ſix other ſtiled viziers of the bench of council, and baſſas of three horſe tails, becauſe there are three ſtandards or horſe-tails carried before them, whereas other baſſas have but one. Theſe viziers are men learned in the law, and well verſed in politics, whom the grand vizier ſummons to the divan as his council, though he is at liberty to take or reject their advice as he ſees fit: the muſti, and other civil judges, are alſo frequently called to aſſiſt at their councils, and ordinary matters are uſually referred to ſome of their determinations.

Their divans are both councils and courts of juſtice, and one is held every day of the week at the vizier's palace, except Fridays; he goes alſo four times a week to the divan in the ſeraglio in great ſtate, being preceded by the chiaux baſſa, and ſeveral other chiauxes and virgers, and attended by the great officers of the empire, and his Albanian guards on horſeback, the people ſhouting and wiſhing



Inside of a **MUSSULMAN's ZANANNAH** *with the various Amusements of the Oriental Ladies:*

Phillips & Smith sculp.

wiſhing him proſperity as he marches through the ſtreets.

The Turks apprehend, that nothing contributes more to the peace and ſecurity of their empire, than their deſtroying all appearance of a nobility and great families amongſt them, and ſuffering no ſucceſſion to eſtates or offices. Their baſſas or governors are all taken out of the ſeraglio, perfectly ignorant of what blood or family they were of, and have no powerful relations or dependants to ſupport them, if they ſhould entertain any aſpiring thoughts. The duration of their command is alſo ſo very ſhort, that they have not an opportunity of ingratiating themſelves with the people, or forming an intereſt ſuperior to that of the Grand Signor: and of all the rebellions that have been formed by the baſſas of diſtant provinces, we ſcarce find any one that has been of long duration; the rebels have been uſually diſperſed without coming to a battle. The Sultan has no more to do, but to procure their leader to be taken off, and he is ſure of a victory without fighting, there being no powerful relations to ſupport the cauſe; and it is farther obſervable, that when a rebel meets with ſucceſs, he is never able to maintain himſelf any other way than by ſetting up another prince of the royal family, who is no ſooner eſtabliſhed in the government, but he uſually makes the perſon who raiſed him a preſent of a bow-ſtring (i. e. cauſing him to be ſtrangled) for fear of being ſerved as his predeceſſor was before him.

The baſſas of ſome petty governments, indeed, have been allowed the privilege of leaving their commands to their children, as heretofore the baſſa of Gaza; but one of them happening to live ſeventy-five years in that government, it was thought ſo ill a precedent, and ſo contrary to the Turkiſh politics, to ſuffer a perſon to remain ſo long in one command, that he was invited to court, and, without any proceſs or charge againſt him, ordered to be ſtrangled as ſoon as he arrived. And becauſe power naturally attends on riches, if they remain long in a family, the wealth of a baſſa is ſcarce ever permitted to deſcend to his children.

When a baſſa dies who has married a ſultana, her dowry is firſt paid out of his eſtate, and the reſt devolves on the emperor; and if there be any iſſue of ſuch marriage, the Sultan makes ſome proviſion for the ſons; but it is an unalterable maxim, that ſuch ſons ſhall never be preferred to any conſiderable poſt in the government, leſt their near relation to the royal family, ſhould inſpire them with ambitious views. One reaſon that the Turks encourage traffic ſo little, is, deſignedly to impoveriſh their ſubjects, that they may not have it in their power, how much ſoever they may have it in their will, to rebel. Lord Bacon obſerves, that it is not poſſible for a nation overloaded with taxes to retain a martial ſpirit; they ſubmit to oppreſſion, and patiently endure all kind of violence. This ſeems to be the opinion of the kings of France, and other princes, who chuſe to reign over ſlaves, rather than a free people. The Turks keep many countries in ſubjection, that were once wealthy and warlike nations, who, by the loſs of their liberty and properties, is, and, like the poor French in their wooden ſhoes, throw up their caps, and cry, Vive le Roy, when they are periſhing, and deprived of all the neceſſaries of life by their grand monarque.

SECT. X.

Treats of the Mahometan religion profeſſed by the Turks, and alſo of the Greek church in the Ottoman empire.

THE religion of the Turks, namely, the Mahometan, is divided into a multitude of ſects: every conſiderable town almoſt differs from another in ſome particulars, which is ſuppoſed to proceed from the many proſelytes they make almoſt of every nation, ſome of whom are induced to profeſs the Mahometan faith to obtain their liberty, and others, in hopes of preferment; and every nation introducing ſome favourite opinions or doctrines of the country from whence they came, naturally occaſions a variety of ſects: and if they be not oppoſite to the Turkiſh doctrines, and they hold the unity of the Godhead, and Mahomet's miſſion, and obſerve the five chief precepts, viz. their purifications, prayers, faſts, alms, and pilgrimages, and ſo they do not advance any opinions that may prove dangerous to the ſtate, the government takes little notice of them.

We have before hinted, in treating of Arabia, that as Mahomet left no ſons, both Turks and Perſians derive their ſpiritual and temporal authority either from Hali, the huſband of his daughter Fatima; or from Abubeker, whoſe daughter Mahomet married. As the Perſians prefer the doctrines of Hali, and the Turks thoſe of Abubeker, and charge each other with corrupting and miſinterpreting the koran; theſe two ſects retain ſtronger prejudices againſt one another, than they do either againſt the Jews or Chriſtians; and when they are at war, both nations call the war "the cauſe of God," and their adverſaries heretics, and ſeldom give quarter to each other in battle. Among the Turks, there are four ſects, which differ only in ceremonials, and are eſteemed orthodox in the main. 1. The firſt are called the hanniſſes, who inhabit Turky and Tartary. 2. The ſhaffees, of which are moſt of the Arabian tribes. 3. The malchees, who poſſeſs the coaſt of Barbary, viz. Algiers, Tunis and Tripoli, and, according to ſome, thoſe of Morocco; and, 4. The hambelles, who are a ſmall tribe of Arabians. All the Mahometans, except the Perſians, are of one of theſe ſects; but then theſe are ſplit into a multitude of other ſects, diſtinguiſhed by the names of their reſpective leaders. We ſhall mention ſome of them; and firſt, the ſect of moatzali, who are ſtiled the defenders of the equity and unity of God; theſe are again ſubdivided into two and twenty other ſects, who maintain their ſeveral tenets with a kind of frantic zeal, charging thoſe that differ from them with infidelity. One of the ſubdiviſions maintain, that Chriſt was eternal, aſſumed a body, and was incarnate, and that he will judge the world at the laſt day; which they prove by that text in the koran, viz. "Thou, Mahomet, ſhalt ſee thy Lord return in the clouds."

The moſt general opinion in relation to a future ſtate is, that the virtuous will be happy; that the wicked will be puniſhed for a time, but will at length be admitted into Paradiſe.

There is another ſect that believe tranſmigration, that the ſouls of the deceaſed go into other animals, which makes them extremely compaſſionate and tender of them.

The ſect ſtiled the eſcrachi are of opinion, that the happineſs of the other world conſiſts in the contemplation of the divine nature, and not in ſenſual enjoyments.

There is another ſect, which may be ſtiled the doubtful, who will be poſitive of nothing; they neither endeavour to perſuade any thing, or to diſſuade any man from his purpoſe. They obſerve, that truth may be, and often is, ſo dreſſed up, that it cannot be diſtinguiſhed from falſehood; and therefore to any queſtions that are aſked them, they anſwer, "God knows, it is unknown to us." And of this ſect are ſome of their greateſt men; but I take this to be rather an article of policy than religion, as it may be dangerous to give their opinions one way or other in an arbitrary government.

Great numbers either are, or pretend to be, atheiſts; but theſe are generally renegados, who have apoſtatized, and the moſt profligate amongſt them, who, dreading to be called to account hereafter, endeavour to perſuade themſelves they have nothing to fear after death. They believe the world to have been what it is from eternity; that men, as well as trees and flowers, periſh; and one generation will ſucceed another, as it has done hitherto, to all eternity.

The Mahometans have their derviſes or friars, and convents, as well as the Chriſtians, and it is pretended that their religious houſes were inſtituted by Mahomet; but there is no particular mention made of them in their books till within theſe four or five hundred years. The word derviſe ſignifies one that is poor, and has renounced the world. The firſt convent that was erected is at Cogni (olim Iconium) in Lycaonia, in which there are between three hundred and four hundred derviſes, the ſuperior of which houſe is the general of the whole order, by virtue of a charter of Ottoman, from whom their emperors derive their pedigree. Theſe derviſes go meanly cloathed, put on a dejected look, faſt, pray, and perform penances as the Roman Catholics do, and have ſtrings of beads by which they number the prayers they repeat: on Tueſday every week the ſuperior of the convent preaches or expounds part of the koran to them, at the concluſion whereof the monks having made a profound reverence to their ſuperior, fall into a dance, turning round perpetually with prodigious ſwiftneſs, one playing to them on a kind of flute. The muſic ceaſing they ſtop in an inſtant, not at all diſordered by their circular motion, to which they have been trained up from their infancy; and this they pretend to do in memory of Mevaluna, their founder, who continued this circular motion, they aſſure us, fourteen days, without eating or drinking, and then falling into a trance, received certain revelations concerning the inſtitutions of this order, the flute being (as they tell us) the inſtrument that Jacob and other holy ſhepherds uſed to praiſe God upon;

upon; but, however that be, it has a very doleful ſound, which would incline one to think they were rather bewailing their condition, than praiſing the deity: but as the koran prohibits all kinds of muſic in their devotions but vocal, this is uſed by few; nor do they ring bells to call people to prayers, it is ſaid, for the like reaſon, but ſummon them from the minorets, or ſteeples of the moſques.

Notwithſtanding theſe deryiſes, like the Romiſh friars, vow chaſtity, poverty, and obedience, they may leave the convent if they deſire it, and enter into the ſtate of matrimony. In theſe convents they are taught the Turkiſh, Perſian, and Arabic languages, but ſcarce any art or ſcience, unleſs it be legerdemain or magic, or rather a pretence to it, and are as mere drones as the monks in this part of the world. To increaſe their ſtupidity, they ſwallow as much opium as would poiſon a dozen men that are not uſed to it; and though it may raiſe their ſpirits at firſt, this is ſucceeded by a ſtupefaction which renders them incapable of any kind of converſation. There are monaſteries of theſe derviſes all over the empire, and through India as far as China, where the brethren are entertained in their travels; and as they have excellent intelligence, the Turks make uſe of them as ſpies in the eaſtern nations. From theſe convents come moſt of the ſheiks or preachers, to which office any man may advance himſelf, as there needs no ordination; and he may lay it down again when he pleaſes: thoſe of the family of Mahomet are ſtiled emirs, and are known by their green turbans, that being Mahomet's favourite colour. Theſe are eſteemed ſuch holy men, that any one who ſtrikes them forfeits his right hand; theſe emirs ſeldom apply themſelves to any trade, except it be the purchaſing of ſlaves to make Mahometans of them, this being eſteemed a very meritorious employment among the Turks. We muſt not omit to mention their ſantos or hermits, who go naked, and let their hair grow down to their waiſts: theſe are in a manner adored by the devout people, and in ſome parts of the empire take upon them to ſcreen criminals from juſtice.

The office of high-prieſt, as well as that of king, having been aſſumed by Mahomet, his ſucceſſors, the caliſs of Babylon, exerciſed both for ſeveral hundred years; but the mufti, or high-prieſt in Turky, and other Mahometan countries, enjoys little more than the ſhadow of temporal power at this day, and their princes take the liberty of advancing and depoſing them at their pleaſure. The mufti has indeed ſtill the power of appointing all civil magiſtrates, their civil and eccleſiaſtical laws being in reality the ſame.

The koran and the comments upon it, are the rule by which they judge of all matters, unleſs where the temporal power, in ſome extraordinary caſes, is pleaſed to interpoſe; all appeals are made to him; and in caſes of importance, he is the laſt reſort. The Grand Signor ſcarce ever alters or reverſes his ſentence; and without his fetfa or fiat no conſiderable revolutions are taken, either in regard to peace or war; but if he refuſes to ratify or confirm what the miniſtry reſolve on, he is depoſed, and a more complying high-prieſt advanced in his ſtead; but the reaſon of demanding the mufti's fatfa at this day, ſeems to be, to prevent the clamours of the people, where ſucceſs does not anſwer their expectations, it being preſumed that men will ceaſe to murmur where a reſolution has been approved by their high-prieſt. When the Grand Signor writes to the mufti, he directs to the "Eſad, wiſeſt of the wiſe, inſtructed in all knowledge, the ſpring of virtue and true ſcience, key of the treaſure of truth," with ſeveral other pompous epithets.

Though the koran is generally held to be the rule of the Mahometan faith and practice, the mufti takes the liberty to make it ſpeak what language he pleaſes, as appears from many inſtances. It being demanded of him, what they ſhould do in relation to the hours appointed for their devotion, if they happen to be in a part of the world where the whole day was but an hour long; he anſwered, heaven did not require things impoſſible, but ſo as the duty was performed within the twenty-four hours, it was ſufficient; and the Mahometans being appointed to turn their faces towards Mecca when they pray, it was demanded, if they ſhould be in part of the globe, either by ſea or land, and did not know towards what point Mecca lay, how they ſhould comply with that precept: the mufti directed them to obſerve a circular motion at their prayers, and they would not fail ſometimes to ſet their faces right.

The cadiliſquiers are the next judges to the mufti, of which there are three, viz. 1. The cadiliſquier of Romania. 2. The cadiliſquier of Natolia; and, 3. The cadiliſquier of Egypt, who are eccleſiaſtics; and no man can be advanced to the high office of mufti till he has paſſed through one of theſe; and there is in every province a mollah cadi, who is the chief judge of the province, to whom the people may appeal from the ſeveral cadis or judges in the towns of that province; but notwithſtanding theſe already mentioned are ſaid to be the only legal judges, the begler begs and governors of towns and provinces take upon them to puniſh men, and even to put them to death ſometimes, without allowing them any trial whatever.

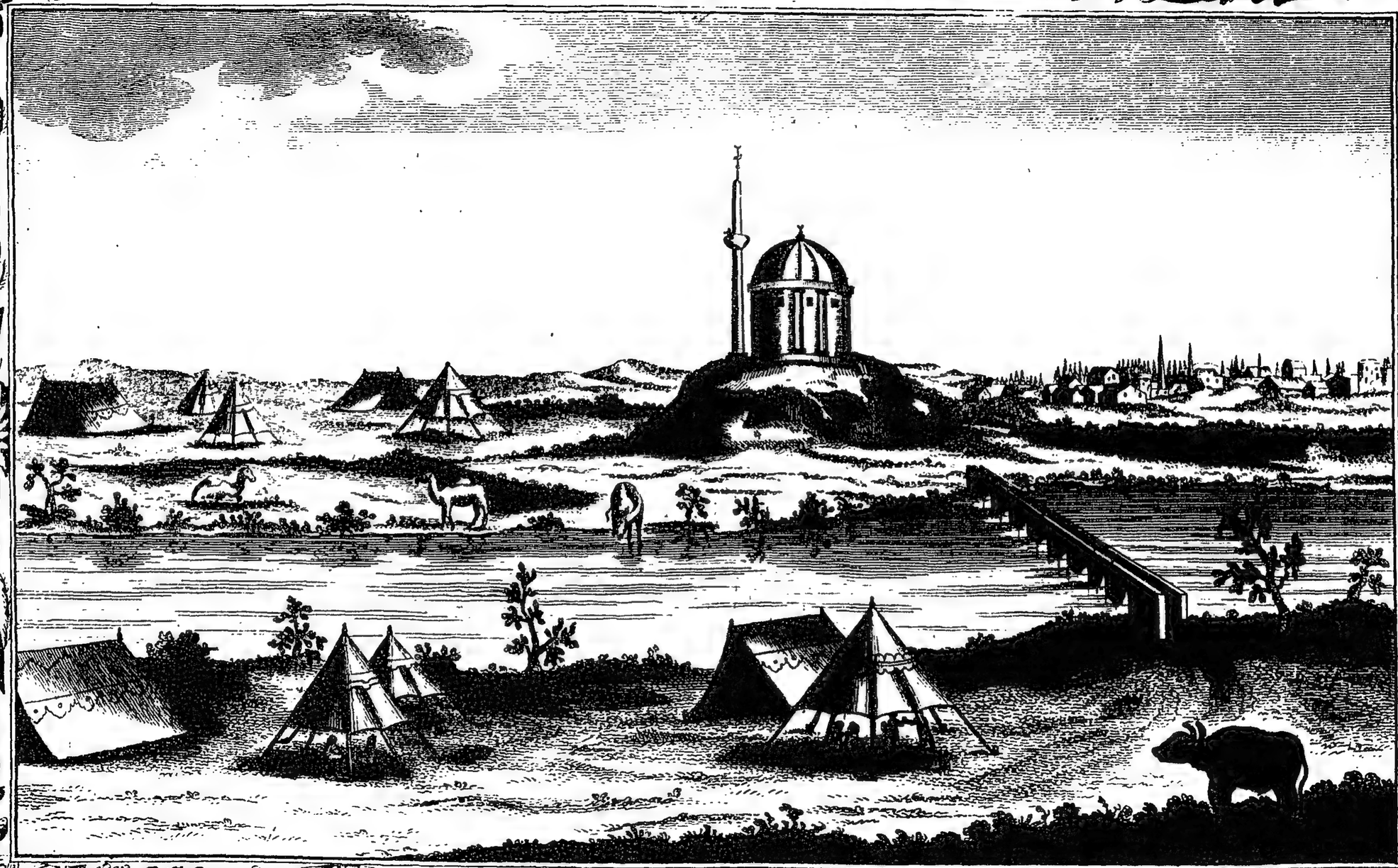
The imaums, or prieſts which officiate in their moſques, are not appointed by the mufti or any eccleſiaſtic, nor are they ſubject to them; any one who has the reputation of an honeſt man, and can read the koran, may take upon him this office on the recommendation of the people of the place to the governor of the town or province, when a church happens to be vacant; and as the conſent of the governor is neceſſary towards admitting one to officiate as a prieſt, ſo he may turn him out when he pleaſes; and the prieſt may leave his cure, and become a layman again, if he ſees fit. Their habit is the ſame as that of other peoples, only their turbans are a little enlarged, and they aſſume an air of gravity: and in the moſques, when the Imaum ſtands, or ſits, or proſtrates himſelf, the people imitate him: the Imaum alſo reads ſome part of the koran every Friday, which is their ſabbath, but ſeldom preaches. This is the buſineſs of the ſheicks, who make preaching their profeſſion; and theſe uſually have their education in the convents already mentioned. There is another duty the Imaums perform, and that is the calling the people to prayers at the appointed hours, from the tops of their minorets or ſteeples; for they will not ſuffer bells any more than inſtrumental muſic in their churches, as has been obſerved already.

The moſques are endowed with all the lands and revenues which belonged to them when they were Chriſtian churches: the lands which belonged to the cathedral church of Santa Sophia, now converted into a moſque, amount to fifty thouſand pounds a year; the rents whereof are employed to the maintenance of the imaums and doctors of their law, that officiate in the moſque, to the education of young lads, to the providing oil for the lamps, and to the relief of the poor; and what remains is laid up in the treaſuries of the reſpective churches, for the repair and beautifying them, and ſometimes employed in carrying on wars againſt infidel nations, when they apprehend themſelves in imminent danger. The tenants of the lands appropriated to churches, ſometimes pay their rent in kind, viz. corn, and other products of their lands; and theſe tenants, it ſeems, enjoy greater privileges than any other men, and are not liable to be plundered and oppreſſed either by the baſſas or janiſaries, as other inhabitants ſometimes are. None are ſo abandoned, as to pillage what is appropriated to pious uſes. Churches that have no lands belonging to them, have eſtates in money; the intereſt whereof is applied to the ſame uſes as the rents of lands appropriated to their temples are: there are no other caſes where the Turks allow of uſury, except it be for the maintenance of orphans.

When the Grand Signor inveſts the mufti in his office, he puts on him a veſt of ſables, and preſents him with a purſe of gold, of the value of one thouſand dollars, and grants them a revenue of one thouſand aſpers (about two guineas) a day; beſides which, the mufti has the preſentation to the royal moſques, which he ſells openly, and preſents are frequently made by the great men, to favour them in their addreſſes to the Grand Signor and his miniſters, which amounts to more than all the other articles.

A Mahometan, when he enters a temple, puts off his ſhoes inſtead of his cap, and, while he is there, neither ſalutes, converſes, or takes notice of any perſon, nor can any accident divert him from his prayers; nor may he ſpit, cough, or rub himſelf, any of which actions would ſo defile him, that he muſt waſh, and return to his prayers again: they ſigh and groan in a very doleful manner, till they begin to pray. The prieſt begins with the praiſes of God, and all the people follow him, and imitate his actions, as well as repeat his words; but both prayers and praiſes are very ſhort; the whole not above the length of two or three little collects. What they inſiſt upon chiefly at their devotions, is, that "God is one; that he neither begets, nor is begotten; has none like him, or equal to him; and that Mahomet is the meſſenger of God." They believe their prayers will not be heard, unleſs they forgive their enemies; and therefore, on every Friday, they endeavour to be reconciled to thoſe they have quarrelled with; and for every day of the week, they have a particular prayer; as on Friday, they pray that God

would



View of a TURKISH MOSQUE on the river PENEUS, with a distant prospect of the City of LARISSA.

White, sculp.

would bleſs all true believers; on Saturday, they pray for the converſion of the Jews; on Sunday, for the converſion of the Chriſtians; on Monday, for the prophets; on Tueſday, for the prieſts, and thoſe that honour the ſaints; on Wedneſday, for believers in ſlavery among infidels; and on Thurſday, for the whole world, of every nation and religion without diſtinction.

The Mahometans perform their devotions with the greateſt ſolemnity on Fridays, when the emperor, miniſters, and magiſtrates, all reſort to the moſques in Turky; though in Perſia they ſeldom appear in the moſques, but pray ſingly in their houſes, or in the fields: and the Turks are generally cenſured for being too public and oſtentatious in their prayers. Their enemies ſuggeſt that they are hypocrites at the bottom, as they are frequently (like the Phariſees of old) ſeen praying in the markets, and the corners of the ſtreets, and other public places, to obtain the applauſe of men; and a writer of credit, who reſided ſome time among them, obſerves, that their religion ſeems calculated to keep up great gravity and ſolemnity, without the leaſt tincture of virtue: he further remarks, that they were the moſt lowly proſtrations, and utter their prayers in a moſt hollow diſmal tone; which, with them, are eſteemed the great excellencies of prayer. But we are inclined to think, that this character is in general too ſevere; and that, on the contrary, there are ſome among them who are in reality as ſincere and devout as they pretend to be.

Their Ramazan, or Lent, is the moſt ſtrict faſt that any nation obſerves; for no perſon, not ſo much as a day-labourer, will eat, or drink, or ſmoak, till ſun-ſet at that ſeaſon; but they are allowed to eat and drink in the night-time; and the whole town, and particularly the moſques, are illuminated both within and without till morning. At the end of the month the faſt ends, and at the next new moon, viz. the beginning of the month Schenval, the feſtival called Bairam begins, which laſts three days, when they celebrate a thankſgiving in their moſques or temples, and ſing ſeveral ſhort hymns, and among others, that which follows, viz. "We thank thee, O Lord, the only infinite, perfect, eternal, and moſt merciful being; in that thou haſt communicated thy all holy, true, and pure law to us; and that we have preſerved it in its purity, as it was delivered to us by the prophet, ſervant, and ambaſſador, Mahomet; to whom be ſalvation and bleſſings; as alſo to thy other prophet Jeſus, the ſon of Mary, Moſes, David, Solomon, &c.

After prayers, the Sultan receives the compliments of the great officers of the porte, ſeated on his throne, and even of the ſultaneſſes. The people, dreſſed in their beſt habits, viſit one another; and acquaintance embrace when they meet in the ſtreets; and where they have had any differences, they are reconciled. Even their women, at this time, are allowed the liberty of going abroad, it is ſaid; and ſome of them make uſe of the opportunity to break looſe from their keepers. Sacrifices of oxen, ſheep, and lambs, are alſo made by the wealthy, and their fleſh diſtributed among the poor; ſo that at this time a general joy appears, and moſt of our travellers compare it to the Eaſter of the Chriſtians, becauſe it ſucceeds their Ramazan, as Eaſter does our Lent. It is alſo a moveable feaſt, being held in every month in the year, in the compaſs of thirty years, or thereabouts; for the Mahometan year in eccleſiaſtical matters being lunary, and conſequently, between eleven or twelve days ſhort of ours, their faſts and feſtivals happen ſo many days ſooner every year, than they did the preceding year.

The Armenians, Maronites, Jacobites, and other ſects of Chriſtians in the Turkiſh empire, have their patriarchs; and the pope appoints a titular partriarch at Conſtantinople, as well as a biſhop.

The Greeks and eaſtern Chriſtians have ſuch a prejudice againſt the Latin or Roman church, that they would rather continue under the dominion of the Turk, than live under a popiſh prince: and the Papiſts, on the other hand, treat the Greeks as infidels, and are continually inciting the Turks to deſtroy and oppreſs them. They cauſed one of the patriarchs of Conſtantinople to be put to death upon falſe ſuggeſtions they made to the government, becauſe he refuſed to ſubmit to the pope.

The whole Greek church, taking in every ſect, is of a vaſt extent, containing not only the Chriſtians of the Turkiſh empire, who are in many parts of it much more numerous than the Mahometans themſelves, but alſo the Chriſtians of Muſcovy, the Coſſacks, the inhabitants of Podolia, and Black Ruſſia, the people of Ethiopia and Abyſſinia, ſouth of Egypt. Thoſe of Circaſſia, Georgia and Mingrelia, and the inhabitants of the iſlands in the Mediterranean, under the Venetians, are generally of the Greek communion: but we ſhall treat chiefly of thoſe who are under the dominion of the Turk, who are governed by four patriarchs, viz. the patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem.

The Greeks obſerve twenty-two fixed and immoveable feaſts; the two firſt of which are, the nativity of the bleſſed virgin Mary, and the exaltation of the Holy Croſs; the reſt conſiſt principally of the antient Greek ſaints and martyrs. They keep four annual faſts. They give to their patriarch of Conſtantinople, whom they conſider as their head, the pompous titles of Moſt Holy Father, or Your Holineſs, Moſt bleſſed Father, or Your Bleſſedneſs: making him in all reſpects equal to the pope. The revenues of their prieſts are very ſmall. Marriage, with them, is no legal objection againſt a perſon's going into orders; but the general practice of their church is againſt marriage afterwards: they have a great number of deacons, who belong to the biſhops; and their monks lead a very ſevere courſe of life. The modern Greeks reckon up ſeven myſteries or ſacraments, which they are ſuppoſed to have taken from the Latins; namely, baptiſm, unguent of chriſm, the euchariſt, penance, holy orders, matrimony, and oil with prayer. Their celebration of the euchariſt is attended with a great number of ceremonies. The laity are obliged to receive the communion four times in the year, with which they readily comply; and none omit it at Chriſtmas or Eaſter. They alſo retain the doctrines of confeſſion and penance; but, with reſpect to the former, they do not require the penitant ſhould enumerate every particular circumſtance, for if he diſcloſe as much as he thinks it prudent to declare, it is accepted. Divorces are eaſily obtained among the Greek Chriſtians, as theſe people are very prone to revenge where they have been ill uſed. They retain only the Nicene or rather Conſtantinopolitan creed in their liturgies and catechiſms, and are wholly ſtrangers to that of St. Athanaſius: but they acknowledge the holy ſpirit to be of the ſame ſubſtance with the Father and the Son; to be God from eternity, proceeding from the eſſence and nature of the Father, without beginning, and to be equally adored. With reſpect to the ſtate of the dead, the Greek church believes, that the ſouls of the righteous do not go immediately to heaven, but to ſome third place, which is ſometimes called Paradiſe, where they wait till the reſurrection: and though it is ſaid they deny purgatory, they imagine however, that the ſouls of ſuch as are not ſufficiently purified to enter Paradiſe are confined in ſome ſecret receſſes under-ground, there to ſuffer grievous pangs; and that theſe may receive a mitigation of their torments from the prayers, oblations, and ſacrifices of the living. They admit of pictures of our Saviour and the ſaints, and honour them by bowing, kiſſing, and offering up their devotions before them. They uſe two kinds of adoration, in which great part of their worſhip conſiſts: in the firſt, they bow almoſt to the ground; the other is only a little inclination of the head and knee, which they perform when they come firſt into the church, or when they happen to come within ſight of a church or chapel either by ſea or land. They perform their devotions with their faces towards the eaſt; nor do they pull off their caps in the church, except at ſolemn proceſſions, when the goſpel is read, or at the celebration of the euchariſt. The Greeks abſtain from blood, and things ſtrangled. When they are brought upon their oaths, they lay their hand upon the croſs, afterwards kiſſing it, and putting it to their foreheads.

Upon the whole, it is rightly obſerved, reſpecting the religion of the Greek church, that there is a great deal of ſuperſtition intermixed with their divine offices; as the perfuming their churches, the pictures of their ſaints, the holy table, and the people, with incenſe; their frequent croſſing themſelves, the extravagant reſpect they pay to the unconſecreted elements, and their concluding many of their prayers with theſe words: "For the interceſſion of our Lady the ſpotleſs Virgin, Mother of God," &c. with ſeveral prayers and aſcriptions to the Virgin Mary, which come little ſhort of blaſphemy.

The Greek and other Chriſtians are greatly oppreſſed by the Turks, who will not ſuffer any of them to wear the honourable garb of thoſe of the eſtabliſhed religion, under the ſevereſt penalties: it is criminal for a Chriſtian to be ſeen with a white turban or a yellow ſlipper, which are worn only by their haughty maſters; and every raſcally Turk will beat and inſult a Chriſtian upon the leaſt, and ſometimes upon no provocation: for which there is no remedy but patience. The ordinary capitation-tax

every

every Chriſtian pays is not to be accounted among their greateſt grievances: the baſſas and inferior magiſtrates are ever finding ſome pretence or other to extort ſums of money from them; and the over righteous Mahometan ſcarce thinks it a crime to give falſe evidence againſt a Chriſtian.

SECT. XI.

Contains a hiſtory of the Turks, from the earlieſt accounts of that nation, to the concluſion of the war between them and the Ruſſians in 1772, and the treaty of peace ratified by thoſe two powers in 1774.

IN the eighth century, the Turks, who had before that time reſided chiefly north of the Palus Maotis and the Euxine ſeas, travelled ſouthward, and ſettled in Georgia, between the Euxine and the Caſpian ſeas, where they continued about two hundred years. About the year one thouſand, they removed farther ſouthward into Armenia, the name of which they changed into that of Turcomania. They ſoon after ſubdued Bagdat, ravaged Perſia, and made themſelves maſters of the northern provinces of Arabia, at which time they were all Pagans; but their leader Tangrolipix thought proper, from motives of policy, to turn Mahometan, well knowing that a ſovereign of a different religious perſuaſion is never agreeable to the generality of the people. The Turks then proceeded to invade the territories of the Grecian emperor in Aſia Minor, where they conquered ſeveral cities, as the Saracens had done in Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt.

The emperor of Conſtantinople was at this time head of the Aſiatic Chriſtians, who, being greatly oppreſſed, implored the aſſiſtance of the different ſovereigns of Europe, in order to oppoſe both Turks and Saracens: all Europe took the alarm: the pope alſo intereſted himſelf in the affair; and the clergy in general uſed their endeavours to excite an emulation, by which the Holy Land (as they termed it) might be reſcued from the hands of the infidels.

The firſt cruſade commenced in the year of our Lord 1096, when eight hundred thouſand perſons engaged in the enterprize, and proceeded towards Paleſtine: but above half of them periſhed by ſickneſs, famine, and the ſword; the latter being cut off by the Chriſtians through whoſe countries they paſſed, and who were obliged to repel force by force, in order to put a ſtop to their depredations. Many of the undiſciplined multitude, who arrived at Conſtantinople, were cut to pieces on their landing: but the more regular troops under the conduct of Godfrey of Boulogne, and other ſkilful commanders, arrived at Conſtantinople in tolerable order; but their numbers creating a jealouſy in the breaſt of the Grecian emperor, inſtead of joining them as he had promiſed, he contrived by every ſiniſter means to diſtreſs them; however, to avoid their reſentment of this treacherous conduct, he granted them ſhipping to tranſport the troops; on muſtering of which, it appeared, that the Chriſtians had one hundred thouſand horſe, and near twice that number of foot.

This vaſt army began its operations by beſieging Nice in Bithynia; to relieve which the Sultan Soliman marched, but was totally defeated, when the place ſurrendered, and was put into the Grecian emperor's hands, as had been previouſly agreed upon. The Chriſtian army then proceeded towards Antioch, when Sultan Soliman, at the head of two hundred thouſand men, gave them battle, but was again totally defeated. Antioch was ſoon after taken; but the Chriſtian leaders did not think proper to put it into the hands of the emperor of Conſtantinople, whoſe perfidy had ſo repeatedly diſguſted them. They then marched to Jeruſalem, which they inveſted with only fifty thouſand men, their numbers being ſo far reduced; and the garriſon was at the ſame time more numerous than the beſiegers. The arrival of a fleet of Engliſh, Norman, Flemiſh, and Genoeſe ſhips, however, gave new birth to their operations, by bringing them a freſh ſupply of men. The outward wall was ſoon carried by ſtorm, and the city itſelf was ſoon after taken ſword in hand, when Godfrey of Boulogne was crowned king of Jeruſalem. He ſoon ſubdued Ptolemais, Ceſarea, Antipatris, Aſcalon, &c. but died within a year after his coronation; and Baldwin of Bruges ſucceeded him, A. D. 1100. In his reign, the Chriſtians took the city of Tyre, and obtained three victories over the infidels; he then laid ſiege to the city of Damaſcus, but proved unſucceſsful in his attempt: after reigning thirty years, he died, and was ſucceeded by Fulk, earl of Anjou, in 1131. During this reign the Chriſtians began to quarrel among themſelves; but, Fulk being killed by a fall from his horſe, his eldeſt ſon, under the title of Baldwin II. was elected king in the year 1142; but being then only thirteen years of age, his mother was joined with him in the government.

Four diſtinct kingdoms were eſtabliſhed by the Chriſtians, who had been in poſſeſſion of the Holy Land and countries adjacent more than forty years: theſe were, 1. The kingdom of Edeſſa, which comprehended the countries on the banks of the Euphrates. 2. The kingdom of Tripoli, which was near the ſea coaſt. The kingdon of Antioch; and, 4. The kingdom of Jeruſalem.

The continual diſcords among the Chriſtians gave great advantage to Sanguin, ſultan of Aleppo, and afterwards to Nauraddin his ſon, who retook many of the conquered places; which occaſioned the Chriſtians again to ſolicit the aſſiſtance of the European ſovereigns. Upon which invitation, Conrad, emperor of Germany, at the head of one hundred thouſand men, undertook the expedition; but the Grecian emperor, proving as great an enemy to him as the Turks, he loſt the greateſt part of his army, and returned home greatly diſappointed and chagrined.

In 1187, Salading, ſultan of Damaſcus, was very ſucceſsful againſt the Chriſtians, from whom he took Jeruſalem. This engaged Frederic, emperor of Germany, in another cruſade; but the imperial forces, who proved for ſome time ſucceſsful, were at length viſited by the plague, which deſtroyed the army. Richard I. of England, and Philip Auguſtus of France, were then ſtimulated by the pope to carry their arms into Paleſtine, which they did in 1190; but the two kings diſagreeing, this, like the preceding enterpriſes, likewiſe miſcarried.

Conſtantinople was taken by the Latins in 1200; and Baldwin, earl of Flanders, being elected emperor thereof, ſoon after laid ſiege to Adrianople; but the Greeks inviting the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, the Chriſtian army was defeated, and Baldwin himſelf taken priſoner. They cut off the hands and feet of the unhappy monarch, and left him to periſh miſerably in the field, where he died three days after in the firſt year of his reign, and the thirty-third of his age. After this, Henry, the brother of Baldwin, being elected emperor of Conſtantinople, by the aſſiſtance of the king of Theſſaly, drove the Tartars out of Thrace, and recovered all the places they had taken from the Chriſtians.

As the ſultan of Egypt was now become the moſt formidable Mahometan power, the Chriſtians determined to invade that country, which they did under the conduct of Lewis king of France, commonly called St. Lewis, who ſet out from Europe with a fleet of one thouſand eight hundred ſail, containing an army of ſixty thouſand men, including about thirteen thouſand knights, Engliſh, French, and Cypriots. The army landed near Damietta, which they entered without oppoſition, the infidels having previouſly abandoned it. Lewis left his queen at Damietta, with a conſiderable garriſon, and began his march towards Grand Cairo, at the head of twenty thouſand horſe, and forty thouſand foot: but they were ſo harraſſed by the enemy, that they were above three months in advancing forty miles. At length the Mahometans, taking advantage of the van of the Chriſtian army being ſeparated from the main body, attacked the cruſaders with great fury, totally defeated them, took priſoner the king of France, and all the troops who were not ſlain in the engagement. It was debated by the Mahometans, whether they ſhould not cut the throats of all the priſoners; but avarice getting the better of revenge, they determined to ſpare them, in order to exact a large ranſom for the recovery of their liberty. They therefore agreed to releaſe the king of France, and the reſt of the priſoners, upon the delivering up Damietta, and paying an immenſe ſum of money to the captors.

An army of Tartars, under the conduct of Haalon, came down about this time like a torrent from the northward, and took Bagdat, Aleppo, Damaſcus, and Iconium. The ſultan of Egypt at the ſame time poſſeſſed himſelf of the principal places in Syria. Theſe tranſactions occaſioned another cruſade to be undertaken in 1271, by prince Edward, afterwards Edward I. of England: he took Nazareth, and defeated the Turks in ſeveral engagements; but not being properly ſupported by other Chriſtian princes, he returned to England, after having been a year and a half in Paleſtine; whereupon Elphis, ſultan of Egypt, invaded Syria, took Tripoli, Tyre, Sidon, Berethus, and all the towns poſſeſſed by the Chriſtians, except Ptolemais. A truce was however agreed upon for five years;

years; but being broken by the Chriſtians, the ſultan of Egypt laid ſiege to Ptolemais, but dying before the place, his ſon Araphus took it by ſtorm, and gave the plunder to his ſoldiers: after which, the Chriſtians were intirely expelled from Paleſtine, one hundred and thirty-two years ſubſequent to the taking of Jeruſalem. But Caſſianes the Tartar, who was ſovereign of Perſia, revenged the quarrel of the Chriſtians, by falling upon the Sultan of Egypt, defeating his armies, recovering moſt of the places in Syria and Paleſtine, which he had taken; and rebuilding the city of Jeruſalem, which he did at the deſire of his queen, who was an Armenian Chriſtian: he likewiſe offered to join the Chriſtian princes, and re-eſtabliſh them in the Holy Land; but the principal ſovereigns in Europe were unhappily engaged in war amongſt themſelves, and could not therefore ſpare any forces to ſend to Paleſtine; upon which, Caſſianes retired into Perſia, and the Sultan of Egypt recovered all he had loſt. The Turkiſh lords, upon the death of Aladin, the laſt prince of the Selzucian family, divided the country among themſelves, the principal of whom was Ottoman or Othman, the ſon of Enthogrul.

When the Turks were driven out of Perſia by the Tartars, the Chriſtians of Bithynia permitted their flocks and herds to graze upon their mountains; but the Turks, after having been here for ſome time, began to claim the place as their right, and to diſpute the poſſeſſion of it with the Chriſtian natives; whereupon the latter complained to the governors of the neighbouring Grecian caſtles, that thoſe whom they had ſuccoured, through compaſſion, wanted now to be their maſters. The Grecian governors, therefore, aſſembled a body of forces, in order to compel the Turks to acknowledge the ſovereignty of the Grecian emperor, or relinquiſh the place: but Ottoman putting himſelf at the head of a body of troops, defeated the Chriſtians, and took Cara Chiſar, a fortreſs ſituated on the frontiers of Bithynia and Phrygia. He afterwards plundered all Bithynia; which ſo greatly alarmed the Chriſtians, that they prevailed upon the governor of Belezugar to invite Ottoman to the ſolemnization of a wedding at his caſtle, that they might have an opportunity of taking him off. Ottoman, being appriſed of the deſign, contrived to introduce a party of ſoldiers in diſguiſe, who killed the governor and all his gueſts, and took poſſeſſion of the caſtle. He then made himſelf maſter of many other places in Phrygia, and even laid ſiege to the city of Nice. The emperor of Conſtantinople ſent an army to relieve the places, but it was defeated by Ottoman, who from that time, viz. A. D. 1300, took upon himſelf the title and ſtate of ſultan, and made Neapolis the ſeat of his government. The Chriſtians invaded the territories of this new ſovereign, but were defeated; and Ottoman now growing old, conſtituted his ſon Orchanes generaliſſimo, who ſubdued all the remaining places in Bithynia and Phrygia, and ſucceeded his father, who died A. D. 1328, as ſultan.

Orchanes, having taken Abydos, at the entrance of the Helleſpont, on the Aſiatic ſhore, from thence tranſported his army into Europe, and, in 1338, took Gallipoli, which was the firſt town in Europe the Turks ever poſſeſſed. This prince died in 1359.

Amurath, who ſucceeded his father Orchanes, was in the beginning of his reign diſturbed by a confederacy between the leſſer Mahometan princes in Aſia and the Chriſtians: but ſuppreſſing theſe, he tranſported his army into Europe, where he took many places from the Grecian emperor, particularly Adrianople, which he ſubdued in 1362, and made the capital of all his Aſiatic and European dominions. About this time the body of janiſaries was eſtabliſhed; for every fifth captive above fifteen years of age was by Amurath's order, retained in his ſervice, and educated in the ſeraglio, when at a proper ſeaſon thoſe of the largeſt ſtature were to be ſelected for the guard of the ſultan.

The Servians, Bulgarians, and Illyrians having raiſed an inſurrection, and invaded the European dominions of Amurath, he returned into Aſia to ſuppreſs it; but the emperor of Conſtantinople not joining them at this critical juncture, the ſultan, at the head of two hundred thouſand men, croſſed the Boſphorus, and totally defeated them. Amurath, however, ſurvived this victory but a ſhort time; for a Chriſtian ſoldier, pretending to beg his life of him, took an oppoſtunity of ſtabbing him with a dagger, which he had concealed under his cloaths, of which wound the ſultan immediately died, in the year 1373, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Bajazet, who, that he might have no rivals, began his reign by the murder of his brother. He then invaded Servia, and laid ſiege to Crotava, which ſurrendered on condition that the garriſon ſhould have leave to march unmoleſted away, and join the Chriſtian army. They were however no ſooner out of the town, than Bajazet ordered a detachment of his troops to put them all to the ſword; which bloody injunction was immediately executed.

The Turkiſh generals, the enſuing year, plundered the countries north of the Danube; while Bajazet himſelf paſſing the Helleſpont, took the city of Philadelphia in Lybia, conquered Caramania, Ionia, and the coaſt of Natolia. The compliance which the Grecian emperor had ſhewn the Turks, was not of any ſervice to him; for Bajazet, unmindful of his obligations to that monarch, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, which was ſo well defended, that he blockaded it for eight ſucceſſive years; till Sigiſmund, king of Hungary, aſſiſted by the French, compelled him to raiſe the ſiege; but Bajazet ſoon after defeated the Chriſtian army, and took ſuch a multitude of priſoners, that every Turkiſh ſoldier had a ſlave to his ſhare. After this victory, Bajazet again laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, but was obliged a ſecond time to raiſe the ſiege on account of the approach of a vaſt army under the command of Tamerlane, commonly called The Great, the Mogul monarch, who had been invited to march againſt Bajazet, not only by the emperor of Conſtantinople and other Chriſtian princes, but by the Mahometans themſelves, who were greatly oppreſſed by that tyrant. The defeat of Bajazet by Tamerlane, and what afterwards befel him, we have already taken notice of in our account of Tamerlane, p. 57, 58. to which we beg leave to refer.

The five ſons of Bajazet, after his death, diſputed for the ſovereignty of the Ottoman empire, during ten years; but at length Mahomet, the youngeſt, proving ſucceſsful, was unanimouſly acknowledged ſole ſovereign of the Turkiſh dominions. Having rendered Walachia and Tranſylvania ſubject to him, he died in the year 1422, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Amurath, commonly called Amurath II.

This prince, after ſuppreſſing ſeveral domeſtic inſurrections, ſubdued great part of Greece, recovered Savia and Caramania, and then invaded Hungary with an army of eighty thouſand men; but was repulſed by the prince of Tranſylvania, who, being joined by the king of Poland, paſſed the Danube, drove the Turks out of Servia, and advanced to mount Hemus; the paſſes of the mountains were, however, ſo well guarded, that the Chriſtians, not being able to penetrate into Romania, were obliged to retreat: the Turks purſued them, and, coming up with their rear, a general battle enſued, when the Chriſtians obtained a complete victory. During this engagement, the celebrated Scanderbeg, who commanded a body of Turkiſh troops, deſerted to the Chriſtian army. This prince was the ſon of John Caſtiot, prince of Epirus, whoſe territories Amurath invaded, and compelled him to deliver up his four ſons as hoſtages for his fidelity. Amurath then ordered all the young princes to be circumciſed, and inſtructed in the Mahometan ſuperſtition; and, on the death of their father, ſeized the country of Epirus as his own, after putting to death the three elder princes. He however pretended to have a great regard for the younger, on whom he conferred the title of Scanderbeg, which ſignifies Lord Alexander, Scander implying in the Turkiſh language Alexander, and beg being the titular appellation for lord. The Turk's affected kindneſs could not however efface from the young prince's boſom the ſenſe of the wrongs he and his family had ſuſtained from the infidels; he was a Chriſtian in his heart, and had long meditated to eſcape from the Mahometan. The abovementioned battle preſented him with an opportunity, when he not only enticed three thouſand ſoldiers, who were natives of his own country Epirus, to deſert with him, but brought off the Ottoman ſecretary of war. He afterwards proceeded towards Croia, the capital of Epirus, and compelled the ſecretary to write an order in the name of the baſſa his maſter to the governor, commanding him to deliver up that city to the care of Scanderbeg. The governor, not ſuſpecting but that the order really came from the baſſa, and was written with the concurrence of Amurath, delivered up the place without heſitation. Scanderbeg being joined by the inhabitants, immediately put all the Turks in the place, who refuſed to turn Chriſtians, to the ſword; and having aſſembled an army of twelve thouſand men, marched to Petrella, which ſurrendered upon the firſt ſummons, and Stelluſa followed the example; which ſucceſs gave him encouragemeht to invade Macedonia, and lay it under vaſt contributions, raiſing by this means a ſufficient ſum of money in the enemies country to pay, and even augment his army.

Alarmed at the proceedings of Scanderbeg, Amurath sent Ali bassa, at the head of forty thousand men, to prevent his excursions; but Scanderbeg had the good fortune to defeat him. The Turkish monarch, therefore, dreading the consequences of these successes, patched up a peace with the Hungarians, that he might have an opportunity of bending his whole force against Scanderbeg. The Hungarians, soon became sensible of the error they had committed, in making a peace with the Turks at the time the prince of Epirus was so successful, and consequently enabled to make a powerful diversion in their favour; these sentiments were followed by a breach of the treaty: they were however, totally routed at the battle of Varna, and their king Uladislaus slain.

The sultan now determined that his forces should plunder Epirus; but three armies, which he sent for that purpose, were severally defeated by the fortunate Scanderbeg; and it is remarkable, that his forces never amounted to a third part of the number of the Turks in all these engagements.

Amurath, enraged at length with his continual losses, disappointments, and defeats, by an handful of men, raised an army of one hundred and forty thousand troops, at the head of which he himself marched, and laid siege to the capital city of Croia, which was defended by a strong garrison and a brave governor, on whom Scanderbeg could depend, while that prince commanded a flying army in the mountains, which continually harrassed the Turkish forces. Amurath assaulted the city many times with great fury; but he was not able to reduce it, for he died before its walls, in the thirtieth year of his reign, and was succeeded by his eldest son Mahomet, surnamed Mahamot II. This prince, immediately after the death of his father, raised the siege, and returned to Adrianople.

This prince began his reign by murdering his brothers, and then proceeded to besiege Constantinople, which he took on May 20, 1453. The last Grecian emperor, Constantine Palcologus, was killed in the assault; and all his relations, with the principal citizens, were afterwards put to death in cold blood by Mahomet. The plunder of this wealthy city was given to the troops, and the seat of government was transferred from Adrianople to Constantinople. Mahomet, having thus added the Grecian empire to his own, assumed the title of emperor, which has ever since been retained by the succeeding sovereigns of the Turks.

Among other captives taken at Constantinople, there was a beautiful young virgin, named Irene, with whom Mahomet became so enamoured, that he neglected all public affairs for the enjoyment of her society in private. This remissness with respect to the business of the state, occasioned a dangerous mutiny among the janisaries; but Mahomet's temper was so fierce and savage, that none dared to mention the situation of his affairs. At length one of his bassas ventured to acquaint him with his danger. Mahomet severely reprimanded him for his insolence, as he termed it; but being sensible of the seasonableness of his advice, he told him, "That his subjects should find, that he could rule his passions as well as he could rule kingdoms." He then gave orders that the principal officers of the army, and all the great officers of state should attend him the ensuing day in the divan. At the time appointed, every one attended with wondering expectation. The emperor appeared, and with him the beautiful Irene, dressed with the most costly care in all the extravagance of Asiatic elegance. The emperor then ordered the lovely Greek to stand upon a raised floor, and sternly demanded of all present, if they thought he was blameable for devoting himself to so charming an object. They unanimously agreed, that it was impossible for any man to resist so much beauty. "Then, said he, you shall find that I am more than man." So saying, he instantly seized the fair Irene by her beautiful locks of hair, and struck off her head with his scymetar, to the great astonishment of all present. Some have greatly commended, and others have severely blamed Mahomet on account of this singular transaction. Whether Mahomet was sated by a long uninterrupted possession of Irene's charms, or was really that patriotically heroic monarch he wished to be thought, is immaterial; but it is our opinion, he might either have parted from the lady, or evinced his regard for his subjects, without proceeding to such a barbarous extremity. His ferocious conduct plainly proved, that all his passions were of the brutal kind; his love being founded on sensuality, and his pretended sentiments of honour on a savage and vain parade of dignity and self-importance.

Mahomet, being entirely roused from his lethargy by his late danger, deprived some of the princes of the Morea of their territories, subdued Servia, and laid siege to Belgrade; but was defeated by Hunniades, the brave prince of Transylvania, who unhappily died the same year. He then attacked the Mahometan princes on the south coast of the Euxine sea, particularly the prince of Smope, whose capital he besieged by sea and land: which being surrendered to him, he invested Trebizond, took it, and put an end to that little empire. He then extended his conquests in Europe, and subjugated Walachia. His prodigious success, obtained him the name of Great; nevertheless, he was a most abandoned cruel wretch, and guilty of almost every crime which could debase human nature. He died A. D. 1481, in the thirty-third year of his reign, and was succeeded by his eldest son

Bajazet II. who spent so much time in a pilgrimage to Mecca, that he was near being supplanted by his brother Zemes. This so much alarmed him, that he had his brother murdered, and rewarded the assassin with the post of prime minister, though he was only a barber. He took several towns from the Venetians; but was continually alarmed with domestic plots against his life, which at length took effect; for he was dethroned by the janisaries, who made his son Selim emperor.

This prince began his reign by murdering his father, his brothers, and all their children; he then subdued the Mamelukes, and put an end to their empire in Egypt, which from that time became a Turkish province. Selim died A. D. 1520, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, as he was preparing to invade the Christian princes.

Solyman II. or Solyman the Magnificent, succeeded his father Selim; and immediately after his accession laid siege to Belgrade, which he took on the 29th of August, 1521. He invaded the island of Rhodes the year ensuing, the capital of which submitted to his arms on Christmas-day 1522. Solyman then invaded Hungary, defeated the Hungarians, and took the cities of Buda, Pest, and Segedin. In 1529 he penetrated into Austria, and laid siege to Vienna, but it was so well defended, that he was obliged to raise the siege and retire; he returned, however, again into Austria, with an army of five hundred thousand men; but the emperor, and other Christian princes, being well prepared to receive him, he again retreated to Constantinople.

Andrew Doria, the celebrated Genoese admiral, joining the fleets of several Christian powers, particularly that of the Spaniards, invaded the Morea. Solyman, in return, ordered his fleet, under the command of his admiral Barbarossa, to plunder the coasts of Italy and Sicily. These orders being obeyed, the Turkish admiral stood over for the African coast, where he deposed the deys of Algiers and Tunis, and had those kingdoms confirmed to him by the emperor.

Solyman, in the mean time, invaded Persia with a large army, but met with very little success in this expedition. He then sent a fleet to the Red sea, to attack the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies; but his design here likewise failed.

At this time the French, who were contending with the emperor of Germany for the Milanese, made an alliance with the Turks, whose fleets again plundered the Italian and Sicilian coasts; and the Ottoman armies met likewise with great success in Hungary and Italy.

Solyman again invaded Persia in 1548; but the Persians destroyed the country before him as he advanced, by which means most of his army perished, and he was obliged again to retreat; but to make him some amends, he, in 1551, took the strong city of Temeswar, in Hungary, and the territories belonging to it.

The emperor, who was now advanced in years, became so extremely fond of his concubine Roxalana, that he put his eldest son Mustapha to death to oblige her, and even consented to marry her, though no Turkish sovereign, from the time of Bajazet, had ever been married, as it was contrary to the policy of the Turkish government.

Bajazet the youngest son, soon after underwent the same fate as his brother Mustapha, for being concerned in a plot against the government.

The Turks now made a fruitless attack upon the island of Malta, but still continued successful in Hungary; when death put an end to Solyman's progress, A. D. 1566, and took him off by means of a bloody flux, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and forty-seventh of his reign.

Selim II. the only surviving son of Solyman, succeeded him, whose first expedition was, to invade the island of Cyprus. He laid siege to Nicosia, which he took by storm, A. D. 1570, and the ensuing year he invested Famagusta, which capitulated upon honourable terms, but the garrison were no sooner marched, than a great number of the inhabitants were massacred, and the brave governor, Bragadine

gadino was flayed alive. The baſſa Muſtapha here found an immenſe treaſure, which he put on board three ſhips, together with many lovely captives, among whom was a young lady of exquiſite beauty, who, dreading the thoughts of being ſacrificed to the embraces of a Turk, ſet fire to the powder, which blew up the ſhip in which ſhe was, and the two others that were near it, together with herſelf, all the Chriſtian captives, and the Turkiſh ſailors.

In the mean time the Turkiſh admiral proceeded to make deſcents on many of the Venetian iſlands, as Epirus, Dalmatia, &c. from whence he carried many thouſands of the inhabitants into captivity. It is affirmed, that the town of Curzola was forſaken on the approach of the Turkiſh fleet, by the governor and all the men; but that the women, taking up arms, defended the place till a ſtorm aroſe, and obliged the Turks to retire to their gallies, in order to preſerve them.

The Turks, in the year 1571, fitted out the largeſt fleet that ever they ſent to ſea, which was engaged at the entrance of the gulf of Lepanto, by the united Chriſtian fleet, commanded by Don John, brother to the king of Spain, in conjunction with the Venetian admiral. The fight was obſtinate and bloody, and laſted five hours, when the Ottoman fleet was totally defeated; the Turkiſh admiral, with fifteen thouſand men, were killed, and one hundred and ſixty gallies taken, or ſunk: the Chriſtians loſt about ſix thouſand men, among whom were many brave and diſtinguiſhed officers.

Selim, after this overthrow, equipped another fleet, and took Tunis, on the Barbary coaſt, from the Spaniards, which was the laſt conſiderable action of his life, for he died September 9, 1574, in the fifty-ſecond year of his age, and ninth of his reign.

Amurath III. eldeſt ſon of Selim, ſucceeded to the throne. Like many of his predeceſſors, he began his reign with an act of cruelty, by the murder of his five brothers; and, to prove himſelf a true Turk, and not inferior in cruelty to any of his anceſtors, he had them executed in his preſence. That nothing might be wanting to complete the barbarous ſpectacle, he obliged his late father's favourite ſultana to be preſent, who was ſo affected at the maſſacre of the young princes, that ſhe ſtabbed herſelf to the heart, and expired in the preſence of the young tyrant. He attempted to reduce the Perſians, but loſt three fine armies in the attempt. Theſe diſappointments ſo chagrined him, that in 1589 he aſſembled an army of one hundred and eighty thouſand men, and gave the command of it to the grand viſir. In this expedition, the Turks loſt eighty thouſand men by the ſword and famine; in 1592, as the ſultan found that his troops carried on this war with great reluctance, he withdrew the army from Perſia, in order to employ it in Hungary. Nothing, however, deciſive was done; and Amurath died January 18, 1595, in the thirty-third year of his age, and twentieth of his reign; and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Mahomet III. who alſo began his reign according to the Ottoman cuſtom, by putting his brothers to death, who were no leſs than twenty in number; however, he was not ſufficiently glutted with this bloody ſacrifice, for he ordered ten of his father's concubines, whom he imagined to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. As ſoon as he was ſeated on the throne, finding that his general Ferrat Baſſa had been unſucceſsful in Hungary, he ordered him to be ſtrangled. The Chriſtians, however, ſtill proving victorious, Mahomet aſſembled an army of two hundred thouſand men, put himſelf at their head, took the city of Agria, where he practiſed unheard of cruelties, and afterwards defeated the Chriſtian army; by which means he recovered Moldavia and Walachia. Being obliged to march back into his own country, to quell ſome domeſtic tumults, the Chriſtians ſeized the opportunity, and recovered many of the places they had loſt; while, on the other ſide, the Perſians retook Tauris.

Mahomet's cruelties had rendered him ſo obnoxious to the people, that a conſpiracy was formed to depoſe him, and place his eldeſt ſon upon the throne. Being appriſed of the affair, he had his ſon ſtrangled, and put to death all the conſpirators who were ſo unfortunate as to fall into his power; but now, being every-where unſucceſsful, and many of the inſurgents continuing in arms, he began to think that the wrath of God purſued him for his manifold crimes. To avert, therefore, the vengeance of heaven, he ordered prayers to be put up for him throughout his dominions: and ſent two mollas, barefooted on a pilgrimage to Mecca. He died, in 1604, ſtung with all the horrors of a guilty conſcience, in the forty-fifth year of his age, and ninth of his reign. His ſon Achmet ſucceeded him.

In the reign of this prince, the Turks obtained ſome advantages over the Chriſtians, being joined by the Proteſtants of Auſtria, Hungary, and Tranſylvania, who were ſo cruelly perſecuted by the Roman Catholics, that they were obliged even to ſeek ſuccour from leſs intolerant infidels.

The principal ſultana of Achmet, underſtanding that the emperor had taken one of his ſiſter's ſlaves to his bed, was ſo inflamed with jealouſy, that ſhe cauſed her to be ſtrangled. This Achmet reſented, by ſtabbing her, and trampling upon her body. At length he departed this life on the 15th of November, 1617, in the 31ſt year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his brother,

Muſtapha, whoſe acceſſion was extremely ſingular. The brothers of the ſultans had uſually been put to death by the reigning ſovereign, through the abſurd idea of rendering himſelf ſecure; but Achmet, being only thirteen years of age when he aſcended the throne, was adviſed to ſpare his brother Muſtapha, till he ſaw whether he ſhould have any children of his own, as no other prince of the Ottoman family was then living. Thus Muſtapha was ſecured by the policy of the ſtate, till Achmet had children, when it was debated in council whether he ſhould not be put to death, and the execution was agreed upon accordingly; but Muſtapha was again providentially ſaved, for Achmet dreaming that he ſaw his brother executed, was ſo terrified at the viſionary ſpectacle of horror, that he would never ſuffer the ſentence to be put into execution. Muſtapha, however, reigned but five months; for the baſſas, finding him totally unqualified to govern, again confined him to the ſaraglio, and advanced to the throne his nephew,

Oſman, who, ſoon after the commencement of his reign, marched to the frontiers of Poland; but the janiſaries refuſing to march any farther, he was obliged to patch up a diſhonourable peace with the Poles. This ſo enraged him, that he determined totally to aboliſh the body of janiſaries; which thoſe regular bravoes underſtanding, they murdered him in 1622, and reſtored his uncle Muſtapha to the throne; but he, being no better qualified to govern than before, was a ſecond time depoſed; when they advanced Amurath to the imperial dignity, who was the younger brother of Oſman.

Amurath IV. aſcended the throne in 1623: his reign was not only filled with inſurrections and mutinies, but the Perſians ravaged the Turkiſh frontiers, took Bagdat, which the Ottoman forces beſieged three years, without being able to recover. This emperor was a cruel tyrant, but he was certainly impartial in his inhuman conduct, equally oppreſſing and murdering Chriſtians and Turks, but in many inſtances he ſhewed himſelf to be a moſt ſavage and unfeeling monſter.

During this reign, a dreadful fire happened at Conſtantinople, which conſumed upwards of twenty thouſand houſes. Amurath, however, determined on a Perſian war; but, being in great want of money, he encouraged a number of informers to accuſe the richeſt people he could get intelligence of, with being guilty of various crimes. This gave him a pretence to put them to death, and ſeize their effects. By theſe infernal means he was enabled to raiſe an army of three hundred thouſand men, when, marching to the frontiers of Turky, he took Tauris, ordered it to be plundered by his ſoldiers, marched back without atchieving any thing farther, and then ordered a feſtival of ſeven days to celebrate his wonderful exploits!

Amurath's cruelties now grew dreadful and deteſtable to every one; the murders he committed were incredible, and the modes of execution were ſhocking to human nature; among the reſt, his brothers Bajazet and Orchan fell victims to his ferocious diſpoſition: indeed murder was his ſupreme delight, for the moſt favourite amuſement of this blood-thirſty wretch was, to ſit in a pavilion in the palace gardens, and fire upon thoſe who paſſed by in boats, by which means he killed a prodigious number. It muſt, however, be admitted, that he ſeldom performed theſe frolics but when he was drunk; but it was unhappy for his ſubjects that he was ſcarce ever otherwiſe.

He prepared again to invade Perſia in 1637: but, before his departure, cauſed another of his brothers to be ſtrangled, who was a promiſing prince of great accompliſhments. He then inveſted Bagdat, when the garriſon ſurrendered on condition of receiving no perſonal injury. Amurath ſolemnly promiſed to ſpare their lives; but they had no ſooner laid down their arms, than he ordered them all to be cut to pieces, including in the bloody mandate not only men, but women and children. For this conqueſt he cauſed

cauſed a feſtival of twenty days continuance to be proclaimed, at which he very happily drank himſelf into a fever, that took him off on the 8th of February, 1640, in the eighteenth year of his reign, and only the thirty-ſecond of his age. This tyrannical brute was ſucceeded by his brother Ibrahim.

The reaſon why Ibrahim was not murdered as well as the reſt of his brethren, was owing, as ſome ſuppoſe, to there not being any other prince of the Ottoman line living; but others ſay, that he was an ideot; on which account Amurath deſpiſed him too much to think him dangerous. Ibrahim, however, had more cunning than was ſuppoſed; for it appeared, that he had acted folly and feigned ideotiſm only to ſecure his life.

This prince in the beginning of his reign, put an end to the ravages of the ſavage Coſſacks, took the city of Aſoph, and added the greateſt part of the iſland of Candia to the Turkiſh dominions. He was, however, in 1648, depoſed by his mother and the janiſaries, and ſoon after murdered; after which, they placed on the throne his ſon Mahomet IV. then a child of ſeven years of age.

During the minority of the emperor, the ſultana mother, the grand viſir, and the aga of the janiſaries, were inveſted with the adminiſtration; but affairs turning out a little unſucceſsful, the grand viſir was ſoon depoſed, as were ſeveral others who ſucceeded him; for be the fault where it may, that miniſter is ſure to bear the blame.

In 1658, a formidable inſurrection was with difficulty ſuppreſſed. The Turks were next viſited by the plague, which uſually carried off one thouſand four hundred or one thouſand five hundred people every day in the city of Conſtantinople only. An obſtinate battle was fought in Hungary, between the Chriſtians and Turks; in which the latter were totally defeated, and left ſeventeen thouſand men dead on the field of battle: this occaſioned a peace between the Porte and the emperor of Germany; however, to recompenſe the above loſs, the antient Chaldæa was ſubdued, and added to the Turkiſh empire, together with the iſland of Candia.

The Turks, in 1672, invaded Poland, conquered many of its towns, and obliged the government to conſent to pay ſeventy thouſand dollars annually: but on the failure of the ſtipulated payment, the war broke out again in the enſuing year, when the Poliſh general Sobieſki had the good fortune to obtain a ſignal victory over the infidels. The people of Tripoli in Barbary, about the ſame time killed the baſſa, and threw off the Turkiſh yoke, by which they became independent of the Porte in every thing, except a ſmall tribute. In 1683, the Turks laid ſiege to Vienna, but were attacked in their trenches and routed by John Sobieſki, King of Poland, at the head of the Germans and Poles. The city of Buda was afterwards inveſted by the Imperialiſts, and taken, Auguſt 22, 1686. King George the Firſt, then elector of Hanover, was preſent at this ſiege; and brought from thence the two Turks, who afterwards conſtantly attended him when he was King of England: ſeveral other noble volunteers were preſent, particularly Lord Cutts, who took a young Turk priſoner, to whom he gave the name of Budiana; this Mahometan afterwards turned Chriſtian, and became an officer in the Engliſh army. In the ſame year, the Venetians recovered great part of the Morea; prince Lewis of Baden totally defeated the Turks; and the Poles gave a great overthrow to the Tartars.

Theſe, and other ſubſequent ill ſucceſſes, ſo diſpirited the troops, that they demanded the grand viſir's head; this the Grand Signor ſent them, with the heads of ſeveral other great officers, without which they did not appear diſpoſed to be ſatisfied; but, after all his compliances, they depoſed him in the thirty-ninth year of his reign, and fifty-third of his age. He died a natural death five years after in the ſeraglio.

In 1687, Solyman III. brother of the laſt emperor, was advanced to the throne. In the beginning of this reign, the duke of Bavaria took Belgrade; prince Lewis of Baden obtained a victory over the Turks at Boſnia; and the Venetians extended their frontiers in Greece and Dalmatia. This run of ill luck induced the Turks to offer very advantageous terms to the Chriſtians; but the treaty was broken by the machinations of the French king Lewis XIV. who promiſed to invade Germany, and divide it with the Turks; but neither they nor the French were able to compaſs their deſigns; and Solyman died in the fourth year of his reign, and fifty-third of his age.

Achmet II. brother of Solyman, ſucceeded him, in 1691; and on the 19th of Auguſt in the ſame year a numerous army of Turks paſſed the Danube, but they were defeated by prince Lewis of Baden, where the grand viſir and twenty-eight thouſand men were ſlain. Achmet died in the fourth year of his reign, and fifty-firſt of his age, and was ſucceeded by his nephew,

Muſtapha II. who raiſed an army of one hundred and twenty thouſand men; took Lippa, and defeated the Imperialiſts: his fleet was likewiſe ſucceſsful againſt the Venetians; but, on the other hand, the Ruſſians took Aſoph from him, and opened a communication to the Black ſea.

Prince Eugene, in 1692, defeated the Turks at Olack, when the prime viſir, and thirty thouſand men were ſlain. A diſhonourable peace being now concluded, the ſultan was depoſed in 1703, and his brother Achmet raiſed to the throne.

Achmet III. began his reign with diſplacing all the great officers of ſtate who had brought about the revolution; the reaſon for which was ſaid to be, that they aſſumed too much upon that account.

In 1709, the king of Sweden, after his defeat at Pultowa, took refuge in the Turkiſh territories, and had ſufficient intereſt to ſtir up the Grand Signor to declare war againſt the czar of Muſcovy; the czar raiſed a large army, but, not acting with prudence, he was ſoon compelled to ſign whatever conditions the Grand Signor pleaſed to preſcribe.

The Turks, in 1715, ſubdued the Morea, on which the emperor of Germany declared war againſt them; and in 1716 the Ottoman army was defeated at Carlowitz by prince Eugene. In this battle, the grand viſir, the aga of the janiſaries, a great number of baſſas, and one hundred thouſand men were ſlain: Tuneſwaer was taken by the Imperialiſts this campaign; and in 1717 prince Eugene took Belgrade, and again defeated an army of two hundred thouſand Turks. However, by the mediation of Great Britain and Holland, a peace was concluded in 1718.

After theſe tranſactions, the Turks, in 1722, invaded Perſia, and had ſome ſucceſs till compelled by the celebrated Kouli Khan to retire. Achmet's ill ſucceſs occaſioned him to be depoſed; and in 1730 his nephew Mahomet was raiſed to the throne.

Mahomet V. as ſoon as he began his reign, made peace with Perſia, and entered into a war with Ruſſia. In 1737, the Turks defeated the Imperialiſts at Crotſka, and took Orſova. In 1739, they beſieged Belgrade; but a treaty being entered into between the Germans, French, and Turks, it was unanimouſly agreed, that the Turks ſhould have Belgrade, but the fortifications were to be demoliſhed. The Danube and Save were to be the northern boundaries of the Turkiſh territories; the river Atlanta and the iron gate mountains, the eaſtern boundary; and the river Unna, the weſtern limits, towards the German dominions. By another treaty, the Ruſſians were obliged to demoliſh all their forts on the Palus Mœotis, and Euxine ſea, and to deſtroy the fortifications of Aſoph.

Mahomet was of a pacific and juſt diſpoſition, and on that account reſpected much by the Chriſtian princes. Nothing material, except the above tranſactions, happened during his reign; and on the 13th of December, 1754, he died ſuddenly of a fit of the aſthma, and the ſame day his brother Oſman was proclaimed emperor, from the minarets of the moſques.

Oſman III. began his reign in a time of profound tranquillity; and nothing material occurred till his death, which happened in 1757, when he was ſucceeded by his brother,

Muſtapha III. who began his reign with every perſonal advantage: he was of a different diſpoſition from moſt of his predeceſſors, being of a liberal way of thinking, a lover of learning, and the firſt who introduced the art of printing into the Ottoman empire. In the year 1766, a general ſpirit of liberty ſeemed to diffuſe itſelf through many parts of the world. The Turkiſh empire was affected by its influence, the Georgians began to aſpire at independence, and many inſurrections happened in Egypt and Cyprus; which, though ſuppreſſed, evinced the ſpirit that prevailed at this period.

A war broke out, in 1768, between Ruſſia and the Porte, and a confederacy was formed againſt the Ruſſians among their own ſubjects and dependents, which was fomented and increaſed by the Ottomans. The confederates were, however, obliged to retreat into the Turkiſh territories. A Turkiſh army was aſſembled between Choczim, Bender, and Oczakow, the Ruſſians formed a line of troops along the frontiers of Poland, and a large body of Tartars appeared on the Ruſſian ſhore.

The Ruſſian admiral Spiritdoff ſet ſail, in 1769, with a powerful ſquadron for the Levant, and was afterwards joined, in 1770, with two other conſiderable fleets commanded



Different VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS *cultivated in some of the* Asiatic Islands.

1 Pepper — 2 Jarions — 3 Sago — 4 Dogs Tongue — 5 Blimbang —

Grainger sculp.

A MAP of the EAST INDIA ISLANDS, agreeable to the most approved MAPS and CHARTS. By Mr. Kitchen.

SCALES.

British Statute Miles, 69½ to a Degree.

Marine Leagues, 20 to a Degree.

Arabian Geographical or Measured Coss, 23 to a Degree.

CHINA

TONKIN

GULF OF TONKIN

HAINAN I.

FORMOSA I.

KINGDOM OF LAOS

KINGDOM OF PEGU

KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA

COCHIN CHINA

CHAMPA

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

MINDANAO

BORNEO

This Inland Part is inhabited by the Blayes a savage People.

ISLES OF SUNDA

CELEBES OR MACASSAR

MOLUCCAS

JAVA

SUMATRA

MALACCA

NEW GUINEA

TIMOR

Equator or Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Cancer

Tropic of Capricorn

Longit. East from Ferro.

NB. Pulo, means Island
Sable, Sand

manded by a don Elphinſtone and Count Orloff: ſoon after which, an engagement happened between the Turkiſh and Ruſſian fleets, near Napoli-di-Romani; in which the former were totally defeated, and took ſhelter in the harbour of the above-mentioned place, whither admiral Elphinſtone purſued and greatly annoyed them. Count Orloff was at this time acting by land in the Morea, but he ſoon after joined the other ſquadrons; and the whole fleet, on the 7th of July, 1770, engaged that of the Turks, who were totally defeated. In this fight, which was very bloody and deſperate, admiral Spiritdoff engaged the Capitana of one hundred guns, yard-arm to yard-arm, when the Turkiſh ſhip taking fire, the flames communicated to the Ruſſian ſhip: both unhappily blew up, and the crews, a few officers and men excepted, periſhed, either in the exploſion or the waves. The Turks now fled, in order to ſecure themſelves in the bay of Schiſma, where a few nights after their fleet was burnt by means of three fire-ſhips ſent amongſt them by the Ruſſians. It may well be imagined, that a fleet conſiſting of one hundred ſail, almoſt in one general blaze, muſt preſent a ſcene of diſtreſs and horror dreadful beyond deſcription; while the flames with the utmoſt rapidity were ſpreading deſtruction on all ſides, and ſhip blowing up after ſhip, with every ſoul on board, that feared to truſt the waves to ſwim for ſhore; the Ruſſians kept pouring upon them ſuch ſhowers of cannon-balls, ſhells, and ſmall-ſhot, that not one of the many thouſands of their weeping friends on land, who ſaw their diſtreſs, dared venture to their relief. Nothing now remained but united ſhrieks and unavailing cries, which, joined to the martial muſic and the loud triumphant ſhouts of the victors, ſerved to ſwell alternately the various notes of joy and ſorrow that compoſe the dirge of the departing glory of the Turks. The loſs on the part of the Ruſſians was admiral Spiritdoff's ſhip, and between ſeven and eight hundred men: on the ſide of the Turks, beſides the deſtruction of their whole fleet, above nine thouſand men periſhed.

After this diſaſter, the Turks quitted Schiſma in great conſternation, and, haſting to Smyrna, murdered an incredible number of Greeks and other Chriſtians, whom they ſuppoſed to be well affected to the Ruſſians, ſparing neither age nor ſex. The Ruſſians alſo, in this expedition, ſpread deſolation through the coaſts of Greece, Aſia, and the iſlands of the Archipelago, and greatly injured the trade of the Levant; but they acquired little benefit to themſelves by their ſucceſſes. This year likewiſe the Turkiſh army on the Danube, under the command of the grand vizier, was attacked and routed in its trenches at Babadagh.

Negociations were in 1772, ſet on foot, in order to procure a peace; but the plenipotentiaries not agreeing, the whole proved fruitleſs; nothing, however, of any conſequence was performed this year by either army. But in Syria and Egypt the people were in open rebellion; Ali Bey was, however, defeated and driven out of Egypt by Mahomet Aboudaab, when he ſought refuge in Syria, and was affectionately received by his friend Sheik Dabir, an Arabian prince.

Muſtapha III. departed this life at Conſtantinople, on the 21ſt of January, 1774, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and ſeventeenth of his reign, with the character of having been the wiſeſt, beſt, moſt humane, and diſintereſted monarch that ever governed the Ottoman empire. He was ſucceeded by his brother Abdul Hamet.

On this emperor's acceſſion to the throne, ſome commotions were excited in favour of the young prince Selim, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed: the war upon the Danube was carried on with vigour; nor did the Ottoman miniſtry fail to encourage as much as poſſible the rebellion of Pugatcheff againſt the Ruſſian government. The Turks were, however, defeated in various engagements; diſorder, mutiny, and deſertion, prevailed among the troops; the grand vizier being abandoned by the greateſt part of his forces, was obliged to accede to the terms preſcribed by the enemy, who had ſurrounded him at Schumla. Theſe ill ſucceſſes threw the whole Ottoman empire into confuſion; the Porte, however, under the preſent complexion of affairs, thought proper to ratify the articles of peace, the principal of which were: 1. The independency of the Crimea. 2. The abſolute ceſſion to Ruſſia of Kilburn, Corche, Jenichala, and all the diſtrict between the Bog and the Niaper. 3. A free navigation in all the Turkiſh ſeas, including the paſſage through the Dardanelles, with all the privileges and immunities which are granted to the moſt favoured nations. In return for which conceſſions, Ruſſia was to reſtore all ſhe had conquered. Aſoph and Taganrock excepted.

Soon after the concluſion of this peace, the grand vizier died, as is ſuppoſed of a broken heart, on his return to Conſtantinople; and public rejoicings were made at St. Peterſburgh, for the uncommon ſucceſs of the Ruſſian arms. The rebel Pugatcheff was alſo not long afterwards defeated by the Ruſſian forces, taken priſoner, and put to death.

Mahomet Aboudaab, with an army of Egyptians, in the year 1745, conquered the country of the old and brave Shiek Daher; but Aboudaab dying in the midſt of his ſucceſſes, Shiek Daher was in hopes of retrieving his affairs, when a baſſa arrived upon the coaſt of Syria with a conſiderable reinforcement. Shiek Daher was ſoon ſubdued, his treaſures ſeized, and his head ſent to Conſtantinople.

At the beginning of the preſent year 1782, the Kiaſa Bey was depoſed, and his place ſupplied by Amer Effendi, an intimate friend of the grand vizier. In the ſame year, the Porte cauſed the dragoman of the Morea to be beheaded, and has annexed his income of ten thouſand piaſtres per annum to that of dragoman to his ſublime highneſs, who will for the future enjoy a ſalary of twenty thouſand piaſtres annually, beſides ſeveral other emoluments.

Since the foundation of the Turkiſh empire, it has been governed by twenty-eight monarchs, the firſt ſeven of whom were kings, beginning with Ottoman, or Oſman, who mounted the throne in 1300, and ending with Amurath II. who began to reign A. D. 1422. After this reign, its monarchs aſſumed the title of emperor, of whom there were twenty-one, the firſt of whom was Mahomet II. who began his reign in the year 1450; and the laſt was Abdul-Hamet, with whom we cloſed our hiſtory, who aſcended the throne in 1774, and was the brother and ſucceſſor of Muſtapha III.

CHAP. IX.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

THE ASIATIC ISLANDS IN THE PACIFIC AND INDIAN OCEANS.

JAPAN.

SECT. I.

Treats of the extent of the empire of Japan, its cities, palaces, buildings, furniture; genius and temper of the people, their habits, diet, diverſions, feſtivals, forms of ſalutation, manufactures, huſbandry, &c.

THE extenſive and opulent kingdom of Japan (which the natives uſually call Niphon) conſiſts of three large and many leſſer iſlands, is one hundred and thirty degrees eaſtward of London, extending from thirty to forty one degrees north latitude, and from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and forty-ſeven degrees eaſt longitude, the whole cluſter being about ſix hundred leagues in circumference, and two hundred in length. The larger iſlands are Japan itſelf; Xims, the next in extent, and Xicoco the ſmaller of the three, which is ſituated between the former two, and is divided into four provinces. There is alſo the iſland of Tonſa, which lies ſouth of Niphon, being divided from it by a narrow channel; the capital

city whereof is Nava, ſituate on the north eaſt part of the iſland. The iſland of Bungo lies ſouth-weſt of Tonſa, being between four and five hundred miles in circumference, the capital city whereof is Nangaſcki, ſituate on a bay of the ſea, on the weſt ſide of the iſland (of which more hereafter): and near this city is the little iſland of Difnia, not much more than a mile round, where the Dutch factory are permitted to reſide; but of this we ſhall ſpeak more particularly, under the article of their trade with the Japaneſe. The iſland of Firando is pretty conſiderable, extending from thirty-three degrees twenty minutes to thirty-four degrees north latitude, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and thirty-two degrees eaſt longitude.

Jeddo, or Yeddo, the capital of Niphon, and of the whole empire, ſtands in the midſt of a fine plain in the province of Muſaſi, and is ſituate on a bay of the ſea, in the north-eaſt part of the iſland, in one hundred and forty-four degrees ten minutes of eaſt longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees of north latitude; being one of the largeſt, moſt opulent, and beautiful cities in that part of the world. The imperial palace, with its courts, parks, and gardens, is a ſquare of five miles in circumference, and ſtands in the middle of the city: that part of the palace where the king reſides, makes ſuch a ſhining appearance, that ſome travellers have related, it is covered with gold plates inſtead of tiles: probably, they reſemble the varniſhed gilded tiles which cover the palace of Pekin.

This noble ſtructure is formed by ſeveral piles of buildings, and incloſes many ſtreets, courts, apartments, pavilions, guard-houſes, gates, draw-bridges, gardens, canals, &c. In it reſides the emperor and his family, the royal domeſtics, tributary princes, and their retinues, the miniſters of ſtate, many officers, and a great garriſon. The walls are built of free-ſtone, which are not cemented by mortar, or braced together with iron; but being prodigiouſly large, are laid looſe upon each other; which is a precaution taken, that they may not receive any conſiderable injury from the earthquakes which are ſo frequent. Many of the ſtately apartments are formed and altered at pleaſure, by means of magnificent ſcreens, and ſuperb moveable partitions. The principal apartments are, the hall of attendance, where the emperor gives audience; the council chamber, where the miniſters of ſtate meet; the hall of a thouſand mats, where the tributary princes do homage, &c. This magnificent palace was built in the year 1600, in the reign of the emperor Tayko.

The city is in the form of a creſcent; and is interſected in almoſt every ſtreet by canals of water, where banks are planted with rows of trees. Theſe canals not only ſerve as ornaments to the city, but are of ſingular utility in caſes of fire, as they both afford a ready ſupply of water, and ſtop the progreſs of the conflagration. There is a ſtrong caſtle to defend the city, which is not ſurrounded by walls; the river Tonkag waters it, ſupplies the caſtle ditch, and, being divided into five ſtreams, has a bridge over each. The principal of theſe bridges, named Niphonbas, is the ſtandard from which all the roads, poſts, and diſtances of the empire are taken. The ſtreets are wide and handſome, but irregular. The public buildings are magnificent, but the private dwellings are mean, though neat. This city is under the direction of two governors, who rule a year each alternately like the chief magiſtrate of London; under theſe are inferior officers like our aldermen, who have the direction of particular diſtricts or wards; and ſubordinate to theſe are the ottonas, to each of whom the care of a particular ſtreet is committed.

The next royal city is that of Meaco, ſituate on a lake, near the middle of the iſland of Niphon, about three hundred miles ſouthward of Jeddo, in forty-five degrees thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and one hundred and thirty-eight degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, being two hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles weſt of Jeddo, and was the antient metropolis of the whole empire, but is at preſent the reſidence of the dairo. It is built in a pleaſant and extenſive plain, on the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland of Japan, being ſurrounded at ſome diſtance by mountains, which give a delightful and romantic proſpect to the whole. The circumjacent country between the city and the mountains, and the mountains themſelves, are covered with temples, ſepulchres, and monaſteries, and embelliſhed with a variety of orchards, gardens, groves, caſcades, and purling ſtreams. Three conſiderable rivers water the fertile plain, and unite their ſtreams in the centre of the city, where a magnificent ſtone bridge facilitates the communication between the upper and lower town. The dairo has his reſidence in the north part of the upper town.

On the weſtern ſide of the city is a ſtrong caſtle, which ſerves as a palace for the cubo, when he comes to pay homage. It contains a ſmall garriſon, is ſix hundred yards in length, has a tower in the centre, and is ſurrounded by two ditches, the one dry, the other full of water, and abounding with the moſt delicious fiſh. Since the emperor's court has diſcontinued to reſide here, this city has greatly declined; it was then twenty miles in length, nine in breadth, excluſive of the ſuburbs, and ſurrounded by ſtrong and ſtately walls. The ſtreets were long and narrow, and exceedingly crowded with inhabitants; for on a liſt being given in by order of the government, the number amounted to five hundred twenty-nine thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-ſix, though the dairo's court, and ſtrangers not conſtantly reſiding in the place, were not included; but it is ſaid at preſent not to contain above one hundred thouſand ſouls. The univerſities, colleges, monaſteries, temples, &c. are almoſt incredible in number, and magnificent in appearance. The private houſes are but two ſtories high, built of wood, and covered with clay, or thatched. Every houſe is obliged to have a reſervoir, or trough of water, ready in caſe of fire: but they join neatneſs with ſimplicity; and every trade or calling hath a particular ſtreet or diſtrict aſſigned to it.

The palace of the dairo is incloſed by magnificent walls flanked with ſtately towers, and ſurrounded with a double ditch. It contains twelve capital ſtreets, in the centre of which are the royal apartments, ſuperbly built, elegantly furniſhed, and adorned with gardens, orchards, pavilions, terraces, groves, &c.

Oſaca is the next moſt conſiderable city in Japan, which is ſituated at the mouth of the river Jedogawa, about fifteen leagues from Meaco, and in thirty-five degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and one hundred and thirty-ſeven degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude. It is deemed the principal ſea-port in the empire, and is filled with an incredible number of merchants, tradeſmen, mechanics, eccleſiaſtics, &c. It is ſo populous, that an army of eighty thouſand men has been drawn from it upon emergencies. It is near fifteen miles in circumference, contains many elegant houſes, and ſome palaces belonging to the nobility. A ſtrong quadrangular caſtle defends the port. The walls are thick, the towers with which they are flanked well fortified, and the garriſon numerous. Two officers command here, one has the ſuperintendance of the caſtle, and the emperor's treaſures, ſtores, and cuſtoms; the other preſides over the garriſon: but the city itſelf hath a governor of its own, who hath the regulation of all civil affairs. The houſes in this city are covered with a kind of earth of a yellow colour, which gives their roofs an elegant appearance.

In this city, the watchmen make the hour known by means of three inſtruments. An hour after ſun-ſet, they beat a drum, the ſucceeding hour is ſignified by ſtriking on a brazen bowl, and the hour ſubſequent to that by ringing a bell; the next hour they begin again with a drum, proceed to the bowl and bell, and ſo continue the whole night, uſing the three inſtruments alternately. In all other parts of the empire, however, the hour of the night is told by beating againſt each other two wooden cylinders.

Suranga is ſituated in thirty-five degrees twenty-two minutes north latitude, and one hundred and forty-two degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, is the capital of the province of the ſame name, and a very conſiderable ſea-port town, ſome of the emperors reſided in it; and ſome of the Engliſh were not long ſince permitted to trade with the merchants who lived chiefly in the ſuburbs. It is now greatly on the decline, but ſtill retains ſome of its antient privileges, particularly the liberty of coining money.

Saccai ſtands about twenty miles from Oſaca; it is inhabited by a proud ſet of people, who all boaſt of their anceſtors, and pretend to be deſcended from the antient Japaneſe emperors. This city is very advantageouſly ſituated as a place of ſtrength, being defended on the different ſides by a ſtrong wall, an inacceſſible mountain, a capacious ditch, and a formidable caſtle. Near the harbour is a little iſland called Pic-nes, celebrated for its pleaſant groves, and famed as the reſidence of a favourite idol, to whoſe temple many of the inhabitants of the city repair in boats; and ſome, through exceſs of zeal, jump into the water by the way, and drown themſelves.

Cangoxima is a ſea-port on the ſouthern part of the iſland of Ximo, and was the firſt place where the Portugueſe landed when they diſcovered Japan. It lies in thirty-one degrees forty-two minutes north latitude, and one hundred and thirty-three degrees ſixteen minutes eaſt longitude, a

ſtrong



A Method of Riding &c. practised by the

RUSTICS of JAPAN.

strong castle is built on a rock in the harbour, and a light-house on another very high rock in the harbour. Many stately temples adorn the city, and a good garrison is kept here.

Nangasicki (mentioned above) lies in thirty-two degrees thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in one hundred and thirty-one degrees twenty-two minutes east longitude. The city is in the form of a crescent, delightfully situated among verdant lawns, and surrounded by pleasant hills: it contains many handsome buildings, particularly temples, and is strongly garrisoned. The streets in general are narrow and crooked, but run a considerable length, the temple, or some public building, usually terminating the vista. The town is watered by three rivers, and divided into upper and lower; the former containing twenty-six, and the latter sixty-one streets; but strangers reside in the suburbs, and are narrowly watched. The principal buildings are five warehouses, in which are laid up all the materials for forming three men of war, which, upon an emergency, may be taken out, and put together in a very short time; a powder magazine, the palaces of the two governors, the palaces of between twenty and thirty-five grandees, sixty-two temples, thirty-five bridges, twenty being of stone, and the rest of timber, &c. the kokina or prison, which the people very emphatically stile hell. It consists of about one hundred dungeons, or cages separate from each other, apartments for private executions, and baths in which the prisoners are obliged to wash themselves, in order, as much as possible, to prevent infections.

The Japanese build with wood, and generally upon one floor; but their apartments are very commodious: the partitions of their rooms are made to fold up like a screen, so that they can lay several rooms into one, as they have occasion. The houses of the nobility are wainscoted with cedar, the floors paved and covered with fine mats, their ceilings are painted and gilded, and the doors finely varnished. The tradesmen and inferior people content themselves with thatched roofs and clay walls, though they have a little apartment built of stone or earth where they secure their most valuable goods from fire. They have no glass, or any thing like it in their windows, but only wooden shutters.

They use neither tables, beds, or chairs; but sit on mats when they eat, and lie on them when they sleep. Their rooms are usually hung with pictures or painted paper, the rest of their furniture consists in cabinets, screens, china-ware, and fine swords, which they hang up in their rooms.

A strict watch is kept every night, lanterns hung out, and every ward or division in their cities shut up; that in case of fire, it is said, they are not suffered to break in upon one another.

The inhabitants of this island are said to be of a quick apprehension, good understanding, modest, patient and courteous; and so just in their dealings, that if a person makes a mistake they will not take the advantage of it. On the other hand, we are told by the same authors, that they are cruel, ambitious and uncharitable; and have so little compassion for the poor, the sick or the lame, that they will let them lie and perish before they will relieve them; that they are intolerably proud, and so passionate, that they will kill themselves if they cannot have their revenge. However inconsistent this character may seem to be, there are few books of travels where the reader will not be shocked with contradictions of this nature; and perhaps if we observe a medium here, as in other doubtful cases where the writers are not competent judges, or give characters of a people from some few instances they have observed, we shall come nearer the truth, than by adhering strictly to either. These people probably are neither so exceedingly courteous or patient as some relate, or so barbarous and passionate as others would have us believe; and Japan being a country not only the most distant from us, but the most inaccessible to Europeans of any other upon the face of the earth; it may be some time before we are rightly informed of the temper and genius of this people.

The persons of the Japanese have in general but a forbidding appearance; a very flat nose, and eye-lids disgustingly thick disfigure a face unproportionably broad, and disagreeably tawny. Their stature is short, their bodies thick, and their legs clumsy; though many of them differ from this description, and resemble the Chinese, who live under the same parallel; and their habits are alike, namely, vest, gowns and drawers, or breeches, that fall down to their ancles, and slippers without heels; but they wear no cap or hat, and screen themselves from the weather with the fan they always carry in their hands, or extensive umbrellas the slaves carry over their heads, which are close shaved half way. Every gentleman wears a brace or dagger in his sash, and a great broad sword on his thigh whenever he goes abroad.

People of figure eat chiefly venison, fish and wild fowl of their own taking. Some sects among them eat no meat, or drink any strong drink, but live upon rice, roots, herbs and fruit; water and tea are their usual liquors; and some indulge in strong beer, made of wheat and mixed with spirits. Their diversions in towns, are plays and masquerades: the subject of their plays here, and in most eastern countries, is the history of some hero, or great man, their country hath produced.

There is a great festival celebrated every year, when they visit the tombs of their ancestors: at these solemnities every house is illuminated, and they march out of their towns at midnight in a solemn procession to the graves of their dead friends, where they eat and drink, and make merry for several nights successively: at the conclusion of the feast they march round the town with flags, streamers, and banners, beating upon brass pans before the temples of their idols, and at the doors of their great men.

Their instrumental music is not at all harmonious, but some of their voices are pretty tuneable. At the end of every play or masquerade there is always a noble entertainment provided at the charge of the company: these people, it is observed, spend great part of their night in eating and drinking, which others spend in sleep; and because their manners and customs are acknowledged to be different from the rest of the world in many instances, some people carry it so far as to affirm they resemble us in nothing; and particularly, that instead of bowing to shew their respect to their betters, they stand up as stiffly as they can: but I find by the best writers that they bow their bodies as we do, and never approach their magistrates but upon their knees. As for putting off their shoes or slippers instead of hats, the people of the other eastern nations always put off their shoes when they enter their temples, or the houses of those for whom they have any respect; which appears to be a custom almost as antient as the world, and therefore need not be thought strange in the Japanese. And as for their not putting off their hats, this need not occasion any wonder, since they wear none.

They keep their roads in very good repair, and shew the distances of places by placing trees at the end of every three miles. But there are no inns or public houses for the entertainment of travellers: and what is a very great nuisance in them is, the carcases of their malefactors, whom they generally crucify with their heads downwards, are placed upon the roods in terrorem.

As to their trade, the natives themselves are not permitted to carry on any but with Jesso, Korea, the Chinese and the Dutch. The Portuguese Christians about the year 1628, being accused of forming a conspiracy against the crown and government, the Christians were all cut to pieces, and a decree made against having any commerce with them, or any nation that profess Christianity. The Dutch, to convince the Japanese that they were not Christians, did not refuse to trample upon the cross of our Saviour; and the Japanese are so well satisfied of their infidelity, that they are permitted to have a factory there to this day; which all other nations, who abhor their impious hypocrisy, are excluded from: but the Japanese are so jealous even of the Dutch, that when any of their ships arrive, a magistrate goes on board and takes an account of the number of their men, and carries their sails, ammunition, guns and rudder ashore, till they are ready to sail. Nor have the Dutch factory, which stands on the point of a rock, and is separated from the city by a river and a wall, any communication with it for eight or nine months in the year.

A judicious and accurate traveller, gives the following description of the island of Dimia in the Dutch possession: "This island (he says) is not more than two miles in circumference; and no Dutchman can stir out of it, or come into the town of Nangasicki (to which it is joined with a bridge) without hazarding his being cut to pieces by the guards, who are appointed to watch their motions: nor are the Dutch so much as suffered to have a lighted candle in their houses in the night-time. If the centinels perceive the least noise, they blow a horn, and the governor immediately sends a party to learn the reason of it, which does not return till the occasion is discovered, and then the authors are severely threatened, if not punished. In this lamish condition the Dutch remain eight months in the year."

The Japanese mechanics and manufactures excel in their different branches, and are even far superior to the ingenious

ingenious Chineſe. Their ſilks and cottons are excellent, and their Japan ware and porcelain unequalled. The ſwarms of pirates in their ſeas add to the obſtacles that obſtruct their commerce. The commodities exported are, wrought ſilk and cotton, Japan ware, porcelain, gold, ſilver, copper, iron, ſteel, artificial metals, furs, tea finer and better cured than that of China; gums, medicinal herbs, roots, &c. diamonds, pearls, coral, ſhells, ambergris, &c. Whatever goods the Japaneſe want, they pay for either by way of barter for other commodities, or in bullion of gold, ſilver, or copper.

Their ſhips, which reſemble thoſe of the Chineſe, are built of cedar-wood, but are only fit for very ſhort voyages: they are built from eighty to ninety feet in length, and from twenty to twenty-five feet in breadth, and conſtructed both for ſailing and rowing: they contain many little cabins, ſeparated by ſkreens, folding doors, &c. they have only one maſt and one ſail: the ropes are made of rice ſtraw, and the anchors of coarſe iron. Their pleaſure-boats, which are intended only for the navigation of lakes, rivers, &c. are extremely beautiful, being finely gilt, carved and otherwiſe adorned with the moſt curious and ſuperb embelliſhments.

The Japaneſe have almoſt all ſorts of cattle and poultry that are found in Europe, but their horſes are very ſmall. Rice is the principal grain the country affords, which is managed in the ſame manner as in China, and always grows in water till it is ripe. They have alſo very good red wheat, but not in ſo great quantities as rice. Their huſbandmen are little better than ſlaves; they plow and manure the ground for the great lords, but have no properties of their own.

The gardens ſeem to be in much greater perfection here than in Perſia; they have a handſome large court uſually before their houſes, and a garden behind them, laid out into fine walks, mounts and terraces, and adorned with greens and flowers, which are ſeen from the ſtreet, there being always a large viſto from the outward gate through the houſe into the gardens.

There is a prodigious high mountain in Japan, which, though it ſtands above eighteen leagues within the land, is ſeen above forty leagues at ſea. There are alſo eight volcanoes, or mountains which vomit fire and ſmoke.

SECT. II.

Containing an account of the Japaneſe learning, arts and ſciences, laws and puniſhments, and of the revenues, forces, and prerogative of the crown, &c.

THE common learning of the Japaneſe conſiſts in reading, writing, underſtanding their own hiſtory civil, military, and eccleſiaſtical, and a few ſimple precepts of morality; but many of them acquired ſeveral branches of the mathematics and philoſophy from the European miſſionaries at various times, which their deſcendants ſtill retain; their philoſophy, however, is tinctured with many ſuperſtitions of their own, and their aſtronomy blended with the abſurdities of aſtrology. Prior to the arrival of the Europeans in their country, they were ſo ignorant with reſpect to geography, that they imagined their own empire, China and Siam, to be the only countries in the univerſe; and their notions were very imperfect with reſpect to the extent and ſituation of theſe: they have, however, many univerſities and public academies, for the training up of youth in the learning of the country, and the practice of the moral duties. Theſe ſeminaries are well ſupplied with books, and reſorted to by a great number of ſtudents, governed by bonzas, who are uſually of noble deſcent, and well endowed with money for their ſupport. According to the Portugueſe miſſionaries, theſe ſuperiors of the public ſeats of learning are adepts in moral philoſophy, and great maſters of the moſt perſuaſive elocution. Indeed it is not to be wondered at that they make a ſwift progreſs in whatever they are taught, being poſſeſſed of the moſt retentive memories. Their poetry is lofty, ſublime, melodious, and deſcriptive; their muſic is leſs agreeable; but their paintings are the beſt executed by any of the orientals, though they fall far ſhort of the Europeans in every eſſential except colouring, in which they exceed them.

Theſe people have no regular ſyſtem of phyſic; their doctors truſt to experience, and always preſcribe according to precedent, if they have a precedent to go by; but where that is wanting they proceed intirely by conjecture, ſo that ſimilar caſes, and gueſs-work, form the whole of their materia medica: but the moſt faſhionable remedies, upon all occaſions, are hot and cold baths. The ſurgeons are more unſkilful than the phyſicians in every thing except the cure of the ſkuki, a moſt grievous kind of colic peculiar to the Japaneſe, which they almoſt inſtantly remove, by taking blood from the part afflicted, with a ſmall needle made of gold or ſilver. Both phyſicians and ſurgeons, are, however, highly eſteemed by the people, and uſually acquire conſiderable fortunes by their practice among them.

The Japaneſe write, like the Chineſe, from top to bottom in columns, which they begin at the right hand; and their letters were originally the ſame; but they have changed the form, and even the ſound of many, in order to differ as much as poſſible from the Chineſe, whom they naturally hate, and affect upon all occaſions to hold in the utmoſt contempt.

The invention of gunpowder and printing is claimed by them, as well as the Chineſe, the preparation and uſe of the firſt they are much inferior to them; but they excel them in the latter, which is performed in a ſimilar manner, as well as in the compoſition of ink and paper.

Children are educated in this country with great care, and won to a love of their ſtudies by motives of emulation, and the moſt captivating endearments. They differ from all the other oriental nations in inculcating a contempt of pain and death, teaching them to deſpiſe all kinds of luxuries, weaning them from every thing that in the leaſt tends to effeminacy, and enuring them to every kind of hardſhip.

Not only the petty kings, but every lord of a diſtrict, and father of a family, has the power of life and death, and tries and condemns his dependents according to his own arbitrary will; there being few written laws, if any, and no public courts of juſtice in this country; the ſmalleſt theft, or a bare aſſault, gaming, and even lying, as it is ſaid, is often puniſhed with death: and for defrauding the king of his revenue, murder or treaſon, and ſuch enormous crimes, the offenders relations, parents and children ſuffer with him; except the female relations, who are ſold for ſlaves. The petty kings are ſeldom put to death, but baniſhed to a certain iſland, where they are put to ſervile employments during the remainder of their lives. Their uſual puniſhments for great offences are burning, crucifying with the head downwards, tearing them to pieces with horſes, and boiling them in oil; and where an offender refuſes to come in and ſubmit, he is ordered to be cut in pieces wherever he is found. A gentleman or ſoldier convicted of any capital crime, has the favour of dying by his own hands; and it is reckoned very ignominious if he waits for the executioner to diſpatch him in that caſe.

This prince's revenues are alſo ſaid to amount to an incredible ſum, far exceeding the revenues of all the princes in the world beſides; which inclines me to think there is a miſtake of a figure or two; and that the writers, who agree pretty near in the ſum, have only copied after one another: though it is obſervable, that the revenues and forces of diſtant kingdoms are often magnified beyond all belief. Some authors have aſſerted, that the revenues of the emperor amount to twenty-eight millions ſterling; but the truth of this is greatly to be doubted.

When this prince goes abroad, he is attended by no leſs than five or ſix thouſand of his guards, and his ſtanding forces are ſaid to amount to twenty thouſand horſe and one hundred thouſand foot in time of peace: in time of war each of the petty ſovereigns is obliged to furniſh his quota, which increaſes the army to thirty-eight thouſand horſe, and three hundred and ſixty-eight thouſand foot: but againſt whom ſuch numerous forces ſhould be raiſed is not eaſy to conceive: we having no account of any foreign wars they were ever engaged in. The Japaneſe troops march in diviſions of fifty men each, five in front, and ten deep, each diviſion being commanded by a ſingle officer, who keeps them in exact order. They are armed with either muſkets, pikes, bows and arrows, ſabres and targets, or battle-axes. Five of theſe diviſions form a kind of regiment; but they are not accompanied by any warlike muſic; between each diviſion are three led horſes finely capariſoned, and three ſlaves are appointed to lead each horſe with long reins. The captains ride on horſeback behind their reſpective diviſions; on each ſide of the horſes are a kind of paniers, containing the officers bedding and baggage. When an officer grows old, he is permitted to have a ſmall ſort of couch or ſupporter behind him, againſt which he may commodiouſly lean, when fatigued, by ſitting upright.

Japan and the neighbouring iſlands are under the government of fifty or ſixty petty kings, veſted with ſove-

reign



A JAPANESE TEMPLE,

in which the PRIEST *is performing their* NUPTIAL CEREMONIES.

Wale delin. *Page sculp.*

reign power in their reſpective territories, but ſubject to one grand monarch, who can depoſe and puniſh them as he ſees fit. Antiently this great king was high prieſt as well as ſovereign of theſe iſlands; and the preſent dairo, or high prieſt, who is a deſcendant of the former kings, enjoys ſtill the ſtile and ſtate of a king, notwithſtanding another family poſſeſſes the throne: and, it is ſaid, the reigning prince is obliged to marry one of his daughters, and do him homage once in three years, and acknowledge he holds his crown of that family: but this ſeems to be done rather on a religious, than civil account.

The king commits the adminiſtration of the government to his prime miniſter, who is ſtiled cubo: one of the cubo's ſtripped the dairo of the civil and military authority; ſo that the cubo may at preſent be deemed the emperor, as he hath all the power; and the dairo, the high prieſt or pontiff, as he ſtill poſſeſſes all the eccleſiaſtical dignity: he has a privy-council alſo, conſiſting of twenty-eight members, of which four are petty kings. The vaſſal kings are obliged to attend at court one half of the year, and have each of them a houſe in the king's palace at Jeddo, as has been hinted already. The eldeſt ſons of the principal nobility are alſo kept at court till they are preferred to ſome poſt; and for the farther ſecurity of the government, oaths of allegiance are alſo adminiſtered every year; and ſo jealous is the prince of his ſubjects, that he has ſpies throughout all the country: but the better to divert them from ſeditious practices, it is ſaid, he employs one hundred thouſand of his ſubjects by turns in erecting palaces and public buildings, or beautifying them, and in throwing up high-ways through the country. The Japaneſe, for domeſtic purpoſes, coin various pieces of money. The gold coin are obans and cobans; ten cobans make one oban; and the latter is of about two guineas value. The ſilver coin is compoſed of a variety of flat pieces of different ſhapes, dimenſions, weight and value; and a copper coin is ſtamped for the inferior purpoſes of change.

SECT. III.

An account of the religion, temples, and ſuperſtition of the Japaneſe; alſo of their marriages and funerals.

THE Japaneſe are idolaters and worſhip the heavens and the planets, with ſeveral monſtrous idols; but the gods they principally adore are Xaca and Amida, to whom they chiefly apply in their diſtreſs: they give no account of the creation of the world, but generally believe the immortality of the ſoul, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, and moſt of them believe tranſmigration, or that their ſouls ſhall animate other bodies after death. They have abundance of cloyſters and nunneries, where their prieſts and devotees live unmarried, and perform ſuch penances as their religion requires; and confeſſion, the jeſuits tell us, is practiſed amongſt them, in which their prieſts are ſo ſtrict, that if they apprehend any thing is concealed, it is as much as the poor ſinner's life is worth; for they throw him down from the top of the rocks, where their ſtools of confeſſion are placed, to create the greater dread, and induce their diſciples to be ſincere.

There is a ſtately temple at Meaco, built of free-ſtone, which captain Saris tells us, is as long as the body of St. Paul's, and as lofty, with an arched roof, ſupported by mighty pillars, in which ſtands an idol of copper, which reaches as high as the roof, and according to Sir Thomas Herbert, his chair is ſeventy feet high and eighty broad, his head big enough to hold fifteen men, and his thumb was forty inches round, by which we may form a judgment of the whole; this temple ſtands upon a high hill, and on each ſide of the aſcent are fifty pillars of free-ſtone, ten paces from each other, and on the top of every pillar a lanthorn, which make a fine ſhow in the night. There are no leſs than ſixty other temples in Meaco, and between three or four thouſand gilded idols in them. In the road between Surungo and Jeddo ſtands the idol dabis, made of copper, in the form of a man ſitting upon his legs and extending his arms, and is two and twenty feet high. At Tencheda the bonzes pretend their god appears in human ſhape to a young virgin whom they bring every new moon into the temple there; having placed her before the great image they illuminate the place with golden lamps and burn perfumes, when on a ſudden the lights are miraculouſly put out, and ſomething in human form immediately embraces, and ſometimes impregnates the young damſel, but whether the phantom they worſhip, or one of his prieſts do her the favour, is left to the reader to conjecture: however that be, the quondam maid is from thenceforward highly honoured, and at her coming out of the temple is entertained with ſongs and muſic, and ſo inſpired, ſays Sir Thomas Herbert, is the enthuſiaſtic girl, that ſhe takes upon her to reſolve the moſt difficult queſtions that are propounded to her. The bonzes, or prieſts, are ſo reſpected by their prince, that he riſes up to ſalute them, and ſuffers them to ſit in his preſence: they preach up great auſterities, and teach morality and a contempt of the world. But the Romiſh prieſts will have it, that they are lewd fellows, and do not live according to their doctrine.

Chriſtianity was firſt preached in this iſland in the year 1552, by ſome Portugueſe prieſts, ſent thither by father Xavier from Macao; and the Chriſtian religion ſo encreaſed, that before the year 1622 three petty kings, and ſeveral other great men, with multitudes of people, made profeſſion of the Chriſtian religion, if we may credit the miſſionaries. But about that time, a decree was made for extirpating all Chriſtians under the Japaneſe government; whereupon there followed ſo terrible a perſecution, that there is not now one Chriſtian left in Japan, nor are any people who acknowledge themſelves Chriſtians ſuffered to come into their ports.

The Japaneſe allow of polygamy and concubinage. The conſent of the parties is ſeldom aſked in Japan any more than it is in China; children are diſpoſed of by their parents very young, and when they are arrived at a proper age, are led to the temple, where a bonze places them before an image of ſome of their gods, putting a lighted torch in either of their hands, while he repeats the words of the contract; after which oxen or other animals are ſacrificed to the idol, according to the quality and circumſtances of the married pair; and the ceremony is concluded by a grand proceſſion to the bridegroom's houſe, where the gueſts are entertained for ſeveral days.

The wife has no fortune here any more than in China, and after marriage ſhe is entirely in the power of her huſband, who may puniſh her, or take away her life if ſhe does not behave well, eſpecially if ſhe be falſe to his bed. The women, it is ſaid, eſteem it no crime to procure abortion, and if they are poor, or bring too many girls, will ſtrangle them with their own hands; but the boys are always provided for by the ſovereign. Common women are allowed here, and no puniſhment or brand of infamy is fixed upon procurers in their life-time; though they are treated as criminals when they die, and their bodies are thrown into the highways, and ſuffered to rot above-ground.

The Japaneſe do not inter their dead as the Chineſe do, but burn the corpſe, putting the aſhes into an urn. The family and friends of the deceaſed attend the corpſe to the funeral pile, with lighted torches in their hands, and the eldeſt ſon ſets fire to the pile, into which are thrown ſweet wood and aromatic gums, which perfume the air, and this makes the funerals of people of condition vaſtly expenſive. The whole concludes with a banquet and entertainment of ſuch muſic as is beſt ſuited to diſpel melancholy reflections. They pay an annual viſit to the tombs of their anceſtors; at which time, when the company have arrived at the ſepulchres of the dead, the bonzes deſcribe the ſituation of the perſons deceaſed, and inform their relations of all that they have occaſion for in the other life, which demands are uſually very extravagant; the kindred, however, furniſh every article with great ſatisfaction, which they ſend, together with a few kind and complimentary meſſages, to the defunct, by means of the bonzes, who convert the whole to their own uſes, and leave the dead to ſhift as well as they can for themſelves.

As the Engliſh have had no commerce with Japan for upwards of one hundred and fifty years, and as we can receive no intelligence from thence but what the Dutch are pleaſed to give us, a letter from an Engliſh Eaſt India captain to his friend in England, when we were allowed a free trade to that kingdom, may give us a juſter account of the ſtate of it, than any thing that has been communicated to us ſince; the ſubſtance whereof follows.

"SIR,

"I arrived at Firando, one of the iſlands of Japan, on the 11th of June, 1613. It is ſituate in thirty three degrees fifty minutes north latitude, a little weſt of the iſland of Bongo. Here Foyne Sama, the viceroy, or king of Firando, as he is called, came on board our ſhip, with his nephew Tone Sama. They were attended by forty galleys, ſome of them rowed with ten, and others with fifteen oars

of a ſide. The king and his nephew were clothed in blue ſilk gowns, and each of them had on a fine linen ſhirt and breeches; their heads were ſhaved half-way; the reſt of their hair, which was very long, was tied up in a roll on the hinder part of the head; they had neither hat nor cap on; nothing on their heads but their hair; each of them had a kind of ſteward, who commanded their ſlaves. They ſaluted me by putting off their ſhoes, and claſping their hands together, and bowing a little, carried them as low as their knees. I entertained them in my cabin, after which they took their leave, and ſeveral of the great men of the iſland came on board, every one bringing a preſent of veniſon, fiſh, fowl, or fruit. The king came on board again, and ordered ſixty of his gallies to aſſiſt in bringing the ſhip into the harbour, there being a dangerous point to paſs. I came to an anchor at length before the town of Firando, in five fathom water, ſo near the ſhore that I could talk to the people in their houſes. We ſaluted the town with nine pieces of cannon; but they had none to anſwer us, and no fort, but a barricado for ſmall ſhot.

"The ſhip was continually crouded with people; among whom were ſome women of quality, that I introduced into my cabin; and ſeeing the pictures of Venus and Cupid there, they immediately fell down and worſhipped them, taking theſe pictures for the Virgin Mary and her Son, having been taught to adore ſuch pictures by the Portugueſe miſſionaries. The king afterwards brought ſome of his ladies on board, who had ſilk gowns on, one ſide folded over the other, and girt with a ſaſh, their hair long, and tied up in a roll on the crown of the head, none of it ſhaved off. They had good features, were very fair, but had no colour in their faces, but what they had laid on. They were of a low ſtature, but very fat; had delicate limbs, their legs bare, only a ſort of half-buſkin tied on the inſtep with ribbons: they ſeemed ſomething baſhful till the king bid them be merry, and then they ſung, and played on an inſtrument that reſembled a lute; they kept time, and ſung and played by book; and after I had entertained them, and made them ſome ſmall preſents of Engliſh curioſities, the king and the ladies took their leave.

"I afterwards went on ſhore, and delivered my preſents to the king, in which were plate and other things to the value of one hundred and forty pounds; and the king, inviting me to an entertainment, drank to me out of one of the cups (part of the preſent) filled with rice-arrac, containing a pint and a half. He drank it off to the king of England's health; in which I pledged him, and he made all the company do the ſame.

"The king afterwards brought ſome actreſſes on board, who go from one iſland to another, acting comedies in the great towns they paſs through. They are all one man's ſlaves, who ſets a certain price upon their favours, which he can never advance, on pain of being capitally puniſhed: there is no bargain made with the courteſan, but with her maſter, whom ſhe is obliged to obey. A nobleman, when he travels, is not aſhamed to ſend for one of theſe keepers to his inn, and bargain with him for one or more girls to wait on him at table, and be his bedfellows, if he thinks fit; for all men of faſhion are waited on by women only in the houſe. Theſe keepers of hackney-girls, in their life-time, are admitted into the beſt company; but when they are dead, the corpſe is treated with the greateſt indignity, not ſuffered to be buried, but dragged through the ſtreets, and thrown into the fields to rot above-ground, or be devoured by dogs.

"A Dutch ſhip coming in while I lay at Firando, it was reported that the crew were Engliſhmen; for the natives did not at firſt diſtinguiſh one of theſe nations from the other, and the Portugueſe had repreſented both as pirates, and taught them a ſong, which they called the Engliſh croſomia, acting a kind of farce alſo, wherein they pretend to ſhew how the Engliſh attack the Portugueſe ſhips at ſea.

"While we lay in the harbour, two of the officers happening to quarrel, and a challenge to fight on ſhore appointed, we were in great danger of being called to an account by the magiſtrates; for, according to their laws, whoever draws a weapon in anger is to be cut in pieces immediately, though he does no hurt; and if he wound another, the whole family or company to which he belongs, ſuffers with him.

"The king of Goto, an iſland a little ſouth of Firando, being brought on board by king Foyne to take a view of our ſhip; I entertained him very ſplendidly, and fired ſeveral guns on his going aſhore, at which he expreſſed great ſatisfaction, and invited me and my friends to his iſland. I have ſeen ſome executions here, and particularly of two men and a woman for adultery; two of her lovers meeting at her houſe together, in the abſence of the huſband, and wounding one another, they were apprehended, and king Foyne ordered all three to be cut in pieces, which ſentence was immediately executed, and after the execution, every one of the company had a ſtroke at the ſufferers with their cuttans (ſwords) till their fleſh was all cut into little bits.

"On the third of Auguſt king Foyne furniſhed me with a galley with twenty-five oars of a ſide, and ſixty men beſides, to carry the king of England's preſent to the emperor. We paſſed between ſeveral iſlands, moſt of them well inhabited, and ſeveral good towns upon them, particularly the iſland Finate, defended by a ſtrong caſtle of free-ſtone; and along the coaſt, as far as Oſaca, were people, who lived, with their whole families, in veſſels upon the water, and their women catched fiſh, by diving for them in eight fathom water. Theſe women may be known by their eyes, which are as red as blood. When I arrived at Oſaca, I had nineteen horſes provided for me at the emperor's charge, to carry my people and the preſent, and they furniſhed me with a palanquin (a couch with an arched canopy) and a led horſe: and one run before me with a pike, to make way: we changed horſes at every ſtage; the road was for the moſt part even, and where a hill happened to be in the road, it was cut through, and the diſtances were marked at the end of every three miles. Villages and country-houſes ſtood very thick, and the roads were thronged with people. Their temples were uſually in groves, ſurrounded by the cells of their prieſts: When we came near the ſuburbs of any great town, we ſaw the bodies of malefactors nailed to croſſes, where they hang till they are devoured, and cauſe an intolerable ſtink. We uſually travelled about forty-eight miles a day: ſix men carried my palanquin on their ſhoulders, and up-hill they added four more, travelling as faſt as I could have done on horſeback. We arrived at Surunga, where the emperor reſided, on the ſixth of September, and on the eighth I was carried in my palanquin to the caſtle, which is the emperor's court, the merchants and people who attended me, carrying the preſent before me on little tables of ſweet-wood, they had provided me. Having entered the caſtle, I paſſed over three draw bridges, on every one of which was a court of guard; having aſcended ſome ſtone ſteps, I was met by the emperor's ſecretary and admiral, who introduced me into a large room, and ſat down on mats croſs-legged. Soon after I was led between them into the preſence-chamber, where they directed me to bow to the emperor's chair of ſtate. The preſent being ranged upon the floor, the emperor came in, to whom I paid my compliments after the Engliſh manner, and delivered his majeſty's letter, which he liſted to his forehead, and directed his interpreter to tell me I was welcome, and that I ſhould reſt myſelf a day or two after my fatiguing journey, and his anſwer ſhould be ready for the king of England. I had afterward an audience of the king's ſon, at the city of Jeddo, to whom I delivered my preſents. On the nineteenth the king ſent me two ſuits of armour, varniſhed, as a preſent to his majeſty, with a letter, wherein he thanks the king for his preſent of ſuch curious things as his country did not produce; neither had he ſeen the like before. His ſubjects were welcome to him; he applauded their ſkill in navigation, that they could viſit a country ſo remote without being terrified at paſſing through ſo immenſe a gulf and ſuch ſtorms, to promote commerce, which he ſhould give them all manner of aſſiſtance in, deſiring his majeſty to accept his preſent, as a mark of his friendſhip: and adds, that he had given orders for drawing up articles of trade between the two nations, as his majeſty deſired.

"By theſe articles he granted, that Sir Thomas Smith, the governor, and the reſt of the Eaſt India company, might reſort to any of his ports to trade, without paying any duties of import or export: that they might build one houſe or more in any part of his empire; and if any of their goods happened to be caſt by ſhipwreck on his coaſts, they ſhould be reſtored; if any of the merchants died, their effects might be diſpoſed of by the Cape merchant; and all offences committed by the Engliſh ſhould be tried and puniſhed by him: neither their perſons nor goods ſhould be ſubject to the laws of Japan; that payment ſhould be immediately paid for all goods contracted for, without any deductions; and that they ſhould be at liberty to make diſcoveries on the land of Jeſſo or Yedſo, and his ſubjects ſhould furniſh them with proviſions.

SECT.

SECT. IV.

Containing the natural history of Japan in general, and an account of its respective sovereigns, &c.

JAPAN being situate between the fourth and seventh climates, the sun rises there about eight hours before it does with us. The sea breezes greatly mitigate the heat in summer, but they render the winter excessively cold, and occasion the seasons to be more inconstant than in any other parts of the Indies. Heavy rains sometimes continue almost the whole year; but in the months of June and July, which are called the water-months, they are always excessive. The country is likewise frequently visited with dreadful storms and hurricanes, thunder, lightning, &c.

The soil is rocky, or rather sterile; but the industry of the inhabitants hath overcome the unkindness of nature, and given fertility to a land of itself unfertile. They have rice, of which they make bread, and brew beer; with the barley they feed cattle, convert their fine wheat into cakes, and of two species of beans they grind one to meal to boil for eating, and with the other make a kind of confectionary. They have, besides Indian wheat, millet, and many other sorts of grain. Even the rocks, and other barren places, have been so well cultivated, as to produce abundance of fruits and plants. They have good pasturage, which feeds great numbers of buffaloes, oxen, sheep, horses, deer, &c. and various flowers and herbs, particularly excellent tea. There are great quantities of fish in the circumjacent seas, rivers, and interior lakes. Besides the abovementioned animals, they have a fine breed of horses that are small, but uncommonly swift and extremely beautiful. Many wild beasts, that yield a great number of valuable furs, and elephants, whose teeth are a very profitable article to them, are found here.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Ujingava, whose waters are so furious, that no bridge can be built over it; 2. The Corric, that takes its name from the province in which it rises; and, 3. The Askagava, remarkable for its depth and perpetual fluctuation. The chief lake, called Citz, is one hundred miles in length, and twenty in breadth. It disembogues itself into the sea on the southwest side of the island: this extensive large lake is formed by the conflux of several rivers, which are in general exceedingly rapid and many dreadful cataracts descend from the mountains.

The seas which incircle this country produce red and white coral, ambergris, admirable pearls, and many curious shells, sea-weeds, &c. but the greatest wealth of the empire results from its invaluable mines, particularly those of gold. The emperor claims an exclusive right to all the gold and silver mines, as well as all the gold sand, in his dominions. The copper mines are innumerable, producing a fine and coarse sort. The bowels of their mountains are likewise pregnant with sulphur, iron, and steel; but they have not any quicksilver, antimony, sal-ammoniac, calamy, cinnabar, or borax.

They procure salt by inclosing portions of ground near the sea, covering them with fine sand, and repeatedly throwing sea-water upon the sand, till it is well impregnated with the saline particles: it is then placed in large vessels, with holes in the bottom, for the salt to fall into proper receivers, as it filtres, through the sand: after which it is boiled, and brought to a proper consistency.

Earthquakes, and the volcanoes, of which there are eight very dreadful ones in the country, are supposed to be effected by the sulphur every where inclosed in the bowels of the earth. From the same cause may be deduced their hot baths and mineral springs, which are extremely numerous; some equal the heat of boiling water, and others are even as hot as boiling oil. They have many cold mineral springs, but neither of them are applied medicinally, through the extreme ignorance of their physicians.

A species of white ants is found in Japan: they are exceedingly beautiful, but very mischievous; for they pierce, with their little snouts, through every thing they come near, except metal and stone, and greatly damage all kinds of goods, if not prevented from approaching them, by strewing the adjacent places with salt, which is abhorred and avoided by these little insects.

There are in Japan some of the finest ducks in the universe for size, shape, and beauty. The nightingales are likewise some of the most melodious to be found. The beetles make an agreeable kind of humming noise, which gradually rises to a pretty high note. The night-fly, however, exceeds all other Japanese insects for its beauty: the body is about three inches long, round, and finely shaped: it has four wings, viz. two close to the body, which make a brilliant appearance, by means of the admirable blue and gold streaks, with which they are tinged; and two above these, whose transparency not only admits of the others being seen through them, but even adds to their shining lustre. This insect is a mighty favourite with the ladies, and has given rise to the best fable ever written by any of the Japanese poets.

A great number of camphire-trees grow near the hot-springs: they resemble laurels, and bear purple or black berries. The cedars of Japan are some of the finest in the universe; and many other trees abound in those islands, particularly plantanes, &c. some of which, when sawn or cut asunder, exhibit admirable figures of birds, beasts, landskips, &c. Many curious pieces of furniture are made of these, which appear very beautiful when polished.

There are in this empire many useful stones of various colours; also abundance of excellent marble, which is used in the construction of many of the principal edifices; they have also porcelane earth, &c. With respect to other articles in the animal, vegetable, and mineral systems not mentioned above, Japan abounds in most that are met with in the Chinese empire, already described.

With respect to the history of the Japanese, their annals are replete with such inconsistent absurdities and ridiculous fables, that no dependence can be placed on them till about six hundred and sixty years before Christ, which is their common æra; and according to which, our present year 1782 is with them the year 2442: it is likewise to be observed, that the Japanese year begins with the nearest new moon which either precedes or follows the fifth day of February. The histories written by the natives take very little notice of the policy, virtues, vices, or transactions of their monarchs, but are filled with an account of their descent, names, birth, succession, length of reign, &c. We shall present our readers with the following account of their sovereigns, taken from their own historians.

1. Simmu was the founder of the Japanese monarchy: he began his reign six hundred and sixty years before Christ. In the seventieth year of his reign, he instituted a form of government, established laws, civilized the people, taught them chronology, and several arts and sciences; divided time into years, and years into months and days; secured the crown to his posterity; and, having reigned seventy-nine years, died in the one hundred and forty-ninth year of his age; but as nothing particular happened in his reign, or in those of several of his successors, we shall only give a catalogue of their names till a remarkable reign renders a more ample account necessary.

2. Sui-sei; who reigned thirty-three years, aged eighty-four. 3. Enei; reigned thirty-eight, aged eighty-four. 4. Itoku; reigned thirty-five, aged seventy-seven. 5. Kosio; reigned eighty-three, aged one hundred and fifteen. 6. Koau; reigned one hundred and one, aged one hundred and thirty-seven. 7. Korei; reigned seventy-six, aged one hundred and twenty-eight. 8. Kowkim; reigned fifty-six, aged one hundred and sixteen. 9. Kay-kwo; reigned fifty-nine years, aged one hundred and eleven. 10. Swin-sin; reigned sixty-eight, aged one hundred and nineteen. 11. Sinin: reigned ninety-eight, aged one hundred and thirty-nine. 12. Key-ko; reigned sixty, aged one hundred and forty-three. 13. Sey-mau; reigned sixty, aged one hundred and eight. 14. Tsiauai; reigned nine, aged fifty-two.

15. Tsiauai was succeeded by his empress Sinku-cogu, who was the first female that reigned in Japan, she waged war against the Koreans, and headed her army in person; but finding herself pregnant she returned to Japan, and was delivered of a son, that succeeded her, and who afterwards on account of his military exploits was ranked as a god, and became the Mars of the Japanese; the empress herself, who reigned seventy years, was deemed the Bellona of this empire.

16. Woosin; who reigned forty-three years, and died aged one hundred and thirteen. 17. Nintoku; reigned eighty-seven, aged one hundred and eleven. 18. Ritsiu; reigned six, aged seventy-eight. 19. Fansey; reigned eight, aged sixty-three. 20. Inkioo; reigned forty, aged eighty. 21. Ankoo; reigned three, aged fifty-seven. 22. Jurukia; reigned twenty-three, age uncertain. 23. Senei; reigned five, aged forty-two. 24. Gen-soo; reigned three, aged eighty-five. 25. Nin-ken; reigned eleven, aged fifty-seven. 26. Buretz: reigned eight, age uncertain. 27. Kei-tei; reigned twenty-seven, aged eighty-one. 28.

Ankan

Ankan; reigned two, aged ſeventy-one; theſe two laſt-mentioned were both deified. 29. Seukva; reigned four, aged ſeventy-four. 30. Kimme; reigned thirty-two, aged ſixty-three. 31. Fit-atzee; reigned fourteen, age uncertain. 32. Joo-mei; reigned two, age uncertain. 33. Siaſium; reigned five, age uncertain. 34. Syko; an empreſs, her age not noticed. 35. Dſione; reigned twelve, age uncertain. 36. Kwogozu; reigned three, an empreſs, her age not known. 37. Kootoku; reigned ten, age uncertain. 38. Sime, an empreſs; reigned ſeven, her age not known. 39. Tent-tſii; reigned ten, age uncertain. 40. Teu-mu; reigned fourteen, age unknown. 41. Tſi-bo, an empreſs; ſhe reigned ten, age unknown. 42. Mon-mu; reigned eleven, age unknown. 43. Genmei, an empreſs; reigned ſeven, age unknown. 44. Genrioo, an empreſs; ſhe reigned nine years, then abdicated, lived twenty-five years afterwards, and died in the forty-eighth year of her age. 45. Sio-mu; reigned twenty-five, age uncertain. 46. Koo-Ken, an empreſs; reigned ten, age uncertain. 47. Fai-tai; reigned ſix, age uncertain. 48. Sto-tokru, an empreſs; reigned five, age unknown. 49. Koonin; reigned twelve, age unknown. 50. Kwan-mu; reigned twenty-four, aged ſeventy. 51. Fei-dſo; reigned four, age not mentioned. 52. Saga; reigned fourteen, ditto. 53. Siunva; reigned ten, ditto. 54. Nimio; reigned ſeventeen, ditto. 55. Montoku; reigned eight, ditto. 56. Seiva; reigned eighteen, ditto. 57. Joſey; reigned eight, ditto. 58. Kooko; reigned three, ditto. 59. Uda; reigned ten, ditto. 60. Day-go; reigned thirty-three, ditto. 61. Sinzaku; reigned ſixteen years, ditto.

62. Murakami, A. D. 947, and 1607 of the Japaneſe year, called together a ſynod of the clergy, to regulate all that related to the eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment in Japan, and to preſcribe the ceremonials of the modes of worſhip proper for every ſect.

Thirteen emperors are mentioned, from the death of this monarch, till the reign of Kon-jey, but nothing worth recording happened in their reigns: they occupied the ſpace of one hundred and ſeventy-four years: after theſe, the throne was filled by

76. Kon-jey, who began his reign in the year 1142. In his time was born the celebrated crown general, Jeritomo, who rendered himſelf ſufficiently formidable to ſtrip the dairos of their ſecular power, and to veſt it in his own family in ſucceſſion.

A double chronology commences from this period, including the reigns of the dairos and of the cubos. The number of dairos, from Kon-jey to Ken-ſen, is thirty-eight, who occupied a ſpace of five hundred and forty-five years, that is, from the year 1142, to the year 1687, or from the Japaneſe year 1802 to 2347; after which period the excluſion of all Chriſtians from Japan, the Dutch excepted, and the total ſilence of the Dutch writers upon every ſubject but thoſe which relate to trade, and emoluments accruing from their commercial affairs, render it impoſſible to ſay any thing farther of the Japaneſe hiſtory. And as the dairos are totally excluded from ſociety, the tranſactions of that period are not to be connected with their names, but ſhould be recorded in the reigns of the cubos, which are as follows: 1. Jeritomo reigned eleven years. 2. Joriije, five. 3. Tametomo, ſeventeen. 4. Joritzne, eighteen. 5. Joriſane, eight. 6. Mune-takaſinno, fifteen. 7. Kore-jaſſinno, twenty-four. 8. Kume-ſinno, twenty-five. 9. Mori-kuni-ſinno, twenty-five. 10. Sonun-ſinno, two. 11. Nari-joſi-ſinno, three. 12. Taka-udſi, twenty-five. 13. Joſi-jaki, ten. 14. Joſi-mitz, forty. 15. Joſi-motzi, twenty-one. 16. Joſi-karra, not one. 17. Joſi-nori, fourteen. 18. Joſi-Katz, three. 19. Joſi-Maſſa, nine. 20. Joſi-Nato, under his father. 21. Joſi-tanme, eighteen. 22. Joſi-ſimnu, fourteen. 23. Joſi-far, thirty. 24. Joſi-tir, ſixteen. 25. Joſi-taira, four. 26. Joſi-aki, five. 27. Nobmaga, ten. 28. Fide-Nobu, three. The Japaneſe do not mention the ages of theſe princes; and indeed they have been more remiſs in this particular in the recent than in the early reigns; perhaps the great length of the former rendered them more remarkable than the latter could be from their general brevity.

29. Taycho; who was of a very mean extraction, but in his youth raiſed himſelf to be butler to a tributary prince, and by dint of valour and merit was at length exalted to the cuboſhip. He was the firſt monarch who obliged the petty kings and great lords to attend him perſonally, and ſuffer their wives and kindred to reſide in his palace, as hoſtages for their fidelity; by which prudent policy, he ſtruck at the very root of that rebellious ſpirit ſo common in Japan, and put an end to the poſſibility of raiſing inſurrections. He expelled the Portugueſe from Japan, prohibited their ever after trading with his ſubjects, and began the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians. He died on the ſixth of December, 1598. He was deified after his deceaſe, and called the ſecond Mars of Japan.

30. Quanbacumdono, who was the nephew of Taycho, is accounted the thirtieth cubo, as he reigned for ſome time in conjunction with his uncle; but having diſobliged that monarch, he was ordered to rip up his own bowels; the moſt honourable method of ſuffering death in Japan.

31. Fide-Joſi: he was the ſon of Taycho, and began his reign at ſix years of age; during his minority, the affairs of government were conducted by his father-in-law Jjejas, for Fide Joſi had been contracted in his infancy to a daughter of that nobleman, who deprived him of his crown and life, after a reign of fourteen years.

32. Jjejas Samma, when he had uſurped the throne, made the following articles the principal objects of his reign: 1. The total extirpation of the Portugueſe from Japan. 2. The prohibiting any of his ſubjects to leave the empire, and the recalling thoſe who were in foreign parts. 3. The publication of ſeveral edicts againſt gaming, luxury, and duelling. 4. The granting a Dutch factory to be eſtabliſhed in Japan.

The perſecution of the Chriſtians in Japan, both natives and foreigners, was carried on with ſuch horrid cruelty, that in the firſt four years of his reign twenty thouſand five hundred and ſeventy perſons were maſſacred. Notwithſtanding which in the two ſucceeding years, after the churches had been ſhut, and the public profeſſing of Chriſtianity prohibited, the jeſuits, by their private endeavours, made twelve thouſand proſelytes; and when any of theſe were detected, they not only abſolutely refuſed to abjure the Chriſtian faith, but readily ſubmitted to death, and ſuffered martyrdom with aſtoniſhing conſtancy. And indeed, the perſecution continued forty years, reckoning from its commencement in the reign of Taycho, with unremitting cruelty, before Chriſtianity could be totally exterminated. Jjejas died at about ſeventy years of age, having reigned about five years after the death of Fide-Joſi.

33. Fido-Tado, who was the grandſon of the above monarch, continued the above perſecution, till at length the Chriſtians, driven to the utmoſt deſpair, retired, to the number of thirty-ſeven thouſand to the caſtle of Simabara, in the iſland of Ximo, where they determined to defend themſelves to the laſt extremity. The Japaneſe army laid ſiege to the place, which held out for three months; but at length was compelled to ſurrender on the 12th of April, 1638, when the Chriſtians were all put to the ſword. This monarch reigned eighteen years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

34. Jjemitz; who reigned twenty-one years, he left the crown to

35. Tjetznako, who was the ſon of the former, reigned thirty years, and was ſucceeded by

36. Tſinajos. This monarch was the laſt prince that we have any authentic account of, and was upon the throne when the Dutch ambaſſador was at Japan, in 1692, being then forty-three years of age, and had reigned thirteen years; he was a great philoſopher, a ſtrict obſerver of the laws, exceedingly humane and benevolent, and in all reſpects ſtudied to promote the true intereſt and happineſs of his people.

Whether the land of Jeſſo or Jadſo, be annexed to Japan or not, the inhabitants of both countries doubt, becauſe vaſt and inacceſſible mountains interpoſe, which hinder the communication. Neither doth it as yet clearly appear, whether this land of Jeſſo is a part of Tartary, or whether by any arm of the ſea divided from it. The Chineſe affirm, that Tartary runs three hundred leagues eaſtward beyond their famous wall; ſo that if we follow theſe, the country of Jeſſo and Japan may ſeem to be annexed to Tartary. But thoſe of Jeſſo ſay, that there runs an arm of the ſea betwixt them and Tartary; which opinion may ſeem to receive ſome confirmation from what thoſe Hollanders affirm, who were ſhipwrecked (ſome years ſince) upon Corea, a peninſula of China; they ſay they ſaw there a whale, upon whoſe back ſtuck an harping iron of Gaſcony; and the credit of this aſſertion not being queſtioned by any, it is moſt probably to be conjectured, that this whale paſſed from Spitzberg through the neareſt arm of the ſea, rather than through the more remote. Be it how it will, we may hence ſafely conclude, that the ſea which lies beyond Japan and Spitzberg is paſſable, and that through more, perhaps, than one arm, or channel, by which they communicate.

To be more particular in our deſcription of this place, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that it extends from forty-two to fifty degrees of north latitude, which track is known, but how much farther it reaches, has not been aſcertained: nor do the Japaneſe geographers ſeem better acquainted with it than the European. The ſouthern part lies oppoſite to the northern coaſt of Niphon or Japan, and together they form the ſtraights of Sangaar and Jeſſo, which are ſeparated by the little iſland Matſuma.

The Japaneſe trade to Jeſſo for furs, and a fiſh called karazakki, that is caught upon its coaſt, and which is conſidered in Japan as a great delicacy; but the natives of Jeſſo never come to Japan, as they are afraid to croſs the ſtraights, though it requires but a day to ſail over them.

The people of this country are ſtrong, fierce, and ſavage; they wear their hair and beards long, and cover themſelves all over with the ſkins of wild beaſts, with the fur outwards, ſo that upon the whole, they have a moſt frightful appearance. Thoſe who live on the ſouthern coaſt are ſaid to be much more civilized than ſuch as reſide in the inland parts; and that the emperor of Japan had a governor, and a garriſon in the capital, which is called Matzimai, to receive his tribute, which is paid in furs, feathers, and ſilver.

The country is rocky, woody, but little cultivated, and in many places barren; it only produces a coarſe kind of barley, ſome roots, and a few fruit-trees. The natives are expert in fiſhing, hunting, and the uſe of the bow and arrow, which are their only weapons. They are ſtrong, hardy, and addicted to drinking, when they can procure liquor; they have their ears bored, and have ſilver ornaments hanging to them. The people worſhip the firmament, but have few religious ceremonies.

A more favourable deſcription of theſe people is given by father De Angelis, a Cicilian jeſuit, who went to Jeſſo in 1620, and reſided a conſiderable time among them: he informs us, that the natives are ſtouter, taller, and fairer than the Japaneſe; that they let their beards grow very long, but ſhave the fore-parts of their head; that they make a very ſtrong wine, which they drink to exceſs; and dreſs themſelves in very pretty ſilk, cotton, or linen gowns, which are long, and embelliſhed with needle-work tolerably executed. He likewiſe tells us, that beſides bows and arrows, they uſe lances, ſcymetars, and poiſoned darts; that they are quarrelſome, capricious, paſſionate, and revengeful; but at the ſame time almoſt as ceremonious and inſincere as the Chineſe. Polygamy is allowed among them; and adultery they thus puniſh: the man pays a pecuniary fine, and the woman is cloſe ſhaved, which is the greateſt diſgrace that can happen to her. If the gallant refuſes to pay the fine, the huſband has a right to ſtrip him whenever and wherever he meets him, and ſend him home naked: to effect which, he calls to his aſſiſtance all that are near at hand, who are obliged to aid him in plundering the adulterer.

All the particulars mentioned by the above jeſuit are confirmed by ſeveral Dutch mariners, who have, ſince his time, viſited Jeſſo; and farther add, that their boats are made of ſlight boards ſewed together with cords made of the bark of a tree, called coxo, which, when they return from fiſhing, are unſewed again, and carefully laid up; that many of the natives wear rings on their fingers, as well as trinkets in their ears, and paint their lips and eyebrows blue; that the men are very jealous; the women in general modeſt; and, the language is a corrupt mixture of the Chineſe and Japaneſe tongues.

Matzimai, the capital town, is a very inconſiderable place. Here the prince of the country, as well as the Japaneſe governor, reſide, but the former is obliged to go once a year to make a preſent to the emperor of Japan, and to do him homage.

Criminals are executed here in a very ſingular manner: the culprit is laid flat upon his back, his arms and legs being ſtretched out, and held tight by two ſtout fellows to each; then the executioner, who is armed with an iron headed club, dances round him, ſings a ſong, and at length diſcharges ſuch a blow at his head as breaks his ſcull, which is immediately followed by another on the ſtomach, that diſpatches him in an inſtant.

We have no other account of the Higher Jeſſo or Oku, from the Japaneſe geographers, than that it is nine hundred miles in length; but the ſouthern part of Jeſſo, already deſcribed, were conquered by Joritimo, the firſt cubo of Japan, and annexed to the dominions of that empire.

SECT. V.

Containing an account of the Philippine and Ladrone or Marian iſlands.

THE Philippine iſlands are ſituate in the Chineſian ſea, part of the pacific ocean, between one hundred and fourteen and one hundred and thirty degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between five and nineteen degrees of north latitude, about one hundred leagues ſouth-eaſt of China. There are eleven hundred of them, and ſeveral very large. The chief of the moſt northerly of them is Manila or Luconia, which is the largeſt of the Philippines, and is ſituate in fifteen degrees of north latitude, being about four hundred miles long and above one hundred and eighty broad in moſt places.

The capital of this iſland, and of all the reſt, is the city of Manila, ſituate on a bay in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, being two miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a wall and other works, a very commodious harbour, but of difficult acceſs, on account of the rocks and ſands which lie before it; a caſtle defends the entrance.

The chief buildings are the cathedral, pariſh churches and convents; one of the religious houſes is appropriated to the ſupport of orphans, daughters of the inhabitants, who are provided for during their lives; or, if they chuſe to marry, have a portion of two or three hundred crowns given them. Their churches, chapels and altars, are richly adorned, and their proceſſions on holidays as ſplendid as in Spain. The college of the jeſuits here, as in moſt Popiſh countries, is more magnificent than any of the reſt.

The iſland of Luconia, or Manila, is eſteemed healthful, and the water in it the beſt in the world. It produces all the fruits of warm climates, and has an excellent breed of horſes carried thither from Spain. It is well ſituated for the Indian and Chineſe trade; and the bay and port, which lies on the weſt ſide of it, is a large circular baſon of ten leagues diameter, entirely land-locked. The city of Manila, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide, is large and contains ſeveral ſpacious ſtreets and grand houſes, and at the beginning of the firſt war with the Spaniards, in the reign of king George II. was an open place, only defended by a little fort; but conſiderable additions have lately been made to its fortifications. The port peculiar to the city is that of Cabite, which lies two leagues to the ſouthward, and here the ſhips employed in the Acapulco trade are ſtationed.

The city is healthfully ſituated, and well watered, and has a very fruitful country in its neighbourhood; but it is ſome diſadvantage to its trade, that it is difficult getting out to ſea to the eaſtward, through ſuch a number of iſlands; here the Spaniards waſte abundance of time, and are often in great danger.

The trade from hence to China and India conſiſts chiefly in ſuch commodities as are intended to ſupply Mexico and Peru, namely, ſpices, Chineſe ſilks, and manufactures, particularly ſilk ſtockings, of which no leſs than fifty thouſand pair have been ſhipped in one cargo, with vaſt quantities of Indian ſtuffs, callicoes and chints, which are much worn in America, together with other ſmall articles, ſuch as goldſmiths work, &c. wrought at the city of Manila by the Chineſe, of which nation there are not leſs than twenty thouſand reſiding there, as ſervants, manufacturers, or brokers. All theſe articles are tranſported annually to the port of Acapulco in Mexico: this trade is not open to all the inhabitants of Manila, but is reſtrained to the convents of Manila, principally to the jeſuits, being a donation to ſupport the miſſions for the propagation of the Catholic faith. The tonage of each ſhip is divided into a certain number of bales, all of the ſame ſize; and the convents have a right to embark ſuch a quantity of goods on board the Manila ſhips as the tonage of their bales amount to. The trade is limitted by royal edicts to a certain value; according to ſome, it ſhould not exceed ſix hundred thouſand dollars: but it is frequently known to amount to three millions.

The bulk of the people of Manila are of Chineſe or Malayan extraction, and there are ſome blacks. The Spaniards, though feweſt in number, have the government in their hands. The adjacent country is full of fine plantations, farms, and country-houſes of the principal inhabitants. Upon the mountains, in the middle of the country, the people live in tents and huts, under the ſpreading trees. The plains are overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon, the houſes built upon high pillars; and the people have no communication but by boats during the rains,

which uſually fall in June, July, Auguſt, and September, and then happen terrible ſtorms of wind and thunder. Earthquakes are frequent; the city of Manila has ſuffered ſeveral times by them; and from the volcanoes, which abound here, iſſue torrents of fire and melted minerals. Theſe are the inconveniences we meet with; but the fair ſeaſon is for the moſt part exceedingly pleaſant.

The city of Manila contains about three thouſand inhabitants; and during the ſecond war in the reign of king George II. was, in the year 1763, taken by admiral Corniſh and Sir William Draper. It was, however, ſtipulated to be ranſomed; but the ranſom-money hath never yet been intirely diſcharged. The prieſts take prodigious pains to make converts to the Romiſh faith, and have been pretty ſucceſsful in their endeavours. The Indians pay a poll-tax; and a conſiderable ſum of money is annually allowed for the ſupport of female orphans, both of Spaniſh and Indian parents.

The complexions of the ſeveral people who inhabit theſe iſlands are very different. The blacks are as black as the Caffres of Afric, but differ from them in their features and long hair, and therefore are ſuppoſed to be of Indian extraction; and as they poſſeſs the mountainous and inacceſſible parts of the country, it is conjectured, that they were the original inhabitants, and driven up thither by ſucceeding adventures.

The deſcendants of the Malayans (inhabitants of Malacca) are very tawny, the Chineſe not ſo dark, and the Spaniards are pretty near the colour of the Chineſe. There is alſo a nation of painted people, called Pintados, who colour their ſkins like our anceſtors the Picts.

The natives are for the moſt part of a moderate ſtature, and their features juſt; the Spaniards have taught them to cloath themſelves, except the blacks, who only tie a cloth about their loins, and another about their heads, and uſually go bare-foot.

Rice and fiſh are moſt eaten by thoſe who live near the ſea-coaſts, and the mountaineers eat the fleſh they take in hunting, and the fruits of the earth, which grow ſpontaneouſly in great plenty. Their liquor is water, which they uſually drink warm as the Chineſe do. They have alſo palm wine, and ſpirituous liquors diſtilled from the juice of the ſugar-cane, rice, &c. They bathe twice a day in cold water, either for health or diverſion, or both: plays are another diverſion, and they are entertained frequently with dancing and mock-fights.

Theſe iſlands are extremely well ſituated for trade; all the rich merchandize of India is ſent from hence to America, and the treaſures of Mexico and Peru are brought hither annually, by which exchange, it is ſaid, they make a profit of four hundred per cent.

Few countries enjoy a more fruitful ſoil; the people in many places live upon what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly, and the ſurface of the ground is exceeding beautiful; the trees are ever green, and ſeldom without fruit.

Their neat cattle run wild in the mountains, and are hunted, as well as deer, wild hogs and goats. The monkies and baboons found here are very ſagacious: during the ſeaſon, when there is no fruit to be got, they go down to the ſea-ſide to catch oyſters; that the fiſh may not pinch their paws, they put a ſtone between the ſhells, to prevent their ſhutting cloſe. Wax is ſo plentiful, that they make no other candles, and never burn lamps. Their bees are of ſeveral kinds, ſome of them very large, and make their combs in the woods, producing ſuch quantities of honey as would almoſt ſubſiſt the natives.

Medicinal and ſweet gums iſſuing from the bodies of trees are part of the produce: ſerpents of various kinds are found in theſe iſlands; but the fathers who relate that ſome of them are ſo large, they will ſwallow a ſtag, horns and all, ſurely do not expect to be believed, any more than when they relate, that the leaves of trees are converted into inſects; but the laſt of theſe ſtories may proceed from a miſtake, for it is certain that ſome inſects depoſit their eggs (as they do with us) upon the leaves of trees, which are hatched there, as is the caſe of the cochineal fly; and they might ignorantly imagine that thoſe inſects proceed from the leaf. The alligators are very dangerous, and the ignana, a kind of land alligator, does a great deal of miſchief. Among their birds, are peacocks, parrots, cocatoos, and turtle-doves, which are very beautiful, fowls with black bones, and the bird tavan, which lays a number of eggs in trenches in the ſand, and leaves them to hatch there. The ſaligan faſtens her neſts to ſome rock, as a martin does againſt a wall, which diſſolving into a kind of jelly in warm water, is eſteemed delicious food. Here is alſo the xolo bird, which eats like a turkey; the camboxa is a well-taſted fowl peculiar to theſe iſlands. The herrero or carpenter is a fine large green bird. It is called the carpenter, becauſe its beak is ſo hard, that it digs a hole in the trunk, or ſome large branch of a tree, in order to build its neſt.

Their fruits are mangoes, plantains, bananoes, cocoas, tamarinds, caſſia, and the cocoa or chocolate nut, which has been brought over from Mexico; oranges, lemons, and all manner of tropical fruits. The cinnamon and nutmeg tree have been planted here, but degenerate, and are good for little.

A great deal of good timber and dying woods grow in theſe iſlands; and the calamba, or ſweet-wood, a kind of cane, grows in the mountains, which, if cut, yields a draught of water, and is of great ſervice to the natives.

They have one plant that has all the properties of and is uſed as a ſubſtitute for opium; of this the natives are very fond, and frequently intoxicate themſelves with it.

Flowers and ſweet herbs grow wild here, but they do not cultivate them in their gardens, and there are abundance of medicinal, as well as poiſonous herbs and flowers, which do not only kill thoſe that touch or taſte them, but ſo infect the air, that many people die in the time of their bloſſoming: on the contrary, theſe iſlands are providentially well furniſhed with antidotes, particularly the bezoar ſtone, which is found in the belly of a creature much like a deer; and the root dilao, which is like ginger, and heals wounds made by any venomous beaſt, being bruiſed and boiled with oil of cocoas.

The tree camondog is ſo venomous, that the pilchards eating the leaves which fall into the ſea die; as will the perſons who eat the poiſoned fiſh. The liquor which flows from the trunk of this tree ſerves theſe people to poiſon the points of their darts which they blow through the trunks abovementioned; the very ſhadow of the tree is ſo deſtructive, that, as far as it reaches, no herb or graſs grows; and, if tranſplanted, it kills all the other plants it ſtands near, except a ſmall ſhrub which is an antidote againſt it, and always with it; a bit of a twig of this ſhrub, or a leaf carried in a man's mouth, is ſaid to be a ſecurity againſt the venom of the tree, and therefore the Indians are never without it.

The maka bukay, which ſignifies the giver of life, is a kind of ivy which twines about any tree, and grows to the thickneſs of a man's finger; it has long ſhoots like vine branches, of which the Indians make bracelets, and eſteem them a preſervative againſt poiſon. There are many other trees and plants of extraordinary virtue in theſe iſlands; among others, there is the ſenſitive plant, in all reſpects like a colewort, which growing out of a rock, avoids the touch, and retires under water: there is another that grows on St. Peter's hill about Manila, which is not very tall, and has little leaves, which whenever it is touched, draws back and cloſes all its leaves together; for which reaſon the Spaniards call it la vergin coſa, that is, the baſhful.

There grows near Cathalagan, in the iſland of Samar, a plant of a ſurpriſing virtue, diſcovered by the fathers of the ſociety, as they tell us, of late years: the Dutch have alſo ſome knowledge of it, and, it is ſaid, will give double the quantity of gold for it. The plant is like ivy, and twines about any tree it grows near: the fruit which grows out of the knots and leaves reſembles a melocotoon in bigneſs and colour, and within has eight, ten or ſixteen kernels as big as a hazel nut, each green and yellow, which when ripe, drop out of themſelves.

The uſual doſe given of it is the weight of half a royal, that is the ſixteenth part of an ounce, powdered and mixed in wine or water; if it has no effect the firſt time, the doſe is repeated, and is a powerful antidote againſt any poiſon, either of venomous herbs or darts which are uſed by the natives of Macaſſar, Borneo, and the Philippines.

The general language ſpoken in theſe iſlands is the Malayan tongue; beſides which, every people have a language peculiar to themſelves. They write on cocoa-nut leaves, with an iron ſtyle or pen; and arts and ſciences having been introduced by the Spaniards, the natives have nothing of this kind to boaſt of before their arrival.

All theſe iſlands, except Mindanao and Paragoa, are under the juriſdiction of a Spaniſh viceroy, who has governors under him in every other iſland and town of conſequence; and the like courts are erected for the trial of civil and criminal cauſes, as in old Spain. The archbiſhop of Manila, the biſhops and their commiſſaries, determine eccleſiaſtical cauſes as in Europe; but there lies an appeal from them to the pope's delegate, who reſides in one

of

of the islands. The court of inquisition has also a commissary here. But notwithstanding the Spaniards are represented as sovereigns of these islands, this must only be understood of the open country and the sea-coasts, in which there may be three hundred thousand souls: but these are not a tenth part of the inhabitants, the rest look upon themselves as a free people: every mountain almost is possessed by a different tribe, who make war upon one another, the Spaniards seldom intermeddling in their quarrels. The Chinese were formerly so numerous here, that they disputed the authority of the Spaniards over them: it is computed that forty thousand of them resided in and about the city of Manila; but the Spaniards compelled them to submit, and banished some thousands of them, the rest were permitted to remain here, to carry on their manufactures; for they are almost the only artificers.

Their arms are bows, arrows, and lances or spears, broad swords, and tubes or trunks, through which they blow poisoned arrows, the slightest wounds whereof are mortal, if immediate remedies are not applied. They have cane shields also covered with a buffaloe's hide, and a head-piece for defensive arms.

These savages, as the Spaniards call them, worship one supreme God, and their ancestors, as the Chinese do, from whom most of them are descended; they worship also the sun and moon, and almost every thing they see, whether animate or inanimate, groves, rocks, rivers, and one particular tree, which they would esteem it a sacrilege to cut down, believing the souls of some of their friends may reside in it, and that in cutting the tree they may wound a near relation. Instead of temples, they have caves, wherein they place their idols, and sacrifice to them. Some beautiful young virgin first wounds the victim with a spear, and then the priests dispatch the animal; and, having dressed the meat, it is eaten by the company. Superstition prevail among them; they have their lucky and unlucky days; and if certain animals cross the way when they are going upon business, they will return home, and go out no more that day. The Spaniards tolerate them in their idolatrous worship; and suffer them to game, on paying to the government ten thousand crowns per annum. They are also much given to a detestable vice; and did not imagine it to be a crime, till the Spaniards punished them for it.

The men purchase their wives here as in China; and the marriage ceremony is performed by a priestess, who sacrifices some animal on the occasion; after which, the bride is led home, and the whole concludes with an entertainment as at other places. They marry in their own tribe, and with their neareft relations, except the first degree; some of them are confined to one wife, other tribes allow a purality of women, and divorces for reasonable causes on either side. Children are either named after heroes or flowers, or from some accidental circumstance that occurs at the time of their birth; but as soon as they marry, they chuse new names, and their parents are obliged to make use of their old ones.

The dead are washed and perfumed, wrapped in silk, and put in a close coffin, near which a chest is placed that contains the arms of a man, or domestic utensils of a woman: mourners are hired to assist in making a dismal noise. They bury their dead as in China, and do not burn them: as soon as the body is buried, an entertainment is made, and all is converted to mirth and festivity. In general, they mourn in black garments; and shave their heads and eye brows.

The next Spanish island to that of Manila is Samar or Philippina, between which and Manila is a narrow channel, called the straight of Manila, the north-east point whereof is called Spirito Sancto; the island is near four hundred miles in circumference, the chief town, Cathalagan, governed by a Spanish alcade. The island of Sebu, which lies in ten degrees south latitude, is the place where Magellan first set up the Spanish colours; the chief town, named Nombre de Dios, afterwards made a bishop's see, has in it a cathedral and several other churches and monasteries. The island of negroes lies west of Sebu, and was so named because it is inhabited chiefly by blacks. Mindanao lies the most southerly of any of the Philippine islands, and is the largest of them except Manila, being near two hundred miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth. It is possessed by people of different nations and different religions; but the Mahometans, who are situate on the sea coasts, are much the most numerous, whose sovereign is stiled sultan of Mindanao. Those who possess the middle of the island are called Hillanoons, and another nation stiled Solognes, are situate on the north-west coast. The air of this island is not so hot as might be expected, being refreshed frequently by the sea breezes, and the periodical rains, which lay the flat country under water. The winds blow from the east, from October to May, and then turn about and set westerly; next month the rains and storms succeed: at first there are not more than two or three showers a day; they afterwards come oftener, with violent hurricanes and loud thunder, and the wind continues westerly until November, during which time they have such storms that trees are blown up by the roots, the rivers are overflowed, and they do not see the sun or stars sometimes in a week: about August the air is very cool, the rain and wind are moderate in September, and in October the wind blows from the east again, and it continues fair till April, and sometimes May.

Mindanao, the capital city, lies on the south side of the island, in one hundred and twenty-three degrees fifteen minutes of eastern longitude, and six degrees twenty minutes north latitude, near the mouth of a river, and about two miles from the sea; the houses being built on bamboo pillars, sixteen or eighteen feet above the surface of the ground, on account of the annual floods, when they have no communication with one another but by boats. The city is about a mile in length, built along the winding bank of the river; the Sultan's palace is supported by one hundred and eighty trees, and has twenty cannon mounted in the front; and several of the nobility have great guns in or before their houses. Large ships cannot come up to the town, there being scarce eleven feet water on the bar, at the entrance of the river.

The natives are held to be men of a sprightly genius, but very lazy, and indolent, and will rather thieve than work; but none are more active when they find there is a necessity for it; and there may be two reasons for their lazy disposition, one from the heat of the climate, and the other from the tyranny of the government, no man being sure he shall enjoy what he acquires by his industry.

The Mindanayans are of a low stature, and very slender, of dark tawny complexions, black eyes and hair, flat faces, short noses, wide mouths, and black teeth, which they take abundance of pains to dye of that colour; and they wear the nails of their left hands almost as long again as their fingers, scraping and dying them with vermillion.

The men have a haughty mein, and yet are said to be very complaisant to foreigners, unless they are insulted, and then they seldom fail to resent the affront, and destroy their enemy by poison or a dagger, never hazarding their persons in a duel.

Their habit is a linen frock and drawers, and a small piece of linen cloth tied about their heads; but they go bare-foot: the complexion and features of the women are better than those of the men; but yet they too much resemble the other sex, and cannot be admired for their beauty: they wear a frock like the men, and a piece of cloth round their waists; the sleeves of the frock being large, and coming down to their wrists. Their hair is tied up in a roll at the hinder part of their heads. The men shave their heads, all but a lock that is left in the middle of the crown, like other Mahometans; their beards are very thin, being pulled up by the roots with tweezers. People of figure are clothed in silk or fine calico; the women go barefoot as well as the men, and adorn their arms and fingers with bracelets and rings. They are not restrained from conversing with their countrymen or foreigners.

The food of people of condition is flesh, fish, and fowl of all kinds, except hogs flesh, which the Mahometans never touch. The poorer sort content themselves with rice and sago. Rice is the principal part of the meal with all of them; they take it up with their hands, using neither knives or spoons; and their meat, whatever it be, is boiled to rags, that it may very easily be pulled to pieces with their fingers. They usually drink water, but make a pretty strong liquor with plantains; they wash before and after every meal, and bathe several times a day. Swimming is one of the chief diversions of the women, as well as the men, to which they are used from their infancy.

Upon joyful occasions the dancing girls, as they are called, are sent for to divert the company; but this dancing consists only in skrewing themselves into lascivious postures, and addressing their great men with flattering speeches. They have plays and mock fights also acted before them, and hunting of wild beasts is their principal rural sport, in which their women partake; but their hunting is only driving the deer and other game into an inclosure, from whence they cannot escape, and then shooting at them.

Mindanao is a fruitful ſoil, well watered with rivers, and their mountains afford excellent timber. Of the libby, or ſago tree, there are large groves; the ſago is the pith of a tree which the natives eat inſtead of bread, and is frequently brought over to Europe, being ſo grained, that it is ſometimes taken for a ſeed. They have no corn but rice. Plantains, guavas, mangoes, and all tropical fruits, abound here. Cloves and nutmegs have been tranſplanted hither, and appear fair to the eye; but it is ſaid they degenerate, and the fruit is good for nothing: if theſe plants were cultivated, poſſibly they might equal thoſe of the ſpice iſlands.

Here are no beaſts of prey in this iſland, but almoſt every other uſeful animal, ſuch as horſes, cows, buffaloes, and hogs, with bunches over their eyes; here are alſo ſnakes, ſcorpions, and other venomous inſects; and the feathered kind are the ſame as in Manila.

The Malayan language is generally ſpoken here; and the Mahometans have the koran and books of devotion, in the Arabic language. The liberal arts do not flouriſh here; they are forced to employ the Chineſe to keep their accompts for them; nor have they ſo much as a clock or a watch in all the country, but beat upon drums every three hours, that people may know the time of the day. There are ſcarce any other working trades, except goldſmiths, carpenters, and blackſmiths, who perform their work very well with the tools they have, for the ſmiths have neither vice nor anvil, nor the carpenters any ſaws, but when they have ſplit their planks, plane them with the ax or adze. Their diſeaſes are fluxes, fevers, and the ſmall-pox; and ſome are affected with a kind of leproſy, or dry ſcurf, which covers the body, and itches intolerably.

The religion of the ſaltan, and thoſe who inhabit the ſea-coaſts, is Mahometaniſm, and that of the inland people is Paganiſm, differing little from the Chineſe. In allowing a plurality of wives and concubines, the Mahometans of this iſland imitate thoſe of Turky, only they allow their women greater liberties, ſuffering them to converſe freely with their acquaintance or ſtrangers; but it is ſaid they are ſo prejudiced againſt ſwines fleſh, that one of their great men refuſed to wear a pair of ſhoes made by an European, when he was informed that the threads with which they were ſewed were pointed with hogs briſtles. They look upon themſelves to be defiled, if they touch any thing which belongs to a hog; they durſt not kill them, leſt they ſhould be defiled by the touch of the weapon they make uſe of, which occaſions theſe animals to multiply ſo faſt, that the iſland is over-run with them. They are very glad to ſee the Europeans kill them, but muſt undergo ſeveral ablutions or waſhings, if they ſhould happen to touch a man that had eaten its fleſh.

The ſultan of Mindanao is an abſolute prince, and his throne hereditary; both the perſons and purſes of his ſubjects are in his power, and if he knows any of them abound in wealth, he borrows it of them. He has one great miniſter, in whom he lodges the adminiſtration of the government, both civil and military, to whom both natives and foreigners muſt apply themſelves for liberty to trade. Their wars are chiefly with the mountaineers, who inhabit the middle of the iſland, with whom they are very cautious of coming to a general engagement; but when the armies are pretty near, they begin to entrench and cannonade each other, and will remain in the ſame camp ſome months, ſending out parties to make incurſions into the enemies country, and ſurprize defenceleſs places. Their arms are a crice or ſhort dagger, and a broad ſword, a ſpear, and bows and arrows.

The moſt conſiderable of the Philippines that have not been mentioned, are Mindora, ſouth-weſt of Manila; Panay, and Leyte, which lie north of Mindanao; and the iſland of Paragoa, which lies very near the north part of Borneo, and is ſubject to one of the princes of that iſland.

Philippina was the firſt that was diſcovered of this cluſter of iſſands, and conſequently gave name to the reſt. It lies between twelve and fourteen degrees north latitude, and is the moſt fertile and pleaſant of all the Philippines, exhiting a ſcene of perpetual verdure; for here the ſun is powerful, without being diſagreeable.

The Ladrone iſlands are ſituate in the Pacific ocean, in one hundred and forty degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between twelve and twenty-eight degrees of north latitude. Guam or Ignana, the largeſt, is ſituate in thirteen degrees twenty one minutes, north latitude, ſeven thouſand three hundred miles weſt of Cape Coricntes in Mexico, according to Dampier. The other inconſiderable iſlands are, 2. Sarpanta. 3. Bonaviſta or Tinian. 4. Seſpara. 5. Anatan. 6. Sarignan. 7. Guagam. 8. Alamaguan. 9. Pagon. 10. The burning mountain of Griga. 11. Magna. 12. Patas. 13. Diſconocida; and, 14. Malabrigo.

Guam is about twelve leagues long, and four broad, lying north and ſouth. It is pretty high champaign land, ſloping down towards the coaſt. The eaſt ſide, which is the higheſt, is fenced with ſteep rocks, on which the waves conſtantly beat, driven by the trade wind. The weſt ſide is low land, in which are ſeveral little ſandy bays divided by rocks.

The natives of Guam are of a good ſtature, have large limbs, a tawny complexion, black long hair, ſmall eyes, thick lips, and are long viſaged. They are ſometimes afflicted with a kind of leproſy, otherwiſe the country is healthful, eſpecially in the dry ſeaſon. The rains begin in June, and laſt till October, but are not violent.

The iſland produces rice, and moſt tropical fruits, and one ſort, which Dampier has named bread-fruit, grows upon a tree like apples, and at its full bigneſs is as large as an ordinary foot-ball; it has a hard thick rind, and within a ſoft yellow pulp, of a ſweetiſh taſte; the natives eat it inſtead of bread, having firſt baked or roaſted it in the embers: it is in ſeaſon eight months in the year, and grows only in theſe iſlands.

Dampier relates, that when he was there (about the year one thouſand ſeven hundred) there were not above one hundred Indians upon the iſland, though he was informed there had been three or four hundred ſome time before: and the reaſon given why there was no more at that time was, becauſe moſt of them had burnt their plantations, and fled to other iſlands on their being uſed ill by the Spaniards.

Their ſwift-ſailing ſloops, or flying proas, are the admiration of all that ſee them; the bottom of the veſſel, or the keel, is of one piece, made like a canoe, twenty-eight feet in length, built ſharp at both ends, one ſide of the ſloop flat, and the other rounding with a pretty large belly; being four or five feet broad, with a maſt in the middle. They turn the flat ſide to the wind, and having a head at each end, ſail with either of them foremoſt, and have never any occaſion to tack. Dampier computed they would ſail twenty-four miles an hour. The tide never riſes above two or three feet at this iſland.

The writer of lord Anſon's voyage relates, that they arrived at the iſland of Tinian or Bonaviſta, one of the Ladrone iſlands which lies north of Guam, on the 27th of Auguſt, 1742, being ſituated in fifteen degrees eight minutes north latitude, and one hundred and fourteen degrees fifty minutes weſt of Acapulco in America. This iſland is twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth, extending from the S. S. W. to N. N. E. The ſoil is dry and ſandy, and the air healthful; the land riſes in gentle ſlopes from the ſhore to the middle of the iſland, interrupted by vallies of an eaſy deſcent. The vallies and gradual ſwellings of the ground are beautifully diverſified by the encroachments of woods and lawns; and the woods conſiſt of tall ſpreading trees, celebrated for their aſpect or their fruit; the turf of the lawns clean and uniform, compoſed of fine trefoil, intermixed with a variety of flowers; the woods, in many places, open, free from buſhes, and underwood, affording moſt elegant and entertaining proſpects.

The cattle on this iſland were computed to amount to ten thouſand, (we ſuppoſe he means horned cattle) all perfectly white except their ears; beſides which there were hogs and poultry without number. The cattle and fowls were ſo fat, that the men could run them down, and were under no neceſſity of ſhooting them. Their fleſh is well taſted, and very eaſy of digeſtion.

About the beginning of the preſent century, this iſland was ſaid to contain at leaſt thirty thouſand inhabitants, when a dreadful mortality raging among them, prodigious numbers died; and the calamity prevailing with equal violence in the iſlands of Rota and Guam, the Spaniards obliged thoſe that remained at Tinian to remove to Guam, in order to make good the deficiency by the number of the ſouls that had periſhed in that iſland; ſince which time Tinian has been wholly uninhabited. The ruins of the buildings in Tinian, ſome of which are of a particular form, evince it to have been once a populous place. The iſland of Rota has not any thing in it that demands particular attention. Its chief produce is rice, which is cultivated by a few Indians, who live there undiſturbed, but are ſubject to the Spaniſh governor.

Though the other iſlands are uninhabited, they are in general exceedingly fertile, the air good, and the climate temperate. They alſo produce plenty of proviſions; but they

they are ſeldom viſited on account of the great inconvenience ariſing from the want of water for anchorage. Tinian is moſt commodious in this particular, but even there it is very unſafe from June to October, when the weſtern monſoons blow.

Several other iſlands have lately been diſcovered to the eaſtward of the Philippines; and from them called the New Philippines, of which father Clain, in a letter from Manila (inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions) gives the following account: that he happening to be at the town of Guivana, in the iſland of Samar, found twenty-nine palars, or inhabitants of certain newly-diſcovered iſlands, who were driven there by the eaſterly winds which blow in theſe ſeas from December to May. They had run before the wind for ſeventy days together, according to their own relation, without being able to make any land till they came in ſight of the town of Guivam: they were thirty-five perſons, and embarked in two boats with their wives and children when they firſt came out, but ſeveral periſhed by the hardſhips they underwent in the voyage; they were under ſuch a conſternation when a man from Guivam attempted to come on board them, that all the people which were in one of the veſſels, with their wives and children, jumped overboard; however, they were at length perſuaded to ſteer into the harbour, and they landed the 28th of December, 1696. They eat cocoa-nuts and roots which were brought them very freely, but would not touch boiled rice, the common food of the Aſiaticks. Two women, who had formerly been caſt a-ſhore from the ſame iſlands, were their interpreters; they related that their country conſiſted of thirty-two iſlands, and by the form of their veſſels and ſails their country ſeemed to be in the neighbourhood of the Marianas or Ladrone iſland; they related that their country was exceeding populous, and that all the iſlands are under the dominion of one king, who keeps his court in the iſland of Lamarec: the natives go half naked, and the men paint and ſtain their bodies, making ſeveral ſorts of figures upon them, but the women and children are not painted; the complexion and ſhape of their face is much like thoſe of the tawny Philippines or Malayes: the men wear only a cloth about their loins which covers their thighs, and another looſe about their bodies which they tie before. There is little difference betwixt the dreſs of men and women, but that the cloth which the women wear hangs a little lower on their knees; their language is different both from the people of the Philippines and the Ladrone iſlands, and comes neareſt to that of the Arabs: the women that ſeem moſt conſiderable amongſt them, wear necklaces, bracelets, and rings of tortoiſe-ſhell. They ſubſiſted themſelves all the time they were at ſea with the fiſh they catched, in a kind of wicker baſket with a great mouth, ending in a point, which they hauled after them; and their drink was rain-water which they happened to be ſupplied with: they have no cows or dogs in their iſlands, and they run away at the ſight of the one, and the barking of the other; neither have they any horſes, deer, cats, or any four footed beaſts whatever; or any land fowls but hens, which they breed up, and never eat their eggs: they were ſurpriſed at the whiteneſs of the Europeans, having never ſeen any people of this complexion, as they were at their manners and cuſtoms: it does not appear that they have any religion, nor do they uſe any ſet meals, but eat and drink whenever they are hungry or thirſty, and then but ſparingly. They ſalute any perſon by taking him by the hand or foot, or gently ſtroaking his face: among their tools they have a ſaw made of a large ſhell, ſharpened with a ſtone, having no iron or other metals in their country; and were ſurpriſed to ſee the many tools uſed in building a ſhip. Their arms are lances or darts, headed with human bones and ſharpened. They ſeem to be a people of much life and courage, but of a peaceful diſpoſition; and are well proportioned, but not of a large ſize.

SECT. VI.

Treats of the iſlands of Formoſa, and Hainan, or Aynan, partly ſubject to the Chineſe.

WE have, in the preceding part of this work, (viz. in p. 56.) taken occaſion barely to mention theſe iſlands, as belonging to the empire of China; but as we now propoſe to give a general deſcription of the Oriental iſlands, a fuller account of thoſe abovementioned will be more properly introduced in this place.

The iſland of Formoſa is extremely fertile, and in general a delightful country; and on that account obtained its name, the word Formoſa ſignifying fair or beautiful. Its longitude from Pekin is from three degrees twenty minutes to five degrees forty minutes eaſt; ſo that when the ſun is almoſt vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being diſagreeable, as the violence of the heat is greatly mitigated by the ſituation of the iſland, which is ſo elevated, as to receive the moſt agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the ſea.

Some parts of theſe iſlands belong to the Chineſe, to whom the natives are ſubject; but in the other parts they live independant, and are only ſubject to their own laws and government. That part of this iſland poſſeſſed by the Chineſe is particularly fertile; and produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, eſpecially rice; and its fertility is greatly augmented by numerous rivers, whoſe ſtreams flow conveniently through it.

There is as great a variety of fruits to be found here, as in any other parts of the Indies; particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guavas, papayas, &c. alſo ſeveral kinds of thoſe produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and cheſnuts. They have likewiſe a ſort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than thoſe in Europe: they have a white or red pulp, and are full of a fine juice, which is exceedingly grateful to the taſte. Sugar and tobacco alſo grow here to the greateſt perfection; and the trees that produce theſe are ſo agreeably arranged, that they appear as if calculated to embelliſh the moſt beautiful gardens.

They have but few wild beaſts in this iſland, and thoſe are ſeldom ſeen, as they chiefly inhabit the diſtant parts of it, which are very mountainous, and ſeldom reſorted to by the inhabitants. They have ſome horſes, ſheep, oxen, goats, and hogs; and but few birds, the principal of which is the pheaſant. The rivers are ſtocked with great plenty of fiſh of various kinds.

They have neither havens nor ſea-ports, and the coaſts about the iſland are very high and rocky, ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible to invade it. Teovang, or Tyowang, is the only bay in the whole iſland, where ſhips of any bulk can approach; and this is ſituated at the mouth of a river ſo narrow, and defended by ſuch high rocks and forts on each ſide, that no enemy could poſſibly enter it, but muſt fail in the attempt.

Thoſe natives of this iſland, who are under the dominion of the Chineſe, are divided into forty-five boroughs or towns, thirty-ſix of which are in the northern part, and nine in the ſouthern. They are in general of a low ſtature, have a large mouth, and are very ſwarthy in complexion: they have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly diſproportioned, for the body is very ſhort, the neck ſmall, and the arms and legs are remarkably long. They go almoſt naked, their dreſs conſiſting only of a rough piece of cloth tied round the waiſt, and reaching to the knees; but they adorn their bodies with the figures of trees, flowers, animals, &c. in doing of which they undergo ſuch violent pain, that only a ſmall part of the operation muſt be performed at one time; ſo that it will take ſome months before the whole is completed. Theſe embelliſhments, however, are only permitted to ſuch as have diſtinguiſhed themſelves either by feats of activity or courage. The better ſort avoid the puniſhment of obtaining theſe ornaments, by uſing the hair of animals intermixed with ſilk, and embroidered with gold and ſilver. They have all, however, liberty to adorn their arms and ears, which they do with the greateſt profuſion; and on their heads they wear a kind of coronet, the top of which is terminated by a plume made of the feathers of cocks or pheaſants.

The inhabitants of the northern part are better cloathed than thoſe of the ſouthern, as the climate is leſs temperate: their dreſs conſiſts of the ſkins of beaſts, particularly ſtags, which they kill in hunting. This garment is, however, very uncouth, in its form, being ſhaped like a veſtment worn by prieſts, and without ſleeves. They wear a kind of bonnet on their heads, made of the leaves of bananas, and adorned with coronets placed one above another, in the form of a pyramid: the whole is faſtened with locks of hair of different colours; and the top is terminated by a plume of feathers, like thoſe in the ſouth.

The houſes of thoſe in the ſouthern part are mean cottages made of earth and bamboo covered with ſtraw, and ſo cloſe together, that they are only ſeparated by a very ſlight partition; but thoſe in the north are built after the manner of the Chineſe: their cuſtoms, however, in both parts are the ſame. They have neither chairs, tables, benches, or beds; inſtead of the latter, they uſe the leaves

of trees, and lay themſelves down without any ſort of covering.

They do not take much pains in dreſſing their meat, for the leſs it is done, the better they like it; and ſome of them reliſh it moſt when it is ſo raw as barely to have felt the effect of the fire. They dreſs their victuals in a kind of chimney or ſtove placed in the centre of the room; and are extremely filthy in their manner of eating it: they have neither diſhes, ſpoons, nor knives; ſo that when the proviſion is dreſſed it is laid on a piece of wood or mat, and they pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their food conſiſts chiefly of boiled rice, which they eat inſtead of bread; the fleſh of ſheep and goats and game, which they ſometimes catch in the woods, by ſhooting them, or running them down; the latter is the moſt common method; for ſuch is their agility, that the ſwifteſt horſe will be out-run by them.

Bows and arrows are their principal weapons; they uſe theſe with ſuch dexterity, that at the diſtance of four hundred yards they will kill a pheaſant flying.

They do not purchaſe their wives, as in China; and have little ceremony in their marriages: when a man fixes on any object that he wiſhes to make his wife, he goes ſeveral days together with muſic, which he plays for ſome time before the door, but he is not permitted to enter the houſe. If the object of his affections approves of him, ſhe comes out, and they agree upon terms, which being made known to their parents, the marriage feaſt is prepared, and the friends of each party are invited. The feaſt conſummates the marriage; after which, inſtead of the wife going home with her huſband, he continues in his father-in-law's houſe, and, during the remainder of his life, provides for him as for himſelf.

They believe in one Supreme Being, and ſeem to entertain wiſer notions than the inhabitants of many eaſtern countries, though ſome writers have deſcribed them as mere infidels, and perhaps they are conſidered as ſuch by the Chineſe, who acknowledge, however, that they are not ſubject to cheat, thieve, or quarrel; but, on the contrary, that they practiſe all the duties of equity and mutual benevolence. They worſhip idols as in China, to which they offer ſacrifices of hogs, rice, &c.

Their manner of treating the dead, before interment, is very ſingular. When a perſon dies, they lay him on a ſcaffold made of bamboo, which they place over a ſlow fire for nine days; after which, they wrap the corpſe in a mat, and lay it on a higher ſcaffold, covered with a pavilion made of ſhreds of ſilk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which, they dig a large hole in the ground and bury it. Each of theſe ceremonies is accompanied with feaſting, muſic, dancing, &c. but the funeral ceremonies are very trifling.

The impreſſion which an object of diſtreſs ſtrikes on the minds of theſe people, and the notions of humanity with which they are poſſeſſed, are diſplayed in one cuſtom, which is almoſt univerſal, namely, if a perſon is exceeding ill, or afflicted with any painful diſorder which is not likely to be removed, they think it a kindneſs to put a period to his life.

Each town or borough has a diſtinct government. Three or four of the moſt antient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the reſt, who determine all differences; and he who refuſes to ſubmit to the deciſion, is baniſhed the town; nor can he either return, or be admitted into any of the others, ſo that he is obliged to finiſh his days, without ever again participating of the natural enjoyments of ſociety with the reſt of his countrymen.

The Formoſans pay an annual tribute to the Chineſe, which conſiſts of certain quantities of grain, the tails and ſkins of ſtags, and other productions of the country. In order to collect this tribute, a perſon is appointed to each town, who learns the language of the natives, and diſcharges the office of interpreter between them and the mandarins of China. There were formerly twelve boroughs in the ſouthern part of the iſland, that paid tribute to the Chineſe; but, from the tyrannic conduct of their interpreter, or gatherer of the tax, they revolted, drove the interpreter out of the town, and no longer continued to pay the tribute.

The capital city of this Iſland, which is called Taiouan-fou, is, with ſeveral other conſiderable towns, in the poſſeſſion of the Chineſe. It is large and populous, and carries on ſo extenſive a trade, that it is little inferior to ſome of the moſt opulent in China. It is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, ſugar, wine, tobacco, and dried veniſon, the latter of which is greatly admired by the Chineſe, and conſidered as the moſt delicious food. They have likewiſe all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. with plenty of cotton of various ſorts, linen, ſilk, &c.

The ſtreets are long and ſpacious, and the buildings on each ſide have awnings, that join in ſuch a manner as to cover the ſtreet; but theſe are only uſed during the hot months, to keep off the exceſſive heat of the ſun. Some of the ſtreets are near three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad; theſe ſtreets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whoſe ſhops are furniſhed with all kinds of goods, ranged and diſplayed to the beſt advantage. Theſe ſhops appear very brilliant, and many people walk in the ſtreets merely to gratify themſelves with the ſight of ſo great a variety of the richeſt commodities. The houſes are in general very ſmall, and are built of clay covered with thatch.

There are neither walls or fortifications for the defence of the city: but it has a good garriſon of horſe and foot, conſiſting of ten thouſand men, who are principally Tartars. Theſe are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two brigadier-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who after having ſerved three years, or ſooner, if they ſhould require, are at liberty to relinquiſh their ſituation. The harbour is tolerably good, and ſheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ſhips of burden, the bottom of it being rocky, and the depth not being above ten feet at the higheſt tides.

The iſland of Formoſa, according to the moſt authentic hiſtorians, was firſt inhabited by the Japaneſe, about the beginning of the laſt century. Theſe people were ſo pleaſed with the appearance of the country, that they built ſeveral ſmall towns, and ſoon ſettled a colony; however they were but a ſhort time on the iſland before they were interrupted by the Dutch, a ſhip belonging to whom being accidentally forced into the harbour, the people landed on the iſland, in order to obtain refreſhments, and repair the damage the veſſel had ſuſtained by the ſtorm. Pleaſed with the apparent fertility of the country, and the wholeſomeneſs of the climate, they formed a plan for circumventing the Japaneſe, by taking the iſland into their own poſſeſſion. Fearful, however, of offending them, leſt it might be injurious to their trade, they were very cautious in what manner they proceeded; and though they were the moſt powerful, yet they were rather deſirous of obtaining their wiſhes by artful than violent meaſures. To effect this, they earneſtly intreated the Japaneſe, that they would permit them to build a houſe near the ſea-ſide, which, they alledged, would be of the greateſt utility to them in their paſſage to and from Japan. This requeſt was refuſed, which produced a ſecond ſolicitation with equal ſucceſs. Unwilling, however, to give up any endeavours they could project, they again renewed their ſolicitations, and preſſed them to give conſent, aſſuring them, that they deſired no more ground than what might be encompaſſed by the hide of an ox. The modeſty, as well as oddity, of this requeſt, had the wiſhed-for effect, and the Japaneſe at length gave their conſent. The Dutch immediately diſcovered a piece of cunning little thought of by the Japaneſe. They got a large hide, which they cut into a number of ſlips, and faſtening the whole together, covered a very extenſive piece of ground, on which inſtead of a ſingle building, they erected ſeveral ſpacious habitations.

The Japaneſe were at firſt greatly vexed at this ſtratagem, but, from the ſingularity of it, they were at length pacified; and were ſo far from either envying the Dutch, or being any way apprehenſive of danger from them, that they permitted them to do whatever they thought proper; and of this indulgence the Dutch were not backward in taking the greateſt advantages, for they ſoon erected ſeveral ſtrong buildings, particularly a caſtle, which they called Zealand, ſituated on ſo advantageous a ſpot, that it was impoſſible for any ſhip to approach it in a hoſtile manner, of whatever force, without being repulſed. But the Japaneſe, being either offended at the great progreſs the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, ſoon quitted the iſland, and left the Dutch in ſole poſſeſſion of it; after which, they erected other fortifications oppoſite to their new fort, and raiſed ſuch other defences, as made them complete maſters of the iſland. They continued here, however, but a few years; for one of the Chineſe generals, a man of an enterprizing genius, being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chineſe, fixed his views on Formoſa, formed a reſolution of expelling the Dutch, and eſtabliſhing a new kingdom on the iſland.

Accordingly,

Accordingly, the Chineſe adventurer ſailed from China with a very conſiderable fleet, and arriving near the mouth of the harbour, he landed ſome of his men, and began to attack the fort of Zealand. The Dutch not being apprehenſive of any danger, were ill provided to reſiſt ſo powerful an enemy; they had only four ſhips in the harbour, and not above twenty men in the fort, excluſive of the natives; notwithſtanding which they made ſo gallant an oppoſition, that the ſiege laſted upwards of three months. The Chineſe general was ſo enraged at being thus diſappointed, that he at length had recourſe to a very deſperate effort, which had the deſired effect: he converted ſeveral of his veſſels into fire-ſhips; and the wind happening to be high and favourable, drove them into the harbour, when three of the Dutch ſhips were intirely deſtroyed. Thus ſituated, the Dutch could not make any farther reſiſtance, and the Chineſe general offering them liberty to depart with their effects in caſe they would ſurrender, they readily accepted the offer, and putting all their valuables on board the ſhip that was left, they departed, and left the Chineſe general ſole maſter of the iſland. The conqueror immediately acknowledged ſubmiſſion to the emperor, and ſeveral other towns were ſoon built on different parts of the iſland, the inhabitants of which have ever ſince been ſubject to the government of China, and teſtify their ſubmiſſion by an annual tribute, as we before obſerved.

The iſland of Haynan (the principal part of which alſo belongs to the Chineſe) is of conſiderable extent, and ſome of the towns are very populous. It is ſituated between one hundred and ſeven and one hundred and ten degrees eaſt longitude, and between eighteen and twenty degrees north latitude. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by the Chineſe ſea; on the weſt, by the coaſt of Cochin-China; on the north by part of the province of Quang-tong, to which it belongs; and, on the ſouth, by the channel of Paracel, which joins the eaſtern coaſt of Cochin-China. It is about two hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, near one hundred and fifty in breadth, and about four hundred in circumference.

Kian-tcheou is the principal city of Haynan, and is ſo ſituated, that ſhips lie at anchor cloſe to its walls with the greateſt ſecurity. The ſtreets are very uniform, and ſome of them at leaſt a mile in length, but the houſes in general are low mean buildings. There are ſeveral other conſiderable cities in the iſland, beſides the capital, all of which are ſituated near the ſea-ſide, and ſubject to the juriſdiction of Kian-tcheou, which is governed by mandarins of two orders, namely, thoſe of learning, and thoſe of arms.

On the ſouthern part of the iſland there is a fine port, the bay of which is near twenty feet deep. There is alſo another very convenient port on the northern part, the entrance to which is defended by two ſmall forts, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve feet. Here the barks frequently come from Canton with various commodities, in exchange for which they take ſeveral kinds of minerals, the natural produce of the country; for in ſome parts of the iſland there are gold and ſilver mines, as alſo mines that produce the lapis-lazuli, which the natives of Canton uſe in painting the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that defend the entrance of the northern port, is a large plain, on which are ſeveral handſome Chineſe ſepulchres.

With reſpect to the climate of this iſland, it is in general very unhealthy, particularly the northern part, though the ſoil is tolerably fertile. The ſouthern and eaſtern parts are exceedingly mountainous; but the vallies beneath are rich, and produce great plenty of rice. There are likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of very valuable trees, particularly the roſe or violet-tree, which is ſo fragrant in its ſcent, that it is purchaſed at a very high price for the ſole uſe of the emperor. There is alſo another tree little inferior to this: it produces a kind of liquid, which by the natives is called dragons blood, and, if thrown into the fire, diffuſes a moſt agreeable ſcent. Indigo grows very plentifully on this iſland, as alſo ſugar, tobacco, and cotton; and they have a great variety of the moſt delicious fruits, ſome of which we have mentioned before in treating of this iſland.

Horſes, ſheep, cows, and hogs, are the chief animals here. There are prodigious numbers of apes on the mountains and in the woods, ſome of which are very large, of a black colour, and the features of their faces ſo diſtinct, as to reſemble the human ſpecies with greater exactneſs than any others to be found in the univerſe; but theſe are very ſeldom ſeen; and though the natives have often endeavoured to catch them, yet they are ſo cunning and alert, that they have baffled every machination they could project. Theſe apes appear to be of the ſame ſpecies with two ſent ſome years ago in a coaſting veſſel as a preſent from a merchant of the rajah of the Carnatic dominions to the governor of Bombay.

There are various kinds of game in this iſland, particularly deer and horſes; alſo a great plenty of birds, as partridges, wood-cocks, ſnipes, turtle-doves, and moſt ſorts of water-fowls, all which are little inferior to thoſe in Europe. They have likewiſe moſt ſorts of fiſh in great abundance; among theſe is a little blue fiſh found among the rocks, which is ſo beautiful as to be eſteemed of greater value than the golden fiſh; but they will live only a few days out of their natural element.

The natives are ſhort in ſtature, of a reddiſh complexion, and ſome of them greatly deformed. The men wear only a looſe garment, reaching from the waiſt to the knees: it is made of callico, and the colour is either a deep blue, or quite black. The women wear a garment of the ſame ſtuff, though different in form: it ſomewhat reſembles a waiſtcoat, and reaches from the ſhoulders to the knees; and they are farther diſtinguiſhed from the men by ſtreaks made on their faces with indigo. Both ſexes braid their hair, and adorn their ears with rings; their hats are made of ſtraw or rattan, and tie under the chin.

Bows and arrows are their chief weapons, in the uſe of which they are not ſo expert as the inhabitants of Formoſa. They have alſo a kind of hanger faſtened with a girdle to their waiſt, which they generally uſe to clear the way in foreſts or other woody places where they travel.

The natives of this iſland occupy the centre part of it, which is very mountainous; and here they live independent, being ſubject only to their own laws and modes of government. They are ſeldom ſeen by the Chineſe, except when they make an attempt to ſurpriſe any of the neighbouring villages. This, however, ſeldom happens, and, when it does, they are naturally ſuch cowards, that a hundred of them will fly from half a dozen Chineſe. Many of them are in the ſervice of the Chineſe, who employ them to cultivate their lands, and take care of their cattle.

There are a number of ſmall iſlands called the Piſcadores, or Fiſher iſlands, between the iſland of Formoſa and the continent of China; theſe are ſituated in twenty-three degrees north latitude. On the weſt ſide of one of theſe iſlands is a large town, with a fort defended by a garriſon, conſiſting of three hundred Tartars.

A ſet of iſlands are likewiſe ſituated between Formoſa and Luconia. Theſe are called the Five Iſles, the northernmoſt of which lies in twenty degrees twenty minutes north latitude. The largeſt of theſe iſlands is uninhabited, on account of its being a barren country; but the others are very populous, having ſeveral good towns in them. The hills of theſe iſlands are rocky, but the vallies are very fertile, being well watered with running ſtreams. They produce plenty of pine-apples plantains, bananas, ſugar-canes, cottons, pompions, and potatoes; and there are alſo great numbers of goats, horned cattle, and hogs.

The inhabitants are of an olive-colour, and are ſhort in ſtature, with round faces, low foreheads, and thick eye-brows. They have black hair, which they cut ſo ſhort, that it barely touches their ears. The men wear only a cloth about their middle, and have no covering on their heads. The women wear a ſhort petticoat made of coarſe callico, which reaches from the waiſt to the calves of their legs. Both ſexes wear rings in their ears, made of metal reſembling gold, which they dig out of the mountains.

The houſes are built in rows one above another, on the ſides of the rocks, and they aſcend to them by the help of ladders. They are very ſmall, and conſiſt only of a few poſts bound or covered with boughs of trees. The fire-place is at one end, and here they lay boards, on which they ſleep. There is a kind of ſtreet to each row of houſes, which runs parallel with the tops of the buildings in the row beneath.

The natives of theſe iſlands are naturally ingenious: they underſtand the uſe of iron, which they work into various forms, and build very neat boats, that reſemble thoſe with us called yawls. They have likewiſe ſome large veſſels, which they tow with twelve or fourteen oars.

The food of theſe people conſiſts chiefly of vegetables; but they ſometimes make a diſh of locuſts, which at particular ſeaſons of the year come to devour their plants. They catch them with nets, and either broil them on the fire, or bake them in an earthen pan. Their chief drink is water; but they have a liquor that in taſte and colour reſembles Engliſh beer: this is called baſhee, and gives

name

name to one of these islands. It is made with sugar-canes, boiled and mixed with blackberries; after which it is put into jars, and when it has worked five or six days, it becomes very fine, and fit for drinking.

The language of these islanders bears no affinity either to the Chinese or Malayan, but is peculiar to themselves.

The only weapons they use, are lances headed with iron; when they go on the mountains in pursuit of beasts, they wear a kind of armour made of a buffalo's skin, which has sleeves, and reaches down to the calves of the legs. It is wide at the bottom, but close about the shoulders, and is of such solid substance as hardly to be penetrated.

In general, these are a very civil people, and will neither engage in quarrels among themselves, or with strangers. The men are chiefly employed in fishing, and the women in husbandry. Each man is prohibited from having more than one wife, who treats him with great respect. The boys are brought up by their fathers to fishing; and the girls work with their mothers in the plantations, which are in vallies, where every person cultivates and plants as much ground as is sufficient to supply the necessities of the family.

They have not any laws, neither have they occasion for any; every family has one superior, to whom the rest are subservient, and children behave with the greatest respect to their parents. In short, these people appear to enjoy real felicity, by seeking that happiness in their own minds which is not to be found independant of ourselves, as the mistaken part of mankind suppose; they have no ambition, and therefore have no desire to leave their own home to seek after imaginary baubles: they content themselves with the situation in which providence has placed them, and each succeeding day contributes to increase their happiness, while they escape innumerable evils which roving and unsatisfied minds are subject to and experience.

SECT. VII.

Contains a description of the Moluccas or Spice Islands.

THE islands of the Moluccas are sixteen in number, and are situate between five degrees north, and seven degrees south latitude, and from one hundred and twenty-one to one hundred and thirty degrees east longitude. The Banda islands are, 1. Banda; 2. Pulloway; 3. Pulorin; 4. Nera; 5. Gumanapi; 6. Guiliaien: these produce nutmegs, &c. The others are, 1. Ternate; 2. Tidore or Tidor; 3. Motir; 4. Machian; 5. Bachian; 6. Amboyna; 7. Bouro; 8. Ceram; 9. Gilolo; 10. Bouton: the produce of most of these is cloves, &c.

The Portuguese, in 1511, obtained possession of these islands, but were afterwards driven out by the Dutch, who claim an exclusive right to them. Cloves and nutmegs are not produced in any other part of the universe; and the politic Dutch destroy great quantities annually, in order to keep up the price, and not glut the markets. The nutmeg resembles a peach, and the clove a laurel tree, only the leaves are smaller than either, the fruit of the former is both nutmeg and mace, the nutmeg being the kernel, and the mace being a kind of leafy covering that incloses the nutmeg-shell, and the whole is contained in a large coat like that of a walnut: but the cloves appear in clusters; the blossom changes gradually from white to green, red, and brown, which latter is characteristical of its ripeness; but when it is dried in the sun, it receives a blackish hue. The clove is gathered from September to February, and the nutmeg in April, August, and December. The April crop is, however, deemed the best; and in order to prevent the nutmegs from being worm-eaten, they are boiled in lime when gathered.

The Banda, or nutmeg islands, lie near each other. Banda, the principal of them, is about twenty miles long, and ten broad. Besides the large forests of nutmeg and clove-trees which grow spontaneously, and require not the least trouble, the soil is fertile, and produces a variety of delicious fruits. The island is in the shape of a crescent, and the concavity of it forms an excellent bay, near which the principal town stands. Several brooks flow from a small mountain, water the whole country, and render it exceedingly pleasant.

The island is divided into three districts: Mahometanism and Paganism are the religions. The natives have some ships of force, containing a few cannon each, and use bucklers, back and breast plates as defensive, and carbines, darts, lances, scymetars, &c. as offensive weapons. They are strong in their persons, disagreeable in their features, malicious in their tempers, and melancholy in their dispositions. The men are very idle, and oblige the women not only to do all the domestic drudgery, but to cultivate the land. They make fruit a principal part of their diet, though they have three harvests in the year.

The Dutch have a factory at the western part of the island: it is erected upon the top of a mountain, and is ascended to by three hundred and twenty-four stone steps. At the foot of the mountain stands a negro town, the principal factory of the Dutch being at Nera, which is well fortified, as are all the landing-places in the island; and the whole under the direction and superintendance of a governor and council.

Into this, and the other Banda islands, the following articles are imported, viz. gold chains, gold coins, enamelled and damasked sword-blades, silver cups gilt; guns, china-ware, broad cloath, velvets, damasks, flannels, rice, &c. The exports are fruits and spices.

Pulloway is a most delightful country, the nutmeg and other fruit trees being cut into pleasant walks through the island, and form one beautiful garden; but here are neither springs nor rivulets: the rainy season, which lasts some months every year, supplies them with water, which they preserve in cisterns. The Dutch have a fort on the east side of the island, called the revenge, being one of the strongest fortresses in India.

Pulorin has not much spice upon it, but is fortified to prevent other people settling so near the islands that have fruit.

The other little Banda islands have scarce any thing in them worthy notice, more than what is included in the description of Banda abovementioned.

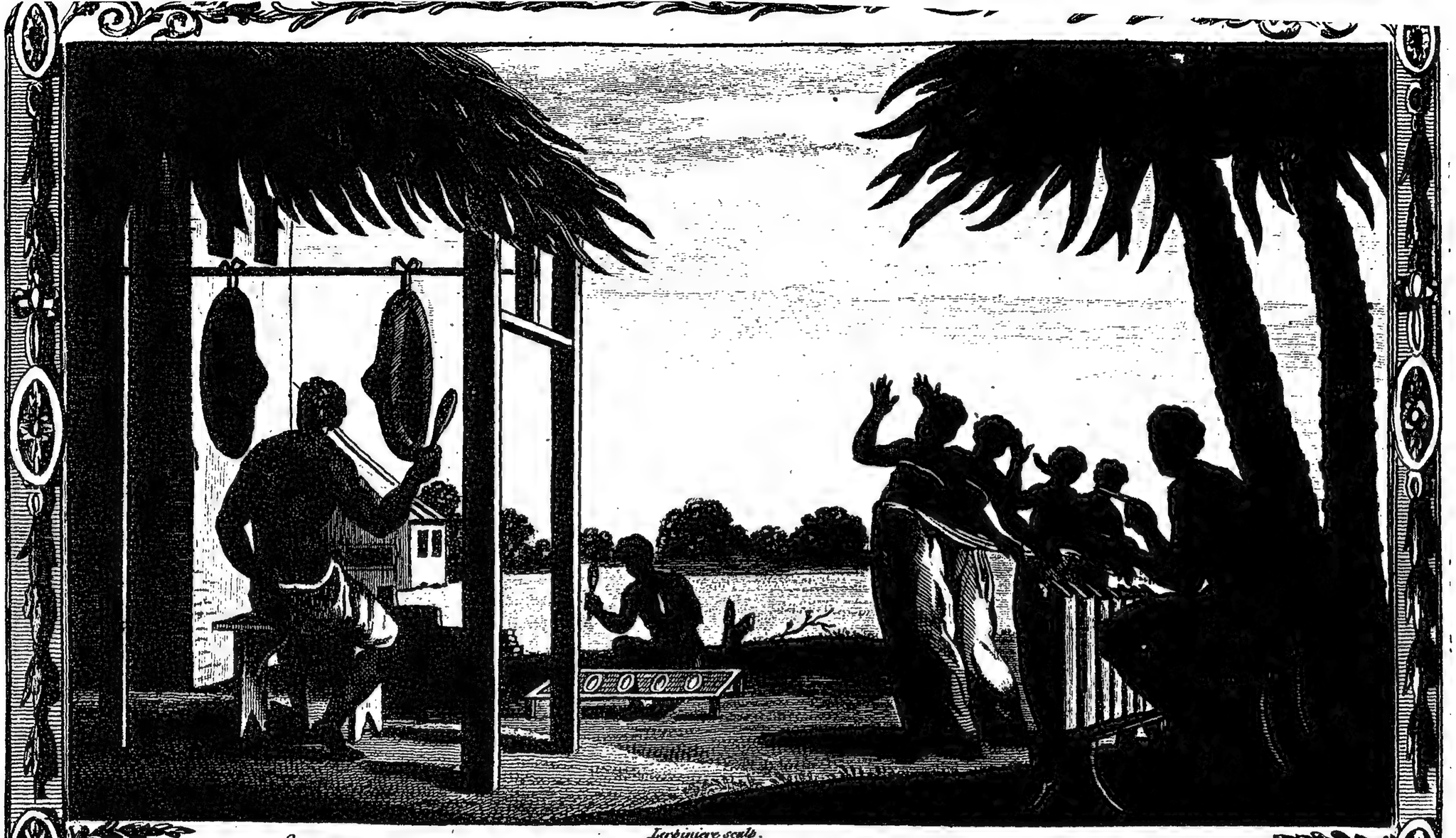
The island of Ternate is about twenty-four miles in circumference; but though inferior in size to some of the other Moluccas, it is deemed the principal both by the Dutch and natives, as the Dutch make it the head seat of their government, and it is the residence of the chief prince of these islands.

Cloves are produced in great abundance in this island: here are also admirable almonds, delicious fruits; a few goats, and some poultry are to be met with. There is no rice, or any other grain; for the excessive heat, which is requisite to ripen spices, and meliorate fruit, parches the earth, so as to render it incapable of bearing wheat, barley, or rice. The want of the various kinds of grain, however, used in bread, is not felt by the natives; for they have a substitute, which makes the most wholesome and exquisite cakes in the universe, that is, the pith of the tree called sago, whose salubrious qualities are well known in Europe. This excellent tree is not only serviceable with respect to its medicinal virtues, and for yielding them bread; but affords them likewise drink, cloathing, and shelter; for by incision a liquor is drawn from it that exceeds most wines; the leaves being a kind of cotton, the smaller are converted into garments, and the larger used to thatch their houses. Most of the natives live to an hundred years of age, and their longevity is attributed to the salubrious quality of this bread.

Every one of the islands pay tribute to the king, who is the chief of all the Moluccas. The natives struggled for many years against the incroachments of foreigners, but were totally subdued by the Dutch in 1780; and the former do not entertain the least idea of driving the others from their country, because they have so many forts and such strong garrisons in it.

Most of the houses belonging to the natives are built of cane; some few of the wealthier sort, indeed, have wooden ones. A mat serves them instead of bed, chair, and table; for they lie, eat, drink, and sit on it. This, and a pot to dress their victuals in, a hatchet to cut their wood, and a calibash to hold their water, make the whole catalogue of their household furniture: their windows are not glazed, nor are their doors secured by locks. They wear silk or callico, and all persons make their own garments, the king and grandees excepted. Their fuel is odoriferous woods, and even the smiths use nothing in their forges but almond shells. The king resides at Malaya, a little town fortified with a mud-wall; but the suburbs, in which the Dutch factory have a fine garden, is pretty large, and well inhabited by blacks. The palace is but a trivial building; but the gardens belonging to it are very pleasant, and contain an aviary filled with a great variety of beautiful birds, whose harmonious notes are extremely delightful. The prince has a cabinet of Indian rarities and European curiosities: he is attended by a considerable retinue, and wears a sumptuous garment manufactured by the Dutch. In this island, the waters are remarkably clear, and the fish extremely delicious to the taste.

Parrots



Larpiniere sculp.

NATIVES *of the* MOLUCCA ISLANDS *playing on Musical Instruments called the* RABANA.

Parrots are pretty numerous in Ternate; they are handſomer, and ſpeak more diſtinctly, than thoſe in the Weſt-Indies; but the moſt remarkable of the feathered race in this iſland is, the bird of paradiſe which is juſtly deemed the moſt beautiful bird in the univerſe. The head is like that of a ſwallow, but the bill conſiderably longer; the body is ſmall, but the plumage diſplays ſuch admirable colours, as are inconceivably pleaſing to behold.

In this iſland there is a volcano, which caſt out a ſulphureous fire three months in the year, and ſometimes does great miſchief; in the year 1648 it deſtroyed many houſes, and did other conſiderable damage. The annexed recent account of its dreadful devaſtations was tranſmitted to Europe, in a letter from a merchant at Batavia, dated October 18, 1776: "We have the following account of the deplorable ſituation of the iſland of Ternate. On the 4th of July, 1775, there were more than one hundred ſhocks of earthquakes felt here, ſome of which were ſo violent, that they ſeemed to threaten the deſtruction of the whole iſland; about the 20th of Auguſt they were felt again; and the burning mountain, after a dreadful exploſion, threw out hot ſtones, cinders, and lava in abundance: and on the 5th of November the earth was never ſtill for three hours, the mountain ſeemed all on fire, and the moſt dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning fell in every part of the iſland, which threw the inhabitants into ſuch a conſternation, that they ran from one part to another for ſhelter; but none was to be found; the ſea was ſo extremely boiſterous, that the deſtruction was inevitable there, and on the land the earth opened and trembled under them, as if the whole iſland was going to be annihilated; but by the providence of the Almighty, a calm was reſtored, and the inhabitants had time to ſee what damage had been done, when it appeared that the Dutch ſettlement had ſuffered but little; but it will be ſome years before the iſlanders recover their loſs. The king has made a report, that a large tract of land on the north ſide of the iſland, in the diſtrict of Xulla Tacory, has been ſwallowed up, by which ſixteen plantations have been totally deſtroyed, and one hundred and forty-one perſons have been either burnt or drowned in the ſea, where many of them took refuge in their boats. This report has been confirmed by about thirty of the unfortunate inhabitants, who are rendered dreadful objects by wounds and burns in this ſhocking event. On the 5th and 6th of November, the earthquakes and effuſions of fire, ſtone, and ſulphureous ſmoke from the mountains began as bad as ever, but no lives were loſt. The horrors of this night are not to be deſcribed, for the thunder, lightning, and moſt ſhocking earthquakes continued without interruption for twelve hours, with the moſt terrible violence; from this ever dreadfully to be remembered night, there were no earthquakes till July, 1, 1776, when they were again felt for two hours, but not violent."

Tidore, or Tidor, is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt; the capital, which is of the ſame name, has been ſtrongly fortified by the Dutch; ſo that on account of its natural ſtrength, and the important works they have added to it, the place is deemed impregnable; the harbour is, however, but indifferent, being dry at low water, which ſometimes proves very inconvenient to the merchants.

Motir is a very ſmall iſland, about thirty miles north of the line, and ſecured by a ſtrong fortreſs erected by the Dutch.

To the ſouth of Motir is Machian, nearly under the line; it riſes in a conical form to a conſiderable height, and ſeems at a diſtance like a ſingle mountain. The cloves of this iſland and Tidor are ſuperior to thoſe of any other of the Moluccas. The Dutch have ſeveral forts in this iſland, which is only twenty miles in circuit.

Great and Little Bachian are to the ſouthward of the line; the firſt is fertile in fruit, ſago, fiſh, &c. It formerly produced cloves; but the Dutch ordered them to be grubbed up, to prevent their becoming too plentiful. It has a good harbour defended by a ſtrong fort; but there is nothing worthy of mention reſpecting Little Bachian.

Though the above mentioned are the Molucca iſlands; yet thoſe which follow are included under the ſame appellation as they produce the ſame kinds of ſpices.

Amboyna is ſituate in three degrees eight minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and twenty-ſeven degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, lies above ſeventy miles to the northward of Banda, and is about ſeventy-two miles in circumference. It contains at preſent above fifty proteſtant churches; and many of the natives, who have been ſent over to Holland for education, officiate as clergymen and miſſionaries, by which means proſelytes are exceedingly numerous. The ſoil is very fertile, producing great quantities of nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, potatoes, millet, tobacco, ſugar, bamboos, &c. but the air is unwholſome; there is a good bay, which penetrates very far into the land, and by that means forms a commodious harbour. The people extract a ſpirituous liquor and a kind of green oil from green cloves, which are both good in paralytic caſes. The men wear only a piece of cloth about their waiſts, and are very proud of having large whiſkers: they purchaſe their wives, but in caſe of barrenneſs divorce them. The women are both of a looſe and malicious diſpoſition. On account of the earthquakes, the houſes are built very low. The ſtrong and important fortreſs, called Fort Victory, is the ſtaple of the Dutch Eaſt India company in theſe parts. It is defended by four bulwarks, a broad ditch, and a garriſon of eight hundred men.

The Engliſh had formerly factories here as well as the Dutch; but in 1623 the latter maſſacreed the former, and uſurped the dominion of the Spice Iſlands, which had been ceded to the Engliſh by the natives themſelves. In putting the Engliſh and ſome Japaneſe to death, they exerciſed the moſt horrid cruelties, in order to extort confeſſions concerning a pretended plot, which they accuſed them of having formed; and to the ſhame of king James I. and king Charles I. no ſatisfaction was obtained for the villainous barbarity. Oliver Cromwell was not, however, ſo eaſy about the matter, for he frightened the Dutch into the payment of three hundred thouſand pounds as ſome kind of retribution.

There are ſeveral populous villages in the iſland, in the churches and chapels of which divine ſervice is performed both in the Dutch and Malayan tongues; it contains likewiſe many mountains with ſprings of water on their ſummits.

Bouro is about ſeventy-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth: it is ſituated in two degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and twenty-five degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude. The Dutch have here a ſtrong fort, though the iſland is perfectly ſecure, from the ſingularity of its coaſt, which riſes in a high ridge, and encompaſſes the whole as with a wall. It contains ſome prodigious high mountains, but is nevertheleſs very fertiles, producing cloves, nutmegs, cocoa-trees, bananas, piany, green ebony, beans, peas, potatoes, tobacco, Indian-wheat, lime-trees, herbs, flowers, &c. Among the beaſts, are the civet-cat, and a ſingular kind of roe-buck, whoſe fleſh is very delicate. The natives are black, and go intirely naked till they are twelve years of age; at which period they tie a piece of cloth round their waiſts, and never wear any other garment. They are Mahometans and Pagans, but upon the whole have very little ſenſe of religion. When a relation dies, they appear ſad till the corpſe is in the ground, and then they make merry to an exceſs; but do not forget to provide a kind of ſepulchre or ſtone and clay to cover the grave of the defunct. The next day after the women are delivered of children in this iſland, they go about their ordinary work; while the men indulge themſelves in bed, and pretend to be vaſtly ill. Inſtead of a cradle, they put their infants in a kind of network hammock, which they hang upon a peg whenever they are too buſy to dandle it in their arms.

Ceram is a woody and mountainous iſland: it lies in two degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and in one hundred and thirty-ſeven eaſt longitude, and produces cloves and nutmegs. The Dutch factory called Ambay, is defended by a ſtrong fort and good garriſon; the inhabitants, who are Pagans and Mahometans, have a prince of their own, who reſides at Cambello; notwithſtanding which, they own the king of Ternate as their ſovereign.

Gilolo is one hundred and ninety miles long, and one hundred and ten broad: it extends from one degree ſouth to two degrees north latitude, and from one hundred and twenty-five to one hundred and twenty-eight eaſt longitude; the air is unhealthy, and the ſoil produces rice and ſago, but no ſpices. The inhabitants have an independant ſovereign of their own: they are tall and ſtrong, but ſavage and cruel.

Bouton is ſituated between four and five degrees ſouth latitude, and in one hundred and twenty-one degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitute. It is ſeventy miles in length, thirty in breadth, has a good harbour, and contains a large town with tolerable houſes, built in the manner of thoſe of Mindano: this town is incloſed by a ſtone wall, and ſurrounded by groves of cocoa-trees. The natives are governed by a prince of their own, profeſs the Mahometan religion, and ſpeak the Malayan language.

SECT. VIII.

Treats of Celebes, or the iſland of Macaſſar.

TO the ſouthward of the Philippines lies the iſland of Celebes, or Macaſſar, extending from one degree thirty minutes north latitude, to five degrees thirty minutes ſouth; having the great iſland of Borneo on the weſt, and the Molucca's on the eaſt. The length of it from the ſouth weſt point to the north eaſt is about five hundred miles, and in the broadeſt part of it, it is near two hundred miles over. The ſouth part of the iſland is divided by a bay ſeven or eight leagues wide, which runs forty or fifty leagues up into the country, and on the eaſt ſide of the iſland are ſeveral bays and harbours, and abundance of ſmall iſlands and ſhoals: towards the north there is ſome high land: but on the eaſt the country is low and flat, and watered with many little rivulets.

This iſland is divided into ſix petty kingdoms or provinces, the principal whereof are Celebes, on the north weſt, lying under the equinoctial; and Macaſſar, which takes in all the ſouth part of the iſland: the reſt of the provinces were uſually under the dominion of one of theſe; whereupon the iſland ſometimes receives its name from one, and ſometimes from the other.

The air is hot and moiſt, the whole country lying under or very near the line, ſubject to great rains. It is moſt healthful during the northern monſoons: if they fail of blowing at their accuſtomed time, the iſland grows ſickly, and great numbers of people are ſwept away.

They have mines of copper, tin and gold, but we do not find they are much wrought; the gold they have is found chiefly in the ſands of their rivers, and at the bottom of hills, waſhed down by torrents.

In their woods they have ebony, calambac and ſanders, and ſeveral ſorts of wood proper for dying; and no place, it is ſaid, affords larger bamboos, ſome of them being four or five fathoms long, and above two foot diameter, which they make uſe of in building their houſes and boats.

Their fruits and flowers are much the ſame with thoſe in the Philippines, and therefore we ſhall not tire the reader with a repetition of them, only mention ſome of the principal. They have pepper and ſugar of their own growth, as well as betel and arek, in great plenty; but no nutmegs, mace or cloves; however, of theſe they uſed formerly to import ſuch quantities from the Spice iſlands that they had ſufficient for their own uſe, and ſold great quantities to foreigners. Their rice is ſaid to be better than in other parts of India, it not being overflowed annually as in other countries, but watered from time to time by the huſbandmen as occaſion requires; and from the goodneſs of their rice, the natives are of a ſtronger conſtitution than thoſe of Siam or other parts of India.

Their fruits are alſo held to be of a more delicious taſte than the fruits of other countries which are expoſed to floods: the plains here are covered with the cotton ſhrub which bears a red flower, and when the flower falls, it leaves a head about as big as a walnut, from whence the cotton is drawn; and that which comes from Macaſſar is accounted the fineſt in India.

Of all their plants, opium is what they moſt admire; it is a ſhrub which grows at the bottom of mountains, or in ſtony ground: the branches afford a liquor which is drawn out much after the ſame manner as palm wine; and being ſtopped up cloſe in a pot, comes to a conſiſtency, when they make it up in little pills: they often diſſolve one of theſe pills in water and ſprinkle their tobacco with it; and thoſe who are uſed to take it can never leave it off: they are lulled into a pleaſing dream, and intoxicated as with ſtrong liquor; but it inſenſibly preys upon their ſpirits and ſhortens their lives: they will take the quantity of two pins heads in a pipe of tobacco, when they enter into a battle, and become almoſt inſenſible of wounds or danger till the effect of it is worn off.

The natives of this iſland are famous for the poiſons they compound of the venomous drugs and herbs their country produces; of which, it is ſaid, the very touch or ſmell occaſions preſent death: their young gentlemen are inſtructed how to blow their little poiſoned darts through a tube or hollow cane, about ſix feet in length; with theſe they engage their enemies; and if they make the leaſt wound with theſe darts, it is ſaid to be mortal. Though theſe weapons would not be much dreaded among people that are well cloathed, yet as the natives engage naked, their ſkins are eaſily penetrated, and the poiſon operates ſo ſpeedily, that it is not eaſy to cure them: they will ſtrike a man with theſe darts at near an hundred yards diſtance

Macaſſar, the chief city here, is ſituated on the banks of the river of the ſame name, near the ſouth-weſt corner of the iſland. Here the Dutch have a very ſtrong fort mounted with a great number of cannon; and the garriſon conſiſts of eight hundred men.

The ſtreets of the town are wide and neat, but not paved, and trees are planted on each ſide of them. The palaces, moſque, and great houſes are of ſtone, but the houſes of the meaner ſort of wood of various colours, which make them look very beautiful, but are built on pillars like thoſe of Siam, and the roofs like theirs alſo are covered with palm or cocoa leaves.

There are ſhops along the ſtreets, and large market places, where a market is held twice in twenty-four hours, viz. in the morning before ſun-riſe, and an hour before ſun-ſet, where only women are ſeen; a man would be laughed at to be found amongſt them: from all the villages you ſee the young wenches crowding to market with fleſh, fiſh, rice and fowls; they abſtain only from pork, which their religion forbids.

Upon a computation of the number of inhabitants in this city and the neighbouring villages, ſome years ago, they amounted to one hundred and ſixty thouſand men able to bear arms; but now are not half that number, many of them having forſaken their country ſince the Dutch deprived them of their trade. The reſt of the towns and villages were once equally populous, but are now many of them deſerted.

The people of Macaſſar have excellent memories, and are quick of apprehenſion; they will imitate any thing they ſee, and would probably become good proficients in all arts and ſciences, if they did not want good maſters to improve their talents.

They have alſo ſtrong robuſt bodies, are extremely induſtrious, and as ready to undergo fatigues as any people whatever: nor are any people more addicted to arms and hardy enterpriſes, inſomuch that they may be looked upon as almoſt the only ſoldiers on the other ſide the bay of Bengal; and accordingly are hired into the ſervice of other princes and ſtates on that ſide, as the Swiſs are in this part of the world: even the Europeans frequently employ them in their ſervice, but have ſometimes ſuffered by truſting them too far; or rather, our people being too apt to uſe them like ſlaves, as they do the poor Portugueſe and Muſtees in their ſervice; this is a treatment which the Macaſſarians will not bear, and never fail to revenge whenever it is attempted by our European governors.

The people of Macaſſar are of a moderate ſtature, their complexions ſwarthy, their cheek-bones ſtand high, and their noſes are generally flat; the laſt is eſteemed a beauty, and almoſt as much pains taken to make them ſo in their infancy, as to make the Chineſe ladies have little feet.

They have ſhining black hair, which is tied up and covered with a turbant, or cloth wound about their heads when they are dreſſed, but at other times they wear a kind of hat or cap with little brims.

They continually rub and ſupple the limbs of their infants with oil, to render them nimble and active; and this is thought to be one reaſon there is hardly ever ſeen a lame or crooked perſon among them.

Their male children of the better ſort, it is ſaid, are always taken from their mothers at ſix or ſeven years of age, and committed to the care of ſome remote relation, that they may not be too much indulged and effeminated by the careſſes of the mother; they are ſent to ſchool to their prieſts, who teach them to write and read and caſt accompts, and the precepts of the koran: their characters very much reſemble the Arabic, which is not ſtrange, ſince their anceſtors, many of them, were Arabians.

Beſides their books, every child is bred up to ſome handicraft trade; they are alſo taught ſeveral ſports and martial exerciſes, if they are of quality; but the meaner ſort are employed in huſbandry, fiſhing, and ordinary trades, as in other places.

This people ſeem to be inſpired with juſt notions of honour and friendſhip, and there are inſtances of many of them who have expoſed their lives even in defence of foreigners and Chriſtians; and of others who have generouſly relieved and maintained people in diſtreſs, and even ſuffered them to ſhare their eſtates. They retained that love of liberty, that they were the laſt of the Indian nations that were enſlaved by the Dutch, which did not happen neither till after a long and very expenſive war, wherein almoſt the whole force of the Hollanders in India was employed. The people in general are very much ſubject to paſſion; and they will condemn their own raſhneſs if they are in the wrong.

The

The women are remarkable chaſte and reſerved, at leaſt they cannot help appearing ſo; for the leaſt ſmile or glance on any but their huſbands, is held a ſufficient reaſon for a divorce; nor dare they admit of a viſit even from a brother, but in the preſence of the huſband; and the law indemnifies him for killing any man he ſhall find alone with his wife, or on whom ſhe has conferred any mark of her favour. But the inhabitants of this country are in general ſo little addicted to infamous practices, or litigious diſputes, that they have neither attornies nor bailiffs among them. If any differences ariſe, the parties apply perſonally to the judge, who determines the matter with expedition and equity. In ſome criminal caſes, ſuch as murder, robbery, &c. he has a right to execute juſtice himſelf, by deſtroying the offender.

On the other hand, the man keeps as many wives and concubines as he pleaſes, and nothing can be more ignominious than the want of children, and the having but one wife: the love of women, and the deſire of children is univerſal: and according to the number of women and children the man poſſeſſes his happineſs is rated.

To proceed; though the women of faſhion generally keep cloſe, yet upon certain feſtivals they are ſuffered to come abroad and ſpend their time in public company, in dancing and other diverſions uſed in the country; but the men do not mix with them as in this part of the world, only they have the happineſs to ſee and be ſeen, which makes them wait for this happy time with impatience.

Their princes and great men wear a garment made of ſcarlet cloth or brocaded ſilk, with large buttons of gold, they have likewiſe a very handſome embroidered ſaſh made of ſilk, in which their dagger and purſe are placed, with their knife, crice, and other little trinkets. People of figure dye the nail of the little finger of the left-hand red, and let it grow as long as the finger. The women wear a muſlin ſhift, or rather waiſtcoat, cloſe to their bodies, and a pair of breeches, which reaches down to the middle of the leg, made of ſilk or cotton, and have no other head dreſs than their hair tied up in a roll, with ſome curls hanging down their neck: they throw a looſe piece of linen or muſlin over all when they go abroad; nor have they any ornaments but a gold chain about their necks.

They are fond of a fine equipage and a great number of ſervants to attend them, and if they have not ſo many of their own as their quality requires, they will not ſtir out, till they have got their uſual number, by hiring or borrowing them. The furniture of their houſes conſiſt chiefly of carpets and cuſhions, and the couches they ſleep on. They ſit croſs-legged on mats and carpets, as moſt Aſiatics do.

This iſland produces moſt animals except ſheep. There are monkeys and baboons in abundance, that will ſet upon travellers; ſome of them are quite black, ſome of a ſtraw colour, and others white, the latter of which are generally as big as maſtiffs, and much more miſchievous than the others. Some have long tails, and walk on all-fours; others are without tails, and walk upright, uſing their fore-feet as hands, and in their actions greatly reſemble the human ſpecies. Their going in large companies ſecures them from the more powerful beaſts of the foreſts; but they are ſometimes conquered by the large ſerpents, which purſue them to the tops of trees, and deſtroy them.

The natives do not ſcruple eating any fleſh but pork, this no Mahometan will touch; but their food is chiefly rice, fiſh, herbs, fruit and roots: fleſh they eat but little of. They have but two meals a day, one in the morning and the other about ſun-ſet; but their chief meal is in the evening; they chew betel and areka, or ſmoke tobacco mixed with opium moſt part of the day. Their liquor is tea, coffee, ſherbet, or chocolate, and they have palm wine, arrac, or ſpirits, which they ſometimes indulge in, though it is prohibited by their religion. They loll upon carpets at their meals, and eat off of diſhes made of China, wood, ſilver or copper, which are ſet on little low lacquered tables; and take up the rice with their hands inſtead of ſpoons, which they ſeem not to know the uſe of.

In the celebration of marriage the huſband receives no other portion with his wife than the preſents ſhe received before marriage. As ſoon as the prieſt has performed the ceremony, the new-married couple are confined in an apartment by themſelves for three ſucceſſive days, having only a ſervant to bring them ſuch neceſſaries as they may have occaſion for, during which time their friends and acquaintances are entertained, and great rejoicings made at the houſe of the bride's father. At the expiration of the three days the parties are ſet at liberty, and receive the congratulations of their friends: after which, the bridegroom conducts his wife home, and both apply themſelves to buſineſs, he to his accuſtomed profeſſion, and ſhe to the duties belonging to houſewifery, and the management of a family. When a man has reaſon to ſuſpect his wife of infidelity, he applies to a prieſt for a divorce; and if the complaint appears juſt, there is no difficulty in obtaining it. In this caſe the ſecular judge pronounces the accuſed party guilty, declares her to be divorced, and ſettles the terms; both parties, after this judgment, have liberty to marry again.

The Macaſſarians had originally ſtrange notions of religion: they believed there were no other gods but the ſun and moon; and to them they ſacrificed in the public ſquares, not having materials which they thought ſufficiently valuable to be employed in erecting temples. According to their creed, the ſun and moon were eternal, as well as the heavens, whoſe empire they divided between them. Theſe abſurdities, however, had not ſo laſting an influence either over the nobles or people, as is found from the religious doctrines of other nations; for the Turks and apoſtles of the koran arriving in the country, the ſovereign and his people embraced Mahometaniſm, and the other parts of the iſland ſoon followed their example.

They are great pretenders to magic; and carry charms about them, ſuppoſing theſe will ſecure them from every danger. When any one is ſo ill as to be given over by the phylician, the prieſts are ſent for, who, attributing the violence of their diſeaſe to the influence of ſome evil ſpirit, firſt pray to them, and then write the names of God and Mahomet on ſmall pieces of paper, which are carefully hung about their necks; and if the patient does not ſoon recover, his death is conſidered as inevitable, and every preparation is made for his expected departure.

Theſe people perform their funeral ceremonies with great decency; to ſecure which, the meaneſt perſon makes proviſion while in health, by aſſigning a certain ſum to defray the neceſſary expences attending it. As ſoon as a perſon is dead, the dead body is waſhed, and, being cloathed in a white robe, is placed in a room hung with white, which is ſcented with the ſtrongeſt perfumes. Here it continues for three days, and on the fourth it is carried on a palanquin to the grave, preceded by the friends and relations, and followed by the prieſts, who have attendants that carry incenſe and perfumes, which are burnt all the way from the houſe to the grave. The body is interred without a coffin, there being only a plank at the bottom of the grave for it to lie on, and another to cover it; and when this laſt is placed, the earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up. If the perſon is of any diſtinguiſhed quality, a handſome tomb is immediately placed over the grave, adorned with flowers, and the relations burn incenſe and other perfumes for forty days ſucceſſively.

This iſland was formerly under a monarchical government; and in order to prevent the crown falling to an infant, the eldeſt brother ſucceeded after the death of the king. All places of truſt in the civil government were diſpoſed of by the prime miniſters; but the officers of the revenue and of the houſhold were appointed by the ſovereign. The king's forces, when out of actual ſervice, were not allowed any pay, but only their cloaths, arms, and ammunition. It is ſaid, that in former wars he has brought twelve thouſand horſe, and eight thouſand foot into the field; but the laſt war with the Dutch proved the total deſtruction of both king and country; ſince which this iſland has been under the government of three different princes, who are conſtantly at variance with each other; which is a favourable circumſtance for the Dutch, who might otherwiſe meet with a powerful oppoſition, and be deprived of thoſe advantages they have ſo long poſſeſſed on this ſide the globe. Theſe princes hold aſſemblies at particular times on affairs that concern the general intereſt; and the reſult of their determinations becomes a law to each ſtate.

When any conteſt ariſes, it is decided by the governor of the Dutch colony, who preſides at the above diet. He keeps a watchful eye over theſe different ſovereigns, and holds them in perfect equality with each other, to prevent any of them from aggrandizing themſelves to the prejudice of the company. The Dutch have diſarmed them all, under pretence of hindering them from injuring each other, but in reality only to keep them in a ſtate of ſubjection.

Jampadan is another port-town about fifteen miles ſouth of Macaſſar river, one of the beſt harbours in India, and the firſt town the Dutch took from the natives; here they ſunk or ſeized all the Portugueſe fleet when they were in full peace with that nation. The reſt of the towns and

villages

villages lying in the flat country near the ſea or the mouths of rivers, are for the moſt part built with wood or cane, and ſtand upon high pillars on account of the annual flood, when they have a communication with one another only by boats.

About the Celebes are ſeveral iſlands that go by the ſame name, the principal of which is ſituated about five leagues from the ſouth-eaſt corner. This iſland is about eighty miles long, and thirty broad: on the eaſt-ſide of it is a large town and harbour called Callacaſſong, the ſtreets of which are ſpacious, and incloſed on each ſide with cocoa-trees. The inhabitants are governed by an abſolute prince, ſpeak the Malayan tongue, and are Mahometans. The ſtraights of Patience are on the other ſide of this iſland; they are ſo called from the great difficulty in paſſing them, which ariſes from the violence of the currents, and the contrariety of winds.

SECT. IX.

Treats of the ſituation, trade, and produce of Borneo, Sumatra, and Java, commonly called the Sunda iſlands; and of the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, &c.

THE moſt conſiderable of the Sunda iſlands, called ſo from the ſtraights near which they lie, are Borneo, Sumatra and Java.

Borneo extends from ſeven degrees thirty minutes north latitude to four degrees ſouth latitude, and from the one hundred and ſeventh to the one hundred and ſeventeenth degree of longitude, being about ſeven hundred miles in length and five hundred in breadth, and is computed to be two thouſand five hundred miles in circumference. The figure of this iſland being almoſt round, it probably contains a greater number of acres than any iſland hitherto diſcovered. To the eaſtward of it lies the iſland of Celebes or Macaſſar, to the ſouth of the iſland of Java, to the weſt the iſland of Sumatra, and to the north-eaſt the Philippine iſlands.

The air of this country is not exceſſive hot, conſidering it is ſituated under the equinoctial, being refreſhed almoſt every day with ſhowers and cool breezes, as all other countries that are under the line; but as thoſe parts of the iſland which border on the ſea-coaſt lie upon a flat for ſeveral hundred miles, and are annually flooded; upon the retiring of the waters the whole ſurface of the ground is covered with mud or ſoft ouze, which the ſun darting its rays perpendicularly upon, raiſes thick noiſome fogs, which are not diſperſed till nine or ten in the morning, and render thoſe parts of the iſland very unwholeſome. The multitude of frogs and inſects that the waters leave behind, and are ſoon killed by the heat of the ſun, cauſe an intolerable ſtench alſo at that time of the year, and corrupt the air: add to this the cold chilling winds and damps which ſucceed the hotteſt days; from all which, we may conclude it muſt be very unhealthful at leaſt to European conſtitutions: and the loſs of our countrymen, who yearly travel thither, ſufficiently convinces us of this truth.

As to their monſoons, or periodical winds, they are weſterly from September to April, or thereabouts; during which time is their wet ſeaſon, when heavy rains continually pour down, intermixed with violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning; and at this time it is very rare to have two hours fair weather together on the ſouth coaſt of the iſland, whither the Europeans principally reſort.

The dry ſeaſon begins uſually in April and continues till September, and in this part of the year too, they ſeldom fail of a ſhower every day when the ſea breeze comes in.

The harbours of greateſt note, and to which the Europeans uſually reſort, are Banjar Maſſeen Succadanea and Borneo, but much more to Banjar Maſſeen than either of the other; the greateſt quantities of pepper growing towards the ſource of that river, which falls into the ſea three degrees eighteen minutes ſouth latitude. The town of Banjar formerly ſtood about twelve miles up the river, and was built partly on wooden pillars, and partly on floats of timber in the river; but there is now no ſign of a town there, the inhabitants being removed to Tatas, about ſix miles higher.

The city of Borneo, formerly the reſidence of the principal ſultan or king of the iſland, lies on the north weſt part of the iſland, in four degrees fifty-five minutes north latitude, and is a very commodious harbour. This city is very large, the ſtreets ſpacious, and the houſes well built; they are in general three ſtories high, covered with flat roofs, and the ſultan's palace is a very elegant and extenſive building. It is the chief ſeat of commerce in the iſland, and the port is continually crowded with ſhips from China, Cambodia, Siam, Malacca, &c. The Engliſh and Portugueſe have ſome trade here, though no ſettled factory. The port of Succadanea lies on the weſt ſide of the iſland, in fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, and was heretofore more reſorted to by the Europeans than any other. Over againſt this, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, ſtands another ſea-port town, called Paſſeir, in fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, but is not a place of any great trade.

One of the moſt conſiderable inland towns is Caytongé, the ſultan whereof is now the moſt potent prince in the iſland: this city lies about one hundred miles up the river Banjar; and about two hundred miles higher ſtands the town of Negaree, the reſidence of another ſultan. The names of the other principal towns are, Tanjongbuoro, Sedang, Tanjongdatoo, Sambas, Landa, Piſagadan, Cotananjang, Sampit, Tanjong, Selatan, Gonwarengen and Pomanoocan.

Their chief rivers are, 1. Banjar. 2. Tatas. 3. Java. 4. Succadanea; and, 5. Borneo.

Banjar is a fine river, riſing in the mountains in the middle of the iſland, and, running ſouth, diſcharges itſelf into a bay on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, being navigable for ſeveral hundred miles: the banks are planted with tall ever-green trees. The river Tatas falls into the mouth of Banjar river, and is frequently called the China river, becauſe the China junks lie in the mouth of it. The rivers Java and Succadanea run from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and fall into the bay of Succadanea in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland.

The river Borneo falls into the bay of Borneo, in the north-weſt part of the iſland. The tides in the river Banjar flow but once in the twenty-four hours, and that in the day-time; they never riſe more than half a foot in the night (unleſs in a very dry ſeaſon) which is occaſioned by the rapid torrents, and the land winds blowing very ſtrong in the night-time. There lie three iſlands within the entrance of the river, the firſt of which is covered with tall trees, that may be ſeen at ſea, and are a good mark for ſailing over the bar. If a ſhip be aground, the ebb is ſo very ſtrong, occaſioned by the land floods, that ſhe will run the hazard of being broke to pieces; and the trees continually driving down the river, render the navigation ſtill more dangerous. The beſt anchoring place is a mile or two within the river; it is beſt to ſail up with the flood, the tide of ebb runs ſo ſtrong. There are a great many fine bays and harbours on the coaſt, but that moſt reſorted to is at the mouth of the river Banjar.

The natives of Borneo conſiſt of two different people, that are of different religions; thoſe upon the ſea coaſt are uſually called Banjareens, from the town of Banjar, to which moſt nations reſort, to trade with them. The Banjareens are of a low ſtature, very ſwarthy, their features bad, reſembling much the negroes of Guinea, though their complexions are not ſo dark; they are well proportioned, their hair is black, and ſhines with the oil with which they perpetually greaſe it. The women are of a low ſtature and ſmall limbs, as the men are, but their features and complexion much better, and they move with a good grace.

The lower claſs of people go almoſt naked; they have only a little bit of a cloth before, and a piece of linen tied about their heads. Their betters, when they are dreſſed on days of ceremony, wear a veſt of red or blue ſilk, and a looſe piece of ſilk or fine linen tied about their loins, and thrown over their left ſhoulder. They wear a pair of drawers, but no ſhirt, and their legs and feet are bare; their hair is bound up in a roll, and a piece of muſlin or callico tied over it; they always carry a crice or dagger in their ſaſh when they go abroad.

The Byaios or mountaineers are much taller and larger bodied men than the Banjareens, and a braver people, which their ſituation and manner of life may account for, being inured to labour, and to follow the chace for their daily food; whereas the Banjareens uſe very little exerciſe, travelling chiefly by water.

The Byaios have ſcarce any cloathing, but, not admiring their tawny ſkins, paint their bodies blue, and, like all other people that live in hot climates, anoint themſelves with oil, which ſmells very ſtrong; and the better ſort, it is ſaid, pull out their fore-teeth, and place artificial ones, made of gold, in their ſtead; but their greateſt ornament conſiſts of a number of tygers teeth, which are ſtrung together, and worn about the neck. Some of them are very fond of having large ears; to obtain which, they

make holes in the ſoft parts of them when young; to theſe holes are faſtened weights about the breadth of a crown piece, which is continually preſſing on the ears, and expand them to ſuch a length, as to cauſe them to reſt upon the ſhoulders,

The Banjareens are an hoſpitable friendly people, where they are not abuſed, or apprehend foreigners have a deſign upon their liberties; they ſeem to be men of good ſenſe, but not being acquainted with the world, are frequently impoſed upon in their traffic with the crafty Chineſe.

The chief part of their food here is rice, as it is in other hot countries, but with it they eat veniſon, fiſh, or fowl, and almoſt all kind of meat, except hogs fleſh; and men of figure are ſerved in gold or ſilver plate; the common people are content with braſs or earthen diſhes, and all ſit croſs-legged upon mats or carpets at their meals, and indeed almoſt all day long, chewing betel and arek, or ſmoaking tobacco, which both ſexes are very fond of when it is mixed with opium. The whole company uſually ſmoke out of one pipe: the maſter of the feaſt having ſmoaked firſt, paſſes it round the company, and they will ſometimes ſit ſmoaking ſo long, that they grow ſtupid. At other times they divert themſelves with comedies, and the Chineſe have taught them to game; their rural ſports are hunting, ſhooting, and fiſhing. They have ſuch plenty of fiſh, that they may take as many as will ſerve them a day at one caſt, from their houſes, which are built upon floats in their rivers.

Their uſual ſalute is the ſalam, lifting up their hands to their heads, and bowing their bodies a little; and before their princes; they throw themſelves proſtrate on the ground: no one preſumes to ſpeak to a great man, till he is firſt ſpoken to, and required to tell his buſineſs: they uſually travel in covered boats upon their rivers; but the great men who live in the inland country ride on elephants or horſes.

Beſides rice, already mentioned, the produce of this country is cocoa-nuts, oranges, citrons, plantains, melons, bananas, pine-apples, mangoes, and all manner of tropical fruits; cotton, canes, rattans, and plenty of very fine timber; gold, precious ſtones, camphire, bezoar, and pepper. There are three ſorts of black pepper; the firſt and beſt is the Molucca, or lout pepper; the ſecond is called Caytonge pepper, and the worſt ſort is the Negaree pepper, of which there is the greateſt plenty. This is ſmall, hollow and light, and commonly full of duſt, and the buyer will be impoſed on if he buys it by meaſure, and does not weigh it. He muſt take care alſo, that the pepper be not mixed with little black ſtones, which are not eaſily ſeen. The white pepper grows on the ſame tree as the black pepper does, and bears twice the price: it is conjectured to be the beſt of the fruit that drops of itſelf, and is gathered up by the poor people in ſmall quantities, before it turns black, and the ſcarcity of it occaſions it to be ſo dear; but we ſeem to want a more ſatisfactory account of this matter.

The animals here are the ſame as on the continent of India, viz. bears, tygers, elephants, buffaloes, deer, &c. but the moſt remarkable animal, and which is almoſt peculiar to this iſland, is that monſtrous monkey called the oran-outang, or man of the woods, near ſix feet high, and walks upon his hinder legs. He has a face like a man, and is not ſo ugly as ſome of the human ſpecies, particularly the Hottentots; he has no tail, or any hair on his body, but where a man has hair. Mr. Beeckman, captain of an Indiaman, purchaſed one of them, who would drink punch, and open his caſe of brandy to get a dram, if he was left alone with it, drink a quantity, and then return the bottle to the caſe. He would lay himſelf down to ſleep as a man does: if the captain appeared angry with him, he would whine and ſigh till he was reconciled. He would wreſtle with the ſeamen, and was ſtronger than any of them, though he was not a year old when he died; for the captain loſt him as ſoon as he came into cold weather, having been bred in the hotteſt climates.

Among their minerals is gold, which the mountaineers get out of the ſands of their rivulets in the dry ſeaſon, and diſpoſe of it to the Banjareens, from whom the Europeans receive it: there are alſo iron mines, and the load-ſtone is found here.

The principal merchandize imported from Borneo by the Europeans is pepper, gold, diamonds, camphire, bezoar, aloes, maſtic and other gums: and the goods proper to be carried thither, beſides bullion and treaſure, are ſmall cannon from one hundred to two hundred weight, lead, callimancoes, cutlery wares, iron bars, ſmall ſteel bars, hangers, the ſmalleſt ſort of ſpike nails, twenty-penny nails, graplings of forty pound weight, red leather boots, ſpectacles, clock-work, ſmall arms with braſs mountings, horſe piſtols, blunderbuſſes, gunpowder and looking-glaſſes. The purchaſing gold is a profitable article; and diamonds may be had reaſonably, though they are generally ſmall ones; they uſually purchaſe gold with dollars, giving a certain number of ſilver dollars for the weight of one dollar in gold.

Their current money is dollars, half and quarter dollars; and for ſmall change they have a ſort of money made of lead in the form of rings, which are ſtrung on a kind of dry leaf.

The language of the inhabitants on the coaſt is the Malayan; but the iſlanders have a language peculiar to themſelves, and both retain the ſuperſtitious cuſtoms of the Chineſe.

They are intirely ignorant of aſtronomy; and when an eclipſe happens, they think the world is going to be deſtroyed. Arithmetic they know but little of; and their only method of calculating, is, by parallel lines and moveable buttons on a board. They have likewiſe little knowledge of phyſic; and the letting of blood, how deſperate ſoever the caſe of the patient may be, is to them a circumſtance of a very alarming nature, as they ſuppoſe, by the operation, we let out our very ſouls and lives. It is their opinion, that moſt of their diſtempers are cauſed through the malice of ſome evil demon; and when a perſon is ſick, inſtead of applying to medicine, they make an entertainment of various kinds of proviſions, which they hold under ſome conſpicuous tree in a field; theſe proviſions, which conſiſt of rice, fowl, fiſh, &c. they offer for the relief of the perſon afflicted; and if he recover, they repeat the offering, by way of returning thanks for the bleſſing received; but if the patient dies, they expreſs their reſentment againſt the ſpirit by whom he is ſuppoſed to have been afflicted.

Pagans and Mahometans both allow a plurality of wives and concubines; and the marriage ceremonies of both are the ſame as in other Mahometan countries. The girls are generally married at the age of ten, and leave childbearing before they are twenty-five. The women are very conſtant after marriage; but are apt to beſtow favours with great freedom when ſingle; and, however indiſcreet they may have been in this point, they are not conſidered the worſe for it by their huſbands, nor dare any one reproach them for what they have committed previous to their marriage. They in general live to an advanced age, which is attributed to their frequent uſe of the water; for both men and women bathe in the rivers once in the day; and from this practice they are very expert ſwimmers.

The Banjareens, in burying their dead, always place the head to the north, and they throw into the grave ſeveral kinds of proviſions, from an abſurd and ſuperſtitious notion that theſe may be uſeful to them in the other world. They fix the place of interment out of the reach of the floods; and the mourners, as in Japan and China, are dreſſed in white, and carry lighted torches in their hands.

There are ſeveral petty kingdoms in the inland part of this country, each of which is governed by a rajah, or king. All the rajahs were formerly ſubject to the rajah of Borneo, who was eſteemed the ſupreme king over the whole iſland; but his authority has been of late years greatly diminiſhed; and there are other kings equal, if not more powerful than himſelf; particularly the king of Caytonge. The town where this prince reſides is ſituated about eighty miles up the Banjar river. His palace is a very elegant building erected on pillars, and is open on all ſides. Before the palace is a large building, conſiſting only of one room, which is ſet apart for holding councils, and entertaining foreigners. In the centre of the room is the throne covered with a rich canopy of gold and ſilver brocade. About the palace are planted ſeveral cannon, which are ſo old, and mounted on ſuch wretched carriages, that they are neither ornamental nor uſeful. This prince is eſteemed the greateſt, on account of the cuſtoms he receives at the port of Banjar Maſſeen, which are eſtimated at eight thouſand pieces of eight per annum.

The king or ſultan of Negaree is the moſt conſiderable prince, next to the above: his palace is ſituated at a place called Metapoora, about ten miles from Caytonge. There is a handſome armoury before the gates of his palace, which contains a great number of fire-arms, and ſeveral cannon. He is always on good terms with his neighbour the prince of Caytonge, and the reſt are ſubordinate to theſe two princes; great homage is paid them by the natives, and it is difficult for a ſtranger to get acceſs to them:

the only means to effect this, is, by complimenting them with ſome valuable preſent, for avarice is their darling paſſion; and the ſtranger will be treated with reſpect in proportion to the preſent he makes.

Sumatra is one of the Sunda iſlands, ſituate in the Indian ocean, between ninety-three and one hundred and four degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between five degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and five degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, the equinoctial line running croſs the middle of it; having Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, Java on the ſouth-eaſt, and the Indian ocean on the weſt, and is eight hundred miles long, and about one hundred and fifty broad. The air is generally unhealthful near the coaſt, the country being very hot, and very moiſt, and changing ſuddenly from ſultry heat in the day-time, to cold chilling winds in the night.

It is the firſt of the remarkable iſlands that form the great Archipelago of the eaſt, the entrance of which is, as it were, blocked up by this iſland and Java, which form a barrier ſeparating the Indian from the Chineſe ocean; except that in the center between the two iſlands there is an opening, which appears as if purpoſely deſigned to admit a free paſſage for the advantages of commerce. This opening is called the ſtraight of Sunda, the ſouth part of which is the north of Java, and called Java Head; and the north point is the ſouth of Sumatra, called Flat Point. Theſe two are about ſix leagues aſunder, between which ſhips paſs from Europe directly to Batavia or China, without touching at the Indies: they ſtretch away eaſt from the Cape of Good Hope, and make no land till having traverſed the whole Indian ſea they arrive at Java Head.

There are no phyſicians in Sumatra, but they rely upon the ſkill and experience of ſome good old women, who are acquainted with the nature of their ſimples. The flux is the diſtemper that uſually carries off foreigners, againſt which the fruit guava and the pomegranate are certain remedies, if taken before the diſtemper becomes violent; but moſt other fruits promote the diſeaſe. Bathing in cold water is eſteemed another remedy for the flux. Their water, unboiled, as well as ſherbet, is very unwholſome: full meals of fleſh ought to be avoided, occaſioning a diſtemper called the Mort Duchin, which is attended with a violent vomiting and purging, and uſually carries off the patient in twenty-four hours. Theſe gentlemen that drink ſtrong liquors to exceſs, uſually avoid the flux, but are carried off by fevers. The cholic and ſmall-pox are often fatal to the natives, as well as foreigners; but they are ſeldom troubled with dropſies, gout, or ſtone.

People that are careful of their health, eat and drink moderately, and boil their water; nor do they avoid wine or arrack punch altogether, for theſe drank moderately in this moiſt air preſerve, rather than deſtroy health.

There is a chain of mountains which runs the whole length of the iſland, from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and here the air is ſomething better than on the coaſt; but the European factories are generally ſituated at the mouths of rivers near the ſea, for conveniency of trade; and here three years may be reckoned a long life, the ſalt ſtinking ouſe ſends up ſuch unwholſome vapours as perfectly poiſon foreigners that are ſent thither.

The monſoons, or periodical winds, ſhift here at the equinoxes, as they do in other parts of the Indian ſeas, blowing ſix months in one direction, and ſix months in the oppoſite direction; and near the coaſt there are other periodical winds, which blow the greateſt part of the day from the ſea, and in the night time and part of the morning from the land; but theſe ſcarce extend ſeven miles from the coaſt.

There is alſo a mountain called Single-demond, about forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Bencoolen, which is a mile in height perpendicular; the rocks near the weſt coaſt are generally barren, producing little beſides ſhrubs; but towards the bottom of them grows ſome good timber. The country has a great many ſmall rivers, but none of them navigable much above their mouths, falling from high mountains, and diſcharging themſelves precipitately into the ſea, either on the eaſt or weſt, after a very ſhort courſe; the rains continuing here, as they do in moſt places near the equinoctial, ſix months and upwards, every year, and no where with more violence. The waters of the river Indapoora, during rains, look red for two miles beyond the Mouth out at ſea, occaſioned, it is ſaid, by the great number of oaks that grow in their boggy grounds, and are almoſt covered when the floods are higheſt. The waters of all their rivers, which overflow the low countries, are very unwholeſome, foul, and not fit to be drank till they are ſettled, nor indeed till they have been boiled, and tea or ſome other wholeſome herbs infuſed into them; and this, no doubt, is one cauſe of the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, it being a very juſt obſervation, that wherever the water is bad, the air is ſo too.

The iſland of Sumatra was antiently, and is at preſent, divided into a great many kingdoms and ſtates, of which Achen is the moſt conſiderable, whoſe king is the moſt powerful monarch in the iſland, the north part of it being in a manner ſubject to him. Beſides this prince, there are ſeveral orancayas, or great lords, in this kingdom, who exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective territories; but they all acknowledge the king of Achen their ſuperior, and accept of the great officers in his court.

In former times the kings have exerciſed ſuch deſpotic power as to diſplace ſome of theſe, and depoſe others; and, on the other hand, inſtances have been known where theſe princes have depoſed the king, and placed another on the throne. There have been frequent ſtruggles between the king of Achen and theſe princes for ſovereign power; and if the former has in ſome reigns been abſolute, he has in others had a very limited authority.

The king has the power of diſpoſing of the crown, during his life, to ſuch of his children as he thinks proper, whether born of a wife or a concubine: but if the king does not diſpoſe of it in his life-time, there are ſometimes ſeveral competitors for it; and he who is moſt favoured by the orancayas, or vaſſal princes, uſually carries his point; ſo that the crown is elective in theſe caſes.

Achen, the metropolis of the kingdom of the ſame name, is ſituated at the north-weſt end of Sumatra, in ninety-three degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and in five degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and is much the moſt conſiderable port in the iſland. It ſtands in a plain ſurrounded with woods and marches, about five miles diſtant from the ſea, near a pleaſant rivulet: it is an open town, without wall or moat, and the king's palace ſtands in the middle of it, being of an oval figure, about half a league in circumference, ſurrounded by a moat twenty-five feet broad, and as many deep: and about the palace there are caſt up great banks of earth inſtead of a wall, well planted with reeds and canes, that grow to a prodigious height and thickneſs, inſomuch that they cover the palace, and render it almoſt inacceſſible: theſe reeds alſo are continually green, and not eaſily ſet on fire. There is no ditch or draw-bridge before the gates, but on each ſide a wall of ſtone about ten feet high that ſupports a terrace, on which ſome guns are planted: and a ſmall ſtream runs through the middle of the palace, which is lined with ſtone, and has ſteps down to the bottom of it, for the conveniency of bathing.

There are four gates, and as many courts, to be paſſed before we come to the royal apartments; and in ſome of theſe outward courts are the king's magazines, and the ſtandings of his elephants: as for the inward courts of the palace, foreigners, or even the natives, hardly ever approach them; and therefore a juſt deſcription of theſe is not to be expected. But notwithſtanding the fortifications of this palace or caſtle, as it is ſometimes called, are very mean and inconſiderable, yet the avenues to it are naturally well defended: for the country round about Achen is full of rivulets, marſhes, and thick woods of cane or bamboo, which are almoſt impenetrable, and very hard to cut: there are ſeveral little forts erected alſo at proper diſtances in the marſhes, where guards are planted to prevent any ſurprize. In the king's magazines, ſome authors tell us, are found a numerous artillery, and a good quantity of fire-arms, and that his guards conſiſt of many thouſand men; but that his greateſt ſtrength is in his elephants, who are trained up to trample upon fire, and ſtand unmoved at the report of a cannon; but this we ſhall examine more particularly when we come to ſpeak of the maintenance of the prince, both with reſpect to domeſtic and military ſupplies, for later travellers do not ſeem to admire his power or grandeur.

The city of Achen conſiſts of ſeven or eight thouſand houſes, which take up the more ground becauſe they are not contiguous, every perſon ſurrounding his dwelling with a palliſado pale that ſtands ſome yards diſtant from it; except in two or three of the principal ſtreets where the markets are kept, and where foreigners inhabit, who chuſe to live near one another, to defend themſelves from thieves, robberies being very common here. The harbour, which is ſo large as to be capable of containing any number of the largeſt ſhips, is commanded by a ſpacious fortreſs encompaſſed with a ditch well fortified according to the Italian manner, and mounted with cannon. The

Engliſh,

Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, Portugueſe, Guzarats, and Chineſe, are the chief traders in this city.

The king of Achen has a great number of horſes, which, as well as the elephants, have rich and magnificent trappings. He is at no expence in times of war, for all his ſubjects are obliged to march at their own expence, and carry with them proviſions for three months: he only furniſhes them with arms, powder, lead, and rice, which is very trifling. In peace, it does not coſt him any thing, even for the maintenance of his family, for his ſubjects ſupply him with all kinds of proviſions: they alſo provide him and his concubines with cloaths. He is heir to all his ſubjects who die without iſſue male, and to all foreigners who die within his territories; and ſucceeds to the eſtates of all thoſe who are put to death. From all which it appears, that the revenue of this prince, though not paid in money, is very conſiderable.

The inhabitants of Achen are more vicious than in other places on the coaſt: they are proud, envious, and treacherous; deſpiſe their neighbours, and yet pretend to have more humanity than the inhabitants of any other nation. Some of them are good mechanics, eſpecially in the building of gallies: and they are very dextrous in doing all kinds of ſmiths work: they alſo work well in wood and copper, and ſome of them are ſkilled in making artillery. They live very abſtemiouſly, their chief food being rice, to which ſome of the better ſort add a ſmall quantity of fiſh, and their uſual drink is water. They are very fond of tobacco, though they have but little of their own raiſing; and, for want of pipes, they ſmoke in a bunco, in the ſame manner as the inhabitants on the coaſt of Coromandel. The bunco is the leaf of a tree rolled up with a little tobacco in it, which they light at one end, and draw the ſmoke through the other till it is nearly burnt to the lips. Theſe rolls are very curiouſly formed, and ſold in the public markets in great quantities.

They hold a court of juſtice five times a week, for determining all matters of controverſy, in which one of the chief orankayas preſides as judge. There is alſo a criminal court, where cognizance is taken of all quarrels, robberies, murders, &c. committed in the city: and there is a third court, in which the cadi, or chief prieſt, preſides, who judges concerning all infringements of an eccleſiaſtical nature. Beſides theſe, there is a court for determining diſputes between merchants, whether foreigners or natives. An exact account is kept here of all the cuſtoms, gifts, fines, and commodities belonging to the king, with a liſt of all the perſons who buy of his majeſty, pay the duty, or make preſents to him.

Offenders are brought to a ſpeedy trial, and the puniſhment is inflicted immediately after their conviction. If the offence be of a trifling nature, the puniſhment for the firſt time is the loſs only of a hand or foot, and the ſame for the ſecond; but for the third, or if they rob to a conſiderable amount, they are impaled alive. When the hand or foot is to be cut off, the limb is laid on the edge of a broad hatchet, and the executioner ſtrikes it with a large mallet till the amputation is perfected; and then they put the ſtump into a hollow bamboo ſtuffed with rags or moſs, to prevent the criminal from dying by loſs of blood. After he has thus ſuffered whether by the king's command, or by the ſentence of the judge, all the ignominy of his crime is wiped off; and if any one upbraids him with it, he may kill him with impunity.

Murder and adultery are puniſhed with death; and, in this caſe, the criminal has many executioners, he being placed amidſt a number of people, who ſtab him with their daggers; but female offenders are put to death by ſtrangling. The king is frequently a ſpectator of theſe puniſhments, and ſometimes even acts as executioner: and though ſuch a ſpectacle muſt to a feeling mind, appear extremely ſhocking, yet ſo little does he ſeem affected by it, that inſtances have been known of his executing a criminal, and immediately after entertaining himſelf with cock-fighting; a diverſion which in this country is more univerſally eſteemed than any other.

Having given the ſituation of the moſt conſiderable places on the eaſt ſide of Sumatra, we proceed through the ſtraights of Sunda to the weſt coaſt: and advancing from thence towards the north, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement we meet with is Sillabar, which lies in a bay at the mouth of a large river of the ſame name, in four degrees of ſouth latitude. Here the Engliſh have a reſidence, or a ſmall detachment from Marlborough fort, (erected ſoon after the deſtruction of York fort at Bencoolen) to receive the pepper the natives bring hither.

About ten miles to the northward of Sillabar ſtands the town of Bencoolen, where was the principal ſettlement the Engliſh had upon the iſland Sumatra, from the year 1685 to the year 1719, when there happened a general inſurrection of the natives, who cut off part of the garriſon: the reſt eſcaping in their boats to ſea.

Bencoolen is known at ſea by a high ſlender mountain that riſes twenty miles beyond it in the country, called the Sugar-loaf. Before the town of Bencoolen there lies an iſland, within which the ſhipping uſually ride; and the point of Sillabar extending two or three leagues to the ſouthward of it, makes a large bay: beſides theſe marks the old Engliſh fort, which fronted towards the ſea, might have been diſcerned when a ſhip came within ſeven or eight miles of the place. The town is almoſt two miles in compaſs, and was inhabited chiefly by the natives, who built their houſes upon bamboo pillars, as in other parts of the iſland. The Portugueſe, Chineſe, and Engliſh had each a ſeparate quarter. The Chineſe people built all upon a floor, after the cuſtom of their country. The Engliſh houſes were after their own model: but they found themſelves under a neceſſity of building with timber, (though there was no want of brick or ſtone), upon account of the frequent earthquakes.

The adjacent country is mountainous and woody, and in ſome parts are volcanoes that frequently vomit fire. The air is very unwholſome, and the mountains are generally covered with thick clouds that burſt in ſtorms of thunder, rain, &c. The ſoil is a fertile clay, and the chief produce is graſs; but near the ſea it is all a moraſs. There is a ſmall river on the north-weſt ſide of the town, by which the pepper is brought here from the inland part of the country; but there is a great inconvenience in ſhipping it, on account of a dangerous bar at the mouth of the river. The road is alſo dangerous for ſhips, as it has no other defence from the violence of the ſea during the ſouth-weſt monſoons, than a ſmall place called Rat Iſland, which, with the land-point of Sillabar, makes the haven.

The pepper brought here comes from the territories of the two neighbouring rajahs, one of whom reſides at Sindle-'demond, at the bottom of a bay ten or twelve miles to the north; and the other of Baſar, ten miles to the eaſt. There two rajahs have houſes in the town, whither they come when they have any buſineſs to tranſact with the Engliſh, who pay them half a dollar duty for every five hundred and ſixty pounds weight of pepper; and they alſo pay to the owner for every ſuch quantity ten Spaniſh dollars, weighing each ſeventeen penny weights and twelve grains.

The Engliſh have alſo other ſettlements to the north-weſt of the above, particularly at Cattoun, ſituated about forty miles from Bencoolen; Ippo, about thirty miles farther to the north; Bantall, which is upward of one hundred miles north of Boncoolen; and Mocho, ſituated a little to the ſouth of Indrapour.

There are ſeveral good Dutch ſettlements on this iſland, the moſt conſiderable of which is Pullambam, or Pullamban, ſituated about one hundred and twenty miles north-eaſt of Bencoolen. The chief article of trade here is paper, of which the Dutch have prodigious quantities, being under contract with the king of Pullamban, and other Indian princes, to take it at a certain price, one half of which they pay in money, and the other in cloth. All other nations are prohibited from trading except the Chineſe, by means of whom the Engliſh get a ſhare of their pepper, as our ſhips paſs through the ſtraights of Banca. The Dutch formerly carried on a great trade here in opium; but as that was found to impoveriſh the country, by drawing away its ready caſh, the king, in 1708, ordered only three cheſts of about one hundred and ſixty pounds each, to be imported: and that if any ſhould be detected in acting contrary to this order, they ſhould forfeit not only their goods, but their lives alſo.

Pullambam is a very large town, and pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of a fine river, which divides itſelf into ſeveral branches that run by four channels into the ſea. It continued to be a conſiderable city till the year 1659, when it was deſtroyed by the Dutch, in revenge for ſome injuries they pretended to have received from the natives. About this time the Dutch reduced the chief of the kingdoms in the ſouth part of this iſland; but ſeveral of them were afterwards recovered by the natives, who have ever ſince remained independent. The Dutch have ſeveral other factories here; namely,

1. Bancalis, which is ſituated nearly oppoſite to Malacca, on the banks of a ſpacious river of its own name. The chief articles ſold by the company here are, cloth and opium; in return for which, they receive gold-duſt. The

country is very fertile, and in the woods and mountains are prodigious numbers of wild hogs, whose flesh is exceeding sweet and fat. They have likewise some good poultry, and there are various kinds of fish in the river.

2. Siack, situate on the river Andraghima: this is a very inconsiderable place, on account of the unwholesomeness of the air, which is attributed to the great number of shads caught in the river at a particular season of the year, for the sake of the roes; and the rest of the fish being thrown in heaps, corrupt, and exhale pestilential vapours. These roes the natives pickle, and then dry in smoke; after which they put them in large leaves of trees, and then send them to different countries between Achen and Siam. They call it Turbow, and reckon it a great delicacy.

3. Pedang; which is situated about sixty miles south of the equator, and has a fine river, where large ships may come up, and ride in safety; but it is the most insignificant settlement the Dutch have on this island: it produces but a small quantity of pepper; and the trade in gold is so trifling, as hardly to defray the natural expences attending it.

Many other places on this island are independent of the English and Dutch; the chief of which are the following.

Priaman, it lies nearly opposite to Pedang, about one hundred miles north-west of Indrapour. It is very populous, and plentifully supplied with most kinds of provisions. The natives carry on a considerable trade with the inhabitants of Manimcabo. The Dutch had a factory here for many years, but were at length driven from it by the king of Achen.

Another very considerable place is Ticow, which is situated about seven leagues from Dassaman, in twenty degrees south latitude. The inland part of the country is very high; but that next the sea is low, covered with woods, and watered with several small rivers, which render it marshy. There are, however, many pleasant meadows well stocked with buffaloes and other horned cattle, which are purchased at a very easy price. It likewise affords plenty of rice, poultry, and several sorts of fruits, as durians, ananas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, melons, mangoes, cucumbers, and potatoes: but its most valuable produce is pepper, with which it abounds, and is in quality esteemed superior to that of any other place on the island. The pepper chiefly grows at the bottom of the mountains; for which reason those parts are exceedingly populous. The city stands about two miles from the sea, opposite to a small island. It is but a little mean place, for the city and suburbs do not contain eight hundred houses, which are chiefly built with reeds, and are neither strong nor commodious. The king is subject to the kings of Achen, who appoints a new governor every three years, and without him the king of Ticow cannot execute any business of importance. The governor, therefore, is the person applied to by foreigners in the transacting of business, and even the natives pay him the most distinguished respect. The inhabitants of the city are Malayans, but the inland parts are possessed by the natives, who disown the king of Achen's authority, and have a peculiar language and king of their own. This part of the country produces great quantities of gold, which the natives exchange with the Dutch, or the inhabitants near the coast, for pepper, salt, iron, cotton, red cloth, and Surat pearls. The air here is very unhealthy, particularly from July to October, and the people are very subject to fevers, which are so violent in their nature, as seldom to admit of a cure; so that were it not for the pepper, no stranger would venture to go near them. Every person who trades to this place, must have a licence for that purpose from the king of Achen; and when that is, obtained, they cannot be interrupted either by the king or governor of Ticow. They sell their pepper by bahars of one hundred and sixteen pounds averdupois: and the king of Achen has fifteen per cent. out of all that is sold, that is seven and a half for the export of the pepper, and seven and a half for the import of the merchandize given in exchange for that commodity.

Barras, which belongs to the king of Achen, is one of the most considerable places on the west coast; it is situated on a fine river near the center between Ticow and Achen, and, like the former, no person must trade here without permission from the king. This place produces great plenty of gold, camphire, and benjamin, the latter of which serves the natives instead of money. The country is very pleasant, and abounds with rice, and several sorts of the most delicious fruits. The Dutch and English, as also the inhabitants of the coast, buy up the camphire here, in order to carry it for Surat, and the straights of Sunda.

The province of Andzigzi is small, but remarkable for producing great quantities of pepper: and gold is cheaper here than in any other part of the island.

Jamly is situated on a river on the east side of the island, about fifty miles from the sea, in two degrees south latitude. Great quantities of pepper are produced in it, which is said to be much superior in quality to that of Andrigri. The Dutch had a factory here, the most considerable of all their settlements on the coast, but they withdrew from it in 1710. The English had likewise a factory near it, which they also quitted on account of the obstructions they met with from the Dutch in their trade.

Pedir is situated about thirty miles east of Achen, and is a large territory: it has the advantage of an excellent river. The soil is very fertile, and the country produces such quantities of rice, that it is called the granary of Achen. It also produces a large quantity of silk, part of which is wove by the natives into stuffs, that are valued in most parts throughout the island, and the rest is sold to the inhabitants of the coast of Coromandel.

Passaiman, almost under the equinoctial, is a large place, situated at the foot of a very high mountain, but is remarkable only for producing pepper, which is both large and excellent in its quality.

Cinquele produces annually a large quantity of camphire, which the inhabitants of Surat, on the coast of Coromandel, purchase for fifteen or sixteen rials the coff, or twenty-eight ounces. Daya abound in rice and cattle.

In the island of Sumatra, they have a small breed of horses; they have also buffaloes, deer, goats, hogs, tygers, hog-deers, monkies, squirrels, guanoes, porcupines, alligators, serpents, scorpions, muskatoes, and other insects: from the hog-deer is obtained a species of the bezoar-stone, which is of a dark brown colour, and has two coats; a small quantity of this stone, dissolved in any liquor, will remove an oppression of the stomach, rectifies foul blood, and restores the appetite: it is also very efficacious in other disorders incident to human nature. Here are also hens, ducks, and other poultry; pigeons, doves, parrots, parakeets, maccaws, and small birds; sea and river fish also are very plentiful, and turtle or sea-tortoise. They have elephants, but they are supposed not to be natives.

Rice is much the greatest part of their food in all their meals; strong soup, made of flesh or fish, and very little meat high seasoned, serves to eat with their rice. The Mahometans that inhabit the coast, abstain from swines flesh, and from strong liquors, as they do in all countries of the same faith. The mountaineers will eat any flesh, except beef, the bull being one of the objects of their worship, and if we could give any credit to their neighbours, the people of Achen, they eat human flesh; but the world is pretty well satisfied by this time that there are few nations of cannibals.

Their common drink is tea, or plain water: but they sometimes use the liquor of young cocoa-nuts, which is very cooling and pleasant. They always sit cross-legged on the floor at their meals. Their salutations are much the same as in other Asiatic countries.

Learning is not to be expected here. The common language is the Malayan tongue, and the koran and religious books of the Mahometans are written in Arabic, which is now a dead language. They have indeed the use of letters here, as they have almost in every other eastern nation except China; but those gentlemen were so self-sufficient, so much above being taught by people they look upon as their inferiors, that they have now the least pretence to learning of any nation on the face of the earth.

The Mahometans of Sumatra speak and write the Malayan language. The Pagan mountaineers have a language peculiar to themselves. As the Malayans write from the right hand to the left, the mountaineers write as we do, from the left hand to the right; and instead of pen, ink, and paper, they write, or rather engrave, with a stile on the outside of a bamboo cane; the Malays, indeed, use ink and a coarse brown paper. Both nations are poor accomptants, and are forced to make use of the Banians that reside amongst them as their clerks, when they have any considerable accounts to make up, the Banians being said to be possessed of great abilities in this particular, and are also some of the sharpest traders in the world.

The inhabitants of this island are in general of a moderate stature, and a very swarthy complexion: they have black eyes, flat faces, and high cheek bones: their hair is long and black, and they take great pains to dye their teeth black: they likewise besmear themselves with oil, as in other hot countries, to prevent being stung by the insects;

ſects, and let their nails grow exceeding long, ſcraping them till they are tranſparent, and dying them with vermillion: the poorer ſort go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt; and about their heads they wear a piece of linen, or a cap made of leaves, reſembling the crown of a hat; but they have no ſhoes or ſtockings. The better ſort wear drawers or breeches, and a piece of callico or ſilk wrapped about their loins, and thrown over the left ſhoulder, and they wear ſandals on their feet, when in towns.

They are very proud and revengeful in their diſpoſitions; and are ſo indolent, that they will neither endeavour to improve themſelves in arts and ſciences, or in huſbandry, but ſuffer their manufactures to be neglected, and their lands to lie without cultivation. If foreigners, therefore, were not to ſupply their defects, they would in all probability ſuffer themſelves to be reduced to a ſavage ſtate, and only preſerve their exiſtence, like the beaſts of the country, with what the earth ſpontaneouſly produces.

The king has no other ſtanding forces than his guards, but depends on his militia, which, as we hinted above, are as numerous as the people in his kingdom, all who are able to bear arms, are obliged to appear under arms whenever they are ſummoned. They have ſcarce any fortified towns and caſtles, but what are natural; and the country ſeems to be ſo inacceſſible, that the natives boaſt it has never been conquered by any foreign power; but this muſt be a miſtake, for the preſent generation, who are maſters of the north part of the iſland and the ſea coaſt, are not the original inhabitants, but came from Egypt and Arabia, and having driven the Pagans up into the mountains, ſucceeded them on the ſea-coaſts.

The religion of Mahomet is profeſſed at Achen, and upon all the coaſts of Sumatra; but they are not ſuch bigotted zealots as they are in ſome other Mahometan countries. Their temples or moſques are but meanly built, ſome of them no better than cottages. The chief prieſt reſides at Achen, and has a great influence on affairs of ſtate. Their marriage contracts are made before their prieſts, who are judges in caſes of divorce, as well as in civil cauſes. Their prieſts alſo aſſiſt at their celebration of their funeral rites, as in other Mahometan ſtates.

This, as well as the reſt of the Indian iſlands, was, no doubt, firſt peopled from the neighbouring continent. The Phœnicians, Egyptians, and Arabians afterwards trafficked with them; and we find Solomon deſiring Hiram, king of Tyre, to ſend him ſkilful mariners to pilot his fleet into theſe ſeas; and the Ophir mentioned in ſcripture, is ſuppoſed to be this very iſland, from whence he fetched his gold. The Arabians and other nations bordering on the red-ſea, afterwards planted colonies here, and became ſo potent, that they drove the former inhabitants up into the mountains, and poſſeſſed the coaſt. The Portugueſe found the deſcendants of thoſe nations fixed on the ſhores of the Indian continent as well as the iſlands when they arrived there.

The Portugueſe enjoyed the ſole traffic with this and the adjacent iſlands for near one hundred years, viz. from the year 1500 almoſt to the year of our Lord 1600, when other nations followed them round the Cape of Good Hope, and put in for a ſhare of the Indian trade.

Some writers aſſure us, that this kingdom has been ever governed by queens; others affirm that there never was a queen regent here; we may, however, take the middle way, and allow that it has been ſubject both to kings and queens: certain it is, a king was upon the throne when we firſt viſited this iſland, becauſe we have his letter which he wrote to queen Elizabeth, and kings have of late years filled that throne.

The inhabitants of the mountains are governed by the chiefs of their reſpective tribes, who are under a neceſſity of maintaining a good correſpondence among themſelves, in order to defend their country againſt their powerful neighbours; for as they are poſſeſſed of all the gold the iſland produces, there is no doubt but the Mahometan princes that lie round them, would make an effort to ſubdue thoſe golden mountains, if their princes were at variance: or if they did not, the Dutch would find a way to their gold, if they ſhould find their chiefs divided; for the Dutch are poſſeſſed of ſeveral ſtrong places and countries in the iſland, which would be ſupported in ſuch an enterpriſe by fleets and forces from Batavia and Malacca, that lie but a very little diſtance from them.

The coins of the country are, firſt caſh, or pieces of lead, one thouſand five hundred of which make one mas, valued at fifteen pence, which is a gold coin. A pollum or copang is a quarter of a mas, ſixteen mas is one tael, which is an imaginary coin, and equivalent to twenty ſhillings ſterling; dollars and other Spaniſh coins alſo are current here.

With reſpect to their weights, five taels make a buncal, twenty buncals one catty, and one hundred catty one pecul, being one hundred and thirty-two pounds Engliſh; three peculs are a China bahar of three hundred and ninety-ſix pounds China weight; and of Malay weight, at Achen four hundred and twenty-two pounds fifteen ounces, and at Bencoolen, and the reſt of the weſtern coaſt, a bahar is five hundred pounds great weight, or five hundred and ſixty pounds Engliſh. They make their payments at Achen oftener in gold pieces than in coin.

Several other iſlands belong to that of Sumatra, among which is one called by the inhabitants Pulo Lanchakay, and, by the natives of Achen, Pulo Lada, or the iſland of Pepper. This is a large iſland, ſituated in ſix degrees fifteen minutes north latitude. In the centre of it are two high mountains ſeparated from each other by a very narrow valley; and at the foot of theſe mountains is a plain at leaſt twelve miles in length. Pepper is produced in it: but the iſland is very thinly inhabited. The ſoil of the plain is well calculated for all kinds of drugs, fruit, rice, and cattle; and, as it has ſeveral good ſprings and rivers, it might produce excellent paſturage; but the inhabitants only attend to the cultivation of pepper, that being the article which turns out moſt to their advantage. The other parts of the iſland are covered with thick woods, in which are ſome remarkable ſtrait and lofty trees. The winds are weſterly from the beginning of July to the end of October, during which time they have very heavy rains; and the climate, as in other parts of the ſame latitude, is very unwholſome. The iſland at preſent produces five hundred thouſand pounds weight of pepper annually, which is ſaid to be preferable to that of any other place in the Indies. The inhabitants are Malayans, but are naturally better diſpoſed than thoſe of Achen; their habits are much the ſame in make, but not ſo elegant: they are very zealous Mahometans, and in their cuſtoms and ways of living differ little from the inhabitants of Achen.

The iſland of Lingen is ſituated about ſixty miles north-eaſt of Jamby, and about the ſame diſtance to the ſouth-eaſt of Johore. It is fifty miles in length, and ten in breadth: the interior part of it is very mountainous, but that next the ſea lies low, and is very fertile. It produces pepper and canes, and in ſome parts of it are great numbers of porcupines.

The iſland of Banca is very large, being at leaſt one hundred and fifty miles in length, and about twenty in breadth. The natives, like moſt of the Malayans, are treacherous, and very unhoſpitable to ſuch ſtrangers as unfortunately happen to be ſhipwrecked on the coaſt.

At the mouth of the ſtraights of Banca is Lucipara, a ſmall iſland but ſo barren, that it has but few inhabitants, and only produces a ſmall quantity of pepper. There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands belonging to Sumatra, moſt of which are either uninhabited, or ſo inſignificant as not to merit a particular deſcription.

Java, one of the Sunda iſlands, is ſituate in the Indian ocean, between one hundred and two and one hundred and thirteen degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between five and eight degrees of ſouth latitude, being ſeven hundred miles long, and upwards of one hundred broad; having the iſland of Borneo on the north, the ſtraights of Bally on the eaſt, the Indian ocean on the ſouth, and the ſtraights of Sunda (from whence it is called one of the Sunda iſlands) on the north-weſt.

The air of Java, near the ſea, is generally unhealthful, unleſs where the bogs have been drained, and the lands cultivated; there it is much better, and in the middle of the iſland much more ſo. The worſt weather upon the north coaſt of Java is during the weſterly monſoon, which begins the firſt week in November, when they have ſome rain. In December the rains increaſe, and it blows freſh, and in January it blows ſtill harder, and the rains continue very heavy till the middle of February, when both the wind and rains become more moderate and decreaſe, till the end of March. Their fair ſeaſon commences in April, the winds are then variable, and it is ſometimes calm, only at the change of the moon there are ſudden guſts of wind from the weſt. In the beginning of May the eaſtern monſoon becomes conſtant, and in June and July there is a little rain; but in this monſoon they have generally clear, wholſome weather, until the end of September. In October the eaſterly wind blows faintly, and in November the weſterly monſoon ſets in again: when the weſterly wind and currents are ſtrongeſt here, namely, in December, January

and February, there is no failing againſt them. The eaſterly winds and currents are more moderate; ſhips may ſail againſt this monſoon, and a ſhip may come from the weſtward through the ſtraits of Sunda to Batavia almoſt at any time. There is good anchorage on the Java ſide, in twenty or thirty fathom water: near the coaſt of Java and Borneo, from April to November, they have land and ſea breezes from different points; the wind blows from the land between one and four in the morning, and continues till noon; at one or two in the afternoon it blows freſh from the ſea for five or ſix hours.

A chain of mountains runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt, which are covered with fine woods. It is ſaid theſe mountains produce great quantities of gold, but the natives conceal it from the Europeans. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe mountains is called the Blue Mountain.

The low lands are flooded in the time of the rains. Along the north coaſt of Java are fine groves of cocoa-nut trees, and wherever we ſee one of theſe groves, we do not fail to meet with a village of the natives.

The iſland was antiently divided into abundance of petty kingdoms and ſtates, and when admiral Drake viſited this iſland in his voyage round the globe, in the year 1579, he relates there were five kingdoms in it. We may now divide it into two parts, 1. The north coaſt, which is under the dominion of the Dutch; and, 2. The ſouth coaſt, ſubject to the kings of Palamboan and Mataram. Bantam was, till lately, the moſt conſiderable kingdom of Java, but this king is now a vaſſal to the Dutch. We ſhall here give ſome account of the city.

Bantam, once the metropolis of a great kingdom (till the Dutch deſtroyed it, and depoſed the king,) is ſeated in a plain at the foot of a mountain, out of which iſſues three rivers, or rather one river dividing itſelf into three branches, two whereof ſurround the town, and the other runs through the middle of it. The circumference of this city, when in its glory, was not leſs than twelve miles, and very populous. It lay open towards the land; but had a very good wall to the ſea, fortified with baſtions, and defended by a numerous artillery; and the palace, or rather caſtle, where the king reſided, was no mean fortification; beſides which there were ſeveral public buildings and palaces of the great men, which made no ordinary figure in this country. It was alſo one of the greateſt ports in the eaſtern ſeas, to which all nations reſorted, but is now become a wretched poor place, and has neither trade or any thing to render it deſirable. The principal inhabitants are removed, and the buildings ruined, their king deprived of his ſovereignty, and become a vaſſal to the Dutch.

Batavia, by the Indians named Jacatra, and by the natives and Chineſe Calacka, or Calappa, as they call the fruit of the cocoa-trees, (which are very common here, and ſaid to be ſuperior to any in the Indies) lies in ſix degrees ſouth latitude, longitude from London one hundred and ſix, and ſtands about forty miles to the eaſtward of Bantam, it is ſituated at the bottom of a fine bay, in which there are ſeventeen or eighteen ſmall iſlands, which break the violence of the winds and waves; inſomuch that a thouſand ſail may ride here very ſecurely. Two large piers run out half a mile into the ſea, between which an hundred ſlaves are conſtantly employed, in taking up the mud and ſoil which is waſhed out of the town, or the mouth of the river would be ſoon choaked up.

The city of Batavia ſtands in a flat country, and is almoſt ſquare, and about the bigneſs of Briſtol, regularly built like the towns in Holland, but with white ſtone. Their ſtreets are wide and ſtrait, and in twelve or fifteen of the principal are canals, faced with ſtone, and planted with ever-greens: the ſides of the ſtreets alſo are paved, and over their canals are reckoned no leſs than fifty-ſix ſtone bridges: after which deſcription there cannot be much occaſion to tell the reader that the place is extremely pleaſant, and that travellers are ſurprized with its beauty. It is ſurrounded with a good wall, and two and twenty baſtions well furniſhed with cannon, and ſo contrived as to be of equal ſervice againſt an inſurrection in the city, as againſt a foreign enemy; the guns being eaſily brought to point down the principal ſtreets.

The houſes are plain, but very neat, and behind them are large gardens well ſtocked with herbs and vegetables, and moſt kinds of fruit. They have ſeveral handſome public buildings, ſuch as the great church: the ſtadt-houſe, the hoſpitals, the ſpin-houſe or houſe of correction, the peſt-houſe, Chineſe hoſpital, the houſe of artiſans, &c. And there are two churches built for the reformed Portugueſe, and another for the Malays; but they do not allow either the Papiſts or Lutherans the public exerciſe of their religion.

The fort ſtands upon the weſt ſide of the city, and commands both the town and road: it is very large, and has four royal baſtions faced with ſtone, but has no moat except the canals, which lie at ſome diſtance from the rampart, may have been miſtaken for moats: they are about twenty-five feet broad, and fordable in moſt places; the inſide of the fort is crowded with buildings, there being the general's houſe, as well as the houſes of moſt of the principal officers, and companies ſervants: in the middle of the city there is a large ſquare, which ſerves as a parade for the garriſon, on the weſt ſide of which ſtands the great church, on the ſouth the ſtadt-houſe, on the north a fine range of buildings, and on the eaſt is one of their great canals: there are alſo ſeveral ſpacious market-places in the city. The ſuburbs reach almoſt half a league into the country, and form a town larger than the former but not ſo compact: being intermixed with kitchen gardens and orchards. Here the Chineſe chiefly live, and here they have their temples and burying places, and the free exerciſe of their religion, which is denied the Lutheran Proteſtants. In this part of the town alſo live the Malays, and native Javans, and other nations which the Dutch have tranſplanted from Banda, Amboyna, &c. There are ſmall forts erected every way, at two or three leagues diſtance from the town, to defend the avenues; the Dutch being conſcious that the king of Mataran and the natives would lay hold of any opportunity of repoſſeſſing themſelves of their country, and driving the Hollanders from their coaſts, however they may ſeem to acquieſce and tacitly conſent, according to the modern phraſe, to be inſulted and tyrannized over by the Dutch, there is not a nation in India but would gladly throw off the yoke, and declare in behalf of liberty, and for any prince who ſhould come to their relief.

The people who inhabit the city and ſuburbs of Batavia being formed of various nations, who all preſerve the dreſſes, modes, and cuſtoms of their reſpective countries, they conſequently exhibit a very ſtrange appearance; we ſhall therefore, for the information of our readers, give a particular deſcription of them.

The Chineſe do not only drive the greateſt retail trade here, but are many of them good mechanics; they alſo generally farm the fiſhery, exciſe and cuſtoms, and apply themſelves to huſbandry and gardening; to manure and cultivate the rice, cotton and ſugars which grow in the fields, about Batavia and other great towns; and exceeding the Dutch, it is ſaid, in their thriftineſs, as well as in cozening and over-reaching thoſe they deal with.

They dreſs in a veſt and gown of ſilk or callico, after the faſhion of their country, and wear their hair wound up in a roll, on the hinder part of the head, and faſtened with bodkins; for which every one pays a certain tribute to the Dutch.

The Dutch company, however, allow ſome privileges to the Chineſe; for they have not only a governor of their own nation, who manages their affairs, but are alſo allowed a repreſentative in the council. They bring tea and porcelane hither from China; but they who are employed for this purpoſe, muſt not continue on the iſland longer than ſix months. They have ſingular maxims in the interment of their dead; for they will never open the ſame grave where any one has been buried; their burial grounds, therefore, in the neighbourhood of Batavia cover a prodigious ſpace of ground, for which the Dutch make them pay large ſums. In order to preſerve the body they make the coffin of very thick wood, not with planks faſtened together, but cut out of a ſolid piece like a canoe; the coffin, being covered and put into the grave, is ſurrounded with a kind of mortar about eight inches thick, which in time becomes as hard as ſtone. A great number of weeping women, hired on purpoſe, attend the funeral, beſides the relations of the deceaſed. In Batavia, the law requires that every man ſhould be buried according to his rank; ſo that if the deceaſed has not left money ſufficient to pay his funeral expences, an officer takes an inventory of his goods, which are ſold, and out of the produce he buries him in the manner preſcribed.

The greateſt merchants here are the Dutch, who are alſo very good mechanics; they keep the chief inns and moſt places of public entertainment. They pay two reals a month for their licence, and ſeventy for every pipe they ſell of Spaniſh wine: but theſe inn keepers are far from being obliging to their gueſts, and particularly to foreigners.

Here are great numbers of Portugueſe; and in order to diſtinguiſh them from other Europeans, they are called by the natives Oran-ſerante, or Nazarene men. They in general ſpeak the Malayan language, but ſome of them a



A general View of LISBON, the capital City of Portugal.

Sparrow sculp

corrupt dialect of the Portugueſe; and they have all renounced their religion, by profeſſing the principles of Luther. They are chiefly employed in the moſt ſervile offices: ſome of them are handicraftſmen, others get their living by hunting, and the greateſt number by waſhing linen. They have ſo cloſely followed the cuſtoms and manners of the Indians, that they are only diſtinguiſhed from them by their features and complexion, their ſkin being conſiderably lighter, and their noſes not ſo flat; and the manners of adjuſting their hair conſtitutes the only difference in their dreſs.

Moſt of the inhabitants have very tawny complexions. The Malays wear a ſhort coat with ſtrait ſleeves, and a cloth about their loins, binding their temples with a piece of linen, in which they encloſe part of their hair, the reſt hanging down. The women wear a waiſtcoat and a cloth about their waiſt, which reaches half way down their legs, and ſerves inſtead of a petticoat; they wear nothing but their hair on their heads, and go bare-foot. The men get their living by fiſhing, and have ſome retail trade, though not comparable to the Chineſe. They profeſs the Mahometan religion; but are naturally very profligate, and will not ſcruple to commit crimes of the moſt infamous nature.

The Amboyneſe wear veſts, and wrap a piece of callico ſeveral times about their heads, the ends whereof hang down. Their women only wrap a piece of callico about their loins, throwing part of it over their breaſts and ſhoulders, their legs and arms bare; the men are moſt of them carpenters, and ſome of theſe, as well as of the other nations, the Dutch enliſt in their troops, being eſteemed brave bold fellows, but given to mutiny; as the Dutch relate, by which they probably mean, they are not yet reconciled to ſlavery. Their houſes are made of wood, and covered with branches of trees; they are pretty lofty, and the floors are divided into ſeparate apartments, ſo that one houſe will contain ſeveral families.

The native Javaneſe wear a kind of ſcull cap, but their bodies are naked to the middle, wrapping a piece of ſilk or callico about their loins, which reaches below the middle of their legs, which are bare. The women cover their bodies with a piece of ſilk or callico, and have another piece wrapped about their loins, and dreſs in their hair. The men are employed in huſbandry and fiſhing, or in building country boats.

There is a mixed breed, called Topaſſes or Mandikers, conſiſting of ſeveral nations, incorporated with the Dutch, and have greater privileges than the reſt. Many of theſe are merchants, and differ but little in their habits, or way of life from the Dutch; only the men wear large breeches or trowſers, which reach down to their ancles. The women tie up their hair in a roll on their heads, wear a waiſtcoat, and a petticoat of ſilk or callico, which reaches down to their feet. Theſe live both in city and ſuburbs, their houſes are ſeveral ſtories high, built of brick or ſtone, and very neatly furniſhed within.

The Macaſſars, whoſe anceſtors poſſeſſed the iſland of Celebes, and were enſlaved by the Dutch, though they went almoſt naked in their mother-country, wear clothing here.

Several of the Timoreans, inhabitants of an iſland of Eaſt China, having been brought hither by the Dutch, now conſtitute part of the people of Batavia. The habits and cuſtoms of theſe and of the Macaſſars, are nearly the ſame: their chief employment is huſbandry and gardening. As many of them profeſs Chriſtianity, and are conformable to the Dutch in their religion and cuſtoms, it is to be preſumed they clothe themſelves as the Hollanders do.

Some of the negroes here are pedlars, and hawk about the ſtreets glaſs-beads and coral; others follow mechanical trades; but the moſt conſiderable of them deal in free-ſtone, which they bring from the neighbouring iſlands. Theſe people are chiefly Mahometans. All the inhabitants enjoy liberty of conſcience; but they are not allowed to exerciſe their different modes of worſhip. Prieſts and monks are permitted to live here, but they are prohibited from being publicly ſeen in the reſpective habits of their prieſtly orders.

As the women of Java are remarkable for their amorous diſpoſition and conſtancy to the man they eſpouſe, and expect that the man ſhould be equally conſtant, if her lover goes aſtray, ſhe makes no ſcruple to prepare a doſe for him. An old traveller, who ſeems much enamoured with the Javaneſe ladies, gives this deſcription of them; he obſerves that they are much fairer than the men, have good features, little ſwelling breaſts, a ſoft air, ſprightly eyes, a moſt agreeable laugh, and a bewitching mien, eſpecially in dancing: that they expreſs the greateſt ſubmiſſion to their huſband, proſtrating themſelves before him when he enters the houſe. Polygamy prevails here; the Javaneſe have ſeveral wives beſides female ſlaves, of whom they make concubines when they ſee fit.

There being a ſcarcity of European women, the Dutch are allowed to marry a native, provided ſhe will profeſs Chriſtianity, which ſhe is ſeldom averſe to, as it gratifies her pride; a Chriſtian and the wife of a Dutchman taking place of a native Javaneſe, and being allowed a great many privileges, which the natives cannot enjoy; and her huſband is obliged to confine himſelf to her bed; and bring no rivals into the family.

Rice is the principal grain that grows here. They have alſo plantations of ſugar, tobacco and coffee: their kitchen gardens are well repleniſhed with cabbages, purſlain, lettuce, parſley, fennel, melons, pompions, potatoes, cucumbers, and radiſhes. Here are alſo all manner of Indian fruits, ſuch as plantains, bananas, cocoas, ananas, mangoes, mangoſteens, durions, oranges of ſeveral ſorts; limes, lemons, the betel and arek nut; gums of ſeveral kinds, particularly benjamin: in March they plant rice, and their harveſt is in July. In October they have the greateſt plenty of fruit, but they have ſome all the year.

They have good timber, cotton, and other trees proper to the climate, beſides oak, cedar, and ſeveral kinds of red wood. The cocoa tree is very common, which is of univerſal uſe, affording them meat, drink, oil and vinegar; and of the fibres of the bark they make them cordage; the branches cover their houſes, and they write on the leaves with a ſteel ſtile, and with the tree, and the great bamboo cane, they build their houſes, boats and other veſſels.

Here are buffaloes and ſome oxen, and a ſmall breed of horſes. The few ſheep we find here have hair, rather than wool, and their fleſh is dry. Their hogs, wild and tame, are the beſt meat we find there, or in any other countries between the tropics; and their veniſon is good: here are alſo tygers and other wild beaſts, crocodiles, porcupines, ſerpents, ſcorpions, locuſts, and a multitude of inſects. Monkies of various kinds are found here, alſo flying ſquirrels; and a remarkable animal called jackoa; it is almoſt like a lizard, is very malicious, and darts its urine at every thing which offends it: the urine is of ſuch a quality, that it will canker the fleſh, and if the part is not immediately cut out, the object on which it falls muſt immediately periſh. Few accidents, however, happen from this creature, as it always gives notice of its ſituation from the ſingularity of its voice, ſo that the natives, as well as animals, have an opportunity of eſcaping it.

The food, ſalutations and diverſions of the Indians in this iſland, are the ſame as in Borneo and Sumatra, and therefore need not be repeated here. The Dutch travel in coaches, and on horſeback, and ſometimes in pelanquins, or covered couches, carried on men's ſhoulders, as the Indians do, with a grand retinue.

None of the nations of Europe are ſuffered to trade to Java, but from China fourteen or fifteen junks of two hundred or three hundred ton, uſed to come every year in November or December, and return home in June; which furniſhed the Dutch with the merchandize of China upon eaſier terms than they could purchaſe it in that country: and this is the reaſon the Dutch ſo ſeldom viſit that kingdom, and permit other nations to trade thither, which they could prevent if they pleaſed, by ſhutting up the ſtraights of Sunda and Malacca, which the ſquadrons of men of war they always keep in India, enable them to do. Beſides the goods imported to Batavia by the Chineſe, the Dutch themſelves import the produce of Japan, the Spice iſlands, Perſia, Surat, Bengal, the coaſt of Coromandel and Malabar, and all the merchandize of Europe and Africa. Never were ſuch magazines of goods laid up in any city, as are to be found in Batavia, except in Amſterdam itſelf; and as they barter the goods of one country for another, the Indian trade is ſo far from diminiſhing their treaſure, that it brings them in more gold and ſilver than any other traffic.

The Dutch governor of Batavia alſo takes great ſtate upon him, and has in reality the power of a ſovereign prince. A troop of horſe-guards precede his coach when he goes out, halberdiers ſurround the coach, and a company of foot-guards march after it, cloathed in yellow ſattin, enriched with ſilver lace and fringe; and the governor's lady has her guards, and is attended in all reſpects, both within and in public, with a dignity equal to that of a queen.

Next to the governor, the moſt conſiderable officer here is the director-general, whoſe buſineſs is to purchaſe ſuch commodities as are brought to the port, and to diſpoſe of

ſuch as are taken from it. He is ſole maſter of all the magazines, and has the ſupreme direction of every thing that relates to the commercial intereſt of the company.

Batavia being a place of the greateſt trade in India, the cuſtoms muſt be very conſiderable; more eſpecially as the inhabitants are in general wealthy, and almoſt every article is ſubject to a duty. The taxes are paid monthly; and to ſave the charge and trouble of gathering them, on the day they become due a flag is diſplayed on the top of a houſe in the center of the town, and all parties are obliged immediately to pay their money to the proper officers appointed to receive the ſame. The money current here conſiſts of ſeveral ſorts; as ducats, which are valued at one hundred and thirty-two ſtivers; ducatoons, at eighty ſtivers; imperial rix-dollars, at ſixty; rupees of Batavia at thirty; ſchellings, at ſix; double cheys, at two ſtivers and an half; and doits, at one-fourth of a ſtiver. Some of theſe coins are of two ſorts, though of the ſame denomination, namely, milled and unmilled, the former of which is of moſt value; a milled ducatoon is worth eighty ſtivers, but an unmilled one is not worth more than ſeventy two. All accounts are kept in rix-dollars and ſtivers which are here merely nominal coins, like our pounds ſterling.

The Dutch, beſides their land forces, which are very numerous, have men of war ſufficient to engage any fleets they are likely to meet with on the Indian ſeas: and from their great ſtrength and importance in this part of the globe, they aſſume the title of "Sovereigns of all the ſeas, from the Cape of Good Hope eaſtward, to Cape Horn in America."

Cherebon is ſituate about eighty miles eaſt of Batavia: it is a place of conſiderable extent, and where the Dutch have a factory. The country is very fertile, and produces moſt kinds of proviſions, particularly rice. The inhabitants are under the dominion of four great lords, called ſultans, one of whom is particularly attached to the Dutch, and for that reaſon is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by the name of the company's ſultan. The reſt, indeed, may not be undeſerving of the like epithet, as they are in alliance with the Dutch, whoſe friendſhip they endeavour to preſerve, and whom they conſider as their ſole protectors; for had it not been for them, theſe petty princes would have been reduced to the ſubjection of the king of Bantam, who made inroads on their diſtrict, but was repulſed by the interpoſition of the Dutch. Since this circumſtance, the ſultans have teſtified their gratitude by granting many diſtinguiſhed privileges to their protectors in theſe dominions.

The chief perſon belonging to the Dutch factory here is called the reſident, who correſponds with the governor general of Batavia, but is ſolely independent of any other officer. Here is a good fort, where the Dutch have a garriſon conſiſting of eighty men; about a mile and a half from which is a large temple containing the tombs of ſeveral of the princes of Cherebon. It is a lofty building of variegated ſtones, and very elegantly ornamented within. The generality of their prieſts reſide near this temple, the whole order of whom are treated with the moſt diſtinguiſhed reſpect by the inhabitants.

We ſhall proceed to the deſcription of Palamboan and Mataram, the latter of which is ſubject to the Dutch.

Palamboan, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is ſituate in one hundred and fourteen degrees of eaſtern longitude, and in ſeven degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, on the ſtraights of Bally, through which the Eaſt-India ſhips ſometimes paſs, when they are homeward bound from Borneo; ſuch ſhips touch at the town of Palamboan for freſh water and proviſions; but the ſurf often beats with ſuch violence on the ſhore, that makes it difficult watering there.

This kingdom, which is independent of the Dutch, lies at the ſouth-eaſt end of Java, in a pleaſant country watered with ſeveral rivulets, which fall on each ſide of the town into the neighbouring ſtraights. The rajah, or king of this country, generally reſides either at Palamboan, or at a fort fifteen miles from the ſea. His dominion reaches from the eaſt end of Java, eighty miles along the ſouth coaſt, and about ſixty miles from north to ſouth; but its extent up the country is not known. This kingdom is ſaid to produce gold, pepper and cotton, alſo rice, Indian corn, roots, and garden ſtuff. Their animals are, horſes, buffaloes, oxen, deer, and goats, and they have great plenty of ducks, geeſe, and other ſorts of poultry. The ſovereign and his ſubjects are Pagans, but there are ſome Mahometans among them, and a few Chineſe.

Mataram, when in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, extended its dominion over the whole iſland, and even now takes up a conſiderable part of it: this kingdom was the laſt in the iſland which the Dutch reduced under their government; having continued its ſtruggles for independency till the year 1704, when the Dutch took the advantage of an opportunity that offered in a diſpute relative to the ſucceſſion of the crown, between the ſon and brother of the deceaſed ſovereign. Theſe two rivals produced an univerſal diviſion in the nation. He who was intitled to the crown by order of ſucceſſion had ſo much the advantage over his antagoniſt, that had it not been for the Dutch, who declared in favour of his rival, he would certainly have poſſeſſed himſelf of the ſupreme power. After a ſeries of conteſts, the party eſpouſed by the Dutch at length prevailed: the young prince was deprived of his ſucceſſion, and his uncle, who was unworthy of the character, aſſumed the ſovereignty.

The company, after the death of this prince, placed the legal heir on the throne, and dictated ſuch laws to him as they thought beſt calculated to anſwer their ſiniſter purpoſes. They choſe the place where his court was to be fixed, and ſecured his attachment by erecting a caſtle, in which a guard was kept with no other apparent view than to protect the prince. They employed every artifice to lull his attention by pleaſures, made him valuable preſents, and ſoothed him by pompous embaſſies. From this time the prince and his ſucceſſors have become mere tools of the company. The neceſſary protection allowed them by the company conſiſts of three hundred horſe and four hundred foot; but the expences the company are at on this account are amply repaid by the advantages that accrue to them.

The harbours afford docks for building all the ſmall veſſels employed in the ſervice; and they are ſupplied from hence with the chief part of the timber that is uſed in their reſpective ſettlements. Beſides theſe advantages, they are furniſhed with various productions of the country at ſtipulated prices, which are ſo low as to be extremely profitable to them.

This country is in general very fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, as alſo plenty of fruit. There are alſo various ſorts of animals, particularly horſes, ſheep, goats, and remarkable large oxen. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the woods produce great plenty of game: but the moſt valuable articles in this kingdom are, rice, pepper, cadiang, cotton, yarn, cardamum and indigo; the latter of which is eſteemed to be as good in quality as any found in this part of the world.

The reſidence of the king is uſually at Mataram, the capital of the kingdom. His palace is a very handſome ſpacious building adjoining to which are many good houſes belonging to his nobles, who continually wait on him, and the greateſt homage is paid him by his ſubjects in general; for though theſe princes are vaſſals, yet they are permitted to live in as great ſtate as when they were independent monarchs; and the orders of the Dutch are always executed in their names. They therefore aſſume a dignity not inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic prince, and, when they go abroad, a very diſtinguiſhed mark of loyalty is beſtowed on them.

Japara is the laſt place of importance that remains to be mentioned in this iſland: it is ſituated at the bottom of an eminence called the Invincible Mountain, on the top of which is a fort built of wood. It is a very conſiderable town, and has a good road ſecured by two ſmall iſlands. The Engliſh had once a factory here, but they were driven from it by the Portugueſe, who at that time were maſters of the place. This country produces almoſt every neceſſary of life, eſpecially cattle, hogs, and poultry: they have alſo great plenty of rice, with various ſorts of the moſt delicious fruits; and their waters abound with the beſt of fiſh. But the moſt valuable commodities here are pepper, ginger, cinnamon, and indigo. In the woods and mountains are ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, as buffaloes, ſtags, tygers, and rhinoceros's: the latter of theſe the natives hunt for the ſake of their horns, which are much admired, becauſe they will not contain poiſon; for they will immediately break to pieces if any ſuch compoſition is put into them.

With reſpect to the natives of this country, they very much reſemble thoſe of other Indian nations, and have the ſame kind of cuſtoms and ceremonies. They are fond of public diverſions, particularly the repreſentation of comedies, which principally conſiſt in ſinging and dancing; and they are ſuch ſlaves to cock-fighting, that by the large ſums they bet, they are frequently reduced to the moſt abject diſtreſs and poverty.

The Japarans are chiefly of the Mahometan religion, as is alſo the king, who generally reſides at a place called Kattafura, where the Dutch have a fort and garriſon,

This



SOLDIERS *of the Kingdom of* MACASSER
blowing poisoned Darts through Trunks at their enemies

PORTRAITS *of* SOLDIERS *inhabiting the* ISLE *of* TIMOR.
whose Swords are made of Sandel Wood.

Pollard. sculp.

This prince reigns abſolute among his ſubjects, who are very faithful to him, and pay him the greateſt homage. Like moſt eaſtern monarchs, he is conſtantly attended by women, and takes as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper. When his courtiers obtain an audience, they approach him with the profoundeſt humility; and even his prieſts ſo revere him, that ſome of them go in pilgrimage to Mecca, to make vows, and pray for his proſperity, and that of his family and government.

The iſland of Bally, or the Leſſer Java, is only divided from the larger iſlands by the ſtraights of Bally; and eaſtward of this are the iſlands Lambock, Combava, Flores, Solor, Timor, and ſeveral more, upon which the Dutch have forts and ſettlements, and take the liberty of governing and even tranſplanting the natives whenever they pleaſe: from hence they frequently recruit their troops, and thus make one nation of Indians contribute to keep another in ſubjection.

Timor is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, being about two hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth, and divided into ſeveral petty ſtates, which the Dutch oppoſe againſt one another, and by that means govern the whole. It has not any navigable rivers or harbours, but there are ſeveral commodious bays. The Portugueſe had formerly colonies here, whoſe deſcendants are now ſo intermixed with the original natives, that they are ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from them, eſpecially as they profeſs the ſame religion. The principal kingdoms in this iſland are Namquimal, Lortriby, Pobumby, and Amaby; each of which has an independant and abſolute ſovereign: theſe have ſeveral rajahs and other diſtinguiſhed officers under them: all of whom, with their ſubjects in general, pay them the greateſt homage. Each kingdom has a language peculiar to itſelf, but the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants differ but little. There are ſome Pagans and Mahometans ſtill remaining, and the Chineſe come hither to trade once a year: the inhabitants are ſo very ſwarthy, that they are ſometimes taken for blacks, and thoſe that are not under the government of the Portugueſe or the Dutch are repreſented as ſavages: they wear no cloathing but a little piece of cloth about their loins; and the better ſort wear a kind of coronet about their temples, adorned with little thin plates of gold or ſilver; the reſt have caps made with palmetto leaves. Their arms are ſwords, darts, and lances or ſpears, and with theſe they run down and kill their game. Their animals are the ſame as in the iſland of Java, as well as their foreſt and fruit trees. The Dutch do not ſeem to make any great profit of theſe iſlands; the principal deſign of their building forts here is to defend the avenues to the ſpice iſlands, which lie in their neighbourhood.

There is, on this laſt mentioned iſland, a Portugueſe ſettlement called Laphao: it is ſituated by the ſea ſide, about three leagues to the eaſt of the Dutch fort called Concordia. It is a very ſmall place, containing only a few mean houſes, and a church made of boards, covered with palmetto leaves. There is, indeed, a kind of platform here, on which are ſix iron guns; but the whole are ſo much decayed, as to be rendered almoſt uſeleſs. The people in general ſpeak the Portugueſe language; and the natives have been ſo intermixed with the Portugueſe by marriages, that it is difficult to know one from the other. Moſt of them profeſs the Roman catholic religion; but in the other parts of the iſland they are either Mahometans or Pagans. The chief trade is carried on at Porta Nova, ſituated at the eaſt end of the iſland, and where the Portugueſe governor uſually reſides. Some years ago a pirate attacked, plundered, and then deſtroyed ſeveral of the buildings in this town, with that of Concordia belonging to the Dutch.

Mandura is an iſland oppoſite the eaſternmoſt point of Java, the moſt valuable produce of which, for foreign markets, are Deer-ſkins. Its principal town is Arabia, ſituated near a deep bay about eight leagues from the weſternmoſt land of Java. The ſoil of this iſland is very fertile, and produces ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly rice; alſo ſeveral kinds of the moſt delicious fruits. The chief animals are, buffaloes, horſes, ſheep, and oxen, the latter of which are remarkably large, and the fleſh little inferior to thoſe of Europe. Their buildings, maxims, cuſtoms, &c. reſemble thoſe of other Indian nations: ſome of them are Mahometans, and others Pagans. The men are in general very robuſt and courageous, for which reaſon, when there is any deficiency in the fixed number of the Dutch troops, they recruit from them their forces at Batavia and other ſettlements.

SECT. X.

Treating of the ſeveral Iſlands of NICOBAR, ANDOMAN, and CEYLON.

THE Nicobar iſlands are ſituate in the Indian ſea, between ninety-two and ninety-four degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between ſeven and ten degrees of north latitude, near the entrance of the bay of Bengal, a little north of the iſland of Sumatra. Theſe iſlands form three cluſters: the middle, called Sombrero, are well inhabited, except one: the northern cluſter called Carnicubars, are not ſo populous. The ſouthern cluſter of the Nicobars, are very mountainous, and the people much more ſavage than thoſe of the middle and northern cluſters. The prieſts of Sombrero, are dreſt much in the ſame manner as we paint the devil, by which they keep the inhabitants in awe. The largeſt of theſe iſlands, which lies moſt to the ſouth, is forty miles long, and fifteen broad; the ſouth end is mountainous, and there are ſome ſteep rocks near the ſea; the reſt of the iſland is covered with woods, but not high land. It is a rich ſoil, that would produce almoſt any grain, if it was cultivated. The groves of cocoa-nut trees that ſtand in the flat country near the ſea, are exceeding pleaſant; but I do not find there are any towns, only as we ſail by, we ſee cluſters of five or ſix little houſes in every creek and bay, which are built on bamboo pillars, eight or nine feet above the ſurface of the ground, the roof neatly arched with bended cane, and covered with palm branches.

Theſe iſlanders are moderately tall, their complexion a deep olive, and have long black hair, and black eyes; their women might be eſteemed handſome, if it was not the cuſtom to pull the hair off their eyebrows by the roots.

The men wear no cloaths, but a little linen cloth about their loins; that of the women is deeper, reaching below their knees. The country is ſtill over-run with wood; they neglect to clear it, and cultivate the ground, but live chiefly on fiſh and ſuch fruits as the country produces ſpontaneouſly; they have little trade or commerce with any other people; but as ſhips ſail by in their way to and from the ſtraits of Malacca, they bring off hogs, poultry, and ſuch fruits as the country affords, taking tobacco, linen, and other neceſſaries in return.

The Andoman iſlands lie in the bay of Bengal, north of the Nicobar iſlands, in ninety-two degrees of eaſtern longitude, and between ten and fifteen degrees of north latitude. Theſe iſlands do not ſeem to differ much from thoſe of Nicobar, except in producing rice, which is cultivated here and eaten by the natives as well as fiſh and fruit. The inhabitants are a harmleſs, inoffenſive people, living chiefly on rice, fruit, and herbs.

Here are alſo the cocoa iſlands, ſituated thirty-five leagues weſt-ſouth-weſt of cape Negrais: they produce great abundance of cocoa-trees, but are uninhabited.

The iſland of Ceylon is ſituated between five degrees thirty minutes and ten degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, and between ſeventy-nine degrees forty minutes and eighty-two degrees forty-five minutes eaſt, at the diſtance of about one hundred and ninety miles from cape Comorin. Ptolemy deſcribed this iſland under the name of Taprobane. It is about nine hundred miles in circumference, being about three hundred in length, and about one hundred and forty in breadth.

It is for the moſt part a mountainous country, covered with wood; but there are ſeveral fruitful plains and vallies, well watered by rivulets. The moſt remarkable mountain, which ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of Conduda, the name of the northern diviſion, is by the natives called Hamalel, and by the Europeans, Adam's Peak, being of a pyramidal form, only on the top is a little rocky plain, with a print of a man's foot on it, near two feet long, to which the natives come in pilgrimage once a year to worſhip the impreſſion, having a tradition, according to ſome, that their god Buddow aſcended to heaven from hence, leaving this print of his foot, which the Portugueſe, when they poſſeſſed this iſland, called Adam's Foot, and the mountain Pico de Adam; others affirm, that it received its name from a tradition of the natives, that Adam was created and buried here. In this mountain riſe the principal rivers, which run into the ſea in different directions. The largeſt of theſe is the Mavillagonga, which runs north-eaſt of the cities of Candy and Alatneur, diſcharging itſelf into the ocean at Trincomale. Theſe rivers run with ſuch rapidity, and are ſo full of rocks, that none of them are navigable: the rains, which happen when the ſun is vertical,

 increaſe

increaſe their waters, and create abundance of torrents, which are not viſible in the dry ſeaſon. The air is for the moſt part healthful, except near the ſea, and the north part of the iſland, where they have no ſprings, or rivers; and if the rain fails them, they are ſure to be afflicted with famine or ſickneſs. The chief towns are theſe,

1. Candy, the capital of the iſland, and ſituate in the middle of it, in ſeventy-nine degrees of eaſt longitude, and eight degrees of north latitude: it is an open town, with fortifications, and yet almoſt inacceſſible, being ſurrounded by rocks and thick woods that are impaſſable, except through ſome lanes, which are fenced with gates of ſtrong thorns; and yet it appears that the Portugueſe made themſelves maſters of Candy, and almoſt demoliſhed it, obliging the king to retire to Digligyneur, five miles ſouth-eaſt of Candy.

2. Columbo, the capital of the Dutch ſettlements, is a great port-town in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, in ſeventy-eight degrees eaſt longitude, and ſeven degrees north latitude. It has a good harbour, defended by a caſtle, and ſeveral batteries of guns. In this caſtle reſide the governor, merchants, officers, and ſoldiers belonging to the Eaſt India company; and four thouſand ſlaves have their huts between the caſtle and the ſea. The Dutch have two hoſpitals here: one for the ſick and wounded, and another for the orphans: as the boys grow up, they are entered into the ſea and land-ſervice; and the girls are married at twelve or thirteen years of age; and they have a Malabarian ſchool for teaching the Indian language.

3. Negumbo, which is alſo a port town, lies about twenty-five miles north of Columbo.

4. Chillao, one of the harbours of the coaſt, is ſituate twenty miles north of Negumbo.

5. Jaffnapatan, the capital of the province of Jaffnapatan, the northern diviſion of this iſland, is regularly fortified; for though there is no cinnamon in this part of the iſland, the Dutch have fortified it all round, to prevent any other nation ſending colonies thither.

6. Trincomale is ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, about eighty miles ſouth of Punta Pedra, the moſt northerly promontory of the iſland.

7. Battadalao is another fortreſs, fifty miles ſouth of the former.

Beſides theſe towns, there are the ſeven little iſlands of Ourature, Xho, Deſerba, Analativa, Caradiva, Pongardiva, and Nainandiva.

The country villages of the natives are very irregular, not laid out into ſtreets, but every man incloſes a ſpot of ground with a bank or pale ſuitable to his circumſtances, and there are frequently twenty or thirty of theſe incloſures pretty near together. The buildings are mean, the houſes of the generality of the people low thatched cottages, conſiſting of one or two ground rooms, the ſides are ſplintered with ratans or cane, which they do not always cover with clay, and if they do, it ſeems, they are not permitted to white-waſh them, this being a royal privilege. The better ſort of people have a ſquare in the middle of their houſes, and as many rooms on the ſides of it as the number of the family requires, with banks of earth raiſed a yard high above this ſquare court, on which they ſit croſs-legged, and eat or converſe with their friends. They have no chimnies, but their meat is dreſſed in their yards or a corner of the room. Their furniture conſiſts only of a mat, a ſtool or two to ſit on, a few china plates, and ſome earthen and brazen veſſels, for their water, and to dreſs their meat in, except one bedſtead which is allowed the maſter of the houſe to ſit or ſleep on, and this is corded, if we may uſe the expreſſion, with rattans or ſmall canes, and has a mat or two and a ſtraw pillow upon it, but no teſter and curtains. The women and children lye on mats by the fire ſide, covering themſelves only with the cloth they wear in the day time, but they will have a fire burning all night at their feet; the pooreſt people never want fuel, wood being ſo plentiful that nobody thinks it worth while to claim any property in it. Their pagodas or temples, which are of any antiquity, are built of hewn ſtone, with numbers of images both on the inſide and out, but no windows in them, and in all other reſpects like thoſe on the neighbouring continent of India: but their temples of a modern date are little low buildings with clay walls, almoſt in the form of a dove-houſe, and beſides their public temples, they have little chapels in their yards, ſometimes not more than two feet ſquare, which they ſet upon a pillar four feet high, and having placed the image in it they reverence moſt, they light candles and lamps before it, and every morning ſtrew flowers about the image, and peform their devotions.

The original inhabitants, of whom the body of the people at preſent conſiſts, are called Chingulays or Cinglaſſes: beſides whom there are a great many Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch in the iſland.

The natives are eſteemed men of good parts and a pretty addreſs, grave, and of an eaſy temper, eat and ſleep moderately, but lazy and indolent, which is the caſe in moſt hot countries. They are not given to thieving, it is ſaid, though addicted to lying, which, to me, ſeems a paradox; for a man that will lye and deceive, would not make much ſcruple to cheat. They are far from being jealous, or reſtraining their women from taking innocent freedoms.

The men are of a moderate ſtature, and well proportioned, wear long beards, and have good features; they have long black hair and black eyes, dark complexions, but not black as the natives upon the neighbouring continent of India are. They ſit on mats and carpets on the floor, but have a ſtool or two for ſtrangers of diſtinction; the vulgar are prohibited to ſit on ſtools.

Young men of figure wear their hair long and combed back; but in a more advanced age, caps in the form of a mitre are worn. Their dreſs is a waiſtcoat of calico, and a piece of the ſame wrapped about their waiſts, in which they put their knife and trinkets, and have a hanger by their ſide, in a ſilver ſcabbard; beſides which they walk with a cane or tuck, and a boy carries a box with their betel and arek nut after them. The betel is a leaf of the ſhape of a laurel leaf, and the arek nut about the bigneſs of a nutmeg, which they cut into thin ſlices, with an inſtrument made on purpoſe for it, and this with a paſte made of lime they chew together almoſt all day long, as moſt other Indians do; this mixture ſeems to be a kind of opiate, and renders them perfectly eaſy while they uſe it.

They have a perſon to carry a covered ſilver pot, or one made of ſome other metal, to ſpit in, for this compoſition has a nauſeous ſmell, and it would be the greateſt affront imaginable to ſpit on the carpets or floors in a friend's houſe; and thoſe that chew it ſpit perpetually. It makes their lips very red, of which they are proud; and this may be one reaſon of their taking it; but there is nothing in the taſte that ſhould invite one to uſe it, though it be univerſally chewed by all degrees of people, and is the firſt thing offered a ſtranger when he makes a viſit.

The women wear their hair long without any covering, and make it ſhine with cocoa-nut oil, as they do on the neighbouring continent; though this oil has a very ſtrong ſmell, perhaps the natives eſteem it a perfume, for cuſtom will bring people to like almoſt any thing. The women are dreſſed in a calico waiſtcoat, which diſcovers their ſhape, and they wrap a piece of calico about them, which falls below their knees, and does the ſervice of a petticoat; theſe are longer or ſhorter, according to the quality of the perſon that wears it; they bore holes in their ears, in which they hang ſuch a weight of jewels, or ſomething that reſembles them, that you may put a half crown through the hole of their ears; they load their necks alſo with weighty necklaces, which fall upon their breaſts, containing a great many ſtrings or rounds of beads, &c. They adorn their arms with bracelets, and wear a great number of rings on their fingers and toes, and a girdle of ſilver wire and plate ſurrounds their waiſts; when they go abroad, they throw a piece of ſtriped ſilk over their heads, which ſometimes reſembles a hood. The people are obliged to go bare-footed, becauſe none but the king is allowed to wear ſhoes and ſtockings.

The uſual ſalutation here, as in other parts of India, is the Salam; (i. e.) the carrying one or both hands to their heads according to the quality of the perſon they ſalute. The neareſt relations and friends do not talk much when they viſit, but ſit ſilent great part of the time. Talkative people are in no eſteem.

Before marriage, the man ſends a friend to purchaſe the woman's cloaths, which ſhe freely ſells for a ſtipulated ſum. In the evening he carries them to her, ſleeps with her all night, and in the morning appoints the day of marriage; on which he provides an entertainment of two courſes for the friends of both parties. The feaſt is held at the bride's houſe, when the young couple eat out of the ſame diſh, ſleep together that night, and on the enſuing morning depart for the bridegroom's habitation. The meaning of making a purchaſe of the bride's cloaths, is, that ſhe and her friends may be ſatisfied with reſpect to the man's circumſtances.

They are permitted to part from each other whenever they pleaſe: but if there are any children, the man is obliged to maintain the boys, and the woman the girls; and

and they are ſo fond of availing themſelves of this liberty, that ſome of them have been known to change a dozen times. The profeſſion of a midwife is unknown, as the women in general are both qualified and willing on that occaſion to aſſiſt each other.

This iſland produces rice, the common food of the inhabitants in all hot countries: of this they have ſeveral kinds: one of them will be ſeven months before it comes to maturity, ſome ſix, and others five between the ſeed time and harveſt; that which grows faſteſt is the beſt taſted, but yields the leaſt increaſe; and as all ſorts of rice grows in water, the inhabitants are at great labour and expence in levelling the ground they deſign for tillage, and making channels from their wells and repoſitories of water, to convey to theſe fields: they cut out the ſides of their hills from top to bottom, into little level plains, one above another, that the water ſhall ſtand in them till the corn is ripe, and theſe levels not being more than ſix or eight feet wide, many of them look like ſtairs to aſcend the mountain at a little diſtance. In the north part of the iſland, where there are few ſprings, they ſave the rain water in great ponds, or tanques, of a mile in compaſs, in the time of the monſoons, as they do on the continent of India, and when their fields are ſown, let it down into them gradually, ſo that it may hold out till harveſt.

They do not thraſh, but tread out their corn with oxen and buffaloes, frequently in the field where it grows: as ſoon as it is reaped they lay out a round ſpot of ground for this purpoſe, about twenty-five feet over, which they dig a foot and a half deep, and the women, whoſe buſineſs it is, bring the corn in bundles on their heads, after which the cattle are driven round the pit till they have trampled it out of the ſtraw; then a new floor is laid, and with half a dozen oxen they will trample out forty or fifty buſhels in a day. Before they begin to tread out the corn they always perform ſome religious ceremony, and apply to their idols for a bleſſing on their labours.

They have ſeveral other kinds of grain, which they eat of the latter end of the year, when rice begins to be ſcarce; and particularly coracan, which is as ſmall as muſtard-ſeed, which they beat or grind into flour and make cakes of. This grain grows on dry ground, and is ripe within three or four months after it is ſown. They have another kind, called tanna, as ſmall as caracan, every ſeed whereof ſhoots out four or five ſtalks, which have each an ear, and are ſaid to multiply a thouſand for one. The women, who do the greateſt part of the harveſt work, cut off only the ears of it when it is ripe, and carry it home in baſkets. This is very dry food, and only eaten when rice is not to be had. They have alſo a ſeed called tolla, of which they make oil, and anoint themſelves with it.

Here are great variety of fruits, but the natives ſeldom eat them ripe, or cultivate any, but thoſe which ſerve to make pickles for their ſoup or curree, and ſauces, when they are green, to eat with their rice. The betel-nut ſo often mentioned, they have great plenty of, which they uſed to export to the coaſt of Cormandel to great advantage, before the Dutch excluded them from all trade with foreigners.

The fruit called jacka is part of their food; they grow upon large trees, are of a round ſhape, and as big as a peck loaf, being covered with a green prickly rind; they have ſeeds or kernels in them as big as a cheſnut, and in colour and taſte like them. They gather theſe jackas before they are ripe, and boil them, and they eat much like cabbage: if they let them grow till they are ripe they are very good to eat raw; they roaſt the kernel in the embers, and carry with them, when they take a journey, for their proviſion.

There is another fruit called jambo, which is very juicy, and taſtes like an apple, it is white, ſtreaked with red, and looks very beautiful; they have alſo ſome fruits which reſemble our plumbs and cherries; nor do they want any of the common Indian fruits, ſuch as mangoes, cocoas, pine-apples, melons, pomegranates, oranges of ſeveral ſorts, citrons, limes, &c. They frequently dedicate their fruit trees to ſome dæmon, to prevent their being ſtolen; after which their neighbours dare not touch them, leſt the dæmon, to which they are devoted, ſhould puniſh them for the theft; and before the owner eats of it himſelf, he offers part of it to the idol.

Their kitchen gardens are well ſtored with roots, plants, and herbs, for the Portugueſe and Dutch have introduced almoſt all manner of European plants that grow in our kitchen gardens. They alſo abound in medicinal herbs, which they know very well how to apply, and with which they perform many notable cures.

Here are alſo flowers of various colours and a delicious ſcent, which grow ſpontaneouſly, but are never cultivated; with theſe, the young people of both ſexes adorn their hair. Among others, they have white and red roſes, as ſweet and beautiful as thoſe of Europe, and a white flower reſembling jaſmine, which the king reſerves for his own uſe, no ſubject being allowed to wear it. There is another flower, which is obſerved to open about four every evening, and cloſe again about four in the morning.

Among their trees the talipot is much taken notice of, which grows very tall and ſtrait, a leaf of which will cover fifteen or twenty men, and will fold up like a fan; they wear a piece of it on their heads on a journey, to ſkreen them from the ſun: theſe leaves are ſo tough, that they make their way with them through the buſhes and thickets without tearing them; they ſerve the ſoldiers for tents to lie under in the field.

There is a tree called kettule, a kind of palm, as high as a cocoa-tree, from whence they draw a pleaſant liquor, but not ſtrong; an ordinary tree yielding three or four gallons a day, and when boiled, makes a kind of brown ſugar, called jaggory; the wood of this tree is black, hard, and very heavy.

The tree of moſt ineſtimable value to the Dutch, as it was formerly to the Arabs and the Portugueſe, is the cinnamon, which is found in no other country, but grows commonly in the woods, on the ſouth weſt part of the iſland. This tree is of a middle ſize, and has a leaf of the form of a laurel leaf. When the leaves firſt appear, they are as red as ſcarlet, and being rubbed between the fingers, ſmell like cloves. It bears a fruit like an acorn, which neither ſmells nor taſtes like the bark; but if boiled in water, an oil ſwims on the top, which ſmells ſweetly, and is uſed in ointment in ſeveral diſtempers; but as they have great plenty of it, they frequently burn it in their lamps. The tree having two barks, they ſtrip off the outſide bark, which is good for little, and then cut the inner bark round the tree with a pruning-knife: after which they cut it long ways in little ſlips, and after they have ſtripped theſe pieces off, lay them in the ſun to dry, and they roll up in the manner we ſee them brought over. The body of the tree is white, and ſerves for building and other uſes, but has not the ſmell or taſte the bark has. When the wind ſets off the iſland, the cinnamon groves perfume the air for many miles out at ſea, of which we have inconteſtable evidence; probably, it is at that time of year, when the cinnamon trees are in bloſſom.

This iſland abounds in elephants of a very large ſize; they have alſo oxen and buffaloes, deer, hogs, and goats, and ſome wild beaſts, with monkies in abundance: but they had neither horſes, aſſes, or ſheep, till they were imported by the Europeans, nor have they any lions or wolves; and here is an animal in all reſpects like a deer, but not bigger than a hare: the wild elephants feed upon the tender twigs of trees, corn and graſs, as it is growing, and do the huſbandmen a great deal of miſchief, by trampling down their corn, as well as eating it, and breaking and ſpoiling their trees. The monkies have black faces, and white beards, very much reſembling old men. Alligators, or crocodiles, abound here, and ſerpents of a monſtrous ſize: but the ſtory of the ſnake that ſwallowed a ſtag with the horns, does not deſerve much credit, eſpecially as Mr. Knox, who relates it, had it by hearſay, and never met with one above the common ſize, though he reſided in the iſland twenty years.

Vermin and inſects are very numerous here, particularly ants, which eat every thing they come at, except iron and other minerals as hard. Their houſes are peſtered with them; if a diſh of meat is ſet down, it is immediately full of ants: in the fields they raiſe hills ſix feet high, of a pure white clay, ſo hard, that a pick-axe will hardly demoliſh them; and of this clay it is that the prieſts frequently form their idols: theſe inſects are not long-lived; when they are full grown they have wings, and fly up in ſuch clouds, that they intercept the light of the ſun; ſoon after which they fall down dead, and are eaten by fowls, who devour them alſo at other times, or there would be no living at quiet for them.

The common ſort of bees build in hollow trees, or in holes of the rocks; but there are much larger bees, of a mere lively colour, which form their combs upon the high boughs of trees, and at the ſeaſon for taking them, the country people go out into the woods and take their honey.

In the ſeaſon when the rains begin to fall, they are troubled with little red leeches, which are not at firſt much bigger than a hair: theſe run up peoples bare legs as they travel, and, fixing themſelves there, are not eaſily removed, till

till the blood runs about their heels. The beſt remedy againſt their bite is, to rub their legs with a compoſition of aſhes, lemon-juice, and ſalt. The bite of theſe creatures is ſo far from being attended with any ill conſequences, that this bleeding is eſteemed very wholeſome.

Their fowls are geeſe, ducks, turkies, hens, woodcocks, partridges, pigeons, ſnipes, wild peacocks, parroquets, and a beautiful ſparrow as white as ſnow, all but his head, which is black, and a plume of feathers ſtanding upright upon it, the tail is a foot long.

The natives of this iſland make ſavoury ſoups of fleſh or fiſh, which they eat with their rice; people of condition will have ſeveral diſhes at their tables; but they conſiſt chiefly of rice, ſoups, herbs, and garden-ſtuff: they eat but little fleſh or fiſh. Their meat is cut into little ſquare pieces, and two or three ounces of it laid on the ſide of the diſh by their rice; and, being ſeaſoned very high, gives a reliſh to the inſipid rice. They uſe no knives or forks, but have ladles and ſpoons, made of the cocoa-nut ſhell; their plates are of braſs or china ware: the poor people have a broad leaf inſtead of a plate; and ſometimes ſeveral leaves ſewed together with bents, where broad ones are not to be had. Water is their uſual drink, which they pour out of a cruce or bottle, holding it more than a foot above their heads: ſome of them will ſwallow near a quart of water in this manner, without gulping once. They draw arrack and ſpirits from rice; but there is neither wine nor beer made in this country. They never eat beef, the bull and cow being objects of adoration here. Neither the people in high, or low ſtation, eat with their wives. The man ſits down by himſelf, and, when he has done, the women and children are allowed to eat.

In this woody and mountainous country there are no wheel carriages, unleſs what belong to the Dutch near the ſea-coaſt. The baggage is uſually carried upon the backs of their ſlaves.

Calico or cotton cloths, which they ſpin or weave, are the chief manufacture here; they make alſo braſs, copper, and earthen veſſels, ſwords, knives, and working-tools uſed by ſmiths, carpenters, and huſbandmen; goldſmiths work, painting, and carving, are alſo performed tolerably well, and they now make pretty good fire-arms.

We may trace their foreign trade up to the earlieſt ages. They ſupplied Perſia, Arabia, Egypt, and Ethiopia, with their ſpices, before Jacob went down into Egypt, which is above three thouſand years ſince, as appears by the hiſtory of Joſeph's being ſold to the Iſhmaelite merchants, who were travelling with a caravan acroſs Arabia to Egypt with the ſpices of India, of which the cinnamon of Ceylon, that lies near the coaſt of Hither India, was no doubt the chief: ſo profitable was this branch of trade, that all the nations above mentioned ſent colonies hither, whoſe deſcendants were planted here when the Portugueſe firſt viſited theſe coaſts.

The Portugueſe language is generally ſpoken upon the coaſt; the natives, however, have a language of their own, which comes neareſt to that ſpoken on the Malabar coaſt; and there is a dead language only ſpoken by their bramins or prieſts, in which the books relating to their religion are written.

They write upon the leaves of the talipot cut into pieces of three fingers broad, and two feet long, with a ſteel ſtyle or bodkin. They have long ſtudied aſtronomy, which they learnt from the Arabian colonies which had ſettled on theſe coaſts, and foretell eclipſes pretty exactly. They are great pretenders alſo to aſtrology, and by the planets calculate nativities, foretell future events, and direct people when will be the moſt lucky days for them to enter upon any affair of moment, or to begin a journey; and they find men weak enough to be impoſed upon, if they have been never ſo often diſappointed. Their year is divided into three hundred and ſixty-five days, and every day into thirty pays or parts, and their night into as many; and they have a little copper diſh, with a hole at the bottom of it, which being put empty into a tub of water, is filled during one of their pays, when it ſinks, and then it is put in the water again to meaſure another pay; for they have neither ſun-dials nor clocks.

Any of the male cinglaſſes may indifferently charge another within hearing (as we do the conſtables) to aid them in execution of their duty, or upon any emergency; but the women are not permitted to mention the king's name, upon the ſevere penalty of having their tongues cut out for the offence.

In Ceylon, the criminals are frequently impaled alive, others have ſtakes driven through their bodies, ſome are hung upon trees, and many are worried by dogs, who are ſo accuſtomed to the horrid butchery, that, on the days appointed for the death of criminals, they, by certain tokens, run to the place of execution. But the moſt remarkable criminal puniſhment is inflicted by the king himſelf, who rides an elephant trained up on purpoſe: the beaſt tramples the unhappy wretch to death, and tears him limb from limb.

Some are puniſhed by fines and impriſonment, at the diſcretion of the judges. When the fine is decreed, the officers ſeize the culprit, wherever they meet him, ſtrip him naked, his cloaths going as part of the payment, and oblige him to carry a large ſtone, the weight being daily increaſed by the addition of others that are ſmaller, till the money is either paid or remitted.

Sometimes a creditor will go to the houſe of the debtor, and very gravely affirm, that if he does not diſcharge the debt he owes him immediately, he will deſtroy himſelf: this ſo terrifies the other, that he inſtantly collects all the money he can, even ſelling his wife and children rather than be deficient, and pays the ſum demanded. This is owing to a law, which ſpecifies, that, if any man deſtroys himſelf on account of a debt not being diſcharged, the debtor ſhall immediately pay the money to the ſurviving relations, and forfeit his own life, unleſs he is able to redeem it by the payment of a very large ſum to the king.

They have two modes of deciding controverſies, the one is by imprecating curſes to fall upon them if they do not ſpeak the truth; and by the other, both perſons are obliged to put their fingers into boiling oil, when the perſon who can bear the pain the longeſt, and with the leaſt appearance of being affected, is deemed innocent. They have, however, methods of evading both theſe laws; the firſt, by uſing ambiguous expreſſions; and the latter, by certain preparations, which prevent the oil from doing them any injury.

It is not lawful to beat a woman without permiſſion from the king; ſo that they may thank his majeſty for all the blows they get. But they may be made to carry heavy baſkets of ſand upon their heads as long as the puniſher pleaſes, which is much more dreadful to them than a hearty drubbing. The circumſtances of the children entirely depend upon thoſe of the mother; for if the mother is a free woman, they are free; but if ſhe is a ſlave, they are always vaſſals.

As to phyſic, every one almoſt underſtands the common remedies, applying herbs or roots, according to the nature of the complaint; and they have an herb which cures the bite of a ſnake: but there are neither phyſicians or ſurgeons amongſt them, who make a profeſſion of this ſcience. As they abound in poiſonous herbs and plants, ſo they have others that are antidotes againſt them. Their diſeaſes are chiefly fevers, fluxes, and the ſmall-pox. They never bleed except when leeches ſeize them in the wet ſeaſon, as has been mentioned already, from which they acknowledge they have ſometimes received great benefit.

The natives worſhip God, but make no image of him; however they have idols, which are the repreſentatives of ſome great men that formerly lived upon earth, and are now, they imagine, mediators for them to the ſupreme God of heaven. The chief of theſe demi-gods is Buddow, who, according to their tradition, originally came from heaven in order to procure the happineſs of men, and aſcended thither again from Adam's mountain already mentioned, leaving the impreſſion of his foot on the rock. They are ſaid likewiſe to worſhip the devil, that he ſhould do them no miſchief: and another of their favourite idols is the tooth of a monkey. They worſhip in like manner the ſun and moon, and other planets. Every town has its tutelar dæmon, and every family their houſhold god beſides, to whom they build chapels in their courts, and ſacrifice and pay their devotions every morning; but to the ſupreme God they erect no temples or altars. There are three claſſes of idols, and as many orders of prieſts, who have their ſeveral temples, and to which eſtates in lands are appropriated. The god Buddow, already mentioned, is the chief of theſe ſubordinate deities, and his prieſts in the greateſt eſteem, being all of the higheſt caſt or tribe in the nation. They wear a yellow veſt and mantle, their heads ſhaved, and their beards grow to a great length. Their diſciples fall down on their faces before them; and they have a ſtool to ſit on wherever they viſit, which is an honour only ſhewn to their princes and magiſtrates.

Theſe prieſts have no commerce with women, drink no ſtrong liquor, and eat only one meal a day; but are debarred from no fleſh except beef. They are ſtiled ſons of the god Buddow, and cannot be called to account by the temporal power, whatever crimes they commit.

There

There is a ſecond order of prieſts that officiate in the temples of other idols; theſe are allowed to profeſs any ſecular employment, and are not diſtinguiſhed from the laity by their habit, but have, however, a certain revenue. Every morning and evening they attend the ſervice of their temples, and when the people ſacrifice rice and fruits, the prieſt preſents them before the idol, and then delivers them to the ſinging men and women, and other ſervants that belong to the temple, and to the poor that come to perform their devotions, who eat the proviſion: no fleſh is ever ſacrificed to the idols of this claſs.

The third order of prieſts have no revenues, but build temples for themſelves, without any election or conſecration, and beg money to maintain themſelves. This begging claſs are mountebanks in their way, ſhewing a variety of whimſical tricks for their bread. They are prohibited by law from touching the waters in wells or ſprings, and muſt not uſe any, but what is procured from rivers or ditches. They are conſidered in ſo deſpicable a light, that it is held diſgraceful to have any connections with them.

Wedneſdays and Saturdays are the times they reſort to the temples; and at the new and full moon they offer ſacrifices to the god Buddow; and on a new-year's day, in the month of March, they offer a ſolemn ſacrifice to him on a high mountain, or under a ſpreading tree which is deemed ſacred. The principal feſtival of the Chingulays is obſerved, in the month of July, in honour of the new moon, when a prieſt goes in pompous proceſſion with a garland of flowers, to which the people preſent their offerings. The ridiculous pageantry attending this feſtival was attempted to be aboliſhed in 1664; but the attempt cauſed an inſurrection, ſo that the kings of Ceylon are obliged to let them continue the ſolemn mummery.

They have alſo idols of monſtrous ſhapes and forms, made of ſilver, braſs, and other metals, and ſometimes of clay; but thoſe in Buddow's temples are the figures of men ſitting croſs-legged in yellow habits, like his prieſts, repreſenting ſome holy men, who, they ſay, are teachers of virtue, and benefactors to mankind.

The iſland of Ceylon was formerly divided into nine monarchies, but at preſent it is under the dominion of one king, whoſe court is kept in the center of the iſland, at a place called Digligy-Neur: the palace is but meanly built, though the gates are large, ſtately, and finely carved; the window-frames are made of ebony, and inlaid with ſilver: the king's elephants, troops, and ſpices are numerous, and his concubines many. The guards are commanded by Dutch and Portugueſe renegado officers. This monarch aſſumes great dignity, and demands much reſpect, which his ſubjects readily pay him, as they imagine that all their kings, immediately on their demiſe, are turned into gods. He expects that Chriſtians ſhould ſalute him kneeling and uncovered, but requires nothing more of them. His title is, Emperor of Ceylon, king of Candy, prince of Onva and the four Corles, great duke of the ſeven Corles, marquis of Duranura, lord of the ſea-ports and fiſheries of pearls and precious ſtones, lord of the golden ſun, &c. His revenue conſiſts in the gifts and offerings of his ſubjects; his palaces are built upon almoſt inacceſſible places for the greater ſecurity; no bridges are permitted to be erected over rivers or ſtreams, or good roads to be made, to render the country as impaſſable as poſſible. None are permitted to approach his palace without a paſſport ſtamped on clay. The troops are hereditary, and their weapons are ſwords, guns, pikes, bows and arrows, &c. They are ſubtle, but not courageous, and will not engage an enemy but by ſurpriſe, and when there is ſome manifeſt advantage in their own favour. It is ſo difficult to penetrate into the inland parts, and all the paſſes are ſo well guarded, that even the Dutch themſelves are unacquainted with the greateſt part of the iſland.

In 1505 the Portugueſe landed in Ceylon, and about twelve years after they eſtabliſhed factories there, the reigning king permitting them to build forts; and upon his demiſe, he declared the king of Portugal his heir; but in proceſs of time the Portugueſe behaving with great cruelty and arrogance, the young king of Candy invited in the Dutch, in 1639, who, after a tedious war, at length, in the year 1655, ſubdued the Portugueſe, and became maſters of the coaſt and trade. They drove the king, their ally, into the mountains, and with their wonted gratitude made him their tributary. The Dutch have in ſubſequent years committed many cruelties, and the natives frequently retaliate by making excurſions among them, or murdering all they meet with at a diſtance from the forts, and the interior part of the iſland.

SECT. X.

Containing a Deſcription of the MALDIVIA ISLANDS BOMBAY, and others in the Indian Seas.

ABOUT five hundred miles ſouth-weſt of Ceylon and cape Comorin, lie the Maldivia iſlands, ſo called from Male the chief of them, which is the reſidence of their king: they extend from four degrees ſouth latitude, to eight degrees north latitude, are about ſix hundred miles in length, and upwards of one hundred in the broadeſt part. They are ſaid to be one thouſand in number, but many of them are only large hillocks of ſand, and from the barrenneſs of the ſoil, are intirely uninhabited. The whole country is divided into thirteen provinces, called Attolons, each of which contains many ſmall iſlands, and is of a circular form, about one hundred miles in circumference. Theſe provinces all lie in a line, and are ſeparated by channels, four of which are navigable for large ſhips, but are very dangerous, on account of the amazing rocks that break the force of the ſea, and raiſe prodigious ſurges. At the bottom of theſe channels is found a ſubſtance like white coral, which when boiled in cocoa-water, greatly reſembles ſugar. The currents run eaſt and weſt alternately ſix months, but the time of the change is uncertain; and ſometimes they ſhift from north to ſouth.

The climate is exceeding ſultry, this country lying near the equinoctial on both ſides: the nights, however, are tolerably cool, and produce heavy dews that are refreſhing to the trees and vegetables. Their winter commences in April, and continues till October, during which they have perpetual rains and ſtrong eaſterly winds; but they never have any froſt. The ſummer begins in October, and continues ſix months, during which time the winds are eaſterly and the heat is ſo exceſſive as ſcarce to be borne, there not being any rain during that ſeaſon.

Theſe iſlands are in general very fertile; and produce great quantities of millet, and another grain much like it, of both which they have two harveſts every year. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of roots that ſerve for food, particularly a ſort of bread-fruit called nell-pou, which grows wild and in great plenty. The woods produce excellent fruits, as cocoas, citrons, pomegranates, and Indian figs. Their only animals for uſe are ſheep and buffaloes, except a few cows and bulls that belong to the king, and are imported from the continent; but theſe are only uſed at particular feſtivals. They have little domeſtic poultry, but are ſupplied with prodigious quantities of wild fowl that are caught in the woods, and ſold at a very low price. They have alſo plenty of wild pigeons, ducks, rails, and birds reſembling ſparrow-hawks. The ſea produces moſt kind of fiſh, great quantities of which are exported from hence to Sumatra. Among the fiſh is one called a cowrie, the ſhells of which (called in England black-amoor's teeth) are uſed in moſt parts of the Indies inſtead of coin.

Snakes are the only poiſonous animals here; there is a dangerous ſort of them that frequent the borders of the ſea; but the inhabitants are greatly infeſted with rats, dormice, piſmires, and other ſorts of vermin, which are very deſtructive to their proviſions, fruit, and other periſhable commodities; for which reaſon they build their granaries on piles in the ſea, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore; and in this manner moſt of the king's granaries are built.

The natives of the Maldives are very robuſt, of an olive complexion, and well-featured. They are naturally ingenious, and apply themſelves with great induſtry to various manufactures, particularly the making of ſilk and cotton. They are cautious and ſharp in trading: and are courageous and well ſkilled in arms. The common people go almoſt naked, having only a piece of cotton faſtened round their waiſt, except on feſtival days, when they wear cotton or ſilk jerkins, with waiſtcoats, the ſleeves of which reach only to the elbows: the wealthier ſort tie a piece of cloth between their legs and round the waiſt, next to which they have a piece of blue or red cotton that reaches to the knees, and to that is joined a large piece of cotton or ſilk, reaching to their ancles, and girded with a ſquare handkerchief embroidered with gold or ſilver; and the whole is ſecured by a large ſilk girdle fringed, the ends of which hang down before; and within this girdle, on the left ſide, they keep their money and betel, and on the right ſide a knife. They ſet a great value on this inſtrument, from its being their only weapon; for none but the king's officers and ſoldiers are permitted to wear any other. The richer ſort wear turbans on their heads made of ſilk richly ornamented, but thoſe of the meaner ſort are made of cotton, and only ornamented with ribbons of various colours.

In theſe iſlands the women are fairer than the men, and in general of a very agreeable diſpoſition. They wear a coat of cotton or ſilk that reaches from the waiſt to the ancles, over which they have a long robe of taffety, or fine cotton, that extends from the ſhoulders to the feet, and is faſtened round the neck by two gilt buttons. Their hair is black, which is eſteemed a great ornament; and to obtain this, they keep their daughters heads ſhaved till they are eight or nine years of age, leaving only a little hair on the forehead to diſtinguiſh them from the boys. They waſh their heads and hair in water, to make the latter thick and long, and let it hang looſe, that the air may dry it, after which they perfume it with an odoriferous oil. When this is done, they ſtroke all the hair backwards from the forehead, and tie it behind in a knot, to which they add a large lock of man's hair; and the whole is curiouſly ornamented with flowers of various colours.

The common people have houſes built of cocoa-wood, and covered with leaves ſewed one within another; but the ſuperior ſort build their houſes of ſtone, which is taken from under the flats and rocks in the following manner: among other trees in this iſland, is one called candou, which is exceedingly ſoft, and, when dry and ſawed into planks is much lighter than cork; the natives, who are excellent ſwimmers, dive under water, and, having fixed upon a ſtone for their purpoſe, they faſten a ſtrong rope to it: after this, they take a plank of the candou wood, which, having a hole bored in it, is put on the rope, and forced down quite to the ſtone: they then run on a number of other boards till the light wood riſes up to the top, dragging the ſtone along with it. By this contrivance the natives weighed up the cannon and anchors of a French ſhip that was caſt away here about a century ago.

The people are in general very polite, particularly thoſe on the iſland of Male, but they are very libidinous, and fornication is not conſidered as any crime: neither muſt any perſon offer inſult to a woman that has been guilty of miſconduct previous to marriage. Every man is permitted to have three wives if he can maintain them, but not more. The girls are marriageable at eight years of age, when they wear an additional covering on their necks: the boys go naked till ſeven, when they are circumciſed, and wear the uſual dreſs of the country afterwards.

The Maldivians are very abſtemious in their diet, their principal food conſiſting of roots made into meal and baked; particularly thoſe called nell-pou and elas, the latter of which they dreſs ſeveral ways; they alſo make a pottage of milk, cocoa, honey, and bread, which they eſteem an excellent diſh; and their common drink is water. They ſit croſs-legged at their meals, in the ſame manner as in other eaſtern countries; the floor on which they ſit is covered with a fine mat, and they uſe banana leaves inſtead of table cloths. Their diſhes are chiefly of china, all veſſels of gold or ſilver being prohibited by law: they are made round with a cover, over which is a piece of ſilk to keep out the ants. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and in ſo careful a manner as not to let any fall; and if they have occaſion to ſpit, they riſe from the table, and walk out. They do not drink till they have finiſhed their meal, for they conſider that as a mark of rudeneſs; and they are very cautious of eating in the preſence of ſtrangers. They have no ſet meals, but eat when the appetite demands, and all their proviſions are dreſſed by the women; for this buſineſs is accounted diſgraceful to a man.

Being naturally very cleanly, as ſoon as they riſe in the morning they waſh themſelves, rub their eyes with oil, and black their eye-brows. They are alſo very careful in waſhing and cleanſing their teeth, that they may the better receive the ſtain of the betel and areka, which is red, and the colour they are particularly fond of. They preſent betel to each other upon occaſional ſalutations, as they always keep ſome about them.

They preſerve many Pagan cuſtoms, though their religion is Mahometaniſm: when meeting with any diſaſter at ſea, they pray to the king of the winds; and there is in every iſland a place, where they who have eſcaped danger make offerings to him of little veſſels made for the purpoſe, in which they put fragrant woods, flowers, and other perfumes, and then turn the veſſel adrift to the mercy of the waves. They dare not ſpit to the windward, for fear of offending this airy deity; and all the veſſels which are devoted to him are kept as clean as their moſques. They impute croſſes, ſickneſs, and death to the devil; and, in order to pacify him, in a certain place, make him banquets and offerings of flower

Each of their moſques is ſituated in the center of a ſquare, and round it they bury their dead: they are very neat buildings, have three doors, each aſcended by a flight of ſteps: the walls within are wainſcotted, and the ceiling is of wood beautifully variegated. The floor is of poliſhed ſtone, covered with mats and tapeſtry; and the ceiling and wainſcotting are firmly joined without either nails or pegs. Each moſque has its prieſt, who, beſides the duties of his office, teaches the children to read and write the Maldivian language, which is a radical tongue; he alſo inſtructs them in the Arabic language, and is rewarded for theſe ſervices by the parents.

Such people here as are very religious go to their moſque five times a day; and, before they enter it, they waſh their feet, hands, ears, eyes, and mouth: this they never neglect to do. They who do not chuſe to go to the moſque, may ſay their prayers at home; but if they are known to omit doing one or the other, they are treated with the greateſt contempt, and every body avoids their company.

Friday is the day on which they keep their ſabbath, which is celebrated with great feſtivity; and the ſame is obſerved on the day of every new moon. They have ſeveral other feſtivals in the courſe of the year; the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which is one called maulude, and is held in the month of October, on the night of which Mahomet died. On this occaſion a large wooden houſe, or hall, is erected on a particular part of the iſland, the inſide of which is lined with the richeſt tapeſtry. In the center of the hall is a table covered with various ſorts of proviſions, and round it are hung a prodigious number of lamps, the ſmoke of which gives a moſt fragrant ſcent. The people aſſemble about eight o'clock in the evening, and are placed by proper officers appointed for that purpoſe, according to their reſpective ſtations. The prieſts and other eccleſiaſtics ſing till midnight, when the whole aſſembly fall proſtrate on the ground, in which poſture they continue till the head prieſt riſes, when the reſt follow his example. The people are then ſerved with betel and drink; and when the ſervice is intirely over, each takes a part of the proviſions on the table, and preſerve, as a ſacred relic, with the utmoſt care.

When two perſons intend to enter into the marriage ſtate, the man gives notice of his deſign to the pandiare, or naybe, who aſks him if he is willing to have the woman propoſed; on his anſwering in the affirmative, the pandiare queſtions the parents as to their conſent: if they approve of it, the woman is brought, and the parties are married in the preſence of their friends and relations. After the ceremony is over, the woman is conducted to her huſband's houſe, where ſhe is viſited by her friends, and a grand entertainment is provided on the occaſion. The bridegroom makes preſents to the king, and the bride equally compliments the queen. The man does not receive any dowry with his wife, and he is not only obliged to pay the expence of the nuptial ceremony, and to maintain her, but he muſt likewiſe ſettle a jointure upon her, though if ſhe thinks proper, ſhe may relinquiſh it after marriage. A woman cannot part from her huſband without his conſent, though a man may divorce his wife; but if ſhe does not aſſent to the ſeparation, ſhe may demand her jointure; yet as this is conſidered as a mean act, it is ſeldom practiſed.

On the death of any perſon the corpſe is waſhed by one of the ſame ſex, of which there are ſeveral in each iſland appointed for that purpoſe. After this, it is wrapped up in cotton, with the right hand placed on the ear, and the left on the thigh. Then it is laid on the right ſide in a coffin of candou wood, and carried to the place of interment by ſix relations or friends, and followed by the neighbours, who attend without being invited. The grave is covered with a large piece of ſilk or cotton, which after the interment, becomes the property of the prieſt. The corpſe is laid in the grave with the face towards Mahomet's tomb; and, after it is depoſited, the grave is filled up with white ſand ſprinkled with water. In the proceſſion both to and from the grave, the relations ſcatter cowries for the benefit of the poor, and give pieces of gold and ſilver to the prieſt, according to the circumſtances of the deceaſed. The prieſt ſings continually during the ceremony; and when the whole is over, the relations invite the company to a feaſt. They incloſe their graves with wooden rails, for they conſider it as a ſin for any perſon to walk over them; and they pay ſuch reſpect to the bones of the dead, that no perſons, not even the prieſts, dare touch them.

In their habit on theſe occaſions they make little difference: the mourners only go bareheaded to the grave, and continue ſo for a few days after the funeral is ſolemnized.

If a perſon dies at ſea, the body, after being waſhed, is put

put into a coffin, with a written paper mentioning his religion, and requeſting thoſe who may meet with the corpſe to give it decent interment. They then ſing over it, and, after having completed their ceremonies, commit it to the waves on a plank of candou wood.

The iſland of Male, where the king reſides, is ſituated in the center of the reſt, and is about five miles in circumference. The palace is built of ſtone, and divided into ſeveral courts and apartments; but it is only one ſtory high, and the architecture very inſignificant: however, it is elegantly furniſhed within, and ſurrounded with gardens, in which are fountains and ciſterns of water. The portal is built like a ſquare tower, and in feſtival days the muſicians ſing and play upon the top of it. The ground floors of the reſpective apartments are raiſed three feet, to avoid the ants, and are covered with ſilk tapeſtry, fringed and flowered with gold. The king's beds are hung like hammocks between two pillars ornamented with gold, and when he lies down, his attendants rock him to ſleep.

The dreſs of the king uſually conſiſts of a coat made of fine white cloth or cotton, with white and blue edgings, faſtened with buttons of ſolid gold: under this is a piece of red embroidered tapeſtry that reaches down to his heels, and is faſtened with a large ſilk girdle fringed, and a great gold chain before, with a locket formed of the moſt precious ſtones. He wears a ſcarlet cap on his head, which is a colour ſo eſteemed, that no other perſon dare preſume to uſe it. This cap is laced with gold, and on the top of it is a large gold button with a precious ſtone. The grandees and ſoldiers wear long hair, but the king's head is ſhaved once a week; he goes bare-legged, but wears ſandals of gilt copper, which are worn only by the royal family.

The dignity of the king, when he goes abroad, is particularly diſtinguiſhed by a white umbrella, which no other perſons, except ſtrangers, are permitted to uſe. He has three pages near his perſon, one of whom carries his fur, another his ſword and buckler, and a third his box of betel and areka, which he almoſt conſtantly chews. He goes to the moſque on Fridays (their ſabbath) in great pomp, his guards dancing, and ſtriking their ſwords on each others targets to the ſound of muſic; and is attended, on his return, by the principal people of the iſland. He either walks, or is carried in a chair by ſlaves, there being no beaſts of burden.

The queen is attended, when ſhe goes abroad, by a great number of female ſlaves, ſome of whom go before, to give notice to the men to keep out of the way; and four ladies carry a veil of white ſilk over her head, that reaches to the ground: on this occaſion, all the women from the ſeveral diſtricts meet her with flowers, fruits, &c. She and her ladies frequently bathe in the ſea for their health, for the convenience of which they have a place on the ſhore cloſe to the water, which is incloſed, and the top of it covered with white cotton. The only light in the chambers of the queen, or thoſe of the ladies of quality, is what lamps afford, which are kept continually burning, it being the cuſtom of the country never to admit day-light. The drawing-room, or that part where they uſually retire, is blocked up with four or five rows of tapeſtry, the innermoſt of which none muſt lift up till they have coughed, and told their names.

The guards appointed to attend on the king's perſon conſiſt of ſix hundred, who are commanded by his grandees; and he has conſiderable magazines of arms, cannon, and ſeveral ſorts of ammunition. His revenues conſiſt chiefly of a number of iſlands appropriated to the crown, with certain taxes on the various production of others; in the money paid to purchaſe titles and offices, and for licences to wear fine cloaths. Beſides theſe, he has a claim to all goods imported by ſhipping; for when a veſſel arrives, the king is acquainted with its contents, out of which he takes what he thinks proper at a low price, and obliges his ſubjects to purchaſe them of him again at what ſum he pleaſes to fix, by way of exchange, for ſuch commodities as beſt ſuit him. All the ambergris found in this country, (which produces more than any other part of the Indies) is alſo the property of the king; and ſo narrowly is it watched, that a perſon would be puniſhed with the loſs of his right hand, if detected in converting it to his own uſe.

Moſt of the nobility and gentry live in the north parts of this iſland, for the convenience of being near the court; and ſo much is this diviſion eſteemed, that when the king baniſhes a criminal, the ſending him to the ſouth is thought to be a ſufficient puniſhment.

Abſolute monarchy prevails in the government here, as every thing depends on the king's pleaſure. Each attolon, or province, has a naybe, or governor, who is both a prieſt and a doctor of the law. He not only preſides over the inferior prieſts, and is veſted with the management of all religious affairs, but he is likewiſe intruſted with the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal caſes. They are in fact ſo many judges, and make four circuits every year throughout their juriſdiction; but they have a ſuperior, called the pandiare, who reſides in the iſle of Male, and is not only the ſupreme judge of all cauſes, but alſo the head of the church. He receives appeals from the governor of each province, but does not paſs ſentence without conſulting ſeveral learned doctors; and from him appeals are carried to the king, who refers the matter to ſix of his privy-council. The pandiare makes a circuit once a year through the iſland of Male, (as every governor in his reſpective province does) and condemns all to be ſcourged, that cannot ſay their creed and prayers in the Arabic tongue, and conſtrue them in the Maldivian. At this time the women muſt not appear in the ſtreet unveiled, on pain of having their hair cut off, and their heads ſhaved, which is deemed very diſgraceful.

They have various modes of puniſhment for crimes. If a man is murdered, the wife cannot proſecute the criminal; but if the deceaſed has left any children, the judge obliges him to maintain them till they are of age, when they may either proſecute or pardon the murderer. The ſtealing any thing valuable is puniſhed with the loſs of a hand, and for trifling matters they are baniſhed to the ſouthern iſlands. An adultereſs is puniſhed by having her hair cut off, and thoſe guilty of perjury pay a pecuniary mulct. Notwithſtanding the law makes homicide death, yet a criminal is never condemned to die, unleſs it is expreſly ordered by the king; in which caſe he orders his own ſoldiers to execute the ſentence.

The chief articles exported from theſe iſlands are, cocoa-nuts, cowries, and tortoiſe-ſhell, the latter of which is exceedingly beautiful, and not to be met with in any other place except the Philippine iſlands. The imported articles are, iron, ſteel, ſpices, china, rice, &c. all which, as we obſerved, are ingroſſed by the king, who ſells them to his ſubjects at his own price.

They have only one ſort of money here, which is ſilver, called lorrins, each of which is about the value of eightpence. It is about two inches in length, and folded, the king's name being ſet upon the folds in Arabic characters. One thouſand two hundred cowries make a lorrin; in their own markets, they frequently barter one thing for another. Their gold and ſilver is all imported from abroad, and is current here as in all other parts of the Indies, by weight.

Theſe iſlands are happily placed, with reſpect to each other, for producing mutual commerce to the reſpective inhabitants, for though the thirteen attolons, or provinces, are in the ſame climate, and all of them very fertile, yet they produce ſuch different commodities, that the people in one cannot live without what is found in another. The inhabitants have likewiſe ſo divided themſelves, as greatly to enhance this commercial advantage; for all the weavers live in one iſland, the goldſmiths in another, and the like of the different manufactures. In order, however, to render the communication eaſy, theſe artificers have ſmall boats, built high on the ſides, in which they work, ſleep, and eat, while ſailing from one iſland to another to expoſe their goods to ſale, and ſometimes they are out a conſiderable time before they return to their fixed habitations.

Bombay is ſituate on an iſland near the weſt coaſt of India, in ſeventy-two degrees eaſtern longitude, and nineteen degrees north latitude. It has an excellent harbour, from whence the Portugueſe were the firſt Europeans that poſſeſſed it, gave it the name of Boonbay, now corruptly called Bombay. The iſland on which it ſtands, is about twenty miles in circumference: the chief town is a mile in length, meanly built: the fort ſtands at a diſtance from it. The iſland is inhabited by Engliſh, Portugueſe, and Moors: there are three or four more ſmall towns on the iſland. The ſoil is barren, and the water bad: they preſerve the rain-water, therefore, in ciſterns, and there is a well of pretty good freſh water about a mile from the town. The king of Portugal transferred this iſland to Charles II. king of Great-Britain, as part of the portion of the infanta Katharine, whom he married, in the year 1662, and the king afterwards gave it to the Eaſt India company. The fort has been beſieged both by the Mogul and the Dutch, but neither of them were able to take it.

Though Bombay lies within the tropics, yet the climate is not diſagreeable to the conſtitution of the Europeans; there

there are but few days in the courſe of the year, in which the weather is very intenſe; the ſhort hot ſeaſon precedes the periodical return of the rains: the night-dews, however, are extremely dangerous, therefore great care ſhould be taken not to be expoſed to them. If people would but live temperately in this place, they need not be afraid of the climate, which is far healthier than in any other of the European ſettlements; and there are now ſome good phyſicians on the iſland. They have wet weather at Bombay about four months in the year, which is commonly introduced by a very violent thunder ſtorm: during this ſeaſon all trading veſſels are laid up. The rains begin about the latter end of May, and continue till September, when the black merchants keep a feſtival, gilding a cocoa-nut, which they conſecrate and commit to the waves.

What they abound in moſt is their groves of cocoa-trees, their rice-fields, and onion-grounds. Their gardens alſo produce mangoes, jacks, and other Indian fruits; and they make large quantities of ſalt, with very little trouble, from the ſea-water, which being let into little pits, extracts the mixture, and the ſalt is left behind.

The town or city of Bombay is a mile long, and ſurrounded by a wall or ditch, it has alſo a pretty good caſtle; ſo that it is well ſecured, and eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt places belonging to the Eaſt-India company. The houſes of the Engliſh here conſiſt in general of a ground-floor, with a court both before and behind, in which are offices and out-houſes. Moſt of the windows are of tranſparent oyſter-ſhells, which admit a pretty good light; and the flooring of their habitation is a ſort of ſtucco compoſed of ſhells that have been burnt; this they call chunam, which, being well tempered, and becoming hard, has an elegant poliſh on it. The houſes in which the black merchants reſide, are in general ill-contrived, aukward ſtructures.

The Engliſh church is a very neat building, ſituated on a pleaſant green, round which are the houſes of the Engliſh. As to the pagodas of the Gentoos, they are ſuch wretched edifices, as to be unworthy of notice.

The government is entirely Engliſh, ſubordinate to the India company, who appoint by commiſſion a preſident and council: and the marine and military force is under the immediate direction of the preſident, who is ſtiled commander in chief.

The common ſoldiers are of many nations, ſome Portugueſe, ſome Dutch, and others French: what are called topaſſes, are for the moſt part black, or of a mixed breed from the Portugueſe. There are alſo regular companies of the natives, who are called ſeapoys.

Any popiſh prieſt, except a Portugueſe, may officiate in the churches of the three Roman catholic pariſhes, into which Bombay is divided; but the Engliſh formed an objection againſt the Portugueſe, from an apprehenſion that theſe fathers might have rather too cloſe a connection with others of their own country, in the adjacent ſettlements belonging to their maſter. There are no diſputes in this town about profeſſions in religion, all alike are tolerated. Liberty of conſcience, freedom of ſpeech, riches, and honours, diſtinguiſh the people and clime.

The inhabitants of Bombay, are a mixture of ſeveral nations, Engliſh, Portugueſe, and Indians, amounting, as it is ſaid, to fifty or ſixty thouſand. The preſident of Surat is uſually governor of the place, who has a deputy here, and courts of juſtice after the model of England. And the governor, when he is upon the iſland, appears in greater ſtate than the governor of fort St. George, being attended when he goes abroad, by two troops of Moors and Bandarins, with their ſtandards. The natives, and thoſe who are ſeaſoned to the country, enjoy a tolerable ſtate of health, and, if they uſe temperance, live to a good old age; and thoſe who go over young, do pretty well.

Near Bombay are ſeveral iſlands, the chief of which are Butcher's iſland, Elephanta, and Salſette. The firſt is ſo called from great numbers of cattle being kept in it for the uſe of Bombay; and the ſecond has its name from the enormous figure of an elephant cut in ſtone, and which at a diſtance appears as if alive, the ſtone being exactly of the colour of that quadruped. On this iſland, which is nearly one intire hill, and about three miles in circumference, there is a temple hewn from a rock. This real curioſity, which is ſupported by two rows of pillars, is ten feet high; it is an oblong ſquare, about eighty feet in length, and about forty in breadth; and its roof is formed of the rock cut flat. At the farther end of this ſingular ſtructure ſtand the figures of two giants, the faces of which however, have been much mutilated; the Portugueſe, when they became poſſeſſed of this iſland, diſfiguring and injuring thoſe pieces of antiquity as much as poſſible. This curious fabric has two doors, which front each other; near one of them are ſeveral images, much diſfigured: and there is one image ſtanding erect, with a drawn dagger in one hand, and a child in the other. The other door, which opens on the left hand, has an area before it; at the upper end of which is a range of pillars or colonade, adjoining to an apartment ornamented with regular architecture, round the cornices of which are ſome paintings. The whole of this temple differs from any of the moſt antique Gentoo buildings; but with reſpect to the æra when genius and labour produced it, no diſcoveries have yet been made.

To the northward of Bombay lies Salſette, being about twenty-ſix miles in length, and nine or ten broad. Here is a ruinated place called Canara, where are ſeveral caverns in rocks, which conſiderably gratify the curioſity of ſuch Europeans as viſit them. The ſoil of Salſette is extremely fertile, and great plenty of game is found in this iſland, which it muſt be acknowledged is a moſt agreeable ſituation. It was originally comprehended under the regality of Bombay, and of conſequence became the property of the Engliſh crown when Bombay was given to king Charles II. but the Portugueſe defrauded us of it, though it is ſo connected with Bombay, that the people thereof cannot well ſubſiſt without it, having of neceſſity almoſt all their proviſions from it. The Portugueſe, however, loſt this iſland by the invaſion of the Marattas, who inhabit the continent bordering on Bombay: they are a very formidable tribe of Gentoos, who have extended their dominions by dint of arms. Their chief or king reſides generally on the mountains of Decan, at a fort called Raree, reported to be the ſtrongeſt place in the univerſe: it is ſo well and powerfully guarded by nature, that no enemy can approach it, being ſurrounded by ſteep inacceſſible rocks. In this well-defended fort the king, or mar-rajah, holds his court, and lives in great ſplendor. He has long been the avowed foe of the Moguls, Subahs, and Nabobs; making war and concluding treaties juſt as it ſuits his intereſt or ambition.

The Marattas are alike bred to arms and agriculture: they learnt the uſe of the former from the Europeans, though they depend greatly on their targets, which will turn the ball of a piſtol, and even that of a muſket, from ſome diſtance. Their muſkets are very indifferent; but their ſwords are excellent, and they uſe them with great execution. Their targets are quite round, and riſe in the centre nearly to a point. The horſes on which they ride are ſmall, active, and will go through a deal of fatigue.

European arts and manufactures receive little encouragement among theſe people, who prefer thoſe of their own country to the moſt curious that can be ſhewn them from foreign parts.

On an iſland about twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and in fifteen degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and ſeventy-four degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude from London, ſtands the large and ſtrong town of Goa, which is the principal place belonging to the Portugueſe in India: it was taken by them in 1508. It has the convenience of a fine ſalt water river, capable of receiving ſhips of the greateſt burden, where they lie within a mile of the town. The banks of the river are beautified with a great number of handſome ſtructures, ſuch as churches, caſtles, and gentlemens houſes. The air without the town is very unwholeſome, for which reaſon it is not ſo well inhabited now as formerly. The viceroy's palace is a noble building, and ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from the city, which leads to a ſpacious ſtreet, terminated by a beautiful church.

Goa contains a great number of handſome churches, convents, and cloiſters, with a ſtately large hoſpital, all well endowed, and kept in good repair. The market place takes up an acre of ground; and in the ſhops about it may be had the produce of Europe, China, Bengal, and other countries of leſs note. Every church has a ſet of bells, ſome of which are continually ringing.

Their religion is the Roman catholic, and they have a ſevere inquiſition. There are a great many Indian converts, and they generally retain ſome of their old cuſtoms; particularly they cannot be brought to eat beef. However, there are many Gentoos in the city, who are tolerated, becauſe they are more induſtrious than the Chriſtians, and better artiſts. The clergy are very numerous and illiterate; but the churches are finely embelliſhed, and have great numbers of images. Their houſes, which are of ſtone are ſpacious and handſome, and make a fine ſhew; but within they are poorly furniſhed.

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The inhabitants are contented with greens, fruits, and roots, which, with a little bread, rice, and fiſh, is their principal diet, though they have hogs and fowls in plenty. However, they are much addicted to women, and are generally weak, lean, and feeble. Captain Hamilton, when he was in this iſland, ſtood on a hill near the city, and counted above eighty churches, convents, and monaſteries; and he was told, that there were about thirty thouſand prieſts and monks. The body of St. Francis Xavier is buried in St. Paul's church, and, as they pretend, performs a great many miracles. None of the churches, except one, have glaſs windows; for they make uſe of oyſter ſhells inſtead of glaſs, and all their fine houſes have the ſame.

The town itſelf has few manufactures or productions, their beſt trade being in arrack, which they diſtil from toddy, the ſap of the cocoa-nut tree. The river's mouth is defended by ſeveral forts and batteries, well planted with large cannon on both ſides; and there are ſeveral other forts in different places. This ſettlement is two hundred and fifty miles north by weſt of Cochin.

The iſland of Diu or Dio, ſituated in ſixty-eight degrees fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and twenty-one degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, is three miles long and two broad. The town, which bears the ſame name, is pretty large, and fortified by a high ſtone wall, with baſtions at convenient diſtances, and well furniſhed with cannon. The harbour is ſecured by two caſtles, one of which is made uſe of for powder, and other warlike ſtores. It was one of the beſt places in thoſe parts, the ſtructures being built of free-ſtone and marble. It contains five or ſix fine churches well embelliſhed within with images and painting, built by the Portugueſe; but it is much decayed of late years, not one fourth part of it being inhabited. In 1670 it was taken by the Arabs, who plundered all the churches and other places of their riches, but were driven away with the loſs of one thouſand men. There are not now above two hundred Portugueſe inhabitants, for the reſt are Banians, who may amount to forty thouſand. If this town was in good hands, it would be the beſt place for trade on the coaſt.

The Johor iſlands lie to the north-eaſt of cape Romano, but produce nothing fit for the carrying on commerce. Pulo Aure, one of them, is peopled by Malays, who are ſaid to form a ſort of republic, headed by a chief. In this iſland are ſeveral mountains, on which are many plantations of cocoa-trees. Articles in trade are purchaſed here with iron, and the people have the character of being very honeſt, friendly, and hoſpitable.

The iſland and town of Sincapour, or Sincapora, lie at the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula of Malacca, and give name to the ſouth-eaſt part of Malacca ſtraights. Here is a mountain which yields excellent diamonds, and ſugar-canes grow to a great ſize. The ſoil of Sincapour is fruitful, and the woods produce good timber for ſhip building.

There are ſeveral iſlands in the Eaſt Indian ſea, lying off the coaſt of Cambodia, the principal of which, called Pulo-Condore, is the only one inhabited. It is ſituated in one hundred and ſeven degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, and eight degrees thirty-ſix minutes north latitude. It is about thirteen miles in length, and nine in breadth; but in ſome places not above a mile over.

The inhabitants of this iſland are of a middle ſtature, and well ſhaped, but their complexion is exceedingly ſwarthy. Their hair is ſtrait and black, their eyes are remarkably ſmall, and their noſes high; they have thin lips, ſmall mouths, and white teeth, and in their diſpoſitions are very courteous. They go almoſt naked, except on very particular occaſions, when they are dreſſed in a long garment girded about the waiſt, and ornamented with various coloured ribbands.

Their houſes are built of bamboos, covered with long graſs; but they are very ſmall. They are raiſed ſeveral feet from the earth, on account of the dampneſs of the ground; and they have neither doors or windows; ſo that one ſide is left open as well for convenience of light, as for the entrance of the people. They are very free of their women, and will bring them on board the ſhips, where they are kept by the ſailors while they ſtay.

Theſe people are idolaters, but of what kind is not known; however, they have images of elephants in their temples, as well as horſes. In a ſmall village, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, is a temple, which is a mean edifice built of wood: within it is the figure of an elephant, and without is that of a horſe.

The ſoil of theſe iſlands is a brackiſh, and pretty deep, but the hills are ſomewhat ſtony. The trees are not very thick, but large, tall, and fit for any uſe. The principal fruits are mangoes, a ſort of grapes, and baſtard nutmegs. The animals are hogs, lizards, and gnanoes; there are fowls of various kinds, as turtle-doves, pigeons, wild cocks and hens, parrots and parroquets, and ſeveral ſorts of birds not known in Europe. The ſea produces great plenty of turtles, limpets, and muſcles; the chief employment of the inhabitants, is, to get tar out of the very large trees that grow here.

In 1702 the Engliſh ſettled on this iſland, after the factory of Chuſan, on the coaſt of China, was broke up. However they continued here but a ſhort time; for, having made an agreement with ſome Macaſſars, natives of the iſland of Celebes, to ſerve for ſoldiers, and aſſiſt in building a fort, and not diſcharging them at the end of three years, (for which term they were engaged) they roſe in the night, and murdered every Engliſhman they could find on the iſland. The Engliſh had purchaſed this iſland of the king of Cambodia, to whom, after this circumſtance, it again reverted. Few remains of the fort are now ſtanding, it having been for the moſt part demoliſhed.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas; namely, 1. Pulo-Dinding, near the continent of Malacca, which belongs to the Dutch, where they have a fort. 2. Pulo-Timon, on the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula of Malacca, in one hundred and five degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, and three degrees twelve minutes north latitude. It is pretty large, covered with trees, and the vallies are very pleaſant. It is often touched at for wood, water, and other refreſhments; and there is great plenty of green turtles. 3. Pulo-Way, near the iſland of Sumatra: it is ſituated in twenty-one degrees forty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude, and five degrees forty minutes north latitude, and is the largeſt of all thoſe which form the entrance of the channel of Achem, and is peopled by men baniſhed from Achem. 4. Puna, one hundred and twenty miles north of Patay, one thouſand degrees five minutes weſt longitude, and three degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, it lies at the entrance of the bay of Guiaquil.

SECT. XI.

Treating of the ASIATIC ISLANDS under the Dominion of the Turks.

THE Turks are poſſeſſed of all the iſlands that are diſperſed about the Archipelago; but, from the rigorous government of the Ottomans, they are greatly degenerated from their priſtine opulence and importance.

We ſhall deſcribe them as they lie, beginning with thoſe ſituated to the weſtward; namely, 1. Tenedos; 2. Leſbos; 3. Careeners; 4. Chios; 5. Pſara; 6. Samos; 7. Icaria, or Nicaria; 8. Patmos; 9. Claros; 10. Leros; 11. The Mandria iſles; 12. Coos, or Stanchio; 13. Stampalia; 14. Carpanthus; 15. Iſles in the gulf of Smyrna. Thoſe ſituated to the northward, are, Rhodes and Cyprus.

1. Tenedos. This is one of the ſmalleſt in the Ægean ſea, but was greatly famed among the antients. It lies in forty degrees north latitude and ſixteen degrees eaſt longitude, exactly oppoſite to Troy, from the ſhore of which it is about two leagues diſtant, and indeed formed the Trojan harbour. The Grecians concealed their fleet behind this iſland, in order to delude the Trojans, by making them ſuppoſe that they had raiſed the ſiege, and returned to Greece. The inhabitants of this iſland were reduced to the utmoſt indigence after the fall of Troy, were at length conquered by the Perſians, and afterwards alternately ſubdued by the Lacedæmonians, Romans, and Turks.

This iſland is near twenty miles in circumference, and had formerly a conſiderable city, and two havens: it was likewiſe celebrated for a temple dedicated to Apollo Sminthius. The only antiquities now to be ſeen on this iſland are the ruins of the granaries built by the emperor Juſtinian; they were two hundred and eighty feet in length, and ninety in breadth. In this iſland is produced the beſt and moſt delicious wine in all the Levant, which is called Muſcadine, and is held in the higheſt repute both by Europeans and Aſiatics.

Tenedos is ſurrounded by rocks, and contains ſeveral towns, or rather villages, the principal of which has the ſame name, as the iſland, is inhabited by Greeks, and adorned with many fountains of white marble, being made of ſtones brought from the ruins of Troy. A ſtrong caſtle, flanked with ſquare towers, ſtands on the north of the town, cloſe to the ſea: beſides which, two round

towers, and a battery of twenty cannon, defend the haven. To the ſouth of the port there is another caſtle, which commands the harbour and town, and is conſequently of the utmoſt importance to the place. Here are ſhewn the tomb of Marpeſia queen of the Amazons, and that of the Grecian hero Achilles.

2. Leſbos; which is one of the principal iſlands of the Archipelago, is about ſixty miles from Tenedos, and near eight miles from the continent of Aſia Minor: it lies under the thirty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the twenty-ſixth and twenty-ſeventh degrees eaſt longitude, being about ſeventy miles in length, and one hundred and eighty-ſix in compaſs.

The chief cities of Leſbos were, 1. Ariſba, which was intirely deſtroyed by an earthquake. 2. Pyrrha, on the weſtern coaſt towards Greece, which met with the ſame fate, as the former, as did Hiera and Agamis.

3. Ereſſus; which was ſituated on the ſouthern promontory of the iſland, and only famous for having been the birth-place of the celebrated Theophraſtus, who ſucceeded Ariſtotle in his peripatetic academy. 4. Antiſſa, according to Strabo, was formerly an iſland of itſelf, and was called Antiſſa from being oppoſite to Leſbos, which was then known by the name of Iſſa. This city was deſtroyed by the Romans, on account of its diſſaffection to their government. 5. Methymna was the place of Arion's nativity, and in great repute for the excellent wine which the inhabitants made. 6. Mitylene, the metropolis of Leſbos. This city was not more famed for the fertility of the circumjacent country, and the uncommon magnificence of its buildings, than for the number of conſiderable perſonages to whom it gave birth, among theſe were, Pittacus, one of the ſeven Grecian ſages; Alcæus the Lyric poet; Sappho, the celebrated poeteſs; Terpandor, the muſician; Hellanicus, the hiſtorian; Callias, the critic; beſides many others. Mitylene was deemed ſo much the ſeat of the Muſes, and the centre of politeneſs, that Ariſtotle reſided in it two years, to partake of the elegant converſation of its inhabitants. After having revolted from the Romans, this city was greatly injured by the Peloponneſian war. It was afterwards deſtroyed by the Romans, and at its ſiege the famous Julius Cæſar made his firſt campaign, and greatly ſignalized his courage. Being rebuilt, Pompey reſtored it to its antient franchiſes. The emperor Trajan adorned it with many elegant ſtructures, and from his own name called it Trajanopolis.

This iſland is naturally very fertile, and was celebrated by the antients for producing in great abundance all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life. The wine in particular is excellent, and as much celebrated by phyſicians for its ſalubrity, as admired for its admirable flavour by the voluptuous.

The Leſbians in general bore ſuch an immoral character, as at length to become proverbial; for the Greek ſaying "To live like a Leſbian:" implied to live the moſt abandoned and profligate life that it was poſſible for any perſon to be addicted to.

At preſent Leſbos is but thinly peopled, and ſcarce any thing is to be ſeen but the fragments of its former magnificence: however, travellers tell us, there are ſtill one hundred and thirty ſmall villages, and ſeveral harbours, particularly Caſtri, built on the ruins of the antient Mitylene, which is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, has an excellent port, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

There is a town named Cos-dogg, which is built on a ſpot where a city antiently ſtood, called the Mounts of Ida; the inhabitants are principally Greeks; but the neighbouring mountains are infeſted by a great number of Turkiſh robbers, who are ſome of the moſt bloody and mercileſs miſcreants on earth.

The trade of Leſbos conſiſts principally of wine, grain, fruits, cheeſe, butter, pitch, &c. The duties paid to the Ottomans amount to eighteen thouſand piaſtres, and the inhabitants are computed at about twenty thouſand. The houſes at preſent are low, and meanly built, und the people miſerably poor; they are, however, as vicious as when they lived in greater affluence. Magazines are kept here, to furniſh with ſtores the Turkiſh gallies which are employed by the Porte to cruize againſt the pirates that infeſt ſome of theſe iſlands. The governor is a cadi; but the troops on the iſland are commanded by an aga of the janiſaries.

3. The Careeners, or Spalmadori iſlands, are exceedingly ſmall, and, being ſituated to the north of Leſbos, the pirates put in here to careen, the ſituation being extremely convenient for watching the ſhips that go to, or come from Conſtantinople, for the purpoſes of trade.

4. Chios, or Scio, lies in thirty-nine degrees north latitude, and twenty-ſeven eaſt longitude; the Turks call it Sakiſaduci. It is ſituated oppoſite to the coaſt of Ionia, and has a coaſt of about eighty miles in circuit, being divided into upper and lower ground, the former terminating towards the north at cape Apanomeria, and the latter towards the ſouth at cape Malico.

This iſland is mountainous and rocky, yet the plains produce corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit, and gums, though the fertility is much impeded by the great ſcarcity of water. The country is in general fertile and populous, and the inhabitants opulent. The men are well made, the women handſome, and both ſexes ſo much inclined to mirth, that they think all the time loſt that is not employed in ſinging, dancing, feaſting, revelling, gallantry, or ſome kind of merriment.

Commerce is carried on here to a great extent: but the harbour is bad, and indeed dangerous; yet the ſhips going to and coming from Conſtantinople rendezvouſe at this place; and a Turkiſh ſquadron is kept here, to protect the merchant ſhips and chaſtiſe the pirates that infeſt theſe ſeas.

The capital, Scio, is a handſome city. The houſes are elegant, and have grand terraces, and windows glazed with red and green glaſs. This city is two miles in circumference, and environed by ſeveral beautiful gardens. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Greek church, or Roman catholics, and have ſeveral churches and monaſteries, which remain unmoleſted by the Turks, who likewiſe permit them openly to profeſs their religion. The Venetians, in 1694, took Scio, and greatly embelliſhed it, but loſt it the year following.

The port and town are defended by a caſtle, which was built by the Genoeſe: the garriſon conſiſts of one thouſand four hundred men, and both fortreſs and town are not above twelve miles from the continent of Aſia, from whence they are ſupplied with proviſions, ſince the iſland, though tolerably fertile, does not afford a ſufficiency for its numerous inhabitants, and the great number of ſtrangers who are perpetually touching at the port. It is to be obſerved that Scio was one of the ſeven cities that contended for the honour of being the birth-place of Homer, and their coin formerly was ſtamped with the image of that ancient and celebrated bard.

The neighbouring people in general deem the natives of this iſland a very ſtupid and ignorant ſet of people: the Turks call them praſinios, which ſignifies ſhallow wretches; and have a proverb concerning them, which implies, that we may as ſoon expect to meet with a green horſe, as to ſee a wiſe Sciot.

There are, in this iſland, thirty villages, three hundred churches, two thouſand Latins, ten thouſand Turks, and one hundred thouſand Greeks. In time of peace, it is governed by a cadi, with a ſtipend of five hundred aſpers per day; but in war time a baiſa is ſent from Conſtantinople, to take upon him the ſupreme command. The Greek biſhop is immenſely rich, having, beſides the above-mentioned three hundred churches, many chapels and monaſteries under his juriſdiction; the chief of the latter, called Neamoni, or New Solitude, is about five miles from Scio, contains one hundred and fifty monks, and pays to the government five hundred crowns annually, which it can well afford, its yearly revenue being an eighth part of the produce of the whole iſland, amounting to fifty thouſand crowns.

Their ſtaple commodity is gum maſtich, gathered in Auguſt and September; at which ſeaſon the officer who goes to receive the grand Signor's quota, is entertained in a very ſumptuous and feſtive manner by the people.

The moſt conſiderable towns of the iſland, next to the capital, are the following: Callimacha, the chief maſtich town; it contains ſix churches, which have thirty ſubordinate chapels and a nunnery belonging to them. 2. Pergi, which contains a caſtle, thirty churches, and two thouſand inhabitants. 3. Meſta, famous for the nectar wine which its neighbouring vineyards produce. 4. Armolia, a maſtich town, defended by a ſtrong caſtle. 5. Voliſta is famous for its ſilk manufactory; it contains three hundred houſes, one thouſand five hundred inhabitants, and is defended by a caſtle erected by the celebrated Beliſarius, who experienced a moſt aſtoniſhing reverſe of fortune, having been reduced to the condition of a public beggar, from being one of the moſt glorious conquerors. 6. St. Helena is ſituated on a rock, and contains two churches, a chapel, and about two hundred inhabitants. 7. Cambia has a caſtle upon a rock, and is celebrated for its pines, with which the Turks build many gallies, and for a hot medicinal ſpring. 8. Cardamita; ſituated in a very rich territory, which in particular produces annually

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one hundred and ſeventy tons of excellent wine; many coins of Conſtantine the Great have been dug up in the neighbourhood; and a ſpring of water iſſues from a rock at no great diſtance, which in its fall forms a beautiful caſcade. This town was antiently famed for the temple of Neptune near port Dolphin, the ruins of which are yet to be ſeen.

The natives of this iſland, while under the dominion of the Venetians and Genoeſe, were permitted to be governed by their own laws; but ſince the Turks conquered it, the poor people are both deſpiſed and oppreſſed by them.

5. Pſara is a very ſmall iſland to the weſtward of Chios, and remarkable for nothing but a breed of aſſes, who die immediately after being carried from the iſland, but are exceeding ſtrong, hardy and long-lived, while they remain in their native place. Near this iſland are ſome ſmaller ones, called Careeners, which, like thoſe already mentioned, are frequented by pirates who interrupt the trade.

6. Samos, at the diſtance of forty miles from Chios, and oppoſite to the ſouth coaſt of Ionia, lies in thirty-ſeven degrees north latitude, and twenty-ſeven eaſt longitude. It is about eighty miles in circumference, and the ſee of an archbiſhop; but this prelate is exceedingly poor, for he is obliged annually to pay ſo large a ſtipend to the court of Conſtantinople, that he ſcarce leaves himſelf any thing. It was formerly a commonwealth; and is naturally ſo fertile, that when Greece was at the ſummit of her glory, it was deemed, though leſs than many, of as much importance as any of the iſlands of the Archipelago. The trade at preſent conſiſts of ſeveral ſorts of wines, which are admirable, a ſuperior kind of onions and garlick, fine earthen ware, raw ſilk, oil, honey, ſaffron, fruits, drugs, minerals, emery, oker, and black dye, &c. Notwithſtanding the natural richneſs of this iſland, the natives are ſo much oppreſſed by the Turks, and plundered by the pirates, who infeſt the coaſt, that they are in general very miſerable and indigent.

There are about twelve thouſand inhabitants in this iſland, which are principally Greeks; the capitation tax which they pay amounts to about ſix thouſand four hundred crowns, and the cuſtoms are farmed at ten thouſand more. The governor, who is an aga of the janiſſaries, collects about as much again for himſelf, and makes him likewiſe heir to every Greek who dies without male iſſue, taking money, houſe, goods, and indeed every thing but the garden, which is left to the quiet poſſeſſion of the daughters.

This iſland abounds with wild fowls, ſuch as partridges, woodcocks, ſnipes, thruſhes, wood-pigeons, turtle-doves, and wheat-ears; beſides which, their poultry are excellent; they have iron mines, and moſt of the ſoil is of a ruſty colour: they have alſo emery ſtone, and all the mountains are of white marble.

The Greek monks are two hundred in number: and are ſo extremely ignorant, that their whole knowledge of religion conſiſts in being able to ſay maſs by rote: they have a biſhop who reſides at Cora. The women are very naſty and ugly, and never ſhift above once a month: they are cloathed in the Turkiſh manner, except a red coif, and their hair hanging down their backs, with plates of ſilver, or block tin faſtened to the ends.

Samo, the chief town, which, as well as the iſland itſelf, the Turks call Suſſan, is now reduced to a poor village: and, to add to its wretchedneſs, the pirates frequently plunder it, but the noble fragments of its antient ſplendor, which ſtill remain, excite at once admiration and grief in the ſpectator.

The other towns are, 1. Vati, the reſidence of the French vice conſul; this, though formerly a ſplendid city, is now only a mean village, containing about three hundred miſerable houſes, and a few wretched inhabitants; but though they poſſeſs not worldly wealth, they appear rich in the moſt valuable of all treaſures, contented minds. 2. Cora, which contains about ſix hundred houſes; but, ſince it was plundered by the Venetians, many of them are gone to ruin, and more are uninhabited. A cadi and an aga of the janiſaries are obliged by the porte to reſide here, notwithſtanding the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, occaſioned by the putrid waters that ſurround the place, which are now ſtagnant, though they freely flowed to the ſea in antient times. The reſt of the towns are as much or more miſerable; and, upon the whole, the iſland contains little elſe than ſcenes that are ſhocking to the imagination of the beholder. It was, however, celebrated in hiſtory, for having been the birth place of that admirable philoſopher Pythagoras, who afterwerds removed to Crotona.

Among other things, the city of Samos was remarkable for a noble temple built to the honour of Juno; it was formerly a very magnificent city, as we may judge from its ruins, which are ſtill ſuperb monuments of its ancient grandeur.

7. Nicaria, or Icaria, is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and rocky, mountainous, and barren: it lies in thirty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and twenty-ſix degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude. It has no harbour for ſhipping, and conſequently muſt be without commerce. The Samians ſay, that when the two iſlands were made, all the good materials were exhauſted in making Samos, and that nothing but the rubbiſh remained for Nicaria. Some negative benefits, however, ariſe to the natives from theſe diſadvantages, for the Turks do not think it worth their while to oppreſs them, nor the pirates to plunder them of their little property.

The inhabitants are about three thouſand in number: they have wine, which is but indifferent; ſheep, goats, and aromatic herbs. They row their boats, and do other work quite naked, for fear of wearing out the few cloaths, they are able to procure. They are of the Greek communion, have a kind of biſhop, twenty-four prieſts, and a few chapels.

A ridge of mountains runs through the whole iſland: they are covered with wood, and ſupply the country with ſprings. The people are ſtrong and well made, but, ill-favoured and naſty; they are exceedingly lazy, of ſavage diſpoſitions, and ſpeak a moſt barbarous dialect of the Greek.

8. Patmos lies between Nicaria and Samos, in thirty-ſeven degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and twenty-ſix degrees forty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and is only about eighteen miles in circumference; nevertheleſs, it has ſeveral convenient harbours, which give it an advantage over many other of the Levant iſlands. De la Scala, its principal port, is deemed the very beſt in the Archipelago. Sapſila and Cricon are likewiſe excellent harbours; but they are all terribly infeſted by pirates, which has obliged the inhabitants of Sapſila to evacuate the town, and retire up a neighbouring hill to the monaſtery of St. John, which is at once a religious houſe and fortreſs, has an annual revenue of ſix thouſand crowns, and maintains one hundred monks. Though the uſe of bells are prohibited in all other parts of the Turkiſh dominions, yet the monks of this monaſtery are permitted to have two large ones.

The whole iſland is very barren, and without wood: however, it abounds with partridges, rabbits, quails, turtles, pigeons, and ſnipes. All their corn does not amount to one thouſand barrels a year. There are ſcarce three hundred men in the iſland; but then there are twenty women to one man, who expect that all ſtrangers, who land here, ſhould carry ſome of them away; theſe latter are good tempered and handſome, but ſpoil their faces by uſing a prodigious quantity of paint.

This is the iſland to which St. John the evangeliſt was baniſhed by the Romans, and where, it is ſuppoſed, he wrote his revelation; and, to his memory, there is an hermitage on the ſide of a mountain, the entrance to which is hewn out of a ſolid rock, and leads to the chapel, which is almoſt forty-four feet long, fifteen broad, and is covered with a gothic roof. Over-head they ſhew ſtrangers a chink in the rock, through which they tell you that the Holy Ghoſt dictated to St. John. The management of the iſland is committed to the care of two Greek officers, as no Turks reſide upon it. The taxes produce about ten thouſand crowns annually. The houſes are neater than thoſe of moſt of the other iſlands; and the chapels are well built arched, and about two hundred and fifty in number.

9. Claros, which is about forty miles in circumference, lies very near Patmos: it is mountainous, has two ſea ports, a town, and a caſtle, to which it gives name, yet was never famous for any thing but a magnificent temple dedicated to Apollo, and was on that account celebrated by the poets.

10. Leros, Lerio, or Oleron, lies to the ſouth of Patmos and north of Claros, is eighteen miles in circumference, and produces abundance of aloes: Greeks and Turks inhabit it, but are not numerous It contains but one ſmall town, a few ſcattered hamlets, and a ſmall number of monaſteries. Upon a hill are ſome noble ruins, in particular about twenty ſuperb marble pillars that remain intire, and which are perhaps the remnants of the temple of Diana, on whoſe account this iſland was famous. This iſland, according to ſome authors, was remarkable for the birth of Patroclus.

11. The Mandria iſlands are to the eaſtward of Leros; the center iſland is by far the largeſt, but none of them are inhabited, except by the pirates that infeſt thoſe parts, who are ſome of the moſt cruel and ſavage wretches exiſting, murdering the crews of all the ſhips that fall into their power.

12. Stanchio.

12. Stanchio, or Coos, lies in thirty-six degrees forty minutes north latitude, and twenty-seven degrees thirty minutes east longitude, is opposite to the coast of Doris, eighty miles from Samos, seventy in circumference, has a fruitful soil, and towards the east gradually rises into mountains; it is rich in pasture, wines, fruit, turpentine, cypress, medicinal and other plants, &c.

The capital, Cos, is spacious, populous, well built, and strongly fortified: it is situated on the eastern coast, and was formerly famous for a superb temple of Æsculapius, as the island itself was for the birth of the celebrated Hippocrates, whose house is still shewn in the town of Harangues; but both these celebrated physicians owed their fame more to their recommending temperance, than to any of the medicines they discovered or prescribed.

This island was celebrated for some light garments manufactured here, and called vestimenta coa: but was still more remarkable for the statue of Venus, made here by Apelles, who was a native of this little island; and hence the notion of Venus's rising out of the sea originated. This admirable piece of workmanship was first lodged in a stately temple, but Augustus carried it to Rome; and to make the superstitious people some amends for its loss, their tribute was intirely remitted. The harbour is good, and well secured from the depredations of the pirates that infest these seas.

13. Stampalia is sixty miles in circumference, and lies about forty miles from the coast of Anatolia, has a town of its own name on the south coast, two harbours, and was antiently celebrated for its temple of Apollo. It is very thinly inhabited; but has a church or two, subject to a bishop.

14. Carpanthus, or Scarpanto, lies on the south coast of Doris, between Corale and Rhodes, in thirty-five degrees forty-five minutes north latitude and twenty-seven degrees forty minutes east longitude, it antiently gave name to the Carpanthian sea. It is near eighty miles in circumference, but is mountainous, barren, and but thinly inhabited. It has no town, except Scarpanto, whose harbour is tolerable, but terribly infested by the pirates.

15. The islands in the gulf of Smyrna, are five in number, small and uninhabited: one is called Long Island, or Isola de Eglere, that is Church Island; it is ten miles long, rather narrow, and contains the ruins of a magnificent temple. Another of them, the Greeks say, formerly contained many elegant buildings, of which no vestiges are at present left, except an apartment supported by four pillars, the whole being cut out of the solid rock; from this island a causeway formerly joined to the main land, but it is now intirely ruined. Some have imagined this to be the Clazomene of the antients, but we cannot determine on the propriety of this conjecture.

16. Rhodes is situated seventy-five miles east from Candia, eight from the Lycian coast, is about one hundred and twenty in circumference, and extends from thirty-five degrees fifty minutes to thirty-six degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and from twenty-eight degrees twenty minutes to twenty-eight degrees forty-four minutes east longitude. It has formerly gone under the names of Asteria, Ethræa, Corymbia, and many others; as for the name of Rhodes, some are of opinion that it was so called by the Grecians from the abundance of roses the soil produces, Rhodes in that language signifying a rose. While the poets feign it received this name from Rhoda, one of the daughters of Apollo by Venus. The chief town is called by the same name, and was always esteemed a place of strength: it is situated on the north-east part of the island, having a tolerable good harbour, and as some say three harbours, but two of them will receive only very small vessels: the city stands part of it on the rising of a hill, and is three miles in circumference, the streets broad, straight and well paved, and the largest is paved in the middle with marble from one end to the other. In this street are still to be seen the apartments of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, and the palace of the grand master, but very much decayed: for as the Turks did not demolish them upon their taking the place; so neither will they do any thing towards the repairing of the most beautiful buildings whatever: the grand master's palace is seated on the highest part of the hill, now converted into a prison for the chams of Tartary, whom the Grand Signor banishes hither when he depose them, and he has almost always one of the royal family of that prince here to set up against him if he disputes his orders: the church of St. John, which adjoins to that palace, is now a mosque: the city is defended by three walls, and as many ditches, and esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in the Sultan's dominions: the inhabitants consist of Turks, Jews, and Christians, but the Christians have only shops within the walls, and are obliged to have their dwellings without the city, whither they retire every night. Lindus and Camirus were antiently considerable towns in the island; but we do not find there any worth observation at present, except Rhodes. The houses are elegantly built in the Italian taste, and the markets well supplied with all kinds of provisions. This city was formerly celebrated for the learning and politeness of its inhabitants; but at present literature meets here with the same treatment that it does in all other parts of the Turkish dominions.

The air of this island is very healthful, and the country exceeding pleasant, cloathed with trees and herbage always green, and a day scarce ever happens, it is said, wherein the sun does not shine upon them; their wines are much admired, and the country affords such plenty of all things besides, which can render life agreeable, that it gave occasion to the fiction of golden showers. Indeed they do not abound in corn, but then they are well supplied with it from the neighbouring continent of Natolia.

At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, which is fifty fathoms wide, it is said, stood that great colossus of brass, esteemed one of the wonders of the world: one foot placed on one side of the harbour, and the other upon the other, so that ships passed in between the legs of it: the face of colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; the height of it was seventy cubits, and every part proportionable, the thumb being as thick as a man could grasp in his arms, and every finger of the size of an ordinary statue, and it carried in one hand a lighted house for the direction of vessels into the harbour: this prodigious statue was thrown down by an earthquake, fifty or threescore years after it was erected, and lay there till the Saracens made themselves masters of Rhodes, who having beat it to pieces, fourteen hundred years after the making of it, sold it to a Jew that transported it to Egypt, and there loaded nine hundred camels with the brass. Chares of Lyndus, a town in the island of Rhodes, is reported to have been the statuary who framed this mighty image, which he was twelve years in making.

The principal manufactures are soap, tapestry, and camblets; but the city is a mart for all the commodities and productions of the Levant; yet Rhodes is kept merely in opposition to the Christians, as it does not remit any thing to the Grand Signor, the Turkish bassa being allowed the whole of its revenues to maintain the gallies, the garrison, and himself.

When this island was attacked by the Greeks, the Rhodians called in the Romans to their assistance; who drove away the Rhodians enemies, and, according to their usual custom, repaid themselves for their trouble, by seizing their country, and making bold with the property of the natives; after which it underwent many revolutions, being taken by the Venetians in 1124. The Turks conquered it in 1283, but were driven out of it by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1308; however, Soliman the Magnificent attacked it with an army of two hundred thousand men and three hundred ships, and took it, January 1, 1523, after the Rhodians had lost ninety thousand of their men, and the Turks a much greater number. After this misfortune most of the Rhodians quitted their country, so that the island became in a manner depopulated; the Turks, however, shewed so great respect to the knights of Rhodes, that they suffered them to keep their houses, effects, coats of arms, statues, inscriptions, &c. and granted very considerable privileges to such as would come and settle there, which drew back some of the Rhodians, and many of the Greeks; so that Rhodes at present is as populous and flourishing as Turkish tyranny will permit any place to be that is under the dominion of the Ottomans.

17. The island of Cyprus is situate in the most easterly part of the Levant between the thirty-fourth and thirty-sixth degrees of north latitude, and between thirty-three and thirty-six east longitude, sixty miles south of the coast of Caramania or Cilicia, thirty west of the coast of Syria, and about three hundred miles to the eastward of Candia, and is supposed to have obtained the name of Cyprus, from the great number of cypress trees, which flourish here. The island stretches from the south-west to the north-east, being about an hundred and fifty miles in length, and seventy in breadth in the broadest part, but much wider on the south-west, than on the north-east. The chief town is Nicosia, the capital of the island, being at present the seat of the bassa or viceroy, and formerly the residence of their kings. It stands near the middle of the country, and is about three miles in circumference,

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but much fallen to decay ſince it has been in the power of the Turks. The cathedral which went by the name of St. Sophia is converted into a Turkiſh moſque; there are however ſeveral churches and chapels in it, which are allowed to the Greeks, Latins, Armenians, Neſtorians, and Maronites. This city is of a circular form, ſurrounded by walls, and is well fortified, and defended by a deep ditch. The Greek archbiſhop reſides in it, whoſe ſuffrages are the biſhops of Famaguſta, Paphos, Larneza, and Cerenes.

Next to the capital, the following are the principal places; namely, 1. Famaguſta, or Arſinoe; which is an elegant city, and good ſea-port, pleaſantly ſituated, and defended by two forts: it is incloſed on two ſides by a ditch, and double wall well fortified; and on the other two by the ſea. The Turks are ſenſible of the importance of this place, and contrary to their uſual cuſtom, keep the fortifications in excellent repair. The governor of this city is accountable only to the Ottoman Porte, not being ſubordinate to the baſſa of the iſlands. The Greeks and other Chriſtians are only permitted to keep ſhops here in the day time, but are not allowed to ſleep in the city. 2. Larneza is a good ſea port town, in which the French and Venetians have a conſul; the houſes are, however, low and mean, and the inhabitants compoſed of Turks, Greeks, and ſome Europeans. The commodities are cotton, cotton yarn, wool, &c. 3. Cerenes, the antient Ceraunia, is almoſt in ruins, though formerly a ſtrong and populous place. People depart from hence to the continent, as the neareſt port. The palace of Peace, a magnificent edifice, formerly belonging to the knights, is near this city; and at about nine miles diſtance there is a Greek monaſtery, the monks of which have cells along the ſea coaſt, where they depoſit the fiſh which they are employed to catch for the uſe of the brotherhood. 4. Limiſſo; this is now nothing but a mere village, though it remains a biſhop's ſee; and the ſituation of the antient city of Amatheus is not at preſent known. 5. Paphos, now called Baffa, is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland. Though much decayed from its former glory, it is ſtill a biſhop's ſee, and a good ſea-port town. In antient times it was much celebrated for its magnificent temple dedicated to Venus, from which the goddeſs of love was called the Paphian Venus. In this city St. Paul converted its governor Sergius, and ſtruck the necromancer Barjeſus with blindneſs, Acts xiii. 6.

This iſland was formerly divided into twelve diſtricts, each containing a large city, and the whole including eight hundred villages. It is, as we before obſerved, governed by a baſſa, ſubordinate to whom are five ſangiacs, namely, Itchili, Alaine, Cyprus, Schis, Tarſus; and theſe have again under them forty ziamets and one hundred and ſixty-ſeven timariots. The inhabitants were formerly deemed ſome of the moſt lewd and debauched people in the univerſe; and, according to the moſt authentic accounts, their inclinations are as depraved as ever; but the Turkiſh government compels them to a more reſerved behaviour, and at leaſt obliges them to act with an outward appearance of decency. The preſent inhabitants are chiefly Greeks, who dreſs after the Italian faſhion, but retain their own religion and cuſtoms.

The natives of Cyprus were converted to Chriſtianity by St. Paul and St. Barnabas, the latter of whom was a native of Cyprus. It gave birth to the poet Aſclepiades, Xenophon, Zeno, Apollonius, the famous biſhop of Epiphanius, and ſeveral other great men.

There are no conſiderable rivers in this iſland; but ſome famous mountains, particularly Olympus, which is of an aſtoniſhing height and extent. On this mountain, at the diſtance of every league, there is a Greek monaſtery, and a fountain ſaid to be erected by the empreſs Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great. Hardly any veſtiges remain of the antient city of Salamis, formerly celebrated for its temple of Jupiter, who was here repreſented by an image armed with thunder and lightning.

Cyprus was formerly populous and opulent, but at preſent is poor and thinly inhabited, which is chiefly owing to two cauſes, viz. the oppreſſive nature of the Turkiſh government; and the ſwarms of locuſts which for ſome ages paſt have infeſted it, to the frequent deſtruction of the produce of the earth. The ſoil produces all kinds of grains: their wines, oil, ſugar, cotton, honey, ſaffron, wood, metals, minerals, plants, drugs, flowers, &c. are all excellent in their kinds. Their wool and cotton manufactures are the beſt in the eaſt, but the ſilk is very indifferent. All the ſugar canes in the iſland were deſtroyed by one of the Turkiſh baſſas; the people, however, have a great traffic in a delicious bird, which they catch in the month of September and October, and pickle in vaſt quantities to export to Venice, where they are much prized, and purchaſed by the voluptuous at a high price.

This iſland, like moſt others, was at firſt governed by ſeveral petty ſovereigns or heads of families, who were afterwards brought under the dominion of the Egyptians, and next of the Phœnicians their neighbours; at leaſt each of theſe nations had their colonies here upon the ſea coaſt, and kept the inland natives in ſubjection to them: Cyrus the Perſian emperor afterwards invaded the iſland, which he found under the dominion of nine ſeveral ſovereigns, whom he ſuffered after his conqueſt to retain the name and authority of kings, (the firſt of whom was Cinyras, brother of Pygmalion) but obliged them to pay an annual tribute. Alexander the Great, next made a conqueſt of it, and in the diviſion of his empire it fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy king of Egypt, under whoſe ſucceſſors it remained till the Romans caſting an eye on the wealth of the country, without any other colour for invading it, ſent Porcius Cato to reduce it under their power, which he effected, bringing back with him to Rome the ſpoils of the iſland, which amounted to ſeven thouſand talents: the Saracens afterwards plundered it, but it returned to the obedience of the Greek emperors again, to whom it fell on the diviſion of the empire. About the year 1191, Richard I. king of England, putting in here for freſh water in his voyage to the Holy Land, met with a very unhoſpitable reception, whereupon he ſubdued the iſland, and transferred his right to it, to Guy Luſignan the titular king of Jeruſalem, in whoſe family it remained till the year fourteen hundred and twenty-three; when the ſultan of Egypt invaded the iſland, taking John the king priſoner, whom he admitted to ranſom for a great ſum of money, and permitted him to enjoy his kingdom again, under a tribute of forty thouſand crowns per annum, and about the year 1473, one of theſe tributary princes made the ſenate of Venice his heir, who held it about an hundred years, under the like tribute. When Selimis the Turkiſh emperor, as ſovereign of Egypt, claimed a title to Cyprus, and his grand vizier Muſtapha, ſitting down before the city of Famaguſta, then the ſtrongeſt town in the iſland, obliged the governor Seignior Brigandino to ſurrender upon honourable terms in the year 1570.

SECT. XII.

Containing a Deſcription of NEW HOLLAND, NEW GUINEA, and other Iſlands lately diſcovered.

THE iſland of New Holland is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt in the univerſe, being two thouſand miles long, and its ſquare ſurface exceeds that of Europe. The north-weſt and ſouth-weſt coaſts were diſcovered by the Spaniards in the ſeventeenth century, but captain Cook was the firſt who ſaw the eaſt coaſt, which was in 1770. The ſouthern parts are low and level; the northern parts hilly, but diverſified with woods and lawns. There are but two ſorts of timber trees: the largeſt is the gum tree, which grows all over the iſland: it yields a deep red gum, and the wood is heavy, hard, and dark coloured, like the lignum vitæ, with narrow leaves like thoſe of the willow. The other grows tall and upright, reſembling the pine, ſomething like the live-oak of America. The wood alſo of this tree is hard and heavy. Beſides theſe, there are trees having a ſoft bark, eaſily peeled off, the ſame that is uſed for caulking of ſhips in the Eaſt Indies. Here are palms of three ſorts, a kind of cherry-tree, a ſort of fig plum trees, trees with a red apple, margroves, ſhrubs, a ſtrong bearded graſs, plants of various kinds, &c.

There are ſeveral ſorts of quadrupeds, but, as they could not be caught, no deſcription can be given of them. They ſeem to be of the wolf, pole-cat, and weazel kind. There are goats, but no tame animals, except dogs. They have the opoſſum, a creature with a membranous bag near the ſtomach, in which it conceals and carries its young, when apprehenſive of danger. They have alſo a remarkable animal, about the ſize of a ſheep, called a kanguroo, ſome of which weigh upwards of eighty pounds, and are not bad eating, reſembling the fleſh of a hare, but better flavoured. Here are birds of various kinds, innumerable inſects, and abundance of fiſh of various ſorts.

The complexion of the people is chocolate colour, their features tolerable, their teeth white and even, and their hair, though they ſinge it ſhort, is naturally long and black, and generally ſtraight with a ſlight curl at bottom. Their hair is in general matted and ſleek, but without oil

or greaſe; and, though they ſeldom comb it, find a method to keep it free from vermin.

The ſtature of the men is of the middle ſize, but ſlender, and their bones ſo ſmall, that a common hand may ſpan their ancles and their arms above their elbows; and in general they are clean-limbed and remarkably vigorous, active, and nimble. Their beards are of the ſame colour with their hair, and alſo buſhy and thick, it never being ſuffered to grow long.

The people in general go naked, without the leaſt ſenſe of indecency; they are not, however, without their ornaments, the principal of which is a bone five or ſix inches long, and as thick as a man's finger, which they thruſt through the ſeptum of their noſes: it reaches quite acroſs the face, and ſo effectually ſtops up the noſtrils, that the wearer, when he ſpeaks, ſnuffles ſo as ſcarce to be underſtood, and is obliged to keep his mouth conſtantly open, in order to breathe freely: the ſailors, in humour, call it their ſprit ſail yard. They wear alſo necklaces made of ſhells, bracelets of ſmall cord round the upper part of their arms, and a ſtring of human hair plaited and tied round their waiſt; and ſome were ſeen with large gorgets of ſhells hanging on the breaſt, and a few women had feathers on their heads, ſtuck on with gum. They paint themſelves red and white, and duſt their faces with a white powder. The red is generally laid on in broad patches upon the breaſt and ſhoulders, and the white in ſtreaks, one round their thighs, two below their knees, one like a ſaſh over their ſhoulders, and another acroſs their foreheads. They have holes alſo in their ears, but no ornaments were ſeen in them. On their bodies were obſerved large ſcars in irregular lines, apparently made by ſome blunt inſtrument, probably as memorials of grief for the dead.

They have very mean huts, like hovels, ſcarce big enough to hold their families, and here they make fires, with which they are almoſt ſmoke-dried. Their utenſils are a veſſel made of bark, to hold water, and a bag, made like a cabbage-net, to carry their whole property, which conſiſts of paint, fiſhing-hooks, darts, and bracelets. They feed principally on vegetables and fiſh. To produce fire, they take two pieces of ſoft, dry wood, one a round ſtick of about eight or nine inches long, the other piece flat: one end of the round piece they ſhape into an obtuſe point, and make a hole in the flat piece. In this hole they twirl the end of the ſtick between their hands, as we do a chocolate mill, preſſing it down in the hole, till it fires. By this method they get fire in leſs than two minutes, and, from the ſmalleſt ſpark, they encreaſe it with aſtoniſhing ſpeed. They will wrap up a ſpark in a little dry graſs, which, by moving, will be fanned into a flame. Thus a man will run on for miles, and, without any viſible fire in his hands, will at every fifty or a hundred yards, ſtoop down and leave fire behind him. One of their methods of annoying their European viſitors, whom they conſider as enemies, was, by ſetting fire to the high graſs in the neighbourhood of the place where the tents were fixed, which, being dry as ſtubble, burnt with amazing force, and did a great deal of miſchief in its progreſs.

Spears and lances of different kinds, are among their weapons; ſome with four prongs, pointed with bone and barbed; the points of which are covered with a hard reſin, which gives them a poliſh, and facilitates their entrance into the object they ſtrike: others with only one point, and ſome barbed all the way up the ſhaft. They throw theſe with a throwing ſtick. They have likewiſe bows and arrows, an oblong ſhield, and a ſword reſembling a ſcymitar. Some of their weapons had a chiſſel fixed at their ends, but of what ſubſtance they were framed, could not be learnt.

To the ſouthward of New Holland, the canoes are made of one piece of bark, about twelve feet long, tied up at the ends, and ſpread open in the middle by two ſticks. In ſhallow water, they puſh them on by a pole, and in deep water by paddles, two of which they uſe at a time. More to the northward they are made of the trunk of a tree, fourteen feet long, hollowed out by fire. They are in general very narrow, and furniſhed with an outrigger, to prevent their overſetting. Four people are the moſt they will carry.

With reſpect to their tools, the only ones ſeen among them were, an adze made of ſtone, wedges of the ſame, wooden mallets, and a few ſhells and pieces of coral. They make uſe of the rough leaves of a wild fig (which anſwers the purpoſe of ſhave graſs, for poliſhing.

Theſe people have no idea of traffic, nor could any be given them; for all the ſigns made to them, deſcribing a return for things preſented to them, were fruitleſs: they did not ſeem to underſtand them. This indifference with reſpect to buying, kept them honeſt: they never attempted to purloin any thing, but, if refuſed what they wiſhed for, they attempted to take it by force. They ſeemed to ſet no value upon any thing that was given them, for, like play things given to children, they pleaſed only while they were new. Nor do they ſeem to have any curioſity; for though walking on the ſea ſhore, in ſight of the ſhip, a wonderful machine they had never ſeen before, ſcarce one caſt an eye towards it, though numbers trudged along the ſhore. They introduce into company as the Engliſh do, by their names.

We cannot truly aſcertain whether they are brave or not: they made ſome oppoſition to the ſhip's crew on landing, but they were ſoon intimidated by the fire arms, as a few pieces fired with ſmall ſhot preſently diſperſed them, and, after the firſt conteſt, they would never come near enough to parley: ſo that the Europeans could by no means form the leaſt connection with them. How it happens that there are ſo few inhabitants, is not eaſy to deviſe: whether they are deſtroyed by each other in conteſts for food, whether ſwept off by famine, or their increaſe prevented by any particular cauſe, cannot be at preſent determined. That they have wars amongſt them, is evident by their weapons; but what gives riſe to theſe wars, or what is the conſequence of them, we cannot determine.

In confirmation of what has been related above, and for the farther ſatisfaction of our readers, we ſhall add the following remarkable particulars: when captain Cook firſt landed at Botany Bay (thirty-four degrees ſouth, one hundred and fifty-two degrees thirty-ſeven minutes eaſt) ſo called from the great quantity of plants which the gentlemen collected there, two of the natives came down, each armed with a lance about ten feet long, and a ſhort ſtick which appeared to be uſed as a machine to aſſiſt him in throwing it. They ſeemed determined to defend their coaſt, though the party that landed were forty in number. "I could not," ſays captain Cook, "but admire their courage, and being very unwilling that hoſtilities ſhould commence with ſuch inequality of force between us, I ordered the boat to lie upon her oars. We then parlied by ſigns for about a quarter of an hour, and, to beſpeak their good will, I threw them nails, beads, and other trifles, which they took up, and ſeemed to be pleaſed with. I then made ſigns that I wanted water, and, by all the means that I could deviſe, endeavoured to convince them that we would do them no harm. They now waved to us, and I was willing to interpret it as an invitation: but upon our putting the boat in, they came again to oppoſe us. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a middle aged man. As I had no other recourſe, I fired a muſket between them. Upon the report, the youngeſt dropped a bundle of lances upon the rock, but, recollecting himſelf in an inſtant, he ſnatched them up again with great haſte. A ſtone was then thrown at us, upon which I ordered a muſket to be fired with ſmall ſhot, which ſtruck the eldeſt upon the legs, and he immediately ran to one of the houſes, which was diſtant about one hundred yards.

"I now hoped that our conteſt was over, and we immediately landed: but we had ſcarcely left the boat, when he returned; and we then perceived that he had left the rock, only to fetch a ſhield or target for his defence. As ſoon as he came up, he threw a lance at us, and his comrade another, they fell where we ſtood thickeſt, but happily hurt nobody. A third muſket was then fired at them; upon which, one of them threw another lance, and both immediately ran away. If we had purſued, we might probably have taken one of them; but Mr. Banks ſuggeſting that the lances might be poiſoned, I thought it not prudent to venture into the woods. We repaired immediately to the huts, in one of which we found ſome children, who had hidden themſelves behind a ſhield and ſome bark: we peeped at them, but left them in their retreat; without their knowing that they had been diſcovered; and we threw into the houſe, when we went away, ſome beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth, and other preſents, which we hoped would procure us the good will of the inhabitants when they ſhould return: but the lances we found lying about, we took away with us, to the number of about fifty. They were from ſix to fifteen feet long, and all of them had four prongs in the manner of a fiſh-gig, each of which was pointed with fiſh-bones, and very ſharp. We obſerved that they were ſmeared with a viſcous ſubſtance of a green colour, which favoured the opinion of their being poiſoned, though we afterwards diſcovered that it was a miſtake: they appeared, by the ſea-weed that was found

found ſticking to them, to have been uſed in ſtriking fiſh. Upon examining the canoes that lay upon the beach, we found them to have been the worſt we had ever ſeen. They were between twelve and fourteen feet long, and made of the bark of a tree in one piece, which was drawn together, and tied up at one end, the middle being kept open by ſticks, which were placed acroſs them from gunwale to gunwale as thwarts.

" Here was ſeen a tree, the fruit of which in colour and ſhape, reſembled a cherry. There are but two kinds of timber wood here, both of which are as large, or larger than the Engliſh oak, and one of them has not a very different appearance. This is the ſame that yields the reddiſh gum like ſanguis draconis, and the wood is heavy, hard, and dark coloured, like lignum-vitæ. The other grows tall and ſtraight, ſomething like the pine; and the wood of this, which has ſome reſemblance to the live-oak of America, is alſo hard and heavy. There are a few ſhrubs, and ſeveral kinds of the palm; mangroves alſo grow in great plenty near the head of the bay. The country in general, as far as it was obſerved, is level, low, and woody. The woods abound with birds of exquiſite beauty, particularly of the parrot kind: here are alſo crows, exactly the ſame as thoſe in England. About the head of the harbour, where there are large flats of ſand and mud, there is great plenty of water fowl, moſt of which are ſpecies intirely unknown. One of the moſt remarkable was black and white, much larger than a ſwan, and in ſhape ſomewhat reſembling a pelican. On theſe banks of ſand and mud there are great quantities of oyſters, muſcles, cockles, and other ſhell fiſh, which ſeem to be the principal ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, who go into ſhoal water with their little canoes, and pick them out with their hands. They were not obſerved to eat any of them raw, nor do they always go on ſhore to dreſs them, for they have frequently fires in their canoes for that purpoſe. They do not, however, ſubſiſt wholly upon this food, for they catch variety of other fiſh, ſome of which they ſtrike with gigs, and ſome they take with hook and line.

" All the inhabitants were ſtark naked; they did not appear to be numerous, or to live in ſocieties, but, like other animals, were ſcattered about along the coaſt, and in the woods. Of their manner of life, little is known, as no connection was formed with them, for they never would come near enough for a parley; nor did they touch a ſingle article of all that was left at their huts, and the places they frequented, on purpoſe for them to take away. At the ſight of theſe Indians, Tupia, with an air of ſuperiority and compaſſion, ſhook his head, and ſaid, that they were taata enos, " poor wretches." A midſhipman, who had ſtraggled alone into the country, ſaw an old man and woman, and ſome little children; they were both greyheaded with age; the hair on the man's head was buſhy, and his beard long and rough; the woman's hair was cropped ſhort, and both were ſtark naked.

" More to the northward is Hervey's Bay, in which was found a true mangrove, ſuch as grows in the Weſt Indies, and the firſt of the kind met with in theſe ſeas. In the branches of this mangrove were many neſts of a remarkable kind of ant, as green as graſs. When the branches were diſturbed, they came out in great numbers, and puniſhed the offenders by a much ſharper bite than the ſame kind of animal is elſewhere known to give. Upon theſe mangroves were alſo ſeen ſmall green caterpillars in great numbers: their foreheads were thick ſet with hairs, and they were ranged upon the leaves, ſide by ſide, like a file of ſoldiers, to the number of twenty or thirty together. On touching them, the hair on the bodies was found to have the quality of a nettle, and gave a much more acute, though a leſs durable pain. More northwardly was found a ſpecies of the buſtard, as large as a turkey, one of which weighed ſeventeen pounds and an half. It was generally agreed by the gentlemen who eat of it, to be the beſt bird they had taſted ſince they left England, and in honour of it they called the inlet Buſtard Bay: it lies in latitude twenty-four degrees four minutes one hundred and fifty-one degrees forty-two minutes eaſt. Here are oyſters in great numbers, and of various kinds; among others, the hammer-oyſter, and abundance of ſmall pearl-oyſters.

" Thirſty Sound, twenty-two degrees ten minutes ſouth, one hundred and fifty degrees eighteen minutes eaſt. Upon the branches of gum-trees here, were found ants neſts, made of clay, as big as a buſhel, ſomething like thoſe deſcribed in Sir Hans Sloane's natural hiſtory of Jamaica, vol. ii. page 221. tab. 258, but not ſo ſmooth. The ants which inhabited theſe neſts were ſmall, and their bodies white. On another ſpecies of the tree was found a ſmall black ant, which perforated all the twigs, and having worked out the pith, occupied the pipe which had contained it; yet the parts in which this inſect had thus formed a lodgment, and in which they ſwarmed in amazing numbers, bear leaves and flowers, and appeared to be in as flouriſhing a ſtate, as thoſe that were found. Here was alſo ſuch a ſwarm of butterflies, that for the ſpace of three or four acres the air was ſo crouded with them, that millions were to be ſeen in every direction; at the ſame time that every branch and twig was covered with others that were not upon the wing. Here was alſo found a ſmall-fiſh of a ſingular kind; it was about the ſize of a minnow; and had two very ſtrong breaſt-fins. It was found in places quite dry, but did not ſeem to become languid by the want of water, for when it was approached it leaped away, by the help of the breaſt fins, as nimbly as a frog; and when it was found in the water, it frequently leaped out, and purſued its way upon dry ground. From the great difference in the needle when brought on ſhore, captain Cook thinks there is iron ore in the hills.

" Along the coaſt of New South Wales, the ſea in all parts conceals ſhoals, that ſuddenly project from the ſhore, and rocks that riſe abruptly like a pyramid from the bottom, for an extent of twenty-two degrees of latitude more than one thouſand three hundred miles. Off cape Tribulation, which lies ſixteen degrees ſix minutes eaſt longitude, our intrepid, and hitherto proſperous adventures very nearly eſcaped the miſeries of ſhip wreck. On the 10th of June 1770, at eleven o'clock at night, the ſhip ſuddenly ſtruck againſt a coral rock, and became immoveable, except by the heaving of the ſurge, which beat her againſt the crags of the rock upon which ſhe lay, and cauſed ſo violent a concuſſion, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty any one on board could ſtand on his legs, at the dawn of the day land appeared at eight leagues diſtance, without any iſland in the intermediate ſpace, upon which they might be ſet on ſhore by the boats, and afterwards proceed to the main, if the ſhip ſhould go to pieces; the wind, however, died away, till it became a dead calm, by which the ſhip eſcaped inſtant and inevitable deſtruction." After relating ſeveral other circumſtances reſpecting the perilous ſituation the ſhip's company were in, and the hardſhips and diſtreſſes they underwent in endeavouring to ſave the veſſel from ſinking, captain Cook ſums up the narrative as follows: " But the full danger which they had eſcaped, was not known till the veſſel arrived at Batavia, and was hove down; for, on examining her bottom, it was found to be in a worſe condition than was apprehended. The falſe keel was all gone to within twenty feet of the ſtern poſt; the main keel was conſiderably injured in many places; a great quantity of ſheathing was torn off, and ſeveral planks were much damaged: two of them, and the half of a third, under the main channel, near the keel, were, for the length of ſix feet, ſo worn that they were not above the eighth part of an inch thick, and here the worms had made their way quite into the timbers: yet in this condition ſhe had ſailed many hundred leagues, where navigation is as dangerous as in any part of the world. How much miſery did thoſe on board eſcape, by being ignorant that ſo conſiderable a part of the bottom of the ſhip was thinner than the ſole of a ſhoe, and that every life on board depended upon ſo ſlight and fragil a barrier between them and the unfathomable ocean!"——*** *For further particulars, and a more full deſcription of theſe Iſlands, the reader is referred to the* Folio Edition of CAPTAIN COOK'S VOYAGES.

New Guinea reaches from the equator to the twelfth degree of ſouth latitude, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude, in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. It was firſt viſited by an European ſhip in 1529. Saavedra, a Portugueſe, who made the diſcovery of the north weſt part of this country, called it Terra de Papuas. Van Schouten, a Dutch diſcoverer, gave the name of New Guinea to its ſouth-weſtern part. Roggewein alſo touched here; and before him, Dampier, January 1, 1700. Captain Cook made the coaſt of New Guinea, in latitude ſix degrees fifteen minutes, and one hundred and thirty-eight degrees eaſt longitude, on the 3d of September, and landed from the pinnace, accompanied by Mr. Banks, doctor Solander, nine of the ſhips crew, and ſervants well armed, and, leaving two ſeamen to take care of the boat, advanced ſome little way up the country; but coming to the ſkirts of a thick wood, they judged it prudent to proceed no further, leſt they ſhould fall into an ambuſcade of the natives, and their retreat to the boat be cut off. Having advanced about a quarter of a mile from the boat, three Indians ruſhed out of the wood with a hideous ſhout; they threw their darts, and ſhewed ſuch a hoſtile diſpoſition, that the party,

party, to prevent the deſtruction of theſe people, returned to the boat, as they had no intention forcibly to invade their country, either to gratify their appetites or curioſity, and it was evident nothing could be done upon friendly terms. When they got on board the boat, they rowed along the ſhore. The people were ſtark naked, and their hair cropped ſhort, and in general made much the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders.

New Britain, or Solomon's Iſlands, conſiſt of three large, and ſeveral ſmaller ones. The large, are, New Britain, New Ireland, and New Hanover. They were merely coaſted, and are therefore but imperfectly known. They are mountainous, but have a romantic pleaſant appearance, and are ſituated in five degrees ſouth latitude, and two hundred and ten degrees weſt longitude. From the people ſeen on the beach, they are ſuppoſed to be populous. The inhabitants are black, and woolly-headed; they go almoſt naked, ornament themſelves with ſhell bracelets, wear ear rings in their ears, which are very long, chew betel to make their teeth red, and powder their hair and beards white. They have ſometimes feathers on their heads, ſhells about their neck, and rings through their noſes. They live chiefly on vegetables, and are idolaters in their worſhip. Their canoes are long and narrow, ſome reach to ninety feet in length, and yet are formed of a ſingle tree. The head and ſtern are very much raiſed, to ſhelter the people within from arrows, which is done by turning either end of the boat towards the enemy. Their canoes are decorated with carved work, and thirty or forty rowers are employed to paddle them on the water.

Theſe people have lances, bows and arrows, ſlings, and long ſticks and poles, like the quarter ſtaff, for their offenſive weapons: they have ſhields to defend themſelves with. Theſe offenſive and defenſive weapons, their dextrous management of them, and their boldneſs in attacking, is a convincing proof that they are always at war with ſome of their neighbours.

We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the New Hebrides, which are eleven in number, and received their name from captain Cook, in 1774, and are as follows:

Terra del Eſpiritu Santo (the firſt of them) was diſcovered by De Quiros, in 1606: it lies in fifteen degrees thirty-nine minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-ſix degrees fifty minutes eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It is the weſternmoſt, and lies fartheſt north of all the Hebrides; is the largeſt of the whole, being twenty-two leagues long, twelve broad, and ſixty round. The land to the weſt is very mountainous, the hills frequently riſing immediately from the ſea. Every part of it except the cliffs and beaches, is covered with trees and plantations, and every valley watered with a ſtream. It has a remarkable fine bay on the north ſide, called, by De Quiros, St. Philip and St. Jago, it being St. Philip and St. James's day when he arrived here. It has twenty leagues of ſea ſhore, is eight leagues at the mouth, and cannot be fathomed. There is a fine anchorage place in this bay, from two to forty fathoms, called Vera Cruz, and capacious enough to hold one thouſand ſhips with clear ſoundings.

This iſland is fertile, and likewiſe contains hogs, fowls, birds, bees, &c. The natives are tall, ſtout, and have black hair: they go naked, except two long ſlips of matting hanging down before and behind, from the waiſt to the knees.

St. Bartholomew's Iſle (the ſecond) was ſo called by captain Cook, becauſe he diſcovered it on St. Bartholomew's day. It is between ſix and ſeven leagues in circumference, and is ſituated in fifteen degrees forty minutes north latitude, and in one hundred and ſixty-ſeven degrees twenty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude.

Mallicolo (the third) is eight leagues long, and ſituated n ſixteen degrees twenty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-ſeven degrees fifty-ſeven minutes aſt longitude. It was touched at by captain Cook, in uly 1774. This iſland is mountainous and woody, but he ſoil is rich and fertile. Here are plenty of ſugar-canes, ams, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, turmeric, oranges, hogs, oultry, and various birds. It is a warm and populous ountry, but the people are remarkably ugly, dark, and l-made; yet ſprightly, and quick of apprehenſion. They ave flat noſes and foreheads, woolly hair, and ſhort beards. hey tie a cord uncommonly tight about their waiſts, and ear a piece of cloth or leaves before them. They wear racelets of ſhells on their arms, a piece of white carved one in the noſtrils, round the right wriſt hogs tuſks bent rcular, and round the left a round piece of wood to ward f the ſtring of the bow; ſome wear tortiſe-ſhell earrings, and other rings of ſhells. On their breaſt they hang a ſhell ſuſpended by a ſtring round their neck. Wearing of ornaments ſeems to be the privilege only of the men.

With reſpect to the women, they are not leſs ugly than the men; for they paint their heads and faces red and yellow, and alſo their ſhoulders, over which ſome wear a kind of petticoat, others a bag made of a kind of cloth, in which they carry their children. Full grown women wear ſhort pieces of cloth or matting round their waiſts, reaching nearly to their knees, others have only a ſtring round their middle with a whiſp of ſtraw between the legs; and girls, as do the boys, go quite naked.

Clubs and ſpears made of a hard wood, and bows and arrows, are their weapons. Their bows are about four feet long, made of a dark-brown ſtick like mahogany, ſpilt through the middle, are ſtrong, elaſtic, and nicely poliſhed; and their arrows are a kind of reed, pointed with hard wood, or bone dipped in poiſon, which they keep in a ſort of quiver made of leaves.

They have ſmall wretched hovels for their dwellings, ſo low, that they can hardly ſtand upright in them, and conſiſt merely of a roof, reſting on a few poſts, and thatched with palm leaves. Some few are incloſed with boards, and the entrance is by a ſquare hole at one end. Their canoes are like thoſe of the neighbouring iſles.

Theſe people ſeem to be of a cheerful diſpoſition, and paſs great part of their time in muſic and dancing. Their inſtruments, we may ſuppoſe, are very ſimple; for none were ſeen but drums and pipes, which are readily made. Their drums alſo, in caſes of danger, ſerve to ſound an alarm.

Sandwich iſle (the fourth) is ten leagues long in the direction of north-weſt by weſt and ſouth-eaſt by eaſt, twenty-two leagues ſouth-ſouth-eaſt half eaſt from Mallicolo, and is twenty-five leagues round: it was ſo called in compliment to Lord Sandwich. The hills gently ſloping to the ſea, and diverſified with woods and lawns, exhibit a delightful view.

Erromango (the fifth) is twenty-four leagues in circuit, and lies eighteen leagues from Sandwich iſland; the middle of it is in eighteen degrees fifty-four minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-nine degrees nineteen minutes eaſt longitude. Theſe iſlanders ſeem to be of a different race from thoſe of Mallicolo, and ſpeak a different language. They are of the middle ſize, have a good ſhape, and tolerable features; their colour is very dark, and they paint their faces, ſome with black, and others with red pigment; their hair is very curly and criſp, and ſomewhat woolly. The few women which were ſeen, were ugly; they wore a petticoat made of the leaves of ſome plant. The men, like thoſe of Mallicolo, were in a manner naked, having only the belt about the waiſt, and the piece of cloth or leaf uſed for a wrapper. No canoes were ſeen in any part of the iſland. Their plantations are laid out by line, and fenced round: they live in houſes, covered with thatch.

Tanna (the ſixth) is about eight leagues long, and three or four broad, in nineteen degrees thirteen minutes ſouth, one hundred and ſixty-nine degrees thirty-eight minutes eaſt, and about twenty-four in circuit: it lies ſix leagues on the ſouth ſide of Erromango. Its name, in the Malay language, ſignifies "earth." The ſoil, in ſome parts, is a rich black mould; in other parts, it ſeemed to be compoſed of decayed vegetables, and the aſhes of a volcano, which was ſeen about eleven miles to the weſt of the ſhip, burning with great fury. The country is in general ſo covered with trees, ſhrubs, and plants, as to choak up the bread-fruit, and cocoa-nuts. The houſes and inhabitants are thinly ſcattered. Several ponds of ſtagnant water were ſeen, in which the natives had planted great quantities of eddoes. During the ſixteen days that captain Cook continued here, the volcano vomited up, at different times, vaſt quantities of fire and ſmoke, accompanied with an explotion about once in five minutes: ſome of theſe exploſions reſembled violent claps of thunder, and a rumbling noiſe continued for about half a minute: the whole air was filled with ſmoky particles and aſhes, which occaſioned much pain when they fell into the eye; at one time great ſtones were ſeen thrown up high in the air, ſome of which were at leaſt as large as the hull of a ſhip's long boat: its fires preſented a moſt pleaſing and magnificent ſight: the ſmoke, which rolled up, from time to time, in thick and heavy columns, was coloured with all the various hues of yellow, orange, crimſon, and purple, which died away into a reddiſh grey and brown: as often as a new exploſion happened, the whole country, with its ſhaggy

ſhaggy foreſts, were tinged with the ſame orange and purple, according to its diſtance, or particular expoſure to the volcanic light. It ſometimes continued quite ſilent for five or ſix days together. It was remarked, that the exploſions of the volcano recommenced after ſhowers of rain; ſo that it ſhould ſeem that rain excites them by promoting or increaſing the formation of the various mineral ſubſtances which the mountain contains in its bowels.

With reſpect to their perſons, they are of a middle ſize, ſtronger and better proportioned than the Mallicoleſe; their colour is a dark cheſnut brown, with a very ſwarthy mixture: like the natives of Mallicolo, they go naked, having only a ſtring round the belly, which did not, however, cut their body in ſo ſhocking a manner as that at the other iſland. Their hair is generally black or brown, growing to a tolerable length, and very criſp and curly; they ſeparate it into ſmall locks, which they woold or cue round with the rind of a ſlender plant, down to an inch of the ends; and as the hair grows the woold is continued; each of theſe cues or locks, is ſomewhat thicker than common whip cord, and they look like a parcel of ſmall ſtrings hanging down the crown of their heads; their beards, which are ſtrong and buſhy, are generally ſhort. The women do not wear their hair ſo, but cropped; nor do the boys till they approach manhood. They make uſe of a cylindrical piece of alabaſter, two inches long, which they wear in the cartilaginous part between the noſtrils as a noſe jewel, in the ſame manner as is practiſed at Mallicolo. Their features are large, the noſe broad, but the eyes full, and, in general, agreeable. Not one ſingle corpulent man was ſeen here; all are active, and full of ſpirit. Their ears are hung full of tortoiſe-ſhell rings, and necklaces of ſhells fall on their boſom.

Some of the elderly women had caps made of a green plantain leaf, or of matted work; but this head-dreſs was rather uncommon. But the number of ornaments conſiderably increaſed with age, the eldeſt and uglieſt being loaded with necklaces, ear-rings, noſe-jewels, and bracelets. The women here are expert cooks; they roaſt and broil the yams and bananas, they ſtew the green leaves of a kind of fig, they bake puddings made of a paſte of bananas and eddoes, containing a mixture of cocoa-nut kernels and leaves.

Apee (the ſeventh) is not leſs than two hundred leagues round, and is diſtant from Ambrym about five leagues: its longeſt direction is about eight leagues north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt. It is very high land richly diverſified with woods and lawns. This and the former were diſcovered by captain Cook in 1774.

Ambrym (the eighth) is ſituated in ſixteen degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-eight degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude, is about ſeven leagues in the longeſt part, and has a volcano in it; but is very fertile and rich.

Whitſunday iſle (the ninth) is of the ſame length, lies about four miles to the ſouth, and runs in the ſame direction; having more ſloping expoſures than Aurora, it appears to contain more plantations, and to be better inhabited.

Aurora (the tenth) is about twelve leagues long, but not above five miles broad in any part, lying nearly north and ſouth; the middle is fifteen degrees ſix minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-eight degrees twenty-four minutes eaſt longitude. Mr. Forſter ſuppoſes the Etoile of M. de Bougainville to be ſituated on this iſland. Inhabitants were ſeen here, and canoes, but none came off to the ſhip. A fine beach, and moſt luxuriant of vegetation, preſented themſelves; the whole country was woody, and a beautiful caſcade poured through a foreſt. This iſland is divided by a channel from which

The Iſle of Lepers (the eleventh and laſt) lies between Eſpiritu Sante and Aurora iſland, eight leagues from the former and three from the latter, in latitude fifteen degrees twenty-two minutes ſouth, and one hundred and ſixty-eight degrees three minutes eaſt longitude. It was firſt diſcovered by M. de Bougainville in 1768, who gave it the above appellation, from its leprous inhabitants. This iſland is in form like an egg, very high land, and about twenty leagues round. Some of the ſhip's crew went on ſhore, and were approached by a numerous troop of the natives, armed with bows and arrows, and ſtones ready to caſt. They began hoſtilities; but were ſoon quieted by a diſcharge or two from the muſquetry.

The people are of two colours, black and mulattoes; they have thick lips; and their hair is woolly, which they powder with turmeric, that gives it a yellow caſt; but they do not wear a beard. They are ſhort, ugly, ill-made and in general infected with leproſy. They wear an ornament in the noſes like the Mallicoleſe, and the ſame kind of bracelets and necklaces. The men go naked. The women are not leſs diſagreeable than the men, and wear bandages on their backs, by which they carry their children. On their cloth they paint many pretty deſigns with a fine crimſon.

They uſe, for their arms, bows and arrows, and clubs of hard wood, like thoſe at Mallicolo; ſtones alſo are among their weapons of defence, but they caſt them without ſlings: they have alſo ſabres of hard wood. Their canoes reſemble thoſe of their neighbours.

This iſland is covered throughout with trees: the ſoil is very light, and of no great depth. There are many paths through the woods, and places incloſed three feet high with reed fences. Their huts are low, and could not be entered but by creeping. They have a particular ſpecies of figs here, and other productions in common with the neighbouring iſlands.

New Caledonia extends from ſouth latitude nineteen degrees thirty-ſeven minutes, and from eaſt longitude one hundred and ſixty-three degrees thirty-ſeven minutes to one hundred and ſixty-ſeven degrees fourteen minutes. This iſland was diſcovered by captain Cook in 1774. It is hilly, but contains ſeveral fruitful vallies, has many fine ſtreams to water it, and appears delightfully pleaſant. The productions are bread-fruit, figs, ſugar-canes, plantains, yams, and cocoa-nuts.

There are no quadrupeds of any kind in this iſland, but a variety of the feathered tribe, large tame fowls with bright plumage, ducks, a ſort of ſmall crow tinged with blue, a beautiful ſpecies of parrot, turtle-doves, fly-catchers, a kind of hawk, boobies, man of war, tropic birds, and others unknown to Europe. Turtles and fiſh abound here, particularly a poiſonous fiſh, ſomething like a ſun-fiſh, with a large, long, ugly head, and which brings on an extraordinary numbneſs and giddineſs to thoſe who eat it. They have alſo beatles, ants, ſpiders, lizards, ſcorpions, &c. and a flat-tailed water-ſnake. Captain Cook left with them an O-Taheite dog and bitch.

The inhabitants are not very numerous. They are all ſtout, well featured, and of a mahogany colour. Their hair is black, ſtrong and frizzled. To comb their hair, or rather ſcratch their heads, they have an excellent inſtrument, a kind of comb, made of ſticks or hard wood, from ſeven to ten inches long, and about the thickneſs of knitting needles; about twenty of theſe are faſtened together at one end, parallel to each other, and about the tenth of an inch aſunder. Theſe combs they wear conſtantly in their hair, on one ſide of their heads. They cut their hair with a piece of mineral, ſharpened like a flint. Some few indeed of the men wear it long and tie it upon the crown of the head; others ſuffer only a large lock to grow on each ſide, which they tie up in clubs.

In this iſland, the men go quite naked, except a wrapper over their privities, which they faſten up to their girdle, as they do at Mallicolo, or up to the neck by a ſtring, and ornament that ſtring with ſmall round beads, of a pale-green nephritic ſtone. They wear on their heads black cylindrical caps, made of ſtiff coarſe matting, open at top, very much like a huſſar's cap. The chiefs ornament their heads with feathers. They ſtretch the flaps of their ears to a great length, cut out the whole cartilage or griſtle, as at Eaſter iſland, and hang great numbers of tortoiſeſhell rings in them, as they at Tatna do.

The women's dreſs gives them a thick ſquat ſhape, and conſiſts of a petticoat reſembling fringe, about eight inches long, juſt dropping below the waiſt: it is made of filaments, or ſmall cords, laid thick over one another, and faſtened to a long ſtring that is wound ſeveral times round the body. The outward filaments of this fringe they die black; the under ones are of a pale yellow. By way of ornament, they fix on one ſide of the petticoat a few pearl oyſter-ſhells. Both ſexes wear tortoiſeſhell ear-rings, necklaces, and bracelets, above the elbow. The women tattow or puncture themſelves a little in the face, generally in three black ſtraight lines, from the under lip downwards to the chin; and they carry their infants in a kind of ſatchel on their backs.

The houſes of theſe people are like thoſe in Friendly Iſles, which we ſhall deſcribe hereafter. Their chief utenſils are made of red clay: they ſubſiſt on roots, fiſh, and the bark of trees. They are well provided with weapons of offence, as of courſe they muſt ſometimes have wars among themſelves, or with their neighbours: theſe weapons are, clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings for caſting ſtones. Their clubs are about two feet and a half long, and of different forms; ſome like a ſcythe; others like a mattock; ſome have a head like a hawk, and others have knobs at

the end; but they are all neatly made, and well polished. Their darts and ſpears are ornamented with carved work; but their ſlings are perfectly ſimple, being no other than a ſlender round cord, no thicker than pack thread, with a taſſel at one end, a loop at the other, and in the middle. The ſtones they throw are of a ſoft ſoap rock, rubbed into the form of an egg. They exactly fit the loop in the middle of the ſling, and are kept in a pocket of matting, tied round the waiſt for the purpoſe. They caſt their darts alſo with a ſhort ſtring knotted at one end, and looped at the other, as they do at Tanna, called by the ſeamen a Becket, and are very dextrous in throwing them. Their ſpears are fifteen or twenty feet long, blackened over, and have a prominence near the middle, carved ſo as to reſemble a human face.

Their canoes are heavy and clumſy. They are, as it were, double, conſiſting of two hulls, made out of two large trees hollowed out, the gunnel raiſed about two inches high, and cloſed at each end with a kind of bulk-head of the ſame height. The two hulls are ſecured to each other about three feet aſunder, by ſeveral croſs ſpars.

Their language differs from thoſe of the other iſlands in the ſouth ſeas, and their pronunciation is indiſtinct. They are good ſwimmers, and fond of ſinging and dancing. The only muſical inſtrument obſerved among them was a whiſtle, made of a poliſhed piece of brown wood ſhaped like a bell, though apparently ſolid, with a rope fixed at a ſmall end. The holes were made in it near the baſe, and another near the inſertion of the rope, all which had ſome communication with each other. The inhabitants are ſtrictly honeſt, and not the leaſt addicted to pilfering: they may in general be deemed a friendly, inoffenſive people: they gave captain Cook and his ſhip-mates a very welcome and peaceable reception, addreſſing him firſt in a ſhort ſet ſpeech, and then inviting him aſhore. But they are indolent, and deſtitute of curioſity; the greater part of them did not move from their ſeats when the Europeans paſſed them for the firſt time: they are remarkably grave, ſpeak always in a ſerious tone; and laughter ſeems to be a ſtranger among them.

Many of the natives were ſeen with prodigious legs and arms, which ſeemed to be affected with a kind of leproſy; the ſwelling was found to be extremely hard, but the ſkin not alike harſh and ſcaly in all the ſick perſons; the preternatural expanſion of the leg and arm did not appear to be a great inconvenience to thoſe who ſuffered it, and they ſeemed to ſay that they felt pain very rarely in them; but in ſome the diſorder began to form blotches, which were marks of a great degree of virulence.

They depoſit their dead under ground, which ſeems to be a more judicious manner of diſpoſing of them than that uſed at O-Taheitee, where they expoſe them above ground till all the fleſh is entirely putrified: if the mortality was more conſiderable in that iſland than it is ſuppoſed to be, ſuch a cuſtom might have the moſt pernicious conſequences, and produce a dreadful epidemical diſtemper: ſuch a diſeaſe as the ſmall-pox, for example, if introduced, would go near to depopulate the whole country. The grave of a chief, who had been ſlain in battle, here reſembled a large mole-hill, and was decorated with ſpears, darts, paddles, &c. all ſtuck upright in the ground round about it. Lieutenant Pickerſkill was ſhewed a chief, whom they named Tea-booma, and ſtiled their areekee, or king; but nothing further is known of their government, and very little of their religion.

Captain Cook when he firſt landed here, was accompanied by a native, who appeared to be a man of ſome conſequence, and who had come on board the ſhip before ſhe came to an anchor. The natives aſſembled in great numbers on the beach, led merely by curioſity, for many had not ſo much as a ſtick in their hands. The party, on landing, were received with great courteſy, and with ſurprize natural for people to expreſs at ſeeing men and things ſo new and wonderful. The captain made preſents to all thoſe whom his companion pointed out: but, on his going to give a few beads and medals to ſome women who ſtood behind the croud, the chief held his hand, and would not ſuffer him to do it. As they proceeded up a creek, Mr. Forſter ſhot a duck that flew near them, which was the firſt uſe which theſe people ſaw made of fire-arms. The friendly natives begged to have it; and when he landed, he told his countrymen in what manner it was killed.

From this excurſion, they learnt, that they were to expect nothing from theſe people but the privilege of viſiting their country undiſturbed, for they had little elſe than good nature to beſtow; and "in this" ſays captain Cook, "they exceeded all the natives we had yet met with; and although it did not ſatisfy the demands of nature, it at once pleaſed and left our minds at eaſe." A hatchet was not quite ſo valuable as a large ſpike nail; ſmall nails were of little or no value; and beads, looking glaſſes, &c. they did not admire. Many of the natives came on board the ſhip with perfect confidence, and one of them exchanged a yam for a piece of red cloth: they admired every thing that had a red colour, particularly red cloth or baize, but did not chuſe to give any thing in exchange. Captain Cook ſent the king Tea-booma a dog and bitch, both young, but nearly full grown, which may be the means of ſtocking the country with that ſpecies of animals; and to Hebai, the friendly chief before ſpoken of, he gave a ſow and boar pig, in order to provide, if poſſible, a ſtock of domeſtic animals, for a nation whoſe inoffenſive character ſeemed highly deſerving of ſuch a preſent. To enhance their value with the Indians, and thereby induce them to be more careful of their ſtock of hogs, the captain explained to them how many young ones the female would have at one time, and how ſoon this would multiply to ſome hundreds.

No one of the natives attempted to take the leaſt trifle by ſtealth, but all behaved with the ſtricteſt honeſty. Some of them ſpoke of a great land to the northward, which they called Mingha, the inhabitants of which were their enemies, and very warlike. They likewiſe pointed to a ſepulchral mount, where one of their chiefs lay buried, who had been killed fighting in defence of his country, by a native of Mingha. The appearance of a large beef bone, which an officer began to pick towards the concluſion of the ſupper, interrupted this converſation; the natives talked very loud and earneſtly to each other, looked with great ſurprize, and ſome marks of diſguſt at the ſtranger, and at laſt went away altogether, expreſſing, by ſigns, that they ſuppoſed it to be the limb of a man. The officer endeavoured to free himſelf and his ſhipmates from this ſuſpicion, but two inſurmountable impediments lay in his way, viz. the want of language, and that the natives had never ſeen a quadruped in their lives. At another time a native, who was in a boat with captain Cook and Mr. Wales, acquainted them that they had enemies who feaſted upon human fleſh, which doubtleſs had contributed to make them impute the ſame practice to their new friends. This iſland, the largeſt diſcovered in the ſouth-ſea between the tropics, remains intirely unexplored on its ſouth ſide; its minerals and vegetables ſtill remain untouched; animals it ſhould ſeem to have none, from the ignorance which the natives to the northward diſcovered of ſuch as they ſaw.

New Zealand is ſituated between one hundred and eighty degrees forty-five minutes, and one hundred and ninety-three degrees fifteen minutes weſt longitude, and thirty-four degrees twenty-four minutes and forty-ſeven degrees twenty-four minutes ſouth latitude, and about two thouſand miles difference from O-Taheitee. It conſiſts of two large iſlands, divided by a ſtraight four or five leagues broad, and lying nearly north and ſouth of each other. The northern iſland is called by the natives Eahie-nonauwe, and that to the ſouth Tavai Poenammoo; they are much the ſize of each other, and together are as large as the iſland of Great Britain, having many ſmall iſlands about them. They were firſt diſcovered by Abel Janſen Taſman, a Dutchman, on the 13th of December, 1642. He coaſted the eaſtern part, from latitude thirty-four degrees to forty-three degrees, and entered the ſtraight which divides the two iſlands; but, meeting with a diſagreeable reception from the natives, as ſoon as he dropped his anchor, he thought proper to weigh it again without landing. Captain Cook was ſix months in coaſting this country, viz. in the latter end of 1769, and beginning of 1770. He viſited it again in 1773, and a third time in 1774.

This iſland, in the ſouthern part of it, is rather barren, but the other is tolerably fertile, and the latter contains a mountain as high as the Peak of Teneriff. The productions are ſuch as are common to the ſouth ſea iſlands, but, among other productions, the trees claim no ſmall conſideration. Here are forests of great extent crowded with trees, the ſtraiteſt, cleaneſt, and largeſt ever ſeen. They are rather too hard and heavy for maſts; but if they could be lightened by tapping, as it is probable they might, they would make the fineſt maſts for ſhipping in the world: they are not unlike the pitch-pine. There are ſome with a ſcarlet flower, well adapted to the mill-wright. There are many other ſorts of trees, one like the maple, yielding a whitiſh gum, and another giving a deep yellow ſubſtance fit for dying. They have plenty of mangrove trees; and a kind

a kind of tree that grows ſo large and lofty, that they will meaſure, at ſixteen inches above the ground, full nineteen feet in girth, and are as ſtraight as an arrow, from the root to the firſt branches; many of them will yield three hundred and fifty-ſix feet of ſolid timber, excluſive of the branches. It bears a narrow leaf like the juniper, is generally found in low land, and has a dark-coloured appearance. Of this tree the natives make their canoes.

Though there are, in this iſland, many trees and ſhrubs, which bear beautiful flowers, and are highly aromatic, yet there is not one that produces fruit; but there is a plant worth them all, ſerving the natives inſtead of hemp, and flax. Of this plant there are two ſpecies; one bearing a deep red flower, the other a yellow. The leaves of both reſemble flags, but the bloſſoms are not ſo large, and their cluſters are more in number. They make all their cloaths of the leaves of this plant, and alſo all their ſtrings and cordage, which are at once gloſſy, elaſtic, and ſo ſtrong, that nothing made of hemp can equal them. From the ſame, by another proceſs, they draw out long, ſlender, ſtrong fibres, white as ſnow, and ſhining as ſilk; of theſe they make their better cloth; and by ſlitting the leaves in proper breadths, and tying them together, they make their fiſhing-nets. This plant ſeems to grow beſt in boggy grounds; there is every reaſon to believe that it would thrive well in England; and, could we tranſport it hither, it would be a valuable acquiſition to this country.

Dogs and rats are the only quadrupeds here; but they have a great variety of birds, ſome of which are exquiſitely beautiful.

There are but few inhabitants, in proportion to the extent of country. Tavai Poenammoo is, as we obſerved before, very thinly peopled, conſiſting chiefly of wanderers; but Eahie-monauwe is better peopled. The weſtern ſide of this iſland is quite a deſert; and the interior parts being ſo mountainous, ſcarce any place is inhabited but the ſea-coaſts, which, on an extent of four hundred leagues, is ſuppoſed to contain only about one hundred thouſand people.

The men in general, are equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans, being tall but thin, yet exceedingly ſtrong, fleſhy and well made, and they are particularly active and vigorous, with an uncommon adroitneſs in every thing they do; but moſt of their legs are ſlender and bandy, with large knees, owing to the little exerciſe they take, and their continually ſitting croſs-legged in confined canoes. Their complexion is a clear mahogany brown, though they are rather darker in the ſouthern iſland. Their hair is black and curling, and their teeth extremely regular and white. They have good faces, like Europeans, dark eyes, lips rather thick, and aquiline noſes. Their voice is rough, they talk loud, and, in general, are more rude and unpoliſhed than the natives of O-Taheitee, of whom we ſhall ſhortly treat. The women are plain, and have no great female delicacy; but their voices are remarkably ſoft and harmonious, and by this they are chiefly diſtinguiſhed, the dreſs of both ſexes being nearly the ſame. They have, like the women of other countries, a chearfulneſs ſuperior to the men, and a greater flow of animal ſpirits. Both ſexes have the practice of tattowing.

With reſpect to the dreſs of the people of this country; that of the men is merely a wrapper round the body, kept from falling below the waiſt by two ſlips over the ſhoulders, faſtened before and behind with bone bodkins. It is made of flag leaves, and reſembles a ſhaggy door mat. Some men on particular occaſions, wear another piece of this matting round the waiſt, which reaches almoſt to the ground.

The dreſs of the women is a cloak and petticoat of matting, and a bunch of aromatic leaves hanging from a girdle between the legs. Some of them wear their hair cropped ſhort, others have it flowing about their ſhoulders; but the men tie theirs up in a bunch on the crown of the head, decorate that bunch with feathers, and a ſtick comb behind it. They wear their beards cut ſhort. Both men and women greaſe their hair, and frequently wear upon the crown of their heads, a large bunch of black feathers, tied up round ſo as to raiſe their head twice its natural height, and almoſt to cover it.

A variety of ornaments is worn by both ſexes, ſuch as ear-rings, necklaces, anelets, &c. Both men and women bore their ears, and ſtretch the holes till they will admit a finger; in theſe they wear cloth, feathers, bones of large birds, and ſometimes ſtick pieces of wood through them. The women frequently ſtuff in the white down of the albatroſs, ſtained with ruddle or oker, which ſpreads before and behind, as large as one's fiſt; and, though ſingular, has a very good effect. Sometimes they hang to their ears, by ſtrings, chiſſels, or bodkins, made of tale, and often the nails or teeth of their deceaſed relations: bracelets and anclets are made of birds, bones, ſhells, or any other ſubſtance they can drill a hole through. The men ſometimes wear round the neck, ſuſpended by a ſtring, a piece of round green tranſparent tale, or whalebone ſhaped like a laurel leaf, and with the rude figure of a man carved upon it; and ſome wear a feather through their noſtrils.

Theſe people live upon fiſh, birds, and vegetables. Water is their only liquor; and, having nothing that will intoxicate, they are in this reſpect the happieſt perſons in the world; but, on the other hand, ſhould their plantations fail, or an unfavourable ſeaſon happen, and they happen not to be provided with a ſufficient dry ſtock, the diſtreſs to ſuch as inhabit the interior parts of the country muſt be dreadful. This will, in ſome meaſure, account for the fear theſe people live in of each other, for the care they take to fortify their villages, and for the horrid cuſtom of eating thoſe whom they kill in battle. The head is the only part they do not eat: they ſuck the brains, and frequently convert the ſkull to domeſtic purpoſes, ſuch as to hold water, &c. The way they diſpatch their priſoners, is, by knocking them down with their patta-pattoos, and then ripping them up.

The hippahs, or towns of theſe people, are all fortified. Many are built upon eminences near the ſea, and ſecured on the land ſide by a bank or ditch, and a high paling within the ditch; and ſome have outworks; their houſes are built on a riſing ground, under a tuft of trees, but are little better than dog-kennels, ſeldom more than twenty feet long, ten broad, and ſix high; their furniture and utenſils are trifling. Their amuſements are ſinging and dancing: they have two muſical inſtruments, a trumpet made of a ſhell, and a wooden pipe, which yields a noiſe like a child's whiſtle. A top was ſeen here, ſhaped like the gigs in England, and, like them, made to ſpin by whipping.

In theſe iſlands, two or three ſorts of cloth are made: the ſhaggy ſort, reſembling a thrummed door mat; one as coarſe as our coarſeſt canvas, though ten times as ſtrong; and another as gloſſy as ſilk. The ſhaggy ſort is made of flag-leaves, ſplit into three or more ſlips, and interwoven with dry, leaving a number of ends hanging to it on the outſide, eight or nine inches long; and the gloſſy ſort is formed by many threads lying very cloſe one way, and a few croſſing them the other; but theſe are about half an inch aſunder, ſomewhat like the round pieces of cane matting that are by ſome perſons placed under the diſhes upon tables to ſave the cloth; this ſtuff is prepared ſo as to ſhine like ſilk, and is often ſtriped. It is made in a frame of the ſize of the cloth, about five feet long, and four broad. They have adzes and axes made of black ſtone, and chiſſels of bone, or pieces of jaſper: they have likewiſe an inſtrument made of a ſharp ſtake, which ſerves at once for plough and ſpade. Their fiſhing-nets are made of a kind of graſs, very ſtrong in its nature; and their principal nets are ſo large, that they ſeem to be the joint work and joint property of a whole town; they are generally about five fathom deep: they make alſo a circular net, extended by two or three hoops, ſeven or eight feet in diameter, which they bait at the bottom, and leave open at the top.

The natives have a particular and ſingular taſte for carving: they attempt not to imitate any thing in nature, but confine themſelves to a volute or ſpiral, which they vary many ways, ſingle, double, and triple, and with as much regularity, as if done from mathematical draughts. They thus ornament their boats, paddles, arms, tools, and almoſt every thing they make, though they have very aukward tools to do it with.

Hoſtilities, among them, are declared with a war ſong and a dance, in which the women join and attack, with diſtorted features, hideous ſhouts, rolling eyes, and tongues lolling out of their mouths. The heads of their chiefs are curiouſly tattowed, and ſometimes adorned with a wooden comb and feathers. Captain Cook, having expreſſed a deſire to ſee their mode of attack and defence, one young man mounted a fighting ſtage, which is a platform raiſed from the ground and ſurrounded with a ditch, of which they have many large ones on the ſides of hills; and another went into the ditch; both he that was to defend the place, and he that was to attack it, ſung the war ſong, and danced in a frightful manner, working themſelves up to a degree of mechanical rage: this done they attacked each other with uncommon fury.

As theſe people live in perpetual hoſtility with each other, there is therefore little land in a ſtate of cultivation, and

and every village is made a fort: they ſeem to have ſtudied leſs the inſtruments of peace, than thoſe of war.

A lance painted and barbed is their miſſile weapon: this is held like a quarter ſtaff, in the middle, and thrown with great fury: they likewiſe ſometimes fight with ſhort darts and arrows, and with ſtones, but have neither beams to convey the former, or ſlings to throw the latter: their other weapons are battle-axes, and the patta-pattoo, which is made of green talc about a foot long, and thick enough to weigh four or five pounds. It is formed like a pointed battledore, with a ſhort handle and ſharp edges, and deſigned for cloſe fighting: through the handle there is a ſtring to twiſt round the hand when the weapon is uſed: the patta-pattoo is worn in the girdle, as a conſiderable military ornament. Their chiefs carry about them a ſtaff of diſtinction, generally the rib of a whale, white as ſnow, ornamented round the top with carving, dog-ſkin and feathers, like our ſheriff's halberts; but ſometimes this ſtaff is merely a ſtick about ſix feet long, adorned in the ſame manner, and inlaid with a ſhell reſembling mother of pearl.

The canoes uſed by theſe people afford a ſtriking proof of their ingenuity: they are of different ſizes, narrow and long, and reſemble very much the New-England whale-boat. Some of the larger ſort ſeem to be built chiefly for war, and will contain from forty to near one hundred armed men, being near ſeventy feet long, though not more than five feet broad, and about three feet and a half in depth. The ſides are made ſtraight, of three intire planks, one above another, which reach from end to end, and are ſewed together by a ſtring, made of the flax plant and caulked with the woolly ſubſtance of the reed mace. The ſides being ſtraight, and the bottom ſharp, they are in form of a wedge. A conſiderable number of thwarts or ſeats are laid from gunwale to gunwale, in order to ſtrengthen them, and a profuſion of carved ornaments decorate the head and ſtern, which project beyond the body, riſing almoſt perpendicularly five or ſix feet above it, are pierced through and through in ſpirals, like fillagree work, and adorned with ſtreamers hanging from them. The gunwales of their beſt boats are alſo carved in a groteſque taſte, and ornamented with tufts of white feathers placed upon a black ground. Theſe boats are worked by eighteen or twenty ſmall light paddles, about ſix feet long, neatly made, having an oval blade, pointed at the bottom, and gradually loſing its oval form in the handle; and the Indians have ſuch an adroitneſs and manual dexterity in uſing theſe paddles, that thirty of them together will keep time ſo exactly, that one would think the rowers were actuated by one common ſoul. They frequently ſing when rowing, and beat time with their paddles. Sails of matting fixed upright, between two poles, are ſometimes made uſe of; but they can make no way with theſe, except right before the wind.

The New Zealand language and that of O-Taheitee are radically the ſame, the difference being only provincial. They worſhip a Supreme Being, but believe in ſubordinate deities, and make offerings of proviſion, fruit, &c.

The Europeans could not diſcover how they bury the dead: the natives in the northern parts informed them, that they bury them in the ground; but in the ſouthern parts they ſaid they threw them into the ſea, tied to a ſtone, in order to ſink them: this, however, is certain, that when any die, the neareſt ſurviving relations, by way of ſhewing reſpect to the deceaſed, ſcarify themſelves in a terrible manner.

Thoſe who inhabit T'avai Poenammoo, which is the ſouthern iſle, live a wandering life, and ſeem to be under no regular kind of government: the head of each tribe, indeed, is reſpected, and, on ſome occaſions, commands obedience; but thoſe of Eahie-monauwe acknowledge a ſovereign, under whom are ſeveral ſubordinate chiefs, to whom great reſpect is paid, and by whom juſtice is probably adminiſtered; and it was learnt that they poſſeſſed their authority by inheritance. The ſmaller ſocieties in the ſouthern iſland have ſeveral things in common, particularly their fine cloaths and fiſhing-nets. Their fine cloaths are preſerved in a place by themſelves, in the middle of their towns, and part of their nets are found in almoſt every houſe; for they collect theſe parts, and join them together, when they go out to fiſh.

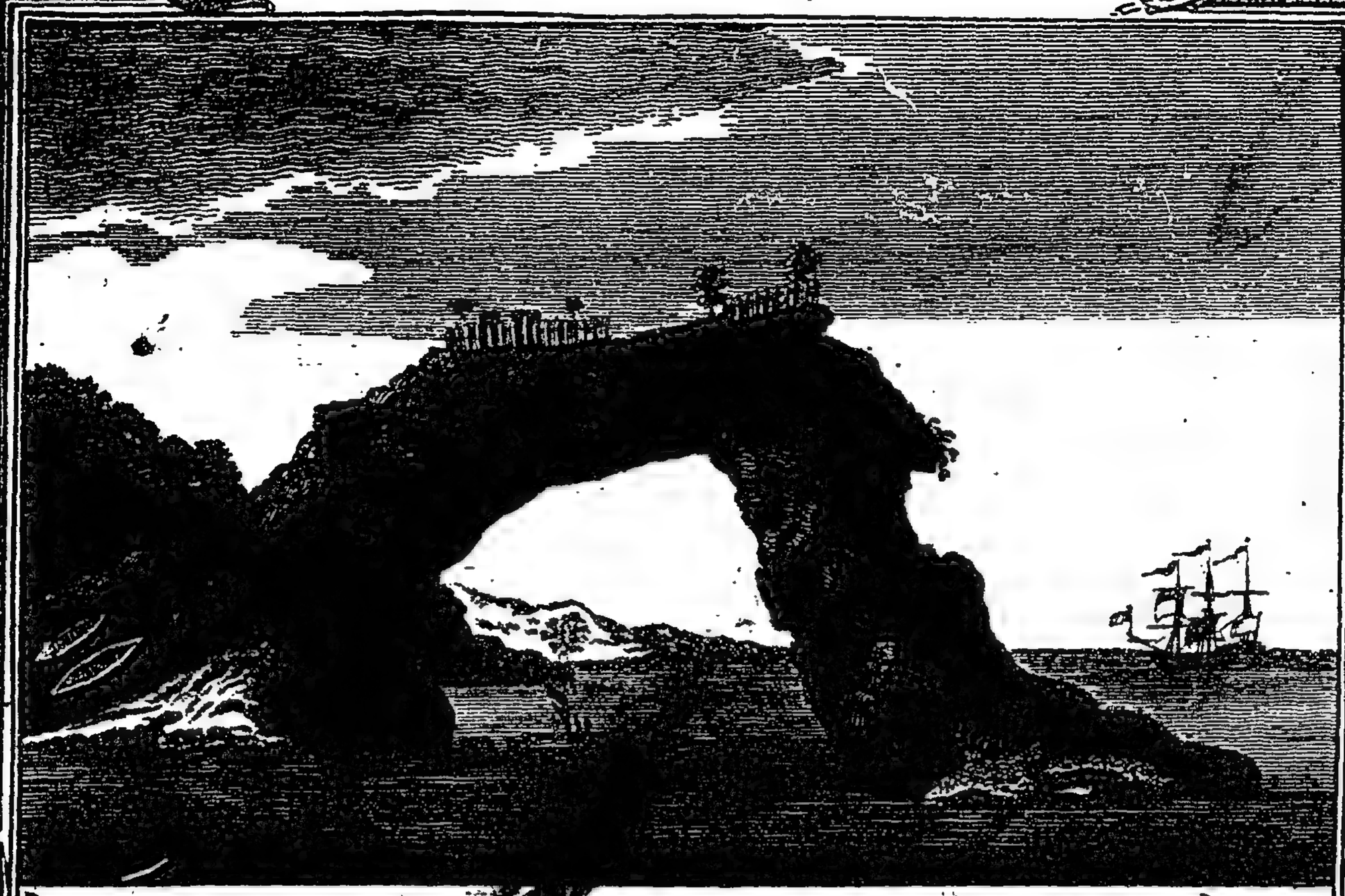
The New Zealanders, though more iraſcible than the other ſouth-ſea iſlanders in general, are, however, leſs immodeſt, having ſome idea of indecency. They are as decent and reſerved in their behaviour as the politeſt perſons in Europe. When an overture is made to any young woman, the party is given to underſtand, that the conſent of friends is neceſſary; that a ſuitable preſent muſt be made; that the conſenting female muſt be treated with good manners and delicacy; that no unbecoming liberties muſt be taken, and that the day-light muſt not be a witneſs of what paſſes between them. An agreement thus made is conſidered by them as regular and binding as a marriage ceremonial in European countries.

The two following inſtances will ſerve to ſhew the ferocity of theſe people, ſeveral of whom were killed, and great pains taken to conciliate their affections, before captain Cook, who was here in 1769, could effect or bring them to trade with integrity. Monſieur Marion, who commanded two French ſhips, was, in 1772, with twenty-eight of his men murdered here. The carpenters belonging to this officer's ſhips were encamped in the woods, under the protection of a M. Crozet, with a ſmall party, for the purpoſe of making new maſts, &c. Upon the news, therefore, of captain Marion and his men being cut off, a corporal and four marines were diſpatched to M. Crozet, to acquaint him with his danger, while ſeveral boats waited to receive him. M. Crozet immediately diſpoſed every thing, as well as he could, to effect a retreat; but ſoon found himſelf in ſight of a prodigious crowd of natives, led on by ſeveral chiefs. He directed the four marines to be ready to fire at ſuch perſons as he ſhould point out, if neceſſity required it, and then ordered all his party to ſtrike their tents, and retire with their tools to the boats, while he advanced up to one of the chiefs. This man told him, that M. Marion was killed by another chief, whom he named. At this, M. Crozet fixed a ſtake in the ground, juſt before the feet of the chief, and bid him advance no further. The boldneſs of the action ſtartled the ſavage, which being obſerved by M. Crozet, he inſiſted on his commanding the croud to ſit down; which was accordingly complied with. He now walked up and down before the natives, till all his men were in the boat: his ſoldiers were ordered to follow, and himſelf was the laſt who embarked. Scarce was the boat put off from the ſhore, but the ſavages began their ſong of defiance, and threw ſtones at him; however, by the exertion of his people, he got ſafe on board. This, however, did not intimidate M. Crozet; for finding himſelf under a neceſſity of procuring new maſts, he landed again with a party, attacked one of their fortifications, and cut a breach in it; an armed chief inſtantly ſtepped into it, and was ſhot dead; another ſtepped on the dead body, and occupied his place, he likewiſe fell a victim to M. Crozet's heroiſm; and in like manner fell eight chiefs, who ſucceſſively defended, and bravely fell upon this poſt of honour. The reſt, ſeeing their leaders dead, fled, and many were purſued and killed. In ſhort, after this enterprize, M. Crozet completed the repairs of his ſhip without interruption, and, after a ſtay of ſixty-four days, proſecuted his voyage.

The other inſtance relates to the dreadful cataſtrophe of ſome of captain Furneaux's crew: the two ſhips commanded by the captains Cook and Furneaux having parted company off the eaſtern coaſt of Eahie-monauwe, and not happening to join again, captain Furneaux, ſome time after the departure of captain Cook, arrived in Queen Charlotte's ſound, in December, 1773. While he lay there, the cutter, in which were the two midſhipmen and eight ſeamen, was ſent up a creek, to procure wood and water; which not returning, occaſioned ſome anxiety about their ſafety. The next day an officer was ſent in another boat, in ſearch of them. The firſt intimations which they received of the fate of their comrades, was, the ſight of the rullock parts of the cutter, and ſome ſhoes, one of which was known to have belonged to a midſhipman who was of the party; preſently a piece of meat was found, which was at firſt ſuppoſed to be ſome of the ſalted meat belonging to the cutter's crew, but, on a cloſer examination, it was found to be freſh. Several baſkets lay on the beach tied up, which they eagerly cut open, and found them to contain roaſted fleſh, and fern roots, which ſerved them for bread; on further ſearch, many ſhoes were found, and a hand, which was immediately known to belong to a forecaſtle-man, it being marked with the initial letters of his name by an O-Taheitan tattow inſtrument. Proceeding onward to the next bay, a great many people appeared on the beach, and three or four canoes; on the approach of the boat, they retreated to a ſmall iſland; on the beach were two bundles of celery, which had been gathered for loading the cutter; a broken oar was ſtuck upright in the ground, to which the natives had tied their canoes. They ſearched in vain every part of the beach for the cutter, but a ſhocking ſpectacle ſuddenly opened upon them. Here were ſcattered the heads, hearts, and lungs of ſeveral of

the

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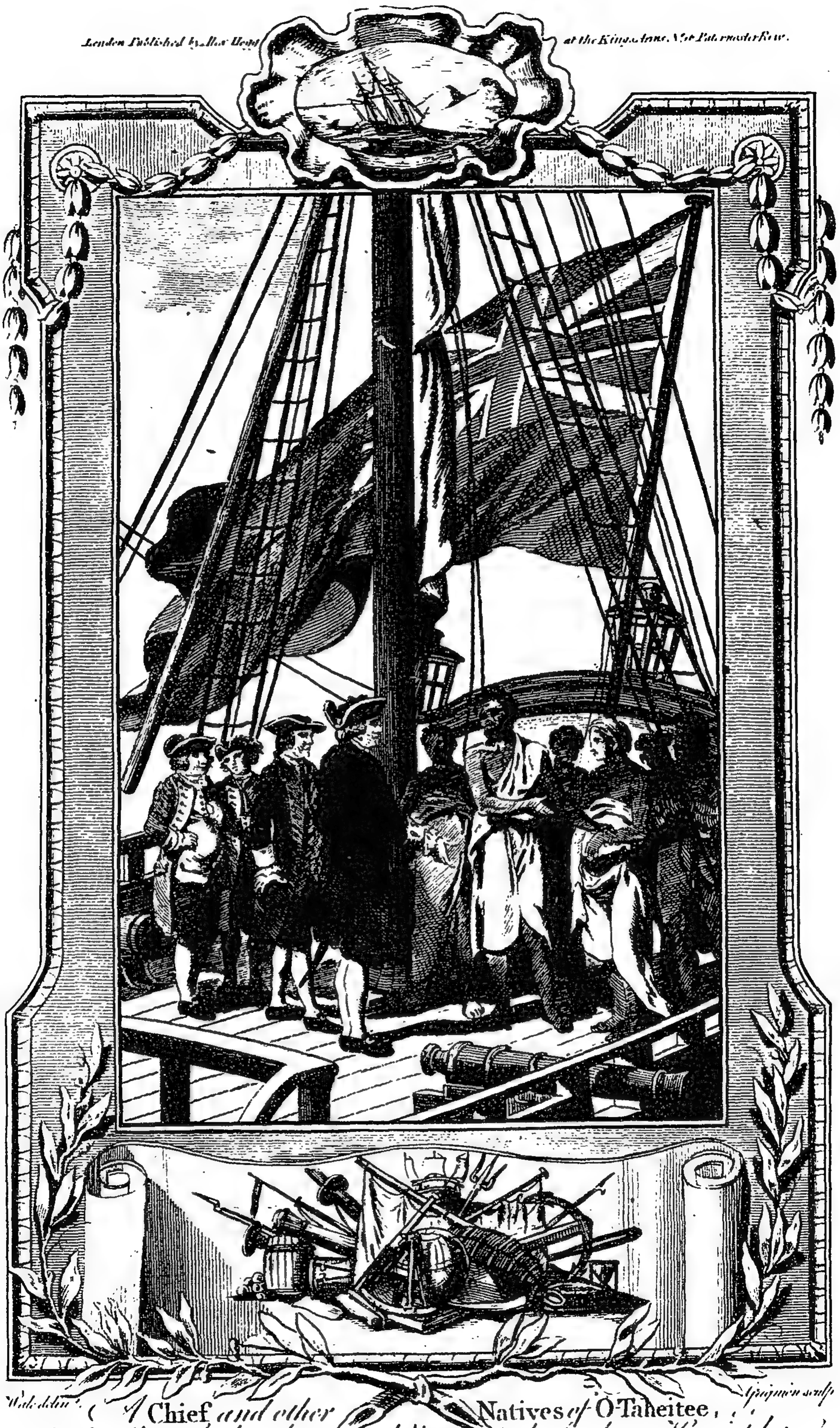
Arminely ARCHES ROCK *on the Coast of New Zealand.*





A New Zealand Chief's whose head is engraved by TATAWED *and a Subaltern Warrior of the same Country.*

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A Chief and other Natives of O-Taheitee, visiting Capt. Cook in his second Voyage to the Southern Hemisphere.

the unhappy men who had been murdered by the natives; and dogs were ſeen devouring their entrails. Horror chilled the ſailors blood at the ſight, which urged them to a fierce deſire of revenge. They fired and killed ſeveral of the ſavages, and deſtroyed all the canoes that lay on the beach.

Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, going on ſhore, at Queen Charlotte's Sound, in ſearch of the natural productions of the country, by accident fell in with a very agreeable Indian family, which afforded them a better opportunity of remarking the perſonal ſubordination of theſe people, than had before offered. The principal perſons were a widow, and a pretty boy about ten years old. The widow, was mourning for her huſband with tears of blood, according to their cuſtom: and the child, by the death of its father was become proprietor of a diſtrict of land. The mother and the ſon were ſitting upon mats: and the reſt of the family, to the number of ſixteen or ſeventeen, of both ſexes, ſat round them in the open air, for they did not appear to have any houſe, or other ſhelter from the weather, the inclemencies of which, cuſtom had probably enabled them to endure without any laſting inconvenience. Their whole behaviour was affable, obliging, and unſuſpicious. They preſented each perſon with fiſh, and a brand of fire to dreſs it, and preſſed them many times to ſtay till the morning; which they would have done, had they not expected the ſhip to ſail.

A man and two women were the firſt inhabitants ſeen in Duſky Bay, the man ſtood with a battle ax or club in his hand, on the rocky point of an iſland, and called to captain Cook and ſome more who were paſſing near him in a boat. The women were behind him, each with a long ſpear in her hand. His ſalutation was anſwered in the language of O-Taheitee; Tayo barre mai, Friend, come hither; he did not, however, ſtir from his poſt, but held a long ſpeech, frequently ſwinging round his club, on which he leaned at other times. The captain landed on the rock alone; great ſigns of fear were conſpicuous in the poor native: however, he ſtood firm on the ſame ſpot. The captain went up to him, and embraced him according to the cuſtom of the country, by joining noſes, by which token of amity all apprehenſions on the part of the natives were diſpelled. The man received the preſents that were made him, and the two women joined company; one of them had a prodigious excreſcence on the upper lip, and was in every reſpect remarkably ugly. An hour was ſpent in converſation, which was very little underſtood by either party, and in which the youngeſt woman bore by far the greateſt ſhare. The next day the gentlemen renewed their viſit. The natives received all the articles that were offered them, with great indifference, except hatchets and ſpike-nails, in return for which they parted with ſeveral of their ornaments and weapons, but did not chuſe to part with their ſpears. A perfect good underſtanding being now eſtabliſhed, the next time the captain viſited them, he found them dreſſed out in the higheſt taſte of the country; their hair was combed, tied to the crown of their head, and anointed with ſome oil or greaſe; white feathers were ſtuck in at the top: ſome had fillets of white feathers all round the head, and others wore pieces of an albatro's ſkin, with its fine white down in their ears. A cloak of red baize was preſented to the chief, in return for which he gave the captain a patta-pattoo, which he drew from his ſide; it was a ſhort club made of a fiſh-bone. A few days after they were prevailed upon to enter on board the ſhip, which they promiſed to do the next morning.

When the Reſolution lay in Queen Charlotte's Sound, a New Zealander, with his ſon and daughter, came on board. They were introduced into the cabin, when captain Cook gave him many little preſents, and dreſſed the boy in one of his own white ſhirts: the boy was ſo overjoyed at his finery, that nothing could confine him to the cabin, he muſt diſplay it to his countrymen on the deck; this puerile vanity ſerved, however, for the firſt time perhaps to make him acquainted with misfortune. An old he-goat that walked the decks, to the great terror of all the New-Zealanders, conceived a capricious kind of diſlike to the ludicrous figure of poor Khoaa, which was the boy's name, who was loſt in the ample folds of his ſhirt, and awkwardly trotted about with perfect ſelf-complacency. The ſturdy mountaineer aſſailed the youth, and raiſing himſelf on his hind legs, with one butt of his head made the beau meaſure his length on the deck: the boy bellowed out his tribulations ſo loudly, that his exulting conqueror was proceeding to further chaſtiſement, when the people who were ſpectators interpoſed, and put an end to the unequal conflict. The unhappy Khoaa's pride was now humbled in the dirt; his ſhirt was beſmeared with dirt, and in this woful plight he ſlunk into the cabin, feelingly telling his misfortune by his tears: the ſtern father unuſed to the melting mood, was enraged to ſee the ineſtimable preſent begrimed with filth, and in the ungovernable ſally of his anger, beſtowed many hearty blows on the poor ſufferer.

The diſpoſition to ſteal and ſecrete every thing they could lay their hands on, was prevalent in all that came on board the ſhip in Queen Charlotte's Sound; ſeveral of them were diſcovered in conveying away a variety of things that lay conveniently for their purpoſe, upon which they were ignominiouſly turned out of the ſloop. One time a woman ſtole a jacket from one of the ſailors, and conveyed it to a young Zealander. The owner, finding the ſtolen goods upon him, took away his property without ceremony, for which he received ſeveral blows with the fiſt, which the ſailor with great goodnature paſſed by, imputing them to jocularity; but as he was advancing to his boat, he was ſaluted with ſeveral large ſtones thrown at him by the New Zealander. This was more than the ſpirit of the ſeaman could brook, he therefore returned, and began to attack the aggreſſor in the Engliſh manner of boxing, and preſently obliged him to ſheer off with a black eye and bloody noſe. A boy about fourteen years of age was prevailed on to drink about a glaſs of Madeira wine, at which he made a great many wry faces at firſt; a bottle of very ſweet Cape wine being brought upon the table, a glaſs was filled out to him; which he reliſhed ſo well, that he was continually licking his lips, and deſired to have another, which he likewiſe drank off; theſe potations began to elevate his ſpirits, and his tongue ran with great volubility: he capered about the cabin, inſiſted on having the captain's boat cloak which lay on a chair, and was much piqued at a refuſal: he next deſired one of the empty bottles, and this requeſt likewiſe proving fruitleſs, he went out of the cabin highly offended. On deck he ſaw ſome of the ſervants folding up linen which had been hung out to dry, and immediately ſeized on a table cloth; but this being taken from him, his paſſion roſe very high; he ſtamped, threatened, then grumbled, or rather grunted awhile, and at laſt became ſo ſullen, that he would not ſpeak a word. This boy was a very juſt ſample of the impatient temper of theſe people.

SECT. XIII.

Treating of the Iſland of O-TAHEITEE, SOCIETY ISLES, EASTER ISLE, the MARQUESAS, FRIENDLY ISLES, and QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLANDS, &c. lately diſcovered.

THE iſland of O-Taheitee, called alſo king George the Third's iſland, was firſt diſcovered, by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, on June 19, 1767, who made ſome ſtay in this iſland: it has alſo been viſited by ſeveral navigators, but laſt by captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April 1769. It is ſituated in ſeventeen degrees, thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and fifty degrees weſt longitude, conſiſts of two circular peninſulas, one of which is near as large again as the other; the biggeſt is therefore termed Great O-Taheitee, and the other Little O-Taheitee: the iſthmus that joins them is two miles broad. The whole iſland is thirty miles long, and one hundred and twenty in compaſs; is ſurrounded by coral rocks, and internally mountainous.

The ſoil, except at the very ſummit of the hills, is rich, woody, well watered, and verdant: from various appearances, however, it ſeems to have undergone many changes, by ſubterraneous fires. The inhabitants only dwell in the vallies, or in the flat lands near the ſea. The houſes are built without order, and ſcattered up and down with a plantation to each. The productions are bread-fruit, plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, cuſtard apple, ſugar canes, wild indigo, ginger, turmeric, &c. but neither fruits, vegetables, or grain, reſembling thoſe of Europe.

When M. de Bougainville was there in 1768, he perſuaded one of the chiefs to incloſe a piece of ground for a garden, had it dug, ſowed it with wheat, barley, oats, rice, maize, onions, and pot-herbs of all kinds, and gave him to underſtand of what great uſe they would be to the inhabitants if they were properly attended to; but they did not thrive, or were neglected, for captain Cook, in 1773, neither ſaw nor heard of any of their product. In May 1769 captain Cook ſowed ſome melon ſeed, and the ſeed of other plants; but they did not come up; this might indeed have been the fate of the ſeeds which M. de Bougainville ſowed. No European ſeeds ſeem to ſucceed here but thoſe of pumkins, which the natives diſlike. M. de Bougainville left a cock and hen turkey, and ſome ducks and drakes. The turkies, it is ſuppoſed died, as there were none in 1774; but it is

presumed the ducks bred and increased, there being plenty of them at present in the island. In August, 1773, captain Cook left a couple of goats, male and female; and, on his return the April following he found that the she goat had two kids, and was with kid again, that they looked sleek and well, and that their hair was as soft and fine as silk. The domestic animals here are little hogs, and small slothful dogs. There are likewise ducks, green doves, blue pigeons, cuckoos, kingfishers, herons, paroquets, turtles, ants, &c.

The natives of this island are a stout, well-made people; both men and women are remarkably handsome, and beautifully made, those of distinction rather taller than the English; those of an inferior class rather below us in height. Their natural complexion is a clear brunette; their features do not differ from those of the Europeans, except that their noses are rather flat, being purposely flattened in their infancy; their skin is delicately soft and smooth; their eyes are black, sparkling, and full of expression; though they have no crimson in their cheeks, they are delicately clear; their teeth are beautifully white and regular, and continue so to old age; and their breath without the least degree of taint; some are of a pale white complexion, with white hair, eye-brows, and eye-lashes. The hair of the people in general, however, is black. They oil it with cocoa-nut oil, perfume it with a certain root, and dress it neatly without combs. The men wear whiskers, and their beards in many shapes; cleanliness is their chief characteristic. Both men and women regularly bathe themselves in running water thrice a-day; as soon as they rise, at noon, and before they go to rest. They wash their mouth at every meal, and not only their mouths but their hands, and this five or six times in the course of the meal, and they keep their cloaths without either spot or stain upon them.

The lower class of inhabitants are frequently seen without any other covering than a sash or mantle round their waist; but the principal people have an additional garment: they wrap themselves gracefully in a piece of cloth containing many yards, which hangs down as low as the knees. Some of the women wear a piece of cloth, with a hole in the middle through which they put their head, so that it hangs down before and behind and below their knees; over this they throw a fine white cloth, like a mantle, which is wound several times over the body, in elegant turns, below the breast, forming a kind of tunic. The cloth is made like paper, of macerated bark, spread out and beaten together. Girls, under four, and boys under seven years of age, go naked. On the head they wear a bonnet made of matting or cocoa-nut leaves, and the women sometimes decorate themselves with small turbans, and, plaiting their hair, twine it round their heads. Sometimes they stick flowers and feathers in their hair, and both sexes wear ear-rings of shells, berries, or small pearls, in one ear only. They let the finger-nails grow, except that of the middle finger on the right hand.

In 1606, when De Quiros saw this island, the men were quite naked, and the women covered only from the waist downwards with a garment made of the palm-tree: he indeed saw one man, who seemed to be a chief, who had on his head a kind of coronet made of small black feathers, so fine and soft that they resembled silk, and behind hung down a bunch of red hair somewhat curled, as low as the middle of his back; by which we learn that a century and half will make some alterations in the customs of the natives of the South Seas, as well as in those of the Europeans. These people mark their loins and back part of their thighs with black or blue lines, in a variety of forms, which they call tattowing. They stain themselves in this manner, by puncturing or pricking the skin till it just bleeds, with a sharp instrument something like a comb, and then rubbing upon the part a grease made of soot and oil, which continues through life: such as are marked with deep blue punctures, have the parts rubbed with the juice of a plant that gives that colour. They do not mark their children till they are about thirteen years old; and though it is a painful operation, and several days before the part is healed, they bear it with great resolution; considering it as the highest ornament.

The diet of these people is vegetables, fish, poultry, pork, and dogs-flesh; and their manner of dressing their food is very singular. Having procured fire by making a grove in one stick, and rubbing another in that grove, in the same manner as carpenters whet their chissels, till the small dust kindles, they dig a hole in the ground about six inches deep, and eight or nine in circuit: this done they pave the bottom with pebbles, and make a fire in it: they then sweep off the ashes, and lay their food upon it, first covering it with plantain leaves, and then heaping over it the hot embers. Here it lies till it is sufficiently baked; and when taken out, it is tender, juicy, and full of gravy. Their chief drink is water: but they sometimes drink the juice of the cocoa-nut. They have an intoxicating juice, which they press out from the root of a plant, yet they seldom are inebriated. They sit on the ground at meals, with leaves spread out by way of table-cloth. Their provisions are brought in baskets, their salt and water are kept in cocoa-shells; none eat without washing their hands and mouths; they carve with shells, feed with their fingers, and eat immoderately. They are silent during the whole repast, and eat separately with their faces turned from each other.

The huts of these islanders consist merely of a roof, supported on three rows of pillars, one on each side, and one in the middle, and thatched with the leaves of the palm-tree; their houses are formed like our hay-ricks, with the roofs sloping both ways, the eaves of the roof about three or four feet from the ground; they have seldom any walls, but are open at the sides and ends, some few are inclosed with reeds, having only a hole to enter in at, which can be shut up with a board; but these are the habitations of the principal people. Within, they are very neatly bedded with a kind of straw or hay, on which they lay mats to sleep on; resting their head on a block, or four-legged stool, by way of pillow. When dark, they burn a kind of candle, made of the kernels of an oily nut, many of which they stick upon a small piece of wood like a skewer, one over another; when the first is burnt down, the one below it takes fire, and so to the bottom. After meals, and during the heat of the day, elderly persons of the better sort lie down to sleep: indeed eating and sleeping, is their general way of passing time, for they have little to do but procure themselves food, and are very indolent people; so indolent, as sometimes even not to feed themselves. If they plant a few trees in the course of their lives, it is all that is expected from them. They are not, however, without the more sprightly amusements; such as music, dancing, wrestling, swimming, and diving, which they do wonderfully (not only men and women, but children of six years old), throwing a lance, and shooting with a bow. In throwing a lance, their ambition is, to hit a mark, at about twenty yards distance; and in using the bow, he is the best archer that conveys the arrow farthest: and as their arrows are not feathered, will often send them two hundred and eighty yards. They kneel when they draw the bow, which as soon as the arrow is delivered, they drop.

Flutes and drums are their only musical instruments; the flutes are made of the bamboo cane about twelve inches long, with two holes only, which they stop with the first finger of the left hand, and the middle one of the right. Thus they have only four notes, and of these they seem to have but one tune; and, what is more remarkable, they sound this instrument by blowing through their nostrils. The drum is cylindrical, and formed of a hollow block of wood, solid at one end, and covered with the skin of a shark at the other. These they beat with their hands, and can tune them; they have a contrivance also to tune the flute, which they do by the ear with great exactness.

They sometimes sing, and sometimes dance, to the sound of these instruments. Their songs are in couplets, and frequently extemporaneous, and, from their repeating them, seem to be metre, though without rhime. At other times they dance, and their way of dancing is not less singular than their music; for they twist and writhe their bodies into many extravagancies.

Dramatic entertainments, or regular interludes, divided into three acts, are here performed by men and women. These dramatic interludes are called by the islanders Heava, and they consist of dancing and comedy, and last near two hours. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

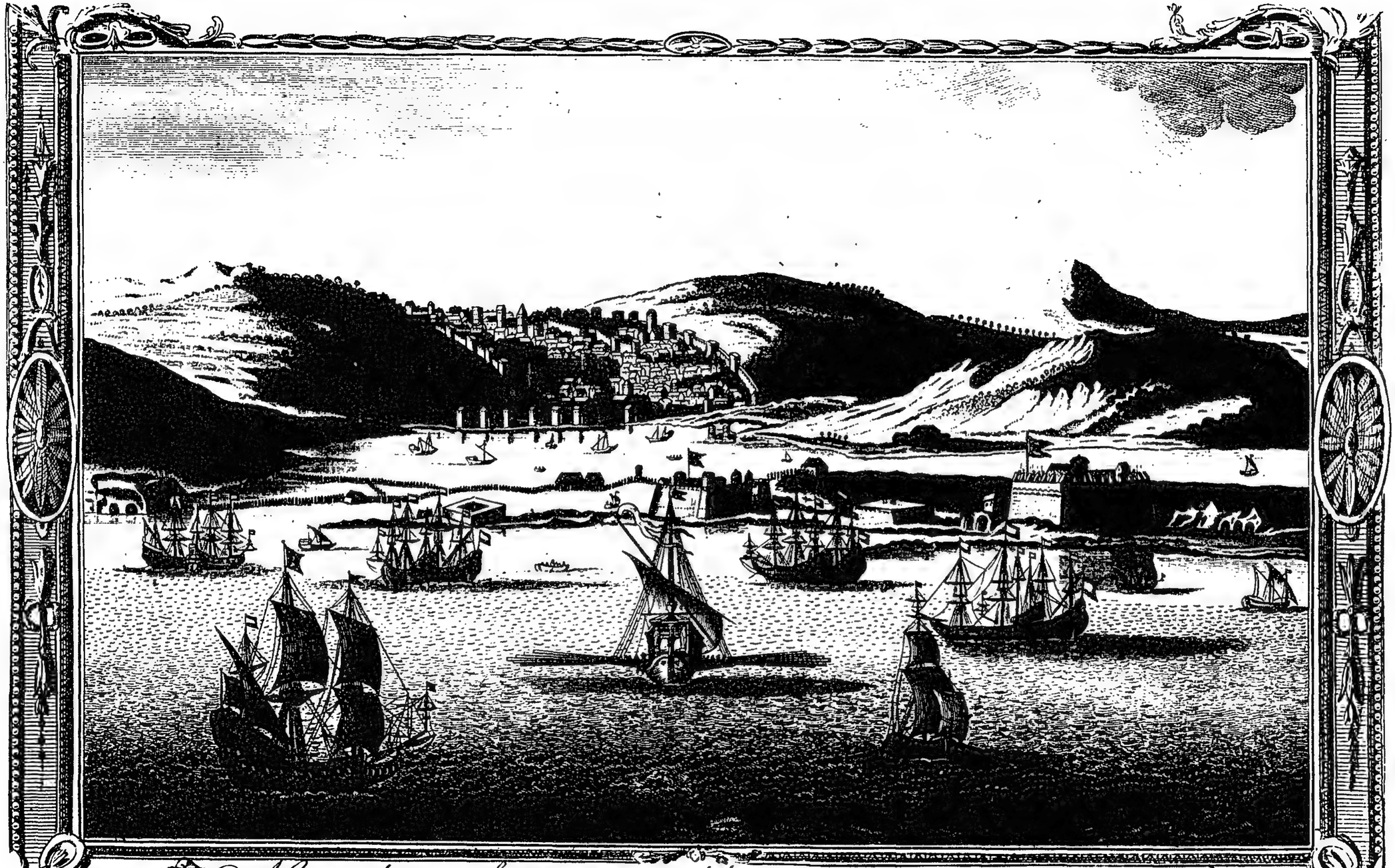
Cloth is their principal manufacture, which is made of bark of different degrees of fineness; blanched, and dyed red or yellow. They are likewise very ready in making baskets and wicker-work, which they do very expeditiously: they will make baskets of the cocoa-nut leaves in a few minutes, and also bonnets to shade their faces from the sun; not such bonnets as cover the head, but merely a shade over the eyes, which they tie round the head. They make ropes and lines of the bark of another tree, from the size of a packthread to that of an inch in diameter. Of these they form their fishing-nets and tackle, and of the fibres of the cocoa-nut they make thread. The fish-

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CAPTN. WALLIS, *on his arrival at* OTAHEITE, *in conversation with* OBEREA *the* QUEEN, *while her attendants are performing a favorite* DANCE *called the* TIMRODEE.

Hamilton delin. Morris sculp.



A general View *of* TUNIS, *a celebrated* Town *in Barbary.*

Sherwin sculp.

fish-hooks are made of mother of pearl: and they make a harpoon of cane, pointing it with hard wood, for they have no metal of any sort.

The tools used by these people are in general made of shells and stone, and with these they will erect houses, build canoes, and after their manner carve images. They make an adze with stone, a chissel of human bone, a rasp of coral, and for files and polishers they use coral sand.

These islanders carry on their trifling navigation in canoes, which are of various sizes, and designed, according to their construction for fighting, fishing, making voyages, &c. the length is from ten to seventy-two feet, the sides are perpendicular, and the bottoms flat. Two fighting canoes are always lashed together, and upon the forepart of these a stage is erected like a quarter-deck for the warriors to stand on. From hence they throw their lances, which are their military weapons, as their bows and arrows are only used by way of amusement. They also make use of slings. Below these stages, which sometimes cover the whole canoe, sit the rowers, sixteen or seventeen in number, who paddle on with oars resembling a bakers peal; and the spare men (when any are wounded on the platform above change places with them. The fishing canoe is from ten to forty feet in length, and sometimes carries a sail; and the travelling canoes are always used in pairs, and have generally a small house six or seven feet square, but on a stage in the forepart of them, and sometimes only an awning; for in fine weather they go in companies a pleasuring in these boats, and make a good appearance. At these times the vessels are decorated with streamers, and the people on board are dressed; they who row and steer are dressed in white; they who sit upon and under the awning, in white and red; and two men, in red only, are placed on the prow of each canoe.

The year is divided here by the moon, which they call Malama, and measure the day by the sun. They measure distances by the time they pass them, and count by their fingers. Their language is soft and harmonious, and abounds with vowels, like the Spanish and Italian, which they can readily pronounce; but they find a difficulty in pronouncing English.

The priests are physicians and surgeons. They use bleeding, which is performed with a sharp wooden instrument. The principal diseases are ulcers, leprous and cutaneous eruptions.

This people have two kinds of deposit for the dead, one called a tupapow, which is little less than a shed, under which the flesh is suffered to putrify; and the other called a morai, a kind of inclosure, with pyramidical erections of stone, where the bones are afterwards interred; and in the magnificence of the latter one, their chief ambition seems to consist. The morai is not only a place of burial, but a place of worship.

When any person dies, the house of the deceased is crouded with relations. Such as are nearest of kin, and are truly affected by the loss, are silent; the rest are clamorous, and at one moment with lamentations, and the next with laughing and vociferous talking; for true grief always ties the tongue. Thus is the remainder of the day and the succeeding night spent, and in the morning the body is wrapt in a cloth, and conveyed on a bier to the sea-side, attended by a priest. The latter prays and sprinkles the corpse till the morai is constructed, when the body is deposited therein, and left to putrefy. The nearest female relation then wounds herself on the head with the tooth of a shark, and the blood is thrown on the bier. The other women follow her example, the ceremony continuing three days. On these occasions they likewise wipe their tears with pieces of cloth, and throw them on the bier, and some even tear off their hair for that purpose.

As soon as the women have performed their part, the men begin. Every relation in turn, beginning with him who is the nearest of kin, assumes the office of chief mourner: he dresses himself in a fantastic dress, such an one as in England would convey the idea which nurses affix to a ghost or goblin; it consists of drapery, shells, and feathers, which cover the whole body, even the face. At the death of a man, the woman wears this dress; and at the death of a woman, the man. The chief mourner, at the head of the rest (who are naked to the waist, and their bodies smeared with charcoal and water as low as the shoulders) marches in procession to a great distance, round the corpse; and as he carries in his hand a long stick, the end of which is set with shark's teeth, and affects a kind of phrenzy, occasioned by grief, the people fly before him, lest he should strike and wound them with it, which, had they been within his reach, he certainly would have done. These processions are not dropped till near the expiration of five months, when the remains of the dead body are taken down, and the bones scraped, washed, and buried in the place of interment.

When the people mourn, they have a vail over their face, and a certain head-dress of feathers; and the wealthier sort are preceded by a slave, who beats castanets before them, to give notice to all who approach; that the way may be cleared for the mourners.

Little can be said of the religion of these people, as their religious language differs from the common; and the Europeans, who visited them, were not even such sufficient judges of the latter, as to comprehend their ecclesiastical mysteries. The priesthood is hereditary, and the superior knowledge of the priests consists chiefly in understanding their traditions better than other people; and they only are allowed to tattow and circumcise.

Marriage here is but a mutual contract to be continued at the pleasure of the parties, the priest having nothing to do with the affair.

In this country, the feudal government seems to subsist. Each of the peninsulas has a chief; and each of the districts, which are forty-three in number, a subordinate chief. The chiefs have a kind of court, and a council. Each district, in case of an attack, furnishes a certain number of fighting men, and the sovereign commands the whole. The weapons are slings, pikes, and clubs. They give no quarter, but kill men, women, and children, and carry off the jaw bones as trophies.

The O-Taheitans are much addicted to theft: but it seems to arise rather from not having any notions of private property than from any criminal inclination. They are amorous and unchaste before marriage, but in general very faithful afterwards. There is a society, however, called the arreoy, in which indiscriminate concubinage is permitted. Polygamy is allowed to the principal people of the island. Love is the ruling passion; but a submissive obedience is paid by the wives to their husbands.

When a dispute arises at any time between two chiefs, it is settled among themselves. Captain Cook was once present at a naval review, and found it consisted of upwards of three hundred large canoes completely equipped, and manned with near eight thousand men; the chiefs, and all those on the fighting platforms, were habited in their war accoutrements, which consisted of a great quantity of cloth, turbans; breast-plates, and unwieldy helmets. The canoes were dressed with flags and streamers. This fleet was designed to attack a neighbouring island that had thrown off its dependency on O-Taheitee. Some of the troops, at captain Cook's request, went through their exercise on shore. Two parties first began with clubs; the blows of the clubs were aimed at the legs and head; those at the legs were evaded by jumping; and those at the head by stooping or leaning aside: when they proceeded to use the spears or darts, they parried the push or dart by fixing the point of a spear in the ground before them, and directing the other end of it, as they foresaw the aim was made at the other party.

When captain Wallis (who not long since sailed to this island) brought his ship close under the land, he was surrounded by some hundreds of canoes, with several persons in each. When they came within pistol shot, they gazed, and seemed to hold a council how to act; at last they paddled round the vessel, exhibiting signals of friendship, and one of them made a speech. Soon after this, some few came on board, but one of them being butted by a goat then on deck, and on turning round seeing the goat rise on his legs, they all jumped over the sides of the vessel in the greatest fright, but soon swam round her and returned on board again, and the crew had enough to do to prevent their stealing sundry things that lay in their way; one of them snatched off a gold-laced hat from an officer's head, leaped overboard and swam off with it. Upon the captain's sending out a boat to sound the depth of water, the Indians to prevent their coming on shore, threw stones into her, and wounded some of the men, which made an officer in the boat fire his musket, loaded with buck shot, at the Indian who threw the first stone, and wounded him on the shoulder. This was an alarm sufficient: it brought together three or four hundred canoes, with upwards of two thousand men, armed with slings and stones, of two pounds weight, who attacked the ship, and hurt some of the crew; but they were soon quieted and dispersed by firing a few great guns at them, with the loss only of a few Indians. They prepared for a second attack, but found it in vain; in short they became so afraid of a gun, that a musket being pointed at them, thousands would fly before it, like a flock of

of ſheep. So great indeed was their dread, that when a party of Indians once attempted to attack an officer, then ſtrolling about on ſhore by himſelf, he put them all to flight, by preſenting his tooth-pick caſe at them, which they conceived to be a little gun. After this, the ſhip's boat went peaceably on ſhore; and upon ſignals of friendſhip made on both ſides, a trade was opened with the iſlanders, which improved every day. The things they valued moſt were nails and hatchets, they having no iron; and the rates of trafficking were, a ſpike for a ſmall pig, a ſmaller for a fowl, a hatchet for a hog, and middling ſized nail for twenty cocoa-nuts or bread-fruit. Nay, they trafficked with the ſhip's crew for the perſonal favours of their daughters and ſiſters, whom fathers and brothers brought down to the ſea on purpoſe: a nail was generally the price of theſe favours; but, to ſhew that they were not inſenſible of the ſuperiority of charms in one female more than another, the ſize of the nail demanded roſe always in proportion to the beauty of the lady; but no nail under the ſize of a forty-penny were current at O-Taheitee.

With reſpect to the general character of theſe people, we muſt obſerve, that they are hoſpitable, unambitious, and far from revengeful. They probably are not ſo ſincere in their profeſſions of friendſhip as from appearances might be expected; for they weep upon every little occaſion, and ſeem to have tears at will; like children, they cry for trifles, and, like them, their ſorrows are ſoon forgotten: but when we reflect that they have never been taught either to diſguiſe or ſuppreſs their paſſions, and are not accuſtomed to thought, which alone can recall the paſt, and anticipate the future, it is no wonder that their ſorrows ſhould be tranſient; they are affected only with the occurrence of the paſſing minute; and yet they are of a benevolent diſpoſition. Though they have no trade, they have plenty of amuſements and employments: manufacturing of their dreſs is an agreeable employ to the women; and building houſes and canoes, with making of tools and arms, ſufficient occupations for the men. Moſt of their days are ſpent in a country where nature has been laviſh of her gifts; where the temperature of the air is warm, but continually refreſhed by wholeſome breezes; where the atmoſphere is conſtantly clear and ſerene, and where the climate and fruits of the land contribute to the ſtrength, pleaſure, and elegance of the natives. In ſhort, their tempers are unruffled by violent paſſions; they live a life of eaſe, equanimity, and content, and are ſituated in a delightful country, free from care, and happy in their ignorance.

M. de Bougainville, when at O-Taheitee, met with a native of that iſland, about thirty years of age, very deſirous of accompanying him to France, and his countrymen ſeemed to approve the ſtep. He happened, however, to be a ſtupid fellow, and in two years ſtay at Paris could never be brought to ſpeak or even pronounce the language, poſſibly from ſome impediment in his ſpeech; yet ſtill he would go out into the ſtreets by himſelf, and was well acquainted with the town. He frequently made a purchaſe, and ſeldom paid more for it than its value. The principal exhibition that pleaſed him was the opera, and particularly the dancing; he conſtantly went there by himſelf, paid for his admiſſion, his favourite place was in the ſeats behind the boxes. Among the great number deſirous of ſeeing him, he knew how to diſtinguiſh thoſe who were moſt civil, and his grateful heart never forgot them. The miniſtry ſent him, in March 1770, to the Iſle of France, that he might be thence conveyed home; but he never lived to reach his native iſle, for having caught the ſmall pox, it proved fatal to him.

The Society iſles are ſix in number: viz. Huaheine, Ulietea, Bolabola, Otaha, Fubai, and Marua.

1. Huaheine was diſcovered the 11th of July, 1769, by captain Cook. It is ſituated in ſixteen degrees forty-three minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and fifty degrees fifty-two minutes weſt longitude, is upwards of twenty miles in circumference, has a hilly ſurface, and a commodious harbour on the weſt ſide.

This iſland is divided into two peninſulas joined by an iſthmus, which at high water is overflowed. It ſeems to have been diſturbed by volcanos, and the face of the country is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of O-Taheitee.

The ſame language is ſpoken here as at O-Taheitee; the natives alſo wear the ſame kind of habits, and are the ſame as the O-Taheitans, except that they are not ſo dark coloured. The women in general are handſome, and both women and men rather ſtouter, larger made, and leſs timid; but they are more indolent and lazy. The productions likewiſe of this iſland are the ſame as thoſe of the laſt mentioned, but are about a month forwarder in their growth. They have here indeed mulberry-trees, which are not to be met with at O-Taheitee. The amuſements are ſimilar; they are likewiſe governed by chiefs, and their religious notions are much the ſame. Captain Furneaux, in 1773, brought from this iſland a young man, named Omai, who, however, was not a native of this place, but of Ulietea, having been driven from his home by the inhabitants of Bolabola. He was but of the middle claſs of people, and but an ugly ſpecimen of the natives of theſe iſlands. While in England, he was introduced to the beſt company, and taken uncommon notice of by his preſent Majeſty. Great pains were taken, while here, to feaſt his eyes with wonders. During his ſtay here, he was inoculated for the ſmall pox; and, when captain Cook ſailed for O-Taheitee again in July 1776, Omai voluntarily went with him, though with manifeſt regret at leaving England. He carried with him a great variety of dreſſes and other ornaments, a portable hand-organ, a puppet-ſhow, a coat of mail, a ſuit of armour, and an electrical machine which he was taught to uſe. Though at years of maturity, his judgment was ſtill in its infant ſtate, and, like children, he coveted every thing he ſaw: he did not carry with him any inſtruments of real uſe in life; but a variety of domeſtic animals, male and female, were put on board, as a preſent from captain Cook to the inhabitants of O-Taheitee, and the other South Sea iſlands. Omai, however, dying in his paſſage home, never again ſaw his native country.

2. Ulietea was firſt diſcovered by captain Cook in July 1769. It lies ſouth-weſt and by weſt, about ſeven or eight leagues from Huaheine, and is about three times as large, has much broader plains, and much higher hills, but is not ſo fertile or populous; the ſoil, at the top, is a kind of ſtone marle. Here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls. It is governed by a viceroy, deputed from Bolabola. Their burial places here are incloſed with ſtone walls, made with coral ſtones. The principal people, when they receive a viſit of ceremony, are ſeated within their habitations, at the end of a long mat, and the party introduced by four or five old women weeping, and, as it were, bitterly lamenting, and cutting their heads with inſtruments made of the teeth of a ſhark, till the blood runs plentifully down their faces and ſhoulders; before the viſitor enters, theſe women embrace him, and thus frequently beſmear him with their blood. This ceremony ended, they go and waſh themſelves, and immediately reſume their former cheerfulneſs.

In this iſland, the dances and dramatic entertainments are very ſingular; in one houſe, where Dr. Solander, and Mr. Banks paid a viſit, by order of the maſter, a man with a large cylindrical piece of wicker work upon his head, about four feet long and eight inches in diameter, faced with feathers placed perpendicular and edged round with ſharks teeth, began to dance. In dancing, he often twiſted his head in ſuch a manner, that the top of the head-dreſs deſcribed a large circle, and was frequently ſtriking the by-ſtanders, which never failed to produce a laugh; at the expence of the perſon who had been ſtruck by him.

3. Bolabola lies north-weſt and by weſt, and is diſtant about four leagues from Otaha. It is made up of one high forked peak of land, and is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are only eight leagues in compaſs.

4. Otaha lies within about two miles of Ulietea, and is divided from it by a ſtraight; both iſlands are incloſed in one reef of coral rocks, ſo that there is no paſſage for ſhipping between them. This iſland is not populous; nor has it any thing to diſtinguiſh it from the other iſlands. The natives received the boat that landed on this coaſt, in the moſt courteous manner, and were particularly attentive to pay Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, who went in her, the ſame compliments that they paid to their kings, uncovering their ſhoulders, and wrapping their garments round their breaſts.

5. Fubai: which produces nothing but cocoa-nuts, and is ſaid to be inhabited only by three families. The coaſt abounds with fiſh, which occaſions the ſhore to be frequently viſited by the natives of the neighbouring iſlands.

6. Marua is a ſmall iſland intirely ſurrounded with a reef of rocks, and without any harbour for ſhipping: a high hill riſes in the middle of it, which may be ſeen at the diſtance of ten leagues. It is inhabited, and its productions are the ſame as the iſland bordering upon it.

Eaſter Iſle, or Davis' Land, is ſituated in twenty-ſeven degrees

degrees five minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and nine degrees forty-ſix minutes weſt longitude. It is hilly and ſtony, and affords neither fuel, water, or anchorage for ſhipping. It is not certainly known who firſt diſcovered this iſland; but Captain Cook viſited it in March, 1774. The only productions are, plantains, nuts, potatoes, ſugar-canes, yams, and gourds. The animals are fowls, a few land, and ſome ſea-birds; alſo rats, which they eat, as well as the former. The people are frugal livers, and good ſwimmers.

The natives, with reſpect to their perſons, are lively and ſtrong, of a middling ſtature, ſlender, but hard-featured. Their looks are mild, pleaſing, modeſt, and ſubmiſſive. Their complexion, in general, is a cheſnut brown; but ſome few are darker, and ſome are quite white, and the bodies of the men are very hairy. Their beards are black and ſtrong, and they wear them clipped ſhort. The noſes, both of men and women, are not very broad, but rather flat between the eyes; their lips, though not ſo thick as that of the negro, are ſtrong, and their hair is black and curling. Their eyes are dark brown, and rather ſmall, and the whites of them not ſo clear as in other iſlands of the South Seas. The women wear their hair long, and ſometimes tie it upon the crown of the head; but the men never ſuffer theirs to grow more than three inches in length. Both men and women are remarkable for the great length of their ears. They pierce the flaps of them, and ſtretch the holes, by wearing a leaf in them, rolled up tight like a ſcroll, till they become two or three inches long, and reach the ſhoulders. They ſometimes turn this ſlit over the upper part of the ear, and it then looks as if the flap was cut off.

Theſe iſlanders have the practice of painting and tattowing. The men cover their heads either with a round fillet, feathers, a ſtraw bonnet, or with a buſhy cap. The cloathing of the women conſiſts of a piece of red and white quilted cloth, or a mat, one part wrapped round the loins, and the other thrown over the ſhoulders; but the men go almoſt naked, except a ſlip of cloth between the legs, both ends of which are faſtened to a belt round the waiſt. Both ſexes wear on the breaſt, ſuſpended by the neck, a flat piece of bone, ſhaped like a laurel-leaf; and occaſionally, by way of amulet or charm, necklaces and earrings made of ſhells.

As to their huts, they reſemble a canoe lying upon the ground, with the keel upwards: they are about fifty or ſixty feet long, and built in the following manner: the foundations are laid with ſtone, by paving the ground in two curve lines, converging at the extremities to each other: the diſtance, from line to line, in the middle, is about ſix feet, and at the ends not more than a foot. In every ſtone of this line or foundation is made a hole, into which they fix a ſtake, ſix feet high in the middle, and diminiſhing proportionably to two feet at the ends: theſe ſtakes are drawn together, and faſtened at the top, and the whole is covered to the ground with matting of ſugar-cane leaves.

They have but few working tools, and thoſe are very mean, being made of ſtone, bone, or ſhells; but yet they are very ingenious at carving, and ſhew a taſte for the arts. They carve and very highly poliſh, human figures about eighteen inches long: which they perform with great neatneſs and proportion.

Clubs, ſpears and battle axes are their weapons; their canoes are very badly contrived. Very little that may be depended on, can be ſaid of their religion, language, or government.

There is a number of gigantic ſtone ſtatues in ſeveral places on the coaſt of this iſland, ſome erected in groves, in platforms of maſonry, and others ſingle, fixed only in the earth. They reſemble a human figure to the waiſt, are thirty feet high, more than eight feet acroſs the ſhoulders, and ſeemed to be formed each of one ſingle ſtone. The workmanſhip is rude; and the eyes and noſe, are ſcarce marked on an ill-ſhaped head; but the ears quite long, in the preſent faſhion of the country. On the heads of theſe ſtatues are placed huge round cylinders of ſtone, five feet in height, and five in diameter, ſet upright. They ſeem to have been erected over the graves of ſome chiefs, in former days, not being the workmanſhip of the preſent inhabitants, but preſerved now as monuments of antiquity. How theſe ſtones were thus raiſed one upon another, is as little to be accounted for as the manner in which thoſe at Stonehenge on Saliſbury-plain were erected. The iſlanders do not pay any adoration to them, but hold them in a kind of veneration, and will not ſuffer any one to tread upon the platforms. They probably may have ſome tradition concerning them, but as the Europeans who viſited the iſland did not continue long enough to learn the language, nothing could be collected with certainty; except only that they were the burial-place of ſome former chiefs.

Though theſe iſlanders have weapons of defence, they are cowardly and timorous: they ſtand in great awe of a muſquet, and probably from the deſtruction that was made among them by Roggerwein and his people, who, without any provocation, wantonly fired upon the natives, and made a great ſlaughter among them; but they are harmleſs and friendly: having a natural mildneſs, fellow-feeling, and good-nature in their diſpoſition, which prompt them to treat their viſitors kindly, and as hoſpitably as their wretched country will admit.

The Marqueſas were diſcovered in 1595, by Alvara Mendana, a Spaniard, who gave them their preſent name, La Marqueſas de Mendoça, in honour of the marquis of Cannete, viceroy of Peru; he alſo gave to four of the different iſles their reſpective names. The Marqueſas are five in number: La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Chriſtina, and Hood's Iſland, which laſt was a diſcovery of captain Cook, in April 1774; Mendana having only ſeen the firſt four. They occupy one degree in latitude, and near half a degree in longitude.

La Magdalena, is ſituated in ten degrees twenty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and thirty-eight degrees fifty minutes weſt longitude. It is ſix leagues in circuit, and is in general mountainous, but contains ſome vallies where the people dwell. The inhabitants are handſome, of white complexions, ſtout, and portly.

St. Pedro, ſeems barren, by the diſtant appearance; but it is uncertain whether it is inhabited, not having been touched at.

La Dominica, is mountainous, woody, and in ſome meaſure fertile; but is inhabited. It is about ſixteen leagues in compaſs.

Santa Chriſtina, lies about a league ſouth of La Dominica, and is eight leagues in circumference. It has fertile vallies abounding with fruit, trees, and vegetables, is in ſome places hilly, but well watered.

The natives are a well-made people, of a tawny or yellowiſh complexion: but look almoſt black, by being punctured over the whole body. The men wear long beards, which ſome tie in two brooches under the chin, and others plait. The women reſemble thoſe of O-Taheitee; their cloathing is alſo the ſame, and made of the ſame materials. The men in general go almoſt naked, having only a ſlip of cloth paſſed round the waiſt and between the legs. The dreſs of the women is a piece of cloth wrapped round the waiſt like a petticoat, hanging down below the middle of the leg, and a looſe mantle or tunic thrown over the ſhoulders. But, to be more particular,

This iſland though high and ſteep, has many vallies which widen towards the ſea, and are covered with fine foreſts, to the ſummits of the interior mountains. On the ſouth ſide riſes a peak, which is very craggy and inacceſſible. All the north ſide is a black burnt hill, of which the rock is vaulted along the ſea-ſhore, and the top clad to the ſummit with a ſhrubbery of caſuarinas. The products of this iſland are, bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, cocoa-nuts, ſcarlet-beans, paper-mulberries, of the bark of which their cloth is made, caſuarinas, with other tropical plants and trees. They have hogs and fowls and plenty of fiſh. Mr. Forſter ſays, he never ſaw a ſingle deformed or even ill proportioned man among the natives; all were ſtrong, tall, well limbed and active in the higheſt degree.

Their arms are clubs and ſpears, like thoſe of O-Taheitee, but neater. They have alſo ſlings, with which they throw ſtones with great velocity, and to a great diſtance: but not with a good aim. In times of danger, they beat an alarm with drums of the ſame kind with thoſe of the Society Iſles; and, like them, are under a monarchical government; but they are not quite ſo cleanly as that people, who ſurpaſs, in that reſpect, perhaps, any other in the world. Their canoes are from ſixteen to twenty feet long, and about fifteen inches broad, being very ſimilar to, though not quite ſo large as thoſe of O-Taheitee. Their drink is purely water, cocoa-nuts being rather ſcarce. They are much given to pilfering, like the lower ſort among the O-Taheitans.

Hood's Iſland was diſcovered by captain Cook, in 1774, who gave it that name from a perſon on board his ſhip, who firſt ſaw the land. It lies in two degrees twenty-ſix minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and thirty-nine degrees thirteen minutes weſt longitude; is five leagues and a half diſtant from the eaſt end of La Dominica, and the moſt northernly of the cluſter.

The Friendly Iſlands are ſituated between nineteen degrees forty-four minutes and twenty-one degrees thirty-two minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſeventy-four degrees and one hundred and ſeventy-five degrees fourteen minutes weſt longitude. The three moſt conſiderable of them were firſt diſcovered in 1643, by Faſman, a Dutchman; they are ſeven in number excluſive of ſome leſſer and very inconſiderable iſlands.

Amſterdam Iſle, or, as the natives call it, Tongatabu, lies in twenty-one degrees ſeven minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſeventy-five degrees weſt longitude, is to the northward of Middleburgh, and about five leagues from it; it is ſomething in the form of an iſoſceles triangle, the longeſt ſides of which are ſeven leagues, the ſhorteſt about four: its direction is nearly eaſt-ſouth-eaſt and weſt-north-weſt.

Middleburgh, called by the natives Eaoowe, lies in twenty-one degrees ſeventeen minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſeventy-four degrees forty-four minutes weſt longitude, is about ten leagues in compaſs, and may be ſeen at the diſtance of twelve leagues.

The general ſtature of the men in the iſlands of Amſterdam and Middleburgh is equal to our middle ſize, from five feet three to five feet ten inches; the proportions of the body are very fine, and the contours of the limbs extremely elegant, though ſomething more muſcular than at O-Taheitee, which may be owing to a greater and more conſtant exertion of ſtrength in their agriculture and domeſtic œconomy. Their complexion is a clear mahogany or cheſnut brown, with black hair, in ſhort frizzled curls which ſeem to be burnt at the tips; their beards are cut or ſhaven. Their features are extremely mild and pleaſing, and they practiſe tattowing, or puncturing the ſkin. They have a practice likewiſe of powdering their hair; ſome with a white powder made of lime, which burns; others with blue, and ſome with orange colour, made of turmeric.

Both men and women have, for their dreſs, only a piece of cloth or matting tied round the waiſt. The men frequently wear a ſtring of leaves round their necks; and the women, looſe necklaces made of ſhell fiſh, teeth, and ſeeds intermixed. Ther utenſils, animals, habitations, &c. nearly reſemble thoſe in the Society Iſlands. Their manufactures are like thoſe of O-Taheitee, only of an inferior ſort.

Their weapons are clubs highly poliſhed, ſharp pointed ſpears barbed, and bows and arrows. The bow is ſix feet long, and, when ſlack, forms a curve; the convex part has a groove that holds a ſtring. In drawing the bow, inſtead of pulling it, ſo as to increaſe the natural curvature, they draw it the reverſe way, ſo that the ſpring, to recover its former poſition, gives greater velocity to the arrow, and the recoil never hurts the arm of the perſon who diſcharges the bow.

In point of neatneſs and workmanſhip, their canoes exceed every thing of the kind met with in the South Seas. They are conſtructed of ſeveral planks ſewed together ſo neatly, that the joints on the outſide are ſcarcely to be ſeen. Some of their canoes are double, and ſome ſingle; the ſingle ones are from twenty to thirty feet long, about twenty inches wide in the middle, terminating at each end in a point. At the ends are a kind of deck, about ten feet long, ſo that the canoe is open in the middle; and they frequently decorate the decks with rows of white ſhells. Some of them have ſails, and ſome are worked on with paddles. The double canoes are formed of two, faſtened together by ſtrong beams, and a boarded platform is raiſed upon ſtaunchions over them. They are ſo contrived, that they can be ſunk under water quite to the platform, without being in any danger of filling; nor can they ſink while they hold together. They are in general ſixty or ſeventy feet long, and four or five broad. They have one ſail made of matting, and one maſt in the middle.

Their religious opinions are little known; and what reſpects their amuſements and government ſtands in the ſame predicament. The prevailing diſeaſe is the leproſy; to cure which, they bliſter the cheek bone. The common mode of ſalutation is by putting noſe to noſe, a more cordial one is kiſſing hands: the token of peace is a white flag, and the greateſt teſtimony of friendſhip is an exchange of names: but their moſt ſingular cuſtom is, the cutting off the joints of the little fingers at the death of parents and relations, one joint for each, till they have left none remaining.

Theſe iſlanders are in general, brave, friendly, and courteous; the women are modeſt; but both ſexes are given to pilfering, like thoſe in the neighbouring iſlands.

Rotterdam Iſland, or Anamocka has a great number of ſmall inconſiderable iſlands in its neighbourhood: it is ſituated in twenty degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſeventy-four degrees thirty-ſix minutes weſt longitude. The inhabitants, productions, languages, &c. are ſimilar to thoſe of Amſterdam iſland: but the former ſeem more leprous than any of thoſe deſcribed above.

In this iſland, the houſes are different from any thing above cited: they are an oblong ſquare, about thirty feet long, eight feet wide, and they are built about nine feet in height: their walls and ſides are about four feet high, and made of reeds fixed up, not perpendicularly, but converging from the eaves of the roof to the bottom. The roof is ridged at the top, ſo that a ſection of the whole would reſemble a pentagon. It is thatched, and the roof ſpreads a good way beyond the ſloping walls. In one of the long ſides there is an opening like a window, which is the only entrance into it. Within are ſtored quantities of yams, which are probably the chief ſupport of the natives; on theſe they ſleep, covered only with a little matting: they reſt their heads on narrow ſtools, as the O-Taheitans do. In the day-time they lie under ſheds, the floors of which are covered with mats; and they have a variety of large wooden diſhes, bowls, and earthen pots, as houſehold utenſils.

The iſle of Handſome People was diſcovered by De Quiros in 1606. It is eighteen miles in circumference, and ſituated in ten degrees ſouth latitude, and one hundred and eighty-five eaſt longitude. Notwithſtanding the exceſſive heat of the climate, the natives are remarkably fair and handſome, from which circumſtance the iſland had its name. The natives are covered only from the waiſt downwards with mats made of palm, and wear a mantle of the ſame upon their ſhoulders.

Their canoes are trees hollowed out; and their houſes, which are thatched, ſtand in cluſters.

Cocos and Traitors Iſlands are ſituated in fifteen degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude and one hundred and ſeventy-five degrees thirteen minutes weſt longitude. They were diſcovered in 1616, by Schouten, and afterwards viſited by captain Wallis, in July 1767.

Cocos, called alſo Boſcawen's Iſland, is a high mountain, in appearance like a ſugar-loaf. Traitors iſland is three miles and an half long, two broad, and leſs elevated than Cocos iſle. Traitors iſle was ſo called from at attempt made by ſome of the natives to ſeize Schouten's boat, when he was here.

The inhabitants of both theſe iſlands are a ſavage people, cloathed with ruſhes or mats: they are, however, well made, and robuſt; have their hair in different forms. The flaps of their ears are ſlit, and hang down almoſt as low as their ſhoulders; they wear whiſkers, and a little beard under the chin, the reſt being all ſhaven: and their bodies are marked or punctured like thoſe of the O-Taheitans.

When Schouten was here in 1616, a chief put off from the ſhore, in a canoe covered with a mat in form of a tent, and accompanied with a number of people in forty-five canoes; as they approached the ſhip, the chief cried out three times with a loud voice: and at the fourth, all his company joined in the cry. He preſented the captain with a paper dreſs, and a fine mat; and he was entertained and received preſents in return. Theſe people certainly had no idea of property, attempting to ſteal every thing they could lay their hands upon; nay, they tried to draw out the nails from the ſhip's ſide with their teeth, and ſome ſwam under the keel, and attempted to draw the nails from thence; but being fired at, they deſiſted. The next day, however, they put off from ſhore to the number of one thouſand, with hogs, bananas, fowls, and cocoa-nuts, of which they have plenty, under a pretence of trading; and the chief, or Latou, as he is there called, in a double canoe, giving a ſignal, they all ſhouted, and at that inſtant threw a volley of ſtones on board the ſhip, and the chief was abſurd enough to ſuppoſe that he could run down the ſhip by ſailing againſt it with his canoe: he made the ridiculous attempt, and beat the head of his canoe to pieces; this exaſperated the Indians, and they reiterated their attack; but on a diſcharge of ſome muſquets, and a few great guns, they were ſoon put to flight, with the ſlaughter of a very ſmall number of them.

Their canoes are made of one piece of red wood; flat before, and pointed behind; they dart along very faſt in them, ſteering them and putting them on with two oars aſtern. They have other canoes that carry a ſail, in the middle of which is generally drawn a grey and red cock;

and

and a large piece of wood on the left ſide, with which they keep the veſſel upright: on this wood there is always ready for uſe a fiſh-gig, and a kind of prong for ſtriking fiſh.

Horn or Hoorn Iſland was alſo diſcovered by Schouten, in 1616: it is ſituated in fourteen degrees fifty-ſix minutes ſouth latitude and one hundred and ſeventy-nine degrees eaſt longitude.

The complexion of the people of this iſland is a yellow brown. The men are tall, large, well made, and ſtrong bodied: they are faſt runners, expert ſwimmers, and good divers. They do not ſuffer their beards to grow, but take great pleaſure in dreſſing their hair, which is black. Some tie it, others frize it, and others curl it; ſome let it grow down the waiſt, and tie it in five or ſix tails, and others dreſs it right an end, ſtanding up like hog's briſtles.

Both men and women go naked, except a piece of covering between their legs: the women are very much deformed both in face and body, and are very ſhort: they rub their heads and cheeks with ſomething red. Their breaſts are long, and hang down to their bellies like leathern bags, ſo that they make a very diſagreeable appearance: they are beſides very immodeſt, performing the rites of Venus in the preſence of every one, only under a mat.

The ſoil produces ſpontaneouſly a great variety of fruits, ſuch as cocoes, bananas, yams, &c. for they know nothing of cultivation. They have ſome hogs, which they cook wretchedly. At low water the women catch fiſh, which is eaten raw.

Queen Charlotte's Iſlands were viſited by captain Carteret in 1767. They conſiſt principally of eight iſlands, namely, Egmont's Iſle, or New Guernſey; Howe's Iſle, or New Jerſey; Edgecumb's Iſle, or New Sark; Ourry's Iſle, or New Alderney; Swallow, Carteret, Simpſon, and Gover's Iſlands. The following is the beſt account we could procure of Egmont's Iſle, the reſt being only ſeen at diſtance.

Mendana firſt diſcovered this iſland in 1595. He would fain have fixed a colony here; but found it impracticable, as the natives continually maintained hoſtilities againſt him. Captain Carteret's attempt in 1767 was equally unſucceſsful; for on the firſt attempt to land, a ſkirmiſh enſued, in which four people loſt their lives. We perceived, however, that the iſland abounds in hogs, fowls, ring-doves, turtle-doves, partridges, geeſe, herons, ſwallows, and black lizards. It likewiſe produces plantains, ſugar-canes, two or three kinds of bread-fruit, beetle, two kinds of good almonds, Spaniſh pumpkins, cheſnuts, and nuts, cocoa-nuts, large pine-apples with kernels in them, and apples reſembling pearmains; ſago, ſweet baſit, ginger, a kind of indigo, &c.

Their towns conſiſt of about twenty houſes each, they are built round and of plank, and thatched with palm-leaves; every houſe has two ſtories, to which they go up by land-ladders; each ſtory is incloſed breaſt high, the part above being left open to give light and air. Their houſes are ſurrounded by a wall of looſe ſtones, open at the entrance, inſtead of a gate; and the ſides and ſtones within are lined with fine matting. There is in each town a large houſe, probably a temple; and another long houſe, apparently belonging to the community, in which are hung bundles of arrows, in great quantity, ready for uſe; and alſo a well or two curiouſly made, with ſteps to go down, and covered with plank. Some of their towns are ſurrounded with breaſt-work of ſtone, reſembling a fortification, and gives reaſon to ſuppoſe that the natives are often troubled with civil wars; ſome fiſhing wiers fenced with ſtone are found cloſe to the ſea.

The inhabitants at preſent go naked and unadorned, though when Mendana was there they had cloathing and ornaments. They live principally on fiſh, and a vegetable called brete; their chief diverſion is dancing. Their manufactures, beſides fiſhing-tackle and weapons, are ropes of oziers, and cordage of tattans, bags and pockets of palm, and curious and large mats for ſails. They weave alſo, in ſmall looms, a kind of cloth, which ſerves as a covering for the women.

Their arms and offenſive weapons are bows and arrows, darts with three rows of barbs, a kind of wooden ſword, and ſtones: the bows are ſix feet five inches long, and their arrows four feet four inches, pointed with flint: and with theſe miſſile weapons they do execution at a conſiderable diſtance. One of their arrows wounded a man in the thigh, after going through the boats waſh-board.

Some of their canoes are double, like thoſe at O-Taheitee. The common ones, for daily uſe, are ſmall, and of rude workmanſhip: they are all formed from the trunk of a tree hollowed out, with an out rigger, but no ſails. Some of them will carry a dozen men. Their voyage canoes, which will hold thirty men, are more beautiful than the others.

There is an iſland about ten leagues north of Egmont's iſle, which is near four leagues round, of a conical figure, and contains a volcano.

Captain Carteret had only an opportunity of ſeeing at a diſtance the other iſlands, of which Queen Charlotte's iſles conſiſt; but had reaſon to believe them all to be inhabited. As he paſſed the iſland that bears his name, which is about two days ſail from Egmont's iſle, is near ſix leagues long, and lies in eight degrees twenty-ſix minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and fifty-nine degrees fourteen minutes eaſt longitude, he met with ſome of the inhabitants fiſhing. He ſent out a boat, and ſeized one of the canoes, which was large enough to contain eight or ten men, was very neatly built with planks well jointed, ornamented with ſhell-work, and figures rudely painted, and the ſeams were covered with ſomething like black putty, but of better conſiſtence. The people were armed with bows, arrows, and ſpears pointed with flint, as at Egmont iſle. They ſeemed to be the ſame kind of people as the natives of that iſland, and were quite naked.

Beſides thoſe above deſcribed, there are ſeveral ſcattered iſlands between the equator and the ſouthern tropic; viz. 1. Eimeo, or York iſland; 2. O-Heteroa; 3. Hervey iſland; 4. Palmerſton iſland; 5. Savage iſland; 6. Iſlands of Danger; 7. Duke of York's iſland; 8. Turtle iſland; 9. Byron's iſland.

Eimeo, or York iſland, was firſt diſcovered by captain Wallis in July, 1767. It is about twenty leagues diſtant from O-Taheitee, weſt-north-weſt.

O-Heteroa is ſituated in twenty-two degrees twenty-ſeven minutes ſouth; one hundred and fifty degrees forty-ſeven minutes weſt, and is thirteen miles in circumference. It does not ſhoot out in high peaks like the other iſlands; but is more uniform and even, being divided into ſmall hillocks. It is neither populous nor fertile. The natives are hoſtile, armed with lances, dreſſed in ſtriped cloth, their heads decorated with feathers, and their habit a ſhort jacket reaching to their knees. The whole is girded with a yellow ſaſh, which paſſes round the neck, is croſſed upon the breaſt, and is gathered about the middle.

Hervey iſland lies low, in nineteen degrees eighteen minutes ſouth latitude, and one hundred and fifty-eight degrees and fifty-four minutes weſt longitude. It was diſcovered by captain Cook on September 23, 1773, who gave it the above name in honour of the earl of Briſtol.

Palmerſton iſland is ſituated in one hundred and ſixty-three degrees ten minutes weſt longitude, and eighteen degrees four minutes ſouth latitude.

Savage iſland lies in nineteen degrees one minute ſouth latitude, and one hundred and ſixty-nine degrees thirty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude. On captain Cook's landing here, June 1774, the natives attacked his party with great fury: every poſſible intimation of good will was given them, but without any effect: a dart or ſpear was thrown by one of the natives, which grazed captain Cook's ſhoulder; a party which had been poſted on a rock, to ſecure a retreat in caſe of an attack, ſaw it abſolutely neceſſary to fire on the natives, to reſcue their commander, and thoſe who were with him, from deſtruction. This prevented others coming down from the heights, and abated the ardour of thoſe who were engaged: whether any of the Indians were hurt, could not be perceived. This diſpoſition of the natives, as well as the iſland furniſhing no port, determined captain Cook to leave it. The name of Savage Iſland was given by him to this ſpot, from the conduct and aſpect of the natives who thus came down upon them with the fury of wild beaſts.

Iſlands of Danger; a name given by commodore Byron to three iſlands which had rocks and broken ground between them, and were ſo low, that a ſhip may be cloſe in with them before they are ſeen. Their ſituation is differently laid down by commodore Byron and captain Cook; the former placing them in latitude twelve degrees thirteen minutes ſouth; longitude one hundred ſixty-ſeven degrees forty-ſeven minutes weſt; and the latter in ten degrees fifty-one minutes and one hundred and ſixty-three degrees forty-three minutes. The ſouth eaſternmoſt of theſe iſlands is about three leagues in length between the extreme points, from both which a reef runs out, upon which the ſea breaks to a tremendous height: upon the north-weſt and weſt ſides innumerable rocks and ſhoals ſtretch

near

near two leagues into the sea, and was extremely dangerous. The islands have a fertile and beautiful appearance, and swarm with people. No farther discovery concerning these secluded spots could be made by the commodore, as the great danger to which the ships were exposed, prevented his going on shore.

Duke of York's island was first discovered by commodore Byron, June 21, 1765, and, according to all probability, never received a human footstep before that time. The boats landed with great difficulty, and procured about two hundred co oa-nuts, which, circumstanced as the crews were, was an inestimable treasure. This island lies in latitude eight degrees forty-one minutes south; and in one hundred and seventy-three degrees three minutes west longitude; a dreadful sea breaks upon almost every part of the coast, and no soundings could be found.

Turtle Island lies in nineteen degrees forty-eight minutes south latitude, and one hundred and seventy-eight degrees two minutes west longitude. It was so called by captain Cook, who first visited it, on account of the great number of turtles that were seen here.

Byron's Island was first discovered by commodore Byron, July 3, 1765; but he could not go ashore, or procure any refreshments, there being no part favourable for a ship to anchor. This island lies in one degree eighteen minutes south latitude, and one hundred and seventy degrees fifty-three minutes east longitude, and is supposed to be about four leagues in length. It was very populous; for as soon as the ship came in sight, the natives to the number of above one thousand, assembled on the beach, and more than sixty canoes, or proas, put off from the shore, and made towards it, and ranged themselves in a circle round it; after having gazed for some time, one of the Indians suddenly jumped out of his proa, swam to the ship, and ran up the side like a cat. As soon as he had stepped over the gunwale, he sat down upon it, and burst into a violent fit of laughter, then started up and ran all over the ship, attempting to steal whatever he could lay his hands on, but without success, for being stark naked, it was impossible to secrete his booty. The seamen put him on a jacket and trowsers, which produced great merriment, for he had all the gestures of a monkey newly dressed. Bread was given him, which he ate with a voracious appetite; and, after having played a thousand antic tricks he leaped overboard clad in his new apparel, and swam back to his proa.

These people are tall, well proportioned, and clean limbed; their skin is a bright copper colour; their features good, and their countenances exhibited a mixture of intrepidity and cheerfulness that is very striking. They have long black hair; some have long beards, some only whiskers, and others nothing more than a small tuft at the point of the chin. All their ears were bored, but they had no ornaments in them. They were all stark naked except their ornaments, which consisted of shells very prettily disposed and strung together; these they wear round their neck, wrists, and waists.

SECT. XIV.

Containing a Journal of Captain COOK's Three Years Voyage round the World.

WE shall conclude our account of this quarter of the globe with some few particulars relative to the important expedition made by captain Cook, &c. for the discovery of a southern continent, which object has greatly attracted the notice of the learned and curious.

On July 13, 1772, the Resolution and Adventure (the former commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Furneaux) sailed from Plymouth Sound, having on board Mr. William Hodges, landscape painter; Dr. John Reinhold Forster, Mr. George Forster his son, and Mr. Sparman, naturalists; together with Mr. William Wales, and Mr. William Bayley, astronomers; and arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, on the 30th of October following. On the 10th of the next December they saw the first ice, in latitude fifty degrees forty minutes. This first ice was a very large mass, but they afterwards saw another much larger: this prodigious body was two thousand feet long, four hundred broad, and about two hundred in height. On December 12, they passed by six more ice islands, some of them near two miles in circuit, and sixty feet high. Here the elder Mr. Forster and Mr. Wales had nearly perished by cold and famine, having gone with some others, in the ship's boat, to make some experiments of the temperature of the sea at a certain depth, but were at length saved by the Adventure. On December 26, the ships passed through a great quantity of packed or broken ice, some of which looked dirty or decaying. Islands of ice still surrounded them; and in the evening, the sun setting just behind one of them, tinged its edges with gold, and brought upon the whole mass a beautiful suffusion of purple: they had no thaw during the continuance of the whole summer.

On the 2d of January 1773, captain Cook searched for Cape Circumcision, which is laid down by Bouvette in fifty-eight degrees fifty-three minutes south latitude, and ten degrees six minutes east longitude. January 9, three boats were hoisted out, and in about five or six hours took up as much ice as yielded fifteen tons of good fresh water. It is remarked, that here was a discovery made important to science; that nature forms great masses of ice in the midst of the wide ocean, which are destitute of any saline particles, but have all the useful and salubrious qualities of the pure element. On January 16, they crossed the antarctic circle in longitude thirty-nine degrees thirty-five minutes east, which had till then remained impenetrable to all former navigators. The next day thirty-eight ice islands, great and small, were seen, besides loose ice in abundance. After having reached sixty-seven degrees fifteen minutes south, captain Cook ordered the ships to put about, and stood north-east by north, an immense field of solid ice extending to the southward, as far as the eye could reach from the mast head, which rendered it impossible to advance farther that way. Here were seen many whales playing about the ice, and for two days before several flocks of brown and white pintadoes were seen, which they named antarctic petercls, because they seemed to be natives of that region. January 31, they passed near two islands of ice, sixty degrees fifty minutes south, fifty-six degrees forty-eight minutes east, one of which appeared to be breaking or falling to pieces, by the crackling noise it made, said to be equal to the report of a four pounder. This was the last ice seen till they returned again to the southward.

On February 8, the Resolution lost sight of the Adventure, and the two sloops continued separated for the rest of the cruize, but afterwards met in Queen Charlotte's sound, in Zealand; then sailing together for O-Taheitee and other islands within the tropics, in coming round the same coasts near to Cook's straights they again separated and never more joined during the voyage. Captain Furneaux seeing no probability of forming a junction with his consort, returned to England, and reached Spithead in July 1774.

On February 28, the Resolution, in sixty-two degrees south, fell in once more with a solid piece of ice, which obstructed their further progress in that course. In latitude fifty-nine degrees fifty-eight minutes south, longitude one hundred and eighteen degrees thirty-nine minutes east, three islands of ice were in sight, all of them large, especially one, which was larger than any that had been before seen: the side opposite to the ship seemed to be a mile in extent, and the whole mass seemed to be three in circuit. It was supposed to be one hundred feet high; yet such was the impetuous force and height of the waves which broke against it, by meeting with such a sudden resistance, that they rose considerably higher. On March 26, they made the coast of New Zealand, and anchored in Dusky Bay, after having been one hundred and seventeen days at sea, in which time they had sailed three thousand six hundred and sixty leagues, without having had sight of any land. The Resolution left Dusky Bay on May 11, 1773, and, casting anchor in Queen Charlotte's Sound on the 17th of the same month, continued till the 7th of June.

Having now lost the Adventure, captain Cook, determined on fully exploring the southern parts of the Pacific ocean, began his second course alone, on the 27th of November; and on the 6th of December they were in latitude fifty-one degrees thirty-three minutes south, and longitude one hundred and eighty degrees, consequently just at the point of the antipodes of London, being the first Europeans, and most probably the first human beings, who had reached that point, and perhaps will be the last. The first ice was seen December 12, in sixty-two degrees, ten minutes south, one hundred and seventy-two east, which is eleven and a half degrees more to the southward than the first ice seen the preceding year in the Atlantic ocean. On December 15, in sixty-six degrees south, one hundred and fifty-nine west, the further course to the southward was interrupted on account of the ice,

among

Hamilton delin.

Thornton sculp.

The **DEATH**

of **CAPT.N COOK,** *at*

O-why-hee, near Kamschatka, whose **discoveries** *in his* **Last Voyage** *, as well as those of his* **First** *and* **Second**, *will be included in this New & Improved System of Geography.*

among which they were in a manner embayed, which obliged them to tack to the northward; and ſoon after they got clear of all the looſe ice, but not without receiving ſeveral hard knocks from the larger pieces. The weather remained foggy, and ſeveral ice-iſlands ſtill lay in their way, one of which they were near falling aboard of, and if that had happened, none would have ſurvived to relate the circumſtance. The ſhip paſſed with her own length to the windward of this huge maſs, ſo that every one on board was in the moſt dreadful ſuſpenſe for a few minutes. Several penguins were ſeen on ſome little ice-iſlands, and a few antarctic peterels on the wing. We doubt not but the following account and deſcription of theſe birds will prove acceptable to our readers.

Captain Cook relates, that having continued during the whole ſummer in the frigid zone, their chaſe of penguins proved very unſucceſsful, though it afforded great ſport; theſe birds dived ſo frequently, continued ſo long under water, and at times ſkipped continually into and out of it, making way with ſuch amazing velocity in a ſtraight line, that the fowlers were obliged to give over the purſuit; but not before they had come near enough to wound one of them; but though they followed it cloſely, and fired above ten times with ſmall ſhot, which was obſerved to hit, yet they were at laſt obliged to kill it with ball. When they took it up, they perceived its hard gloſſy plumage had conſtantly turned the ſhot aſide: this plumage is extremely thick, and conſiſts of long narrow feathers which lie above each other as cloſely as ſcales, and ſecure theſe amphibious birds againſt the wet, in which they almoſt conſtantly live. Their very thick ſkin, and their fat, ſeem wiſely appropriated to them by nature to reſiſt the perpetual winter of theſe inhoſpitable climes. Their broad belly, the ſituation of their feet far behind, and fins which ſupply the place of wings, are conſtructed with equal wiſdom to facilitate the progreſs of their otherwiſe lumpiſh bodies through the water. That which was ſhot weighed eleven pounds and a half. The blue peterels which every where abound in this immenſe ocean, ſettled in flocks of ſeveral hundreds on the ſmooth ſurface of the water: theſe were not worſe fitted out againſt the cold than the penguins. Their plumage was amazingly abundant, and increaſed their bulk in a great proportion; and two feathers, inſtead of one, proceeded out of every root, lying within each other, and formed a very warm covering. As they are almoſt continually in the air, their wings are very ſtrong, and of great length to ſupport them in flying.

They croſſed the antarctic circle a ſecond time on December 20, in one hundred and forty-ſeven degrees forty-ſix minutes weſt longitude. The next morning ice-iſlands were ſeen very high and rugged, forming at their tops many peaks, whereas thoſe that had been ſeen before were flat at top, and not ſo high; many of theſe were between two and three hundred feet in height, and between two and three miles in circuit, with perpendicular cliffs or ſides, aſtoniſhing to behold.

Moſt of their winged companions had now left them, the grey albatroſſes only excepted, and, inſtead of the other birds, they were viſited by a few antarctic peterels, two of which were ſhot. To the deſcription given above of this bird, we may add, that they are of the ſize of a large pigeon, the feathers of the head, back, and part of the upper ſide of the wings, are of a light brown; the belly and ſide of the wings white, the tail feathers are alſo white, but tipped with brown. Another peterel was ſhot afterwards, ſmaller, and intirely of a grey plumage; theſe birds were fuller of feathers than any hitherto ſeen. A few chocolate coloured albatroſſes were ſeen in theſe parts, all which birds kept among the ice, from whence, captain Cook obſerved, he might with reaſon conjecture that there is land to the ſouth.

On December 22, they had penetrated to ſixty-ſeven degrees thirty-one minutes, being the higheſt ſouthern latitude they had reached; one hundred and forty-two degrees fifty-four minutes weſt longitude. Twenty-three ſmall ice-iſlands were this day ſeen from the deck, and twice that number from the maſt-head, and yet the weather was ſo foggy, that they could not ſee above two or three miles round them. On the 25th the weather was clear and fair, and upwards of ninety large ice-iſlands were in ſight. This being Chriſtmas-day, the captain invited the officers and mates to dinner; and one of the lieutenants entertained the petty officers. The ſailors feaſted on a double portion of pudding, regaling themſelves with the brandy of their allowance which they had ſaved for this occaſion ſome months beforehand. The ſight of an immenſe number of ice-iſlands, among which the ſhip drifted at the mercy of the current; every moment in danger of being daſhed in pieces againſt them, could not deter the ſailors from indulging in their favourite amuſement; as long as they had brandy left, they would perſiſt to keep Chriſtmas in their way, though the elements had conſpired together for their deſtruction. Their long acquaintance with a ſeafaring life had enured them to all kinds of perils; and their heavy labour, with the inclemencies of the weather, and other hardſhips, making their muſcles rigid, and their nerves obtuſe, had communicated inſenſibility to their minds.

January 3, 1774. Being in fifty-ſix degrees ſouth, one hundred and forty degrees thirty-one minutes weſt, the wind being weſterly obliged them to ſteer north-eaſtwardly, the captain was therefore obliged to leave a ſpace of ſea unexplored to the weſt, containing near forty degrees of longitude, and half that of latitude. January 20, being in ſixty-two degrees thirty-four minutes ſouth latitude, one hundred and ſixteen degrees twenty-four minutes weſt longitude, they were becalmed; when two ice-iſlands appeared in ſight, one of which was ſuppoſed to be full two hundred feet in height, and terminated in a peak not unlike the cupola of St. Paul's church. January 25, the wind increaſed very much, and in a ſhort time blew a tempeſtuous gale; at nine o'clock at night a huge mountainous wave ſtruck the ſhip on the beam, and filled the deck with a deluge of water; it poured into the cabin, and extinguiſhed the lights, leaving the gentlemen who were ſitting there for a moment in doubt whether they were not intirely overwhelmed, and ſinking into the abyſs. The ice, the fog, the ſtorms, and ruffled ſurface of the ſea, compoſed a ſoul-ſinking ſcene, which was ſeldom cheered by the reviving beams of the ſun. January 26, paſſed for the third time within the antarctic polar circle, longitude one hundred and nine degrees thirty-one minutes weſt; and on the 29th in the afternoon were in ſixty-nine degrees forty-five minutes ſouth, one hundred and eight degrees five minutes weſt, paſſed a piece of weed covered with barnacles, which a brown albatroſs was picking off. The mildeſt ſun-ſhine was enjoyed that day, that had ever been experienced in the frigid zone. This led them to entertain hopes of penetrating as far towards the ſouth pole as other navigators had done towards the north pole; but the next day about four in the morning, they diſcovered a ſolid ice-field of immenſe extent before them, which bore from eaſt to weſt. A bed of fragments ſtoated all round this field, which ſeemed to be raiſed ſeveral feet high above the level of the water. Whilſt in this ſituation, the ſouthern part of the horizon was illuminated by the rays of light reflected from the ice to a conſiderable height. Ninety-ſeven ice-iſlands were diſtinctly ſeen within the field, beſides thoſe on the outſide; many of them very large, and looking like a ridge of mountains, riſing one above another, till they were loſt in the clouds. There was no other occurrence worth relating, till they fell in with Eaſter iſland the 11th of March 1774, having been one hundred and four days out of ſight of land. On the 19th of October, the ſloop came once more to an anchor in Queen Charlotte's Sound in New Zealand, and ſailed on the 10th of November following, and made a run, without ſeeing any land, quite acroſs the South Sea to Tiera del Fuego, and on the 17th of December made Cape Deſcada, on the ſouth-weſtern extremity of that dreary coaſt and diſmal climate.

January 4, 1775. Captain Cook ſailed ſouth eaſt from Staten iſland, in order to paſs a third ſummer ſeaſon to the ſouthward. On leaving Staten iſland, he has the following remarks: "It is amazing to ſee how the different animals, which inhabit this ſpot, are mutually reconciled: they ſeem to have entered into a league not to diſturb each other's tranquillity. The ſea-lions occupy moſt of the ſea coaſt; the ſea-bears take up their abode in the iſland; the ſhags have poſt in the higheſt cliffs; the penguins fix their quarters where there is the moſt eaſy communication to and from the ſea; and the other birds chuſe more retired ſtations. We have ſeen all theſe animals mix together like domeſtic cattle and poultry in a farm yard, without once attempting to moleſt the other; nay, I have often obſerved the eagles and vultures ſitting on the hills among the ſhags, without either the old or young of the latter being diſturbed at their preſence. It may be aſked how theſe birds of prey live? I ſuppoſe on the carcaſes of ſeals and birds which die by various cauſes, and probably in no ſmall numbers, as there are ſo many of them."

On January 14, being in fifty-three degrees fifty-ſix minutes ſouth latitude, and thirty-nine degrees twenty-four minutes weſt longitude, land was diſcovered; its mountains appeared of a vaſt height, covered with ſnow and ice, in moſt places, quite to the water's edge: towards the ſouth end ſeveral low iſlands were ſeen, which appeared to have ſome verdure upon them, and were therefore called the Green iſlands. This land, which was at firſt ſuppoſed to be part of a great continent, was found at length to be an iſland of ſeventy leagues in circuit, between the latitudes of fifty-three degrees fifty-ſeven minutes and fifty-four degrees fifty-ſeven minutes, and longitudes thirty-eight degrees thirteen minutes and thirty-five degrees thirty-four minutes weſt, extending ſouth-eaſt by eaſt, and north-weſt by weſt, and is thirty-one leagues long, in that direction; its greateſt breadth is about ten leagues. It ſeemed to abound with bays and harbours, which the vaſt quantities of ice rendered inacceſſible the greateſt part of the year. This large iſland received the name of Southern Georgia. Captain Cook landed in a bay on the northern ſide of this iſland, which he called Poſſeſſion Bay; here he diſplayed his colours in three different places, and took poſſeſſion of the country in his Majeſty's name, under a diſcharge of ſmall arms.

Two rocky iſlands are ſituated on the north end, one of which was named Willis's iſland, from the perſon who diſcovered it. It is a craggy cliff, nearly perpendicular, which contained the neſts of many thouſand ſhags. The other received the name of Bird iſland, from the innumerable flocks of birds of all ſorts that were ſeen upon it, from the largeſt albatroſſes down to the leaſt peterels. Several porpoiſes were likewiſe obſerved, and ſeals, which probably came to breed on theſe inhoſpitable ſhores. The head of the bay, as well as two places on each ſide, were terminated by perpendicular ice cliffs, of conſiderable height, ſuch as are found in the harbour of Spitſbergen, in the northern hemiſphere. Pieces were continually breaking off and floating out to the ſea; and a great fall happened while they were in the bay, which made a noiſe like cannon.

The other parts of the country were not leſs ſavage and horrible. The wild rocks raiſed their lofty ſummits till they were loſt in the clouds; and the vallies lay covered with ſnow. Not a tree was to be ſeen, nor a ſhrub even big enough to make a tooth-pick. The only vegetation obſerved was a ſtrong bladed graſs, growing in tufts; wild burnet, and a plant like moſs, which ſprung from the rocks: Seals, or ſea-bears, were pretty numerous. Among them was a huge animal of the ſame kind with the ſea-lion deſcribed in lord Anſon's voyages; a midſhipman ſhot it through the head, whilſt it lay aſleep. It was all over of a dark grey colour, with a ſlight olive caſt, ſomething like the ſeals in the northern hemiſphere: it likewiſe reſembled thoſe animals, in the moſt perfect ſhape of its forefeet, and the want of external ears; its noſe projected far beyond the mouth, and had a looſe wrinkled ſkin; it was about thirteen feet long. Here was found a flock of about twenty penguins, of a much greater ſize than any before ſeen, being thirty-nine inches long, and weighing forty pounds. The ſeals and penguins killed here were very acceptable to the whole crew; for any kind of freſh meat was eagerly craved. Beſides being uninhabitable, South Georgia does not appear to contain a ſingle article for which it might be viſited occaſionally by European ſhips. On the whole coaſt, not a river or ſtream of freſh water was to be ſeen.

On the 26th of January captain Cook left the ſouthern part of this iſland, and ſteered eaſt ſouth-eaſt, until he arrived in ſixty degrees latitude, further than which he did not intend to go, unleſs he obſerved ſome certain ſigns of meeting with land. Theſe high ſouthern latitudes, where nothing was to be found but ice and thick fogs, had at length tired even this perſevering chieftain himſelf; he therefore put about to the eaſtward.

January 31, paſſed one of the largeſt ice iſlands that had been ſeen in the voyage. As this ſhip was now proceeding northward, the hope of ſoon reaching a milder climate diffuſed a general ſatisfaction; but another frozen country roſe to their view, and threatened to retard the accompliſhment of their wiſhes. The diſcovery of this iſland was made on January 31, at ſeven in the morning. Captain Cook gave the name of Sandwich land to this diſcovery, which may poſſibly be the northern point of a continent; for he is of opinion that there is a tract of land near the pole, which is the ſource of moſt of the ice that is ſpread over this vaſt ſouthern ocean.

Southern Thule, in latitude fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes ſouth; longitude twenty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes weſt, was the moſt ſouthern extremity that was ſeen; proceeding northward, many projecting points of land were diſcovered; the mountains appeared to be of vaſt height; their ſummits being conſtantly wrapped in clouds, and the lower parts covered with ſnow down to the water-edge. Theſe captain Cook named, in the order in which they were ſeen, Freezeland Peak, Cape Briſtol, and Cape Montagu; with an iſland that received the name of Saunders, ſituated fifty-eight degrees twenty-ſeven minutes ſouth latitude, twenty-ſix degrees forty-four minutes weſt longitude; and two ſmall ones, which were named Candlemas iſles; they are of no great extent, but are of conſiderable height, and are covered with ſnow. The whole country had the moſt deſolate and horrid appearance imaginable; not a ſingle blade of graſs could be diſcerned upon it, and it ſeemed to be forſaken even by the amphibious and lumpiſh animals which dwelt on South Georgia.

February 15, bore away to the northward, having croſſed the meridian of Greenwich, in latitude fifty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes. On the 19th croſſed the place where Cape Circumciſion is laid down by Bouvet, without having the leaſt ſigns of land, though the weather was favourable to diſcovery. Captain Furneaux likewiſe paſſing between Georgia and Sandwich land, croſſed the meridian of Cape Circumciſion in the latitude of fifty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes ſouth, without meeting with any land. The ſolicitude of all on board to arrive at an European port, was now riſen to the moſt impatient height; their voyage had then laſted twenty-ſeven months after leaving the Cape of Good Hope, ſince which time they had not touched at any European ſettlement, but had ſevered from all intercourſe with their country, their friends, relations, and domeſtic endearments. As they approached a place that had ſome correſpondence with Europe, their hopes and fears began to be anxiouſly excited; all the tender and endearing ties at home now took intire poſſeſſion of the breaſt, and agitated with the ſtrongeſt ſenſations.

On March 26, being then between thirty-five and thirty-ſix degrees ſouth latitude a ſhip was ſeen to windward, and in three hours afterwards they came in ſight of another. The eagerneſs with which every perſon on board bent his eyes towards theſe welcome objects, was the ſtrongeſt proof of that ardent longing for an intercourſe with Europeans, which till then had been ſuppreſſed by the attentions which their ſituations and regard to perſonal ſafety demanded. Two tedious days however, paſſed in this ſtate of painful uncertainty, before they could come up with either of the ſhips; at length they got within five miles of one of them, which proved to be a Dutch Eaſt Indiaman. A boat was hoiſted out and ſent on board her, and in a few hours returned with the welcome news that there was univerſal peace in Europe. In the afternoon they got ſight of two Swediſh, one Daniſh, and an Engliſh ſhip, the latter of which bore down to them, and lieutenant Clarke, the elder Mr. Forſter, and a midſhipman, went on board her. This ſhip was the True Briton, captain Broadly, on her return from China. The gentlemen were received with a generous hoſpitality, and invited to dinner. Theſe three famiſhed circumnavigators, who had not ſeen freſh meat for ſix weeks, attacked with the higheſt reliſh a diſh of fattened Chineſe quails, and a delicious gooſe, which their kind entertainer reckoned very homely fare. On relating how long they had been abſent from any European ſettlement, how long they had lived upon ſalt beef, and how often they had regaled themſelves, with ſeals, albatroſſes, and penguins, the captain and the mates dropped their knives and forks, and in pure pity to the ſtrangers reſigned all pretenſions to their dinner. At parting, captain Broadly preſented them with a large fat pig and ſeveral geeſe, on which the gentlemen of the ſhip dined the two following days.

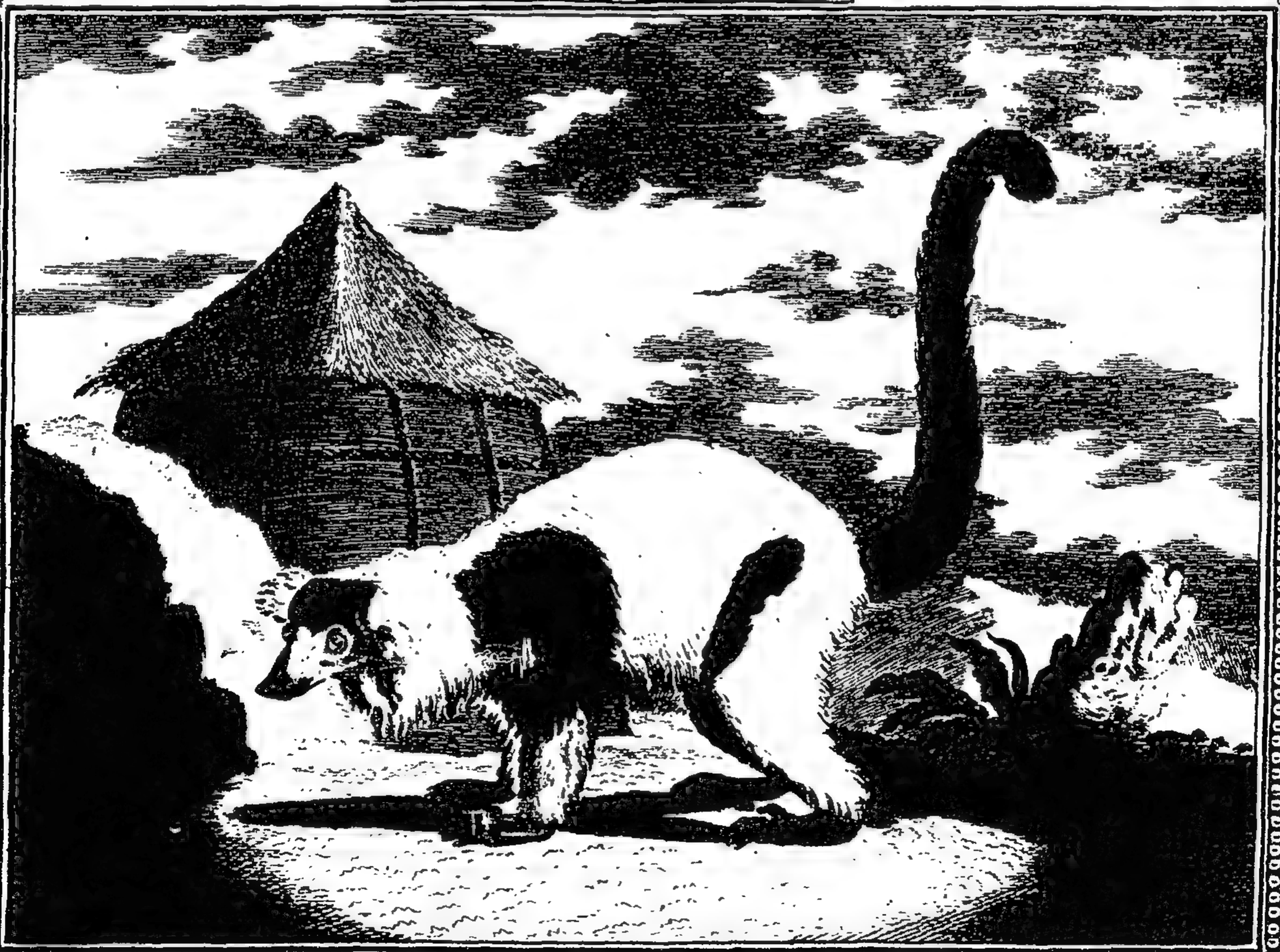
They came to an anchor in Table Bay, in the Cape of Good Hope, on the 22d, which they found was only the 21ſt according to the reckoning of the people on ſhore, they having advanced a whole day by ſailing round the world to the eaſtward. On the 27th of April captain Cook ſailed from the Cape, and in his way to England touched at St. Helena, the weſtern iſlands of Aſcenſion and Fernando Norenha, Fayal; and on the 29th of July made the land near Plymouth having been abſent from England three years and eighteen days, in which time it is computed that they ran over a greater ſpace of

ſea

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A Remarkable Animal *found on one of the Hope Islands in* Capt.n Cook's *first Voyage.*



Ramoldson scalp

The VARI, *or Maucauco, a native of* MADAGASCAR

ſea than any ſhip ever did before; ſince according to Mr. Forſter, all their tacks, taken together, form more than thrice the circumference of the globe. Thus was completed a voyage which will immortalize the conductor of it, as it was not only the moſt extenſive, but the moſt inſtructive one ever performed.

In this celebrated voyage, captain Cook not only diſcovered, but ſurveyed vaſt tracts of new coaſts: diſpelling hereby the illuſion of a Terra Auſtralis incognita, and fixing the bounds of the habitable earth, as well as thoſe of the navigable ocean, in the ſouthern hemiſphere. But being the ableſt navigator which perhaps any age or country ever produced, is not this great ſeaman's ultimate praiſe; his humane and judicious attention to every means which might poſſibly conduce to the healthineſs of the ſhip's company, gives him an eminent place among the diſtinguiſhed few who are true friends to mankind, and his endeavours were ſucceſsful to a degree of admiration, the methods he made uſe for preſerving the health of the ſailors being no leſs ſimple than efficacious. With a company of one hundred and eighteen men, he performed a voyage of upwards of three years, throughout all climates from fifty-two degrees north, to ſeventy-one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by a diſtemper. From hence it plainly appears, that marine diſeaſes are not cauſed by any malignity in the ſea air; and a voyage round the world may be undertaken with leſs danger to health, than a common tour in Europe; eſpecially when ſuch aſſiduous care is taken of the diet, bedding, cloaths, the application of excellent antiſcorbutic medicines, &c. as was conſtantly employed by captain Cook, which obtained him the cordial eſteem and affection of the moſt reſpectable ſocieties in this country, and will for ever erect a monument of deſerved eulogium and gratitude in the hearts of his countrymen, and the friends to real merit, of every diſtinction, throughout the globe.

SECT. XV.

We ſhall here obſerve, as Supplementary to our Account of the Dutch Settlements in the Eaſt Indies; that

ON November 12, 1781, the town and citadel of Negapatam, on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the Eaſt Indies, was taken from the Dutch by the Engliſh fleet and army commanded by admiral Hughes and Sir Hector Munro; the garriſon conſiſted of near eight thouſand men, about five hundred of which were Europeans, and the reſt Indians: and alſo,

On January 16, 1782, Forts Oſtenburgh and Trincomale, ſituated in Trincomale bay in the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Engliſh fleet and army under admiral Hughes and Sir Hector Munro, and are now in the poſſeſſion of the king of Great Britain.

THE

THE NEW AND UNIVERSAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY;

BEING A COMPLETE

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION

OF

THE WHOLE WORLD.

BOOK II.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

AFRICA.

CONCERNING AFRICA IN GENERAL.

SOME geographers, both Greek and Latin, have, in their ſyſtems, ranked Africa as the third part of the known or inhabited world: nevertheleſs, as the poſterity of Noah made their firſt emigrations out of Aſia into this northern quarter of the globe (for the antients knew but little of the ſouthern part of Africa), we ſhall therefore make choice of it, as moſt proper for the ſecond diviſion of our work.

The far greater part of Africa continues ſtill unknown to us; and though we are at preſent become better acquainted with it than we formerly were, yet our knowledge of it extends little farther than the regions that lie chiefly along the coaſts of the Mediterranean; which being the moſt fruitful in corn and other produce, and alſo more eaſy of acceſs, have been more conſtantly reſorted to both by Europeans and Aſiatics.

The midland parts were for a long while believed inacceſſible and uninhabited by reaſon of their intolerable heat, they lying moſtly under the torrid zone, and have on that very account, as well as the ſavageneſs of its inhabitants, been little viſited by any ſtrangers. Even the ſouthern parts of it, which lie under a more temperate climate, and are much eaſier of acceſs, are found inhabited by ſuch barbarous people, ſo fierce and ſavage in their nature, ſo uncouth and forbidding in their manners and language, and ſo ſhy of all intercourſe with foreign nations, that our readers need not wonder that we are almoſt as much in the dark about them as we are about the midland part of this continent.

The name of Africa, or Afric, was given to this vaſt tract of ground from one of its antient provinces, which we now ſtyle Africa Propria, and extends itſelf along the Mediterranean, from the ancient Mauritania, on the weſt, to Cyrenaica, on the eaſt, where is now the kingdom of Tunis, and where was once the ſeat of the celebrated Carthagenians. The antient Greeks called it Libya, from another of its provinces, whoſe deſart part bordered upon Egypt, and was included, with other uninhabited parts of it, by the old Arabs, under the name of El-ber, which ſignifies a divided, or forſaken land. The Indians call it Bazenah; the Arabs, Iphrica, or rather Aphirikiah, or Afrikea; the Ethiopians, Alkabutan; and the Perſians, Armenians, and other nations, by different names.

Africa, in its largeſt ſenſe, lies ſouth of Europe, and weſt of Aſia, and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which parts it from the former; and on the eaſt by the Red ſea, which ſeparates it from the latter, to which it only joins by that ſmall iſthmus or neck of land which cuts off the communication between thoſe two ſeas, and is commonly known by the name of Suez. On the ſouth and weſt, it is ſurrounded by the main ocean, ſo that it may be properly ſtyled a vaſt overgrown peninſula, joined only to the continent of Aſia by the iſthmus above-mentioned, which, if cut off, would make it by far the largeſt iſland in the world. It extends itſelf a vaſt way, not only on each ſide of the equinox, but of the two tropics likewiſe, the ſouthern verge of it reaching quite to the thirty-fifth degree of ſouthern, and the northern almoſt to the thirty-ſeventh degree of north latitude: ſo that its utmoſt extent, from north to ſouth, is almoſt ſeventy-two degrees, or about four thouſand three hundred and twenty miles. From eaſt to weſt it reaches ſtill farther, viz. from ſeventeen weſt to ſixty eaſt, or ſeventy-ſeven degrees of longitude, that is, four thouſand ſix hundred and twenty miles.

The antients divided this part of the then known world into twelve regions or provinces, and ranged them in the order following, going from eaſt to weſt, viz. the two Mauritanias, the two Numidias, Africa Propria, Libya Cyrenaica, and Marmarica, Lower Egypt, Thebais, Libya Interior or Upper, and the two Ethiopias. Others ranked them in the following order: Egypt, Marmarica, Cyrenaica, Syrtica, Africa Propria, Numidia, the two Mauritanias, Inland Africa, Libya Interior, and Ethiopia. Under the Romans, it was divided only into theſe ſix provinces: Africa Propria, Mauritania Cæſarienſis, Mauritania Tingitana, Numidia, Tripolitana, and Bizacena; all which amounted to little more than what we ſtyle the preſent Barbary, but was all they poſſeſſed, or were perhaps acquainted with, except the kingdom of Egypt, which they did dot reckon a part of Africa. Even Strabo had little notion of its real extent; and though Ptolemy, who was much better acquainted with it, and hath gone farther in his diviſion of it than any of the antients, having diſtinguiſhed it by twelve regions or provinces; yet one half of the country was unknown to this excellent geographer.

The African and Arabic geographers have been no better acquainted with this region, than the Greeks and Romans. This plainly appears from the general deſcription which Mocaudi and Becker, two of the beſt, have given of it. They neither allow it ſo great an extent as Ptolemy doth; nor place in it Egypt and the other countries that lie between the Nile, the Red Sea, and the eaſtern ocean in Africa, but make them to be part of Aſia. They are no leſs inaccurate in aſſigning the true ſituation, names, &c. of capes, gulfs, and ſeveral cities and provinces, but a general confuſion ſeems to run through the whole, occaſioned

in

Longit. West from London. 27 35 — 62 25 Longit. East from London.

SCALES.

British and French Marine Leagues, 20 to a Degree.

20 60 100 140 180 220 260 300

British Statute Miles, 69½ to a Degree.

200 400 600 800 1050

AFRICA, agreeable to the most approved MAPS and CHARTS, By Mr Kitchen.

Longit. W. from Ferro. 10 — 15 — 20 — 25 — 30 — 35 — 40 — 45 — 50 — 55 — 60 — 65 — 70 — 75 Longit. East from Ferro.

in all likelihood by the coming of the Arabs into this part of the world, who, to blot out the remembrance of its antient inhabitants, gave new names to thoſe places, and cauſed ſuch changes in it, as the old Africans, upon their recovery of it, could never thoroughly rectify.

Having made it evidently conſpicuous, that the antients had a very imperfect knowledge of a great part of Africa, and conſequently had never ſailed round it, as ſome have affirmed, the Phœnicians did; we ſhall proceed to ſhew when, and, in what manner it was circumnavigated about three hundred years ago, which is a fact that is not doubted of in the preſent day.

The Goths having recovered Portugal from the Moors, followed them croſs the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and ſubdued part of Morocco, taking from them the towns of Tangier, Ceuta, Arzilla, &c.

Prince Henry V. ſon of John II. king of Portugal, accompanying his father in one of theſe expeditions againſt the Moors of Africa, being firmly perſuaded that a way might be traced out round Africa to the Eaſt-Indies, from whence the fine ſpices and other rich merchandize were brought to Egypt and the ports of the Levant, and obſerving, alſo, that gold, ivory, and other valuable merchandize was annually brought over land by caravans from Guinea to Morocco, he formed the deſign of diſcovering the weſt coaſt of Africa, being convinced that it would turn to account to viſit thoſe golden ſhores, if he ſhould be diſappointed in finding a paſſage to India by the ſouth of Africa He no ſooner returned to Portugal, therefore, from the African expedition, but he obtained leave of his father, king John, to fit out ſome ſhips for the diſcovery of that coaſt; but the attempt proved more difficult than he expected; for his ſhips arriving at Cape Bajadore, the waves beat ſo terribly on that coaſt that they durſt not attempt to paſs it for ten years afterwards: but having at length overcome the difficulty, he obtained a bull or grant from the pope, of all infidel countries that ſhould be diſcovered to the ſouth and eaſt from Cape Bajadore to the Eaſt-Indies, with a plenary indulgence for all ſuch ſouls as ſhould periſh in the undertaking.

Prince Henry continued his diſcoveries on this coaſt to the eighth degree of north latitude; but dying in the year 1463, he was not ſo fortunate as to ſee Africa entirely ſurrounded.

In the year 1471, the trade was extended as far as the Gold-coaſt, in five degrees north latitude.

King John III. cauſed the fort of St. George del Mina to be erected for the protection of the Gold-coaſt, in the year 1481, and having now great expectations of diſcovering a way to the Eaſt-Indies round Africa, and apprehending that other princes, notwithſtanding his grant from the pope, would attempt to follow his people to India by the ſame rout, he applied to the ſeveral princes of Chriſtendom, repreſenting, that they ought to furniſh their quotas towards ſubduing the infidel nations on the coaſt of Africa and India, as they would all reap the benefit of it; but the enterprize being ſtill eſteemed very hazardous, or rather chimerical, they all refuſed to be engaged in it. Whereupon king John applied himſelf to the pope, to confirm the donation of all pagan countries, ſouth and eaſt of Cape Bajadore, which had been made to his anceſtors by the holy ſee; and the pope not only confirmed the former grant, but decreed, that no other nation ſhould be intitled to any ſuch diſcoveries; and the king of Portugal from that time (1484) aſſumed the title of Lord of Guinea, by which was then meant all the weſt coaſt of Africa then diſcovered, or then after to be diſcovered, ordering his commanders to ſet up ſtone croſſes in memory of taking poſſeſſion of thoſe countries as part of the Portugueſe dominions.

Diego Cam, was the firſt commander ſent out, which was in 1484, who, paſſing Cape Catharina, came to the river Congo in the kingdom of that name, but called by the natives Zayre: he paſſed on twenty leagues further, and ſet up a croſs at a place he called St. Auguſtin, in thirteen degrees ſouth latitude, and another in twenty-two ſouth; and returning to Congo, he had a conference with the king of that country, wherein he told him, they came to inſtruct his people in the Chriſtian religion, as they did in every place they came to; and the king ſent one of his ſons and ſeveral of his nobility with captain Diego to Portugal, where they were baptized, the king and queen, and ſeveral perſons of quality being ſponſors: the chief's former name was Zakuta, but they gave him the king's name of Don John.

Bartholomew Diaz, in 1486, was ſent with three ſhips to make further diſcoveries to the ſouthward, in order to find a paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies; and was ſo fortunate as to make the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Africa, which he named Cabo Tormentoſo, from the terrible ſtorms and mountainous ſeas he met with there; which ſo terrified him, that he durſt not paſs it, but returned to Liſbon, to give the king an account of his voyage, who concluded now that he had gained his point by opening a paſſage to India, and gave the ſouthern promontory Diaz dreaded ſo much the name of Cabo de Bueno Eſperanza, the Cape of Good Hope, inſtead of that which Diaz had given it.

However, the paſſing the Cape of Good Hope, and planting colonies in India, were not effected till the reign of Emanuel, the ſon of king John. This prince ſent three ſhips, on board whereof were one hundred and ſixty men commanded by Vaſco de Gama, to attempt the paſſage of the Cape of Good Hope. De Gama ſet ſail from Portugal on the 8th of July 1497; the captains who commanded the other two ſhips were, Paul de Gama, brother to Vaſco, and Nicholas Nunez; they had a tender with them loaden with proviſions, commanded by Gonzalo Nonnez, and a ſloop, of which Bartholomew Diaz was captain, bound to Del Mina on the coaſt of Guinea. Admiral de Gama, with his three ſhips, made the Cape of Good Hope on the 18th of November in the evening, and paſſed it on the 20th; after which he landed, and erected a croſs, and bought ſome cattle of the natives for trifles; but ſtill, the natives looking on the Portugueſe with a jealous eye, and apprehending they had a deſign to ſubdue their country, pulled down the croſs that had been erected, and the Portugueſe ſailed away to the north-eaſt, not ſeeing land again till Chriſtmas-day, and gave it the name of Terra de Natal, as being our Saviour's birth-day. They afterwards arrived at a river, which they called De los Reys, or the King's, being on the feaſt of the Epiphany; here they went on ſhore, and dealt with the natives for ſome ivory and proviſions, and the admiral left two men here to inform him of the ſtate of the country at his return; theſe men were condemned criminals, whoſe puniſhment had been changed for this purpoſe. Coaſting along ſtill to the northward, they arrived at Moſambique, in fifteen degrees ſouth latitude, where they found Arabian merchants that traded to India for ſpices, precious ſtones, &c. There was a pretty good harbour, and the town was inhabited by Moors, who traded to the Red Sea, and to India, in large veſſels, but without decks. The Portugueſe having entered the harbour, the ſheik, or chief of the Moors, ſent them preſents and proviſions, deſiring leave to come on board, which was granted, and he came with a numerous train of attendants, dreſt in a Turkiſh habit; and here the Portugueſe obtained a pilot of the king to carry them to Calicut in India, which they were told lay about one thouſand leagues to the eaſtward.

But to proceed with our general ſurvey: Africa comprehends forty-one kingdoms, ſtates, or countries; namely, 1. Tripoli; 2. Barca; 3. Algiers; 4. Tunis; 5. Morocco; 6. Zaara; 7. Biledulgerid; 8. Tombut; 9. Mundingo; 10. Sierra Leona; 11. Jaloffs; 12. Pholey; 13. Ardrah; 14. Whidah; 15. Gold Coaſt; 16. Slave Coaſt; 17. Commendo; 18. Fetu; 19. Anta; 20. Jaby; 21. Tooth Coaſt; 22. Axim; 23. Grain Coaſt; 24. Benin; 25. Angola; 26. Benguela; 27. Loanga; 28. Congo Proper; 29. Monomugi; 30. Monomotapa; 31. Caffraria; 32. Moſambique; 33. Melinda; 34. Sofala; 35. Abex; 36. Magadoxa; 37. Anian; 38. Abyſſinia; 39. Brana; 40. Egypt; 41. Nubia.

In treating of theſe extenſive countries, we ſhall conſider the dominions of which it conſiſts, in the following order, viz.

I. Barbary; comprehending, Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripolis, and Barca.

II. Negroland; containing, Sierra Leona, Mundingo, Pholey, and Jaloffs.

III. Guinea; comprehending, Whidah, Ardrah, Slave Coaſt, Gold Coaſt, Fetu, Commendo, Jaby, Anta, Axim, Tooth Coaſt, Grain Coaſt.

IV. Congo; compriſing Benguela, Angola, Congo Proper, Loango.

V. Caffraria; or the country of the Hottentots, &c.

VI. Zanguebar; containing Moſambique, Melinda, Sofala.

VII. Abyſſinia, or Ethiopia Superior; comprehending Nubia and the coaſt of Abex.

VIII. Egypt; being the north eaſt diviſion of Africa.

In order to give our readers a more clear and diſtinct idea of the continent, iſlands, and other particulars worthy of notice in this diviſion of the globe, at one view, we have annexed the following Tables:

A New, Complete, and General TABLE of the Continent of AFRICA.

Included under the General Names of		Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dist. and Bear. from London.	
	Barbary	Morocco	500	480	Morocco	1080	S.
		Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920	S.
		Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990	S. E.
		Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260	S. E.
		Barca	400	300	Tolemeta	1400	S. E.
	Negro-land	Mundingo, Pholey, Jaloffs } countries	2200	840	Mundingo	2500	S.
		Sierra Leona					
	Guiney	Whidah			Xavier	2700	S.
		Ardrah			Aſſem		
		Slave Coaſt			Great Popo		
		Gold Coaſt			Acra, Crevecouer, Fort James		
		Fetu			Cape Coaſt Caſtle		
		Commendo	1800	360	Little Commendo		
		Jaby			No Town		
		Anta			Bourtray		
		Axim			Achombone		
		Tooth Coaſt			Laho		
		Grain Coaſt			No Towns		
	Congo	Benguela	430	180	Benguela	3900	S.
		Angola	360	250	Loando	3750	S.
		Congo Proper	540	420	Saint Salvador	3480	S.
		Loango	410	300	Loango	3300	S.
		Caffraria	780	660	Cape Town	5200	S.
	Zanguebar	Moſambique, Melinda, Sofala	1400	350	Melinda or Moſambique	4440	S. E.
		Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418	S. E.
		Abex	540	130	Doncala	3580	S. E.
		Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920	S. E.

A New and Complete TABLE of the Islands, &c. of AFRICA.

	Names.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to, or trade with.
In the Indian Ocean.	Mauritius	Mauritius	French
	Bourbon	Bourbon	French
	Comora Iſles	Joanna	All Nations
	Madagaſcar	St. Auſtin	All Nations
	Babelmandel	Babelmandel	
	Zocatra	Calanſia	
In the Atlantic Ocean.	St. Helena	St. Helena	Engliſh
	Biſſagoes, Biſſao	Have no towns, the natives living in ſcatterd huts	
	Goree	Fort St. Michael	French
	Cape de Verd	St. Domingo	Portugueſe
	Canaries	Palma, St. Chriſtopher	Spaniards
	Madeiras	Santa Cruz and Funchal	Portugueſe
	Fernando Po, Prince's Iſle, St. Thome, Annabon	St. Thomas and Anaboa	Portugueſe
	St. Matthew, Aſcenſion		Uninhabited

A General TABLE of Oceans, Seas, Rivers, &c. Mountains, Languages of different Nations, &c. in AFRICA.

Oceans, Seas.	Rivers.	Mountains.	Religions.	Languages.	Capes and Straights.
Indian, Pacific, Atlantic } Oceans	Nile	Teneriff	Chriſtian	Coptic, Arabic, Greek, African or Moriſco, a variety of Negro Dialects, Portugueſe, Dutch, French, Lingua Franca.	Cape of Good Hope
Red, Mediterranean } Seas	Niger	Atlas	Pagan		Straight of Babelmandel
	Senegal	Lion	Mahometan		Cape de Verd.
	Gambia	Moon			

CHAP. I.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

BARBARY.

SECT. I.

Of the Situation, Boundaries, Rivers, Mountains, Provinces, chief Towns, &c. of the Kingdom of MOROCCO.

MOROCCO is ſituated on the weſtern borders of Barbary, between two and eleven degrees of weſt longitude, and between twenty-eight and thirty-ſix degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the ſouth, by the celebrated mountain called the Great Atlas; on the north, by the Mediterranean; on the eaſt, by the river Mulvia, which ſeparates it from Algiers; and, on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean: it is about five hundred miles long, and four hundred and eighty broad, and ſome make the dimenſions much larger.

This empire contains three grand diviſions or provinces; namely, that of Fez, to the north. 2. Morocco Proper in the middle: and, 3. Suz on the ſouth.

The chief rivers are, 1. The river Mulvia, which runs from ſouth to north, ſeparating the kingdom of Fez from Algiers, and diſcharging its waters into the Mediterranean. This is a large deep river, according to Dr. Shaw, and admits of ſmall cruiſing veſſels, and might be made commodious for ſhips of greater burthen: the ſources of this river lie a great way within the Sahara or deſart, at the diſtance of eight hundred miles from the ſea, and runs almoſt its whole courſe in the ſame meridian. 2. The river Suz, which runs from eaſt to weſt, through the kingdom of that name, diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic Ocean, at the mouth whereof lies the port-town of Santa Cruz. 3. The river Rabatta, which runs almoſt in the ſame direction, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſame ocean, the piratical port of Sallee ſtanding at the mouth of it. 4. The river Cebu, at the mouth whereof Mamora is ſituated, being another piratical port. The river Lecus runs in the ſame direction, and falls into the ſame ocean, near the mouth whereof ſtands the port of Larrache. None of theſe are navigable for ſhips, and the ports at their mouths will admit but of ſmalls veſſels. The moſt commodious are thoſe of Tangier and Tetuan, in the Mediterranean; but theſe are unſafe in ſome winds. The Spaniards are in poſſeſſion of the port of Ceuta, oppoſite to Gibraltar, and of Penon de Velez eaſt of it; but neither of them are ſafe harbours. Others leſs conſiderable are the Taga, the Ommirabih, and the Tenſiſt. This river runs through the city of Morocco, and ſupplies the inhabitants with water: it has a handſome bridge over it.

The Greater and Leſſer Atlas are not only the principal mountains in Barbary, but ſome of the moſt celebrated in the univerſe. The Great Atlas divides Barbary from Biledulgerid; and the Little Atlas extends along the Barbary coaſt to the ſtraights of Gibraltar. The coldneſs and inacceſſibility render the Great Atlas in many parts uninhabitable; but ſome places enjoy a milder climate, contain many villages, numerous herds and flocks of cattle, are well cultivated, and inhabited by Arabs, Barebers, and other African people, who, in the ſeverer parts of the winter, are obliged to retire into vaſt caverns, to preſerve themſelves and their flocks from being overwhelmed with the prodigious quantities of ſnow that fall, and from the inclemency of the weather. Theſe people are in general fierce, cruel, and warlike, and are ſpread in numerous tribes over the various branches of this prodigious mountain. They can bring many men into the field, and have it in their power to be very troubleſome to the neighbouring governments, it being as impoſſible to be intirely upon the defenſive againſt them, as to bring them totally under ſubjection.

The capital city of this empire, called alſo Morocco, is pleaſantly ſituated on an extenſive plain, between two rivers, the Nephtis and the Agmed, and is watered by the Tenſiſt. It is one of the moſt opulent, populous, and important cities in Africa. The moſt received opinion is, that it was founded by Abu-Techifien, and finiſhed by his warlike ſon Joſeph, who after obtaining many glorious victories in Spain, brought from thence thirty thouſand captives, whom he conſtantly employed in ſurrounding it with ſtrong walls, which were twelve miles in circumference. It then contained one hundred thouſand houſes, and ſtill hath twenty-four magnificent gates, and a great number of moſques, palaces, &c. but at preſent its priſtine ſplendor is much decayed. It is ſixteen miles north of mount Atlas, and one hundred and fifty from the Atlantic ocean, in thirty degrees forty minutes north latitude, and ſeven degrees weſt longitude. The walls are ſo ſtrong both with reſpect to the ſtones themſelves, and the cement with which they are connected, that they are impenetrable to the pick-ax, and other inſtruments; they are ſurrounded with a deep ditch, and flanked with ſtrong towers, bulwarks, baſtions, &c.

Within a ſpacious fortreſs called the Al-Capava, and which is ſituated on the outſide of the city, ſtands the imperial palace. It is defended by high walls, ſtrong towers, a deep ditch, &c. and has only two gates, the one leading towards the country, and the other towards the city; both of theſe are handſome and well guarded; and that towards Morocco faces an elegant and capacious ſtreet, the viſta of which is terminated by a large magnificent moſque, admirably embelliſhed with carvings of marble, jaſper, &c. and the noble gates of the church of Seville, which the celebrated Almanzor brought from Spain. On the top of its ſtately tower, four large copper balls, plated with gold, were fixed upon iron ſpikes; they weigh together ſeven hundred pounds, but the ſizes are unequal, the ſmaller being capable of containing one, the next two, the third four, and the largeſt eight ſacks of wheat. There is a capacious vault beneath the moſque; it was originally deſigned for a ciſtern, but is now converted into a granary. The battlements are exceeding loſty, and the ſpire riſes ſeventy feet above them, from the ſummit of which the talleſt men appear to the beholder like ſmall children. The royal apartments, halls of audience, ſeraglio, &c. are noble ſtructures, highly embelliſhed, and richly furniſhed.

The gardens, though neither well deſigned, or properly variegated, are extenſive and magnificent, containing all kinds of trees, herbs, flowers, ſhrubs, &c. which can poſſibly grow in that climate: but the ſplendor ſtill remaining is inconſiderable with reſpect to the former grandeur of the place, the veſtiges of which yet ſubſiſt in a variety of noble fragments. The innumerable ruins of many ſuperb palaces, colleges, halls, baths, hoſpitals, and above four hundred aqueducts, are the mournful monuments of the devaſtations of time, the effects of deſpotiſm, and the ravages of frequent wars.

Great part of the houſes are gone quite to decay, and the reſt are but in an indifferent condition. The inhabitants are about twenty-five thouſand; but the Jews, the number of whom is about four thouſand, live in a particular quarter, which is near the palace, and ſurrounded by a wall, through which there is but one gate, and that is well guarded by Moors; yet foreign ambaſſadors, agents, merchants, &c. chuſe to live in this part, preferably to any other in Morocco. The Jews have the art of growing rich, though they are exceedingly taxed; but they, politically, pretend to poverty, and from obvious motives make a very mean appearance.

The city of Fez, ſituate in thirty-eight degrees north latitude, and four degrees weſt longitude, was originally the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, and is at preſent a rich and populous city. It compriſes three diſtinct parts, viz. 1. Beleyd, which contains about four thouſand houſes, and ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the river Fez. 2. Ain-Alu: containing about four thouſand inhabitants, and ſtands on the weſt ſide of the ſame river. 3. Albegd, or White Fez, which was built by Jacob, king of the Beni-Mereni, and contains twenty thouſand inhabitants. The two firſt form Old Fez, the latter New Fez, and at preſent they form together one city.

Old Fez is nine miles in circumference, ſtands between two hills, is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, and flanked with magnificent towers. It is without ſuburbs, contains many excellent gardens, hath narrow ſtreets, ſeven gates and two caſtles; the one old and gone to decay, the other new and in good condition; the latter is garriſoned with blacks, but neither have any cannon to defend them. The houſes are of ſtone or brick, three ſtories high, flat roofed, encompaſſed with galleries, adorned on the outſide with moſaic work, and embelliſhed within with carving, painting, and handſome furniture; but it is to be obſerved, that in general the ſeraglios are upon the turrets of the houſes, from whence the women have a fine proſpect; but they are never permitted to ſtir abroad, being confined to the ſeraglio.

The principal magiſtrate of this capital is ſtyled provoſt of the merchants, beſides whom there is a governor, a cadi, and their ſubordinate officers. The river Fez, in paſſing through the city, divides itſelf into ſix canals, over the various parts of which are two hundred and fifty ſtone bridges, and three hundred and ſeventy mills are turned by the ſeveral ſtreams. In the city, three hundred and thirty-ſix ovens are daily employed, the moſques are computed at five hundred, fifty of which are of the firſt rank, and one in particular is a moſt amazing ſtructure: it is a mile and a half in circuit, including the cloiſter and college belonging to it: the roof is one hundred and fifty cubits high, and fifty in breadth; there are thirty ſtately gates; and the pillars which ſupport the minaret, or tower, are thirty cubits in length and twenty in breadth: the roof is ſuſtained by one thouſand five hundred pillars of white marble, and ſeventeen arches; two curious lamps continually kept burning, adorning every arch. In the cloiſter belonging to this moſque are forty-two galleries, and four hundred ciſterns for people to perform their ablutions. The college is the moſt eminent, and contains the beſt library in the empire; here are ſeveral other hoſpitals and colleges, which are large, magnificent, and well endowed; ſix hundred water conduits, and two hundred ſpacious inns. As Fez is uſually deemed the grand magazine and principal mart of Barbary, the ſtreets therefore ſwarm with merchants and tradeſmen of all profeſſions, and the warehouſes, ſhops, &c. are filled with a great variety of commodities.

Mequinez, where the court now reſides, is ſituated in a pleaſant plain, in ſix degrees of weſt longitude, and thirty-four degrees of north latitude. The city is divided into ſeveral quarters, or rather contains ſeveral cities united. The palace is a diſtinct city; the parks and gardens that ſurround it, with the number of halls, rooms of ſtate, offices, pavilions, &c. are ſuprizing to the beholder. The quarter of the Moors and the Negro town are alſo diſtinct, and the Jews have a quarter to themſelves, in which there do not reſide leſs than fifteen thouſand of that nation, being allowed a ſheik or magiſtrate, who has the government of them according to their own laws, and the king allows them his protection. Notwithſtanding which, theſe people are exceedingly ill uſed, as they are plundered, abuſed, and beat, even by the very meaneſt of the Moors, and dare not reſent the ill treatment they receive. The great men horſe-whip or cudgel them whenever they come in their way, and they are not permitted to come out of their quarter with ſhoes and ſtockings on, being obliged to walk barefooted in the ſtreets which the Moors frequent.

The city is three miles in circumference, ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, environed by gardens, and embelliſhed with many moſques, colleges, baths, &c. the markets are daily crouded with people, particularly Arabs, who bring honey, wax, butter, hides, and dates for ſale. It has alſo an extenſive ſeraglio, large magazines and ſtorehouſes, an armoury, barracks for the guards, and apartments for various mechanics, who are continually retained by the emperor to do buſineſs immediately belonging to the palace.

Sallee, on the weſt coaſt of the kingdom of Fez, is eſteemed the beſt port the emperor of Morocco has. It is ſituated in thirty-three degrees forty-eight minutes north latitude, and ſix degrees twenty-five minutes weſt longitude. This is an antient city, being mentioned by Ptolemy, and ſtands on the river Gueron, which divides into two parts. The northern part, encompaſſed with a ſtrong wall, and defended by batteries, towers, &c. is Salla or Sallee, properly ſo called; but the ſouthern part, named Rabat, compriſes many farm houſes, orchards, gardens, and corn-fields; the latter being ſufficiently extenſive to yield wheat enough for the ſuſtenance of fifteen thouſand perſons, yet the whole is ſurrounded by walls, which were erected by the captives that Almanzor brought from Spain. On the ſouth eaſt part there is a tower which ſerves for a land mark in the day time, and a light houſe at night: it is lower than it was originally, for ſome part of the top was ſtruck off by lightning; it is fifty feet ſquare, built of ſtone ſtrongly cemented, and opens towards a magnificent moſque one thouſand four hundred paces long, and three hundred wide, in the court of which is a well thirty feet deep, and one hundred in width. Beneath the tower are two docks, the one for wintering, and the other for building of ſhips. The harbour is large; but ſo large, that the piratical ſhips are obliged to put into the iſland of Tedal near its mouth. The town is defended by two caſtles, which communicate with each other, but the fortifications are irregular and ill-deſigned. All articles of commerce pay a tenth part to the emperor. The main ſupport of the place is the piratical trade, for it has long been famous for its rovers or pirates, which make prizes of all Chriſtian ſhips that come in their way, except there is a treaty to the contrary.

Magazanis, a ſtrong, well built town, ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall about ſix yards thick, and well defended by cannon. It is ſituated thirty miles ſouth of Sallee, and poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, who have a numerous garriſon here. The piratical ſhips often intercept the proviſion veſſels, which puts the garriſon to great ſtraits, and obliges them, in order to obtain a ſubſiſtence, to make excurſions, and rob the Moors.

Alcaſſar, was a good trading town till the Portugueſe took it in 1458; but while they poſſeſſed it, they did it great injury; and after it was recovered by the Moors, it was ſuffered to run to decay. The celebrated Muley Zeydan is ſuppoſed to have built this town.

Arzilla, and ſome other port towns on the weſt, belong to Portugal ſtill. They are ſtrong fortreſſes, ſuch at leaſt as the Moors cannot take, for their foot are very indifferent militia, and are not able to recover any of their places from the Portugueſe, or Ceuta from the Spaniards. It is about twenty-four miles from the ſtraights of Gibraltar.

Tangier, is ſituate in thirty-five degrees fifty-ſix minutes north latitude, and ſix degrees thirty minutes weſt longitude, on a bay of the ſea, near Cape Spartel, juſt at the entrance of the ſtraights of Gibraltar, on the African ſide: it is built on the declivity of a hill, which makes it exceſſive hot in ſummer, the afternoon ſun lying full upon it. When the Engliſh poſſeſſed it, the walls were upwards of a mile in circumference, and they had lines and redoubts that took in the neighbouring hills, with two caſtles, the upper and lower, for its defence; in the former whereof lived the Engliſh governor, and the baſſa at preſent: there was a mole built for the ſecurity of ſhipping, the heads whereof run out three hundred fathoms into the ſea, and were defended by three batteries of cannon; but theſe and moſt of the works were blown up, or demoliſhed by the Engliſh when they abandoned the place, and it is now not very ſtrong: there is but one ſingle moſque in the town, and another in the caſtle; however, it makes a tolerable appearance from the ſea, the houſes being white, and all in view; but they have ſcarce any trade. This, as has been obſerved, was the Tingis of the antients; and from it this part of Africa was called Mauritania Tingitana. Alphonſo V. king of Portugal took it from the Moors, in the year 1463; and in 1662, the court of Portugal transferred it to Charles II. king of England, on his marriage with the princeſs Catharine, infanta of Portugal. The Engliſh kept it twenty-two years, and laid out a great deal of money in the mole and fortifications; but the parliament refuſing to let the king have money to maintain the garriſon, he found himſelf obliged to quit the place, though it is agreed, it would have been of very great ſervice to the nation, if we had been maſters of it in the late wars with France and Spain.

In January 1745, the Inſpector privateer, having ſprung a leak, was obliged to run aſhore in the bay of Tangier, where the whole crew (except the captain, whoſe name was Veale, four lieutenants, and two private men), were dragged to a loathſome dungeon, and ſuffered inconceivable hardſhips, being almoſt famiſhed with hunger, and otherwiſe

cruelly treated. Out of the whole ſhip's company, which amounted to one hundred and eighty-three before the wreck, excluſive of Mr. Ruſſel the ſurgeon, whoſe dead body they found on the ſhore, ninety-five periſhed by the waves, or were murdered by the Moors; and the ſurvivors, to the number of about ſixty, were redeemed for a large ſum of money by the Engliſh ambaſſador, at the command of George II. king of Great Britain.

Melilla, in the province of Garet, is ſeated near the ſea, ſeventy-five miles from Tremeſen, at the bottom of a bay called Entrefolcos, in one degree fifty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, and thirty-four degrees forty-eight minutes north latitude. It received its name from the great quantity of bones which the neighbouring territory yields. It was antiently the capital of the province, and is ſtill a conſiderable place, containing two thouſand houſes. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1496, who built a citadel here, but is returned back to the Moors.

Ceuta is ſituated in ſix degrees twenty-five minutes weſt longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees thirty-five minutes north latitude, and lies at the entrance of the Mediterranean, on a kind of peninſula, which is the neareſt point of land to the Spaniſh coaſt; the walls and fortifications are not ſo good as might be expected from its ſituation; nevertheleſs it is a conſiderable town, has a ſtrong garriſon, a magnificent cathedral, and a noble palace. John king of Portugal took it from the Moors in 1415, but now it belongs to the Spaniards. It ſuſtained a vigorous ſiege in 1697 againſt the Moors, who have never been able to take it, though they have blockaded it ever ſince. Near this city is a mountain with ſeven heads, which the antients diſtinguiſh with the appellation of Septem Fratres, or Seven Brothers. It is a place of great trade, and has a good harbour.

The next town we ſhall deſcribe in the province of Fez is Tetuan, which is ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, about eight miles from a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, called from this place Tetuan Bay, and is between twenty and thirty miles ſouth of Ceuta, and about fifty ſouth-eaſt of Tangier. The town is about a mile long, and half a mile broad, and has a fine proſpect of the ſea and the country beneath it: the ſtreets are narrow, unpaved and full of dunghills, which makes it a filthy place in winter; and yet this is ſaid to be one of the beſt towns in the country, on account of its being better built than moſt others. Their houſes are uſually built about a little open ſquare, with piazzas ſupporting galleries above them; and in the middle of the ſquare, people of ſubſtance always have a fountain. There are commonly four rooms on a floor, one on every ſide of the ſquare, which have no other light than what they receive from the great folding doors that open into the piazza.

The town of Tetuan contains about thirty thouſand inhabitants, of which five thouſand at leaſt are Jews, who have ſeven ſynagogues here; but, though their numbers are ſo great, they have not two hundred houſes amongſt them, ſeveral families living under the ſame roof. They are ſaid to be very poor, though all the trade of the place paſſes through their hands; for they are the only brokers between Chriſtians and Moors. One thing to be obſerved with reſpect to this town, is, that the people walk on the tops of the houſes, which are flat roofed, and viſit one another from thence, more than by the ſtreets, as they do in Algiers, and other parts of Barbary. The town is ſurrounded with an ordinary wall, and defended by an old caſtle, conſiſting of two ſquares; the outward ſquare flanked with towers, but the walls not cannon proof, and it is commanded by hills about it. They have a burying place, on a hill above the town, adorned with ſuch numbers of cupolas and pyramids, that it looks like a town itſelf; but what is beſt worth ſeeing at Tetuan is the baſha's palace, the entrance into which is by a cloiſter, which leads to a ſpacious ſquare, ſurrounded by a piazza, and in the middle a marble fountain, the pavement of the area and piazza being of moſaic work. The moſques are as elegant as any buildings can be that are in the Moreſco ſtyle. The ſantons or monks have about twelve cloiſters, which are places of refuge for all criminals, except thoſe guilty of treaſon. The Chriſtian ſlaves here are very numerous and very ill uſed, being locked up every night in a diſmal dungeon, called the Mortimore, which is a place twenty feet under ground, where there is no light but what comes from a hole at the top, like a gully hole in England; and it is always very damp, on account of the ſprings riſing in it, occaſioned by its being dug ſo deep. The inhabitants, between trade and thieving, are in tolerable circumſtances; for when they are not ſtrong enough to plunder a ſhip, they will traffic with the crew.

Mella, in the province of Suz, and on the river of that name, is compoſed of three fortified towns lying in a triangle, each ſurrounded by a wall, and about a mile diſtant from each other: there is a temple in it built of large fiſh bones inſtead of timber. It is ſituated at the foot of mount Atlas, near the ocean, in a country abounding with palm trees, eight degrees fifty-five minutes weſt longitude, and twenty-nine degrees twenty minutes north latitude. The adjacent territory is fertilized by the overflowing of the river, and whales have been frequently caſt upon the ſhore.

The town of Teſſut, about four miles diſtant from Meſſa, is like that divided into three parts. A branch of the river Suz waters it, and paſſes through a large moſque in the centre of it, by which means the people have an opportunity of performing their ablutions in a running ſtream. The town contains about four thouſand families, the neighbouring territory is extremely fertile; and the principal commodities are ſugar and Morocco leather.

Tarudant is a handſome, populous, and flouriſhing place but ſmall, and the inhabitants are opulent, polite, and courteous.

Tedſi is ſeated in a plain abounding in corn, and where there is plenty of ſheep, ſeventeen miles from mount Atlas, and twenty from Tarudant. This town is famous for its ſugar manufactory, and contains about five thouſand inhabitants. The chief alfakis, who is ſupreme judge in all eccleſiaſtical matters, reſides in the great moſque here: it has a good market on Mondays, the chief traffic being leather, linen, woollen, cattle, horſes, iron tools, ſugar, wax, honey, butter, &c.

Tagaoſt, is reckoned the largeſt city in the province of Suz; it is ſituated in a fertile plain, one hundred and fifty miles from the ſea, and thirty-ſeven ſouth of Tarudant. and contains eight thouſand families, four hundred of which are Jews, who carry on a conſiderable trade. Here are two markets weekly, to which the Arabs and Moors reſort with their commodities, and the negroes to buy apparel. It lies in ſeven degrees thirty-five minutes weſt longitude, and twenty-eight degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude.

Tafilet, is ſeated on a river in a plain, three hundred and twenty miles ſouth-by-eaſt of Fez, and two hundred and ſeventy-five ſouth-eaſt of Morocco. The territory in which it ſtands was once a kingdom of itſelf, but never very conſiderable; the whole country is divided into three provinces, Dras, Saro, and Tuet. It is mountainous and ſandy, but produces an excellent kind of indigo, dates, and a little wheat and barley by the ſides of the rivers. The people are miſerably poor, living upon camel's fleſh and dates, and they breed horſes to ſell to foreigners. They have alſo oſtriches and dromedaries, which laſt will travel one hundred miles in a day. Moſt of the dates which are ſent to Europe come from hence, as the emperor will not permit them to be exported from any other part of his dominions: and it is affirmed that the leather manufacture here is tanned with the ſtones of that fruit. About four thouſand horſe are retained in this diſtrict, to keep the people, who are chiefly Bereberes in ſubjection, and it is uſually governed by a prince of the blood. The governor reſides in the city, which has a ſtrong caſtle to defend it. The inhabitants are about two thouſand in number, and are employed in the manufactures of leather, ſilk, and linen: they are very ſociable, though extremely ſuperſtitious. It is a great rendezvous of both African and European merchants.

Geſula, a province on the coaſt of Barbary, is ſubordinate to the governor of Tafilet: it is a dry barren country, the limits of which are not perfectly aſcertained. The mountains, however, yield plenty of iron and copper, and the inhabitants are famous for working in thoſe metals, by the exchange of which they procure horſes, linens, woollens, ſpices, &c. They have annually ſeveral fairs, but one in particular, which is kept on a large plain, laſts two months, and is reſorted to by merchants from all parts of Barbary; and this fair is, perhaps, better regulated than any other in the univerſe; as the people, though naturally bruiſh, are under ſuch reſtrictions, that a quarrel was never known to happen during the fair time, and it is ſaid, that the merchants who come thither to buy the wares, are maintained at the expence of the province.

Scymetars, daggers, darts, ſpears, and ſhort guns, are the weapons of the Geſulians, who can bring ſixty thouſand men into the field. Their dreſs is a ſtriped jacket of linen or woollen, with ſhort ſleeves, over which they throw a gown of coarſe woollen cloth. They have only one

mode of punishment, that is, piercing the criminal to death with darts, and throwing his carcase to the dogs or wild beasts.

SECT. II.

Containing a Description of the Persons, Habits, Music, Buildings, Food, Furniture, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants of MOROCCO.

THESE people, as well as the rest of the inhabitants of Barbary, consist of three sorts, all of the Mahometan religion, but differ much in their way of life. The Moors, the original inhabitants, live in towns and are the most numerous: the Arabs live in tents, and remove their camps when they want forage for their cattle. Those who inhabit mount Atlas, in the south, are a plain innocent people.

The natives are generally of a good stature, and well proportioned: the Moors, that are not exposed to the weather, have good complexions: the Arabs are a tawny race; and labouring people among the Moors are as tawny as the Arabs. The Moorish ladies are fair, and usually have fine features: neither Moors or Arabs have any great share of learning, but are men of good natural parts, and want only opportunities of improvement.

Their music is bad: they do not write down their compositions, nor have they any contrast or variety of parts. The music of the Arabs is suitable to their homely instruments. The bladder and string is in great esteem amongst them; and they have another instrument in the form of a kettle-drum, which serves as a base in their concerts. The music of the Moors is more ingenious and melodious than that of the Arabs, and they have a greater variety of instruments. Besides several sorts of flutes and hautboys, they have a violin of two strings, and a base double stringed lute bigger than our viol, with several small guitars of different sizes, each of them tuned an octave higher than another.

The inhabitants of the mountains, named kabyles, live in dashkas, or thatched cottages, and their villages are called gurbies: each of these cottages contains but one room, in which also they house their calves and kids, the people and their young cattle living much alike. The Arab women make the cloathing and furniture for the family, particularly their hykes, or woollen blankets, and the webs of goats hair for their tents. One of these hykes is usually six yards long, and five or six broad, serving the kabyle and Arab for a complete dress in the day, and for his bed and covering in the night. It is a loose but troublesome kind of garment, being frequently discoucerted, and falling upon the ground; so that the person who wears it is obliged to tuck it up continually.

They have a garment called the Burnoose, which is a cloak or mantle also made by these women. The Moors and wealthy Arabs wear caps or turbans; but many of the poorer sort among the latter go bare-headed, binding their temples with a narrow fillet, to prevent their hair being troublesome. Some of the Arabs wear under their hykes a close bodied frock or tunic, girt about their bodies, except when they are at work; for then they usually throw off their hykes and mantles. The Moors wear linen under their tunics, but the Arabs in general wear nothing but woollen.

The Bedwins, or Arabs, are not used to wear drawers, which the citizens of both sexes do constantly, especially when they go abroad or receive visits. The virgins are distinguished from the matrons, in having theirs made of needle-work, striped silk or linen. But when the women are at home, and in private, then they lay aside their hykes, and sometimes their tunics; and instead of drawers, bind only a towel about their waist.

With respect to the habits of the Moorish women, when they appear in public, they always fold themselves up so close in their hykes, that without the addition of a vail, there is very little to be seen of their faces. But in the summer months, when they retire to their country seats, they walk abroad with less caution and reservedness; and upon the approach of a stranger, let only their vails fall over their faces. They all affect to have their hair long, which they collect into one roll, upon the hinder part of the head, binding and plaiting it afterwards with ribbons. Where nature has been less liberal, there the defect is to be supplied by art, and foreign hair interwoven with the natural. After their hair is plaited up in this manner, they proceed to dress their heads, by tying close together, above the roll I have described, the several corners of the triangular piece of linen, wrought into a variety of figures by the needle. Persons of better fashion, wear above this a sarmath, as they call it, which differs not much in shape from the former head dress, but is made of thin flexible plates of gold or silver variously cut through, and engraved in imitation of lace; a handkerchief of crape, gauze silk, or painted linen, bound close about the sarmath, and falling afterwards without any order, upon the lock, is part of the head-dress of the Moorish ladies.

None of them think they are completely dressed, till they have tinged the hair and edges of their eyelids with the powder of lead-ore. The sooty colour, which is in this manner communicated to the eyes, is thought to add a wonderful gracefulness to persons of all complexions.

Persons of distinction, among the Moors, have variety of dishes at an entertainment, mixed up with almonds, dates, sweetmeats, milk, honey, &c. "I have seen at some of their festivals, says Dr. Shaw, more than two hundred dishes, whereof forty, at least, were of different kinds; but among the Arabs and kabyles, there are neither utensils nor conveniencies for such entertainments; two or three wooden bowls, a pot and a kettle, being the whole kitchen furniture of the greatest emir, or prince." However, all the orders and degrees of these people, from the bedwin to the bassa, eat in the same manner, washing first their hands, and then sitting cross legged round a mat, or low table, upon which their dishes are placed. They make no use of a table cloth, each person contenting himself with a share of a long towel that lies round the mat, knives and spoons are little in use, for the food being well roasted and boiled, requires no carving. Cuscassowe, pilloe, and other dishes likewise, which we should reckon spoon meats, are served up in the same manner, with all other sorts of food, lukewarm; so that the whole company dipping their fingers together in the dish, making use of their right hand only, take what portion of it they can conveniently dispose of for a mouthful, making it first into little balls, or pellets, in the palms of their hands. No sooner is any person satisfied, than he rises up and washes himself, without paying the least regard to the company, whilst another that very moment takes his place; the servant sometimes (for there is no distinction of tables) succeeding his master. When they sit down to these meals, or eat and drink at any other time, and, indeed, when they enter upon their daily employ, or undertake any business whatsoever, they always pronounce with the greatest seriousness and reverence, the word Bismilla, i. e. in the name of God, using the expression Alhamdalla; that is, God be praised, after they are sufficed, as they do when their affairs are prosperous.

With respect to the Moors, they are early risers, constantly attending their public devotions at break of day. Each person employs himself afterwards, in the exercise of his proper trade and occupation, till ten in the morning, the usual time of dining; returning again to their business till asa, the afternoon prayers, at which time all kind of work ceases, and their shops are shut up. The supper commonly follows the prayers of magreb, sun set; and then, repeating the same at the setting of the watch, when it begins to be dark, they immediately after go to bed.

The inhabitants of Morocco, who dwell in the inland parts of the country, are an hospitable, inoffensive people; and, notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those of the Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; for, having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves; but both Moors and Arabs are cruelly oppressed by a small number of insolent domineering Turks.

As to their religion, many of the people of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamet, a modern sectarist, who was an enemy to the antient doctrine of the califfs. They are all very fond of idiots; whose protection will in some cases screen offenders from punishment, who have been guilty of the most atrocious crimes. The Moors of Barbary in general have however adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, retaining only so much of it as authorises them to commit the most shocking actions with impunity. Though the men are indulged with plurality of wives and concubines, they are nevertheless allowed to commit the most unnatural crimes. Adultery in the women is punished with death.

The Bedwin, or Arab, follows no regular trade or employment: his life is one continued round of idleness or diversion. When no pastime calls him abroad, he does nothing all the day but loiter at home, smoke his pipe, and



A Female Habit much used in Africa

Morris sculp.



A FEMALE of MOROCCO



ANIMALS of MARAGNAN,

an Island on the Coast of Brazil

in South America.

Smith sculp.

ANIMALS of MARAGNAN,

an Island on the Coast of Brazil;

in South America.

Smith sculp.

and repoſe himſelf under ſome neighbouring ſhade. He hath no reliſh at all for domeſtic pleaſures; what he moſt of all values, is his horſe, for in this he places his higheſt ſatisfaction, being ſeldom pleaſed, or in a good humour, but when he is far from home, riding at full ſpeed, and hunting.

SECT. III.

Treating of the Inhabitants of MOROCCO, with reſpect to their Civil, Political, and Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, Revenue, Coins, Trade, Learning, &c.

GOVERNMENT cannot be with propriety ſaid to exiſt in Morocco, whoſe monarch is deemed the moſt deſpotic prince in the univerſe, having an uncontrolable power over the lives and property of his ſubjects, or rather vaſſals; for there is not a ſingle perſon in the whole empire who can pretend to the leaſt ſhadow of freedom, or dares openly to avow his ſentiments: theſe monarchs have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; to all which their ſubjects ſubmit with a degree of ſatisfaction almoſt incredible. Every military officer in the abſence of the emperor, has the power of life and death in his hand, and they ſeldom regard the form of a judicial proceeding. The infatuation of the people reſpecting their monarch is ſaid to be ſo great, that they think he does them a favour when he treats them with barbarity; and imagine, that to be murdered by him is a peculiar bleſſing, as it inſures their immediate admittance into paradiſe.

This monarch, beſides the unbounded power he exerciſes over the people's property during their lives, is the univerſal heir to all his ſubjects upon their deceaſe; ſo that the greateſt part of the wealth of the empire devolves to him. His titles are very exalted, being called, The moſt Glorious, Mighty, and Noble Emperor of Afric, King of Fez and Morocco, Tafilet, Suz, Dahra, and all the Algarbe and its territories in Afric, Grand Sherif (that is, deſcendant) of the prophet Mahomet, &c. &c.

Mr. Blathwait, who attended Mr. Ruſſel, the Engliſh ambaſſador to the court of Morocco, about the beginning of the reign of his late majeſty George II. gives us a very ſhocking account of the manners of the Moors at that miniſter's audience at the palace of Mequinez. He relates, that on the day appointed, a Spaniard, alcaide (i. e. governor) of the Chriſtians, and ſeveral officers of the palace, came to conduct the ambaſſador to court: that about twelve of them mounted, and rode in the following manner: the ambaſſador, between the baſſa who conducted him to Mequinez, and the baſſa's brother, preceded by twenty muſketeers; and the reſt of the Engliſh gentlemen, accompanied by another of the baſſa's brothers, and ſome other officers of the court: two of the ambaſſador's ſervants in liveries on horſeback, and after them the captives, and the Mooriſh and Jewiſh ſervants who walked on foot: the whole cloſed with a guard of horſe belonging to the baſſa: however, a drunken Moor of quality, in the ſuperabundance of his zeal, rode in amongſt them, calling them Chriſtian dogs and rogues, preſenting his piece at the Engliſh, and it was with ſome difficulty he was perſuaded to go about his buſineſs. Nor was this inſult taken any notice of; for, it ſeems, a flaming zeal for their ſuperſtition is an atonement for any crime they commit.

When they had entered into the firſt gate of the palace, they all alighted, and in the ſquare within it were found thirteen fine horſes of the emperor's, richly capariſoned and accoutred, and held by ſo many negro grooms, for ſtate: theſe the baſſa led them to take a view of; after which, having paſſed two or three ſquares more, they came to the emperor's apartment, but in ſuch a croud, that it was with a great deal of difficulty that they arrived there. After ſome time they were conducted into a long gallery, the floor and ſides whereof were covered with ſmall tiles an inch ſquare, of various colours. Hither his Britiſh majeſty's preſent was brought, and ſet out to the beſt advantage, conſiſting of a large cryſtal ſconce with twelve branches; eleven bales of coarſe cloth, each bale containing three pieces; three boxes of ſuperfine cloth, containing fifteen pieces; one box of French linen, called Britanies; two boxes, containing each fourteen loaves of double refined ſugar; one box of china ware; one box, containing eighteen pounds of tea; one box, containing three large china jars of ſweetmeats; one box of toys; one box with brocades, ſilver, tabbies, threads, ſatins, and gold lace; one caſe, containing a gun, and a pair of piſtols; four cheſts of Florence wine, and one box containing hollands and cambrics.

After waiting here about an hour, they were conducted to an open gallery, which gave the proſpect of a fine meadow within the palace, over the middle of which there is a terrace walk from the one end to the other, thick ſhaded with vines, ſupported by an arched frame. Having paſſed in a continual crowd ſtill a great way further, they were at length ſtopped, and given to underſtand the emperor was in the next room. Whereupon the baſſa, his brothers, and ſeveral other great officers, immediately pulled off their alhagues, their outward veſts, or habits of diſtinction, as well as their ſlippers, and each of the baſſa's brothers took a China jar of ſweet-meats, part of the preſent, to carry in to the emperor; and all the reſt of the preſent was carried in and placed in the emperor's ſight, before the ambaſſador was admitted: then two great doors were flung open, and they ſaw his majeſty ſitting under a canopy, in an open gallery, and at his feet, his favourite brother, Muley, with his prime miniſter, baſſa Empſael, a great fat negro.

When the ambaſſador was led up to the throne, he pulled off his hat, and made three bows; and having delivered the king of Great Britain's letter, tied up in a handkerchief, into the emperor's own hand, and a gold watch in another, he put on his hat and made a ſpeech, expreſſing the great eſteem his maſter had for his imperial majeſty, condoling with him on his father's death, and congratulating with him on his acceſſion to the throne, which was interpreted, our author obſerves, to very little purpoſe; for the emperor was ſo drunk, he could ſcare hold up his head: however, it ſeems, he underſtood ſo much by the ſpeech and the preſent, as to be very well pleaſed, and anſwered, "Buono, buono," ordering the alcaide of the Chriſtians to ſee they did not want wine and roaſt pigs every day, charging the prime miniſter to let the Chriſtian miniſter, the ambaſſador, have whatever he demanded. Then the courtiers proſtrated themſelves on their faces, and crawled upon their hands and knees to kiſs his feet: ſoon after which, his majeſty's eunuchs, finding him much out of order, carried him away and the court retired. While the ambaſſador waited to be admitted, there was ſuch a noiſe and diſturbance among the drunken courtiers, that he could compare it to nothing elſe but the common ſide of a goal; though, at their audience, things were a little compoſed.

This emperor, Muley Hamet Duhebby, was upwards of ſix feet high, about fifty years of age, of a fierce countenance, and much pitted with the ſmall pox, his face bloated, and his fore teeth out, and being a Mulatto of a tawny complexion, made a very indifferent figure: it being cold weather, he had a black cloak over a white alhague, or veſt; his turban was a green ſilk ſaſh, which being tied careleſly about his head, ſhewed he was drunk. All he had about him worth admiring, was a fine ſcymetar in a gold ſcabbard, richly ſet with precious ſtones.

After they had carried away the emperor, the confuſion among his drunken courtiers was as great as before; neither was there any care taken to conduct the ambaſſador back again to his houſe: they were puſhed and ſhoved about, and in danger of being trodden under foot, and inſtead of being aſſiſted by the officers of the court, the gates were ſhut againſt them, and extravagant ſums demanded for permiſſion to go through them. In the mean time the throng was very great, and their very buttons were cut off their cloaths before they could get away, and they expected every moment to be ſtripped by the mob: however, by bribing the porters very handſomely, they were ſo fortunate, at length, to eſcape out of the palace and get to their houſe. But to return to the emperor: It was uſual with him, it ſeems, to drink with his miniſters till he fell down dead drunk, and then was carried to bed by his eunuchs: and when he awaked again, he was ſure to give ſome examples of his cruel and fierce diſpoſition; inſomuch that his ſervants fled, and dreaded to come near him, and happy was the miniſter that could make an excuſe to be abſent, and eſcape the effects of his fury.

During the Engliſh ambaſſador's ſtay at Mequinez, the ſame emperor ſhot two men that waited on him, and endeavoured to kill his prime miniſter with his own hand: but this courtier keeping out of the way till his murdering rage was over, was then taken into favour again. He commanded two young Jewiſh women to be brought to his bed; and when he ſent them home again, hearing that their huſbands had preſumed to go to bed to them, he ordered both

both the men to be put to death. One of his miſtreſſes diſobliging him, he ordered all her teeth to be drawn out; and inquiring of her afterwards, being told ſhe was not recovered from the illneſs that operation had occaſioned, he ordered the man's teeth, who drew them, to be likewiſe pulled out, and ſent to her by way of ſatisfaction. For any trifling offence, or for his humour, he would order a man to be toſſed; that is, thrown up into the air by four luſty ſlaves, as they could, and then let fall again, whereby ſometimes the perſon was killed and at others made a cripple of: and ſuch feats as theſe, it ſeems, were his ſport and diverſion. We need not therefore wonder that the Engliſh ambaſſador haſtened to be diſmiſſed from ſuch a court as this, which is deemed the moſt faithleſs, and the people in general the moſt perfidious and baſe of any in the univerſe.

The demands Mr. Ruſſel was inſtructed to make at the court of Morocco, were, to get all ſuch captives releaſed as had been taken under Britiſh colours; to get reſtitution made to ſuch merchants, whoſe ſhips had been robbed by the Sallee pirates ſince the laſt peace, and to confirm that peace with the preſent emperor. But he was ſoon given to underſtand, that there was no reſtitution to be expected from this court; and with reſpect to the captives, they conſented to releaſe about a dozen of them, of which four were Engliſh, and for theſe the ambaſſador paid a great deal more than their ranſom could have been valued at. The prime miniſter, the favourite women, and every officer concerned in his diſpatches, were bribed again and again; nor was there a ſervant about the court but was perpetually begging ſomething of him, under pretence of ſome good offices they had done him during his reſidence there.

The Britiſh ambaſſador, after this, took his leave of the court of Mequinez, and began his march to Tangier, under a Mooriſh guard, commanded by officers, who had money allowed them by their ſuperiors to defray the whole expences of the journey, but which they put in their pockets, and made the ambaſſador pay his own and their charges upon the road; and beſides, forced the country people to furniſh proviſions, without allowing any thing for them. When the ambaſſador came to Tangier, he was under apprehenſions of being detained there by the baſſa, under pretence of ſome further demands: but the baſſa being then treating with the governor of Gibraltar for powder and other warlike ſtores he wanted, was ſo good as to permit the ambaſſador to embark for Gibraltar, where he arrived February 7, 1728. He had been promiſed two fine Barbary horſes, and a lion, by the court of Mequinez; but it ſeems they never intended to gratify him in this particular, unleſs he would have paid double the price for them, as he did for every thing elſe: and he was very glad to make his eſcape from that barbarous court without the preſents.

If a renegado, after he has profeſſed himſelf a diſciple of Mahomet, apoſtatizes, and turns Chriſtian again, he is burnt without mercy: murder, theft, and adultery, alſo, are puniſhed with death: and crimes againſt the ſtate are puniſhed with great cruelty; as impaling, dragging the priſoner through the ſtreets at a mule's heels till all his fleſh is torn off, throwing him from a high tower upon iron hooks, hanging him upon hooks till he dies, crucifying him againſt a wall.

Their forces, were they aſſembled in one place, would certainly conſtitute a very numerous and formidable army. It is computed, that the black cavalry and infantry do not amount to leſs than forty thouſand men; and the Mooriſh horſe and foot may be as many, but being diſperſed in ſeveral parts of this large empire, are not ſeen in ſuch numerous bodies as the negroes, who live in Mequinez, and have the guard of the emperor's perſon: the blacks are eſteemed their beſt horſe. The Europeans have experienced their bravery and military ſkill, both at Oran and Ceuta: they have fire arms as well as ſwords and lances: their troopers ride very ſhort, and their ſaddles have long peaks before and behind: their ſtirrup-irons are ſhaped to the foot, ſo that they can ſtand up and ſtrike when they make their blow; and no men ſhew more dexterity in riding, wheeling, or firing: their horſes are very ſwift, beautifully made, but not ſo ſtrong and heavy as ours.

They chiefly rely upon their cavalry both in their civil wars, and thoſe with foreigners. Their infantry, indeed, are numerous, and carry fire-arms; but are not diſciplined, and obſerve no manner of order; five hundred of their foot will fly before fifty horſe: nor do they underſtand how to attack or defend a town, which may be the reaſon they have ſcarce one place of ſtrength in the country, and but few guns mounted on the walls of their towns. They ſeem very ignorant in the management of great guns and bombs. Theſe are altogether left to the ſkill of the renegado Chriſtians, of whom there are ſome thouſands in their armies. They have a train of one hundred and fifty braſs guns in the palace of Mequinez, beſides ſeveral mortars, which are ſometimes drawn out in times of danger; but I do not find there are any mounted upon the walls.

Captain Blaithwait relates, concerning their ſhipping, that when he was there in the year 1727, their whole naval force conſiſted but of two twenty gun ſhips, the biggeſt not above two hundred tons, and a French brigantine they had taken, with ſome few row boats; and yet with theſe, being full of men, they iſſue from Sallee and Mamora, which lie on the Atlantic Ocean, near the ſtraights mouth, and make prize of great numbers of Chriſtian merchant ſhips, carrying their miſerable crews into captivity. Though they are at peace with Britain, they make no ſcruple of ſeizing and carrying their ſhips into Sallee, if they find a paſſenger on board, belonging to a nation at war with them; however they are uſually ſo good as to diſmiſs the ſhips, and their crews, after they have robbed them of ſome of their merchandize. The charge of theſe piratical cruizers, is borne intirely by private adventurers; though the emperor has a tenth of all the prizes and captives they make, which leads me to enquire into the revenues of this prince.

Theſe are either from the labour of the huſbandmen, and the fruits of the earth: or by duties upon goods imported and exported: the emperor has a tenth of all the corn, cattle, honey, wax, hides, rice, fruits, and produce of the ſoil. After his tythe is deducted, he is at liberty to purchaſe the remainder of the priſoners, if he thinks proper, at only fifty crowns per head. This produces immenſe profit to him, either by their ranſom or labour, for he makes them work, and ſupplies them with nothing but a ſcanty allowance of coarſe bread and oil. If they fall ſick, he gives them no aſſiſtance but leaves them to the fathers of a Spaniſh convent, who ſupply them with neceſſaries and medicines; but even the benevolence of theſe is taxed, as they pay him a conſiderable annual ſtipend, for a toleration to act with humanity to their fellow-creatures. The Jews pay a capitation tax, and all the commodities in which the Chriſtians deal are heavily aſſeſſed.

They have no ſhipping to carry on a foreign trade by ſea. But the Europeans bring them whatever they want from abroad; as linen and woollen cloth, ſtuffs, iron wrought and unwrought, arms, gunpowder, lead, and the like; for which they take in return, copper, wax, hides, Morocco leather, wool (which is ſuperfine), gums, ſoap, dates, almonds, and other fruits. Their trade by land, is either with Arabia or Negroland: to Mecca they ſend caravans, conſiſting of ſeveral thouſand camels, horſes and mules, twice every year, partly for traffic, and partly upon a religious account, great numbers of pilgrims taking that opportunity of paying their devotions to their great prophet. The goods they carry to the eaſt, are woollen manufactures, Morocco ſkins, indigo, cochineal and oſtrich feathers: and they bring back from thence, muſlins and drugs. By their caravans to Negroland, they ſend ſalt, ſilk and woollen manufactures; and bring back gold and ivory in return, but chiefly negroes; from hence it is, that their emperor recruits his black cavalry, though there are alſo great numbers born in the country, for they bring thoſe of both ſexes very young from Negroland; the females for breeders, and the males for ſoldiers, as they grow up: they firſt carry a muſket, and ſerve on foot, and after ſome time are prefered to be cavaliers; and as theſe have no other hopes or dependence but the favour of the emperor, they prove much the moſt dutiful and obſequious of all his ſubjects; and indeed ſupport the prince in his tyranny over the reſt, who would not probably have borne the barbarous cruelties of the two laſt reigns, if they had not been governed with a rod of iron in the hands of theſe negroes; who, like other foreign mercenaries, never enquire into the reaſonableneſs of their prince's commands, but execute his inhuman decrees without remorſe.

Their gold coin is a ducat, reſembling the ducat of Hungary, worth about nine ſhillings ſterling, and they uſually give three of them for a moidore. Merchants accompts are kept in ounces, an imaginary coin, ten of which make a ducat in merchants accompts; but in payments to the government, it is ſaid, they will reckon ſeventeen ounces and a half for a ducat. They have alſo a fleece, which is a copper coin leſs than a farthing, twenty of which

make a blanqueen; this laſt is a ſilver coin of about two-pence value.

In Morocco, learning is chiefly confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, as few attempt any thing higher, except the prieſts and doctors of the law. The favourite ſcience of the two latter orders, and what the people ignorantly admire, is, aſtrology; ſo that a ſuperſtitious belief in omens, predictions, &c. is general throughout the nation. Moſt of the towns have ſeveral public ſchools and academies, in which children are taught to read, write, caſt accounts, and repeat a ſhort catechiſm, which contains the principles of their religion.

Every Friday, which is their ſabbath, both ſexes viſit the ſepulchres of their anceſtors and relations, in blue habits, blue being their mourning colour. They greatly venerate the dead, embelliſh their tombs as much as their circumſtances will afford, and permit no Chriſtian to approach within a certain diſtance of them. They are very particular in the obſervation of the three following whimſical notions: 1. To place victuals and drink upon the tombs of their anceſtors and relations, at certain times, that the dead may not ſtarve in their graves. 2. To bury gold, ſilver, jewels, &c. with the corpſe, that the perſon may not be in bad circumſtances in the other world. 3. To dig the grave very wide, that the deceaſed may not be incommoded for want of room. They have another notion, equally ſingular and abſurd, which is, never to bury two perſons in the ſame grave, leſt they might have ſome difficulty in finding their own bones on the reſurrection-day. The prevailing opinion of the Moors is, that all perſons of any nation or religion, and of either ſex, are ſecure of ſalvation prior to the age of fifteen: but after that period they imagine that none but Muſſulmen can be ſaved. They enforce the attendance on public worſhip with great rigour; for the firſt neglect, the perſon is rendered incapable of being a witneſs in a court of juſtice; for the ſecond, fined; and for the third, burnt as an heretic: but they exclude women from theſe places. Games of chance are ſtrictly forbidden; and thoſe who are detected playing for money, are liable to be ſeverely puniſhed.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of Morocco and Fez, the Mauritania of the antients, no material tranſactions occur concerning it, till conquered by the Romans, who found, that the prevailing mode of government throughout Barbary was abſolute monarchy; and that Bogud (the firſt prince of whom we have any authentic account) was cotemporary with Julius Cæſar. This country, on the death of Bogud, became a Roman province, and was afterwards beſtowed by Auguſtus on the younger Juba, whoſe ſon Ptolemy was put to death by the tyrant Caligula. The Goths then over ran the country, and poſſeſſed it till they were driven out by the Saracens in the year 600. Theſe were again ſubdued by the Arabians, who divided Barbary into many kingdoms, till 1068, when they were all united into one ſovereignty under the family of the Almoravides; for Joſeph, the ſecond monarch of that race, founded Morocco, and not only ſubdued Fez, but the Mooriſh dominions in Spain. His grandſon, Albo Hali, was a great friend to learning; but a taſte for literature died with him. Mahomet, the fourth of this ſucceſſion, loſt the Mooriſh conqueſts in Spain; and after the reign of three ſucceeding monarchs, whoſe reigns were remarkable for nothing but domeſtic broils, the race of the Almoravides became extinct; after which, the race of the Merins raiſed themſelves to the regal dignity.

The Merins were a ſet of unhappy monarchs, all meeting with untimely ends. Alboacen, the ſixth of them, with an army conſiſting of four hundred thouſand foot, and ſeventy-five thouſand horſe, was defeated by the kings of Caſtile and Portugal at the head of only twenty thouſand foot and fourteen thouſand horſe. The race of the Merins becoming extinct in 1540, the Shariffs, or Cheriffs, the ſuppoſed ſucceſſors of Mahomet, were advanced to the imperial dignity, or rather by artifice and cruelty obtained the ſovereingty.

Amet, who was the firſt monarch of this line, was depoſed by his brother Mahomet, who, after a reign of continual inteſtine broils, was murdered by his own guards; and ſucceeded by his ſon,

Abdallah, who, for his ſecurity, put to death ten of his brothers out of twelve, and died unexpectedly, juſt at a time when a plot was ready to be put in execution for deſtroying him.

Mahomet, the ſon of Abdallah, fled immediately to Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal, who together with the two competitors for the ſovereignty of Morocco, were ſlain in 1578, at the famous battle of Alcazár.

The reigns of the three ſucceeding princes of this line contained nothing remarkable; but the eighth monarch, named Sidan, reſtored peace to his country. However, a gang of pirates, in his reign, poſſeſſed themſelves of the port of Sallee, when not having maritime ſtrength ſufficient to diſlodge them, he applied for aid to the court of England. The reigning monarch, Charles I. complied with his requeſt, and ſent ſome ſhips to his aſſiſtance, and all the pirates were taken or deſtroyed; and the emperor, in return, ſent three hundred Chriſtian ſlaves as a preſent to his Britannic majeſty. This worthy monarch died in 1630, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon,

Muley Abdelmelech, who was remarkable for his cruelty and drunkenneſs, and was, after having reigned four years, murdered by a Chriſtian ſlave. He was ſucceeded by his brother,

Muley Elwaly, a prince of ſweet diſpoſition and generous ſpirit, who began his reign by releaſing all ſtate priſoners, and increaſing the pay of his troops. He died much regretted, after having enjoyed the crown twelve years.

Muley Hamed Sheik ſucceeded his brother Muley Elwaly; but being murdered by the Arabs, they raiſed one of their own chiefs, named Crumel Hack to the crown, who was, on his demiſe, ſucceeded by Shariff Muley, king of Tafilet. The latter engaging in a war with Sidi Omar, prince of Illoch, was defeated, taken priſoner, and cloſely confined; during his captivity, he was attended by a negro woman frightfully ugly, with whom he nevertheleſs cohabited, and ſhe bore him two ſons; the eldeſt named Muley Archy, ſucceeded in the kingdom of Tafilet. The reign of this prince was but ſhort; for being uſed to drink immoderately, he one day mounted a ſpirited horſe when intoxicated, and riding furiouſly into a grove of orange-trees, he was thrown againſt the trunk of a tree, fractured his ſcull, and expired of the wound. His nephew Hamet cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed ſovereign at Morocco, while his half brother (by a white woman) took the ſame ſtep at Tafilet; but Muley Iſhmael, his full brother by the negro woman, proved too hard for both, for he wreſted the crown from them, and began his reign in the year 1672.

Muley Iſhmael was remarkable for an odd jumble of policy and abſurdity, cruelty and religion. His ſtrictneſs during his whole reign was ſuch, that he would never drink any wine or ſtrong liquor; he obſerved the ramadan, or Mahometan lent, four whole months every year, and with a more than ordinary abſtinence. He was no leſs a ſcrupulous obſerver of the uſual waſhings, public prayers, and other branches of his law; and never undertook any thing of moment, without proſtrating himſelf a good while upon the ground, and praying for the divine protection and aſſiſtance, fully ſatisfied that Mahomet would obtain it from heaven; ſo that whatever was the reſult of his devotions, he conſtantly believed that prophet was the immediate cauſe and director of it.

Though he was eaſy of acceſs, and very rigid and impartial in the execution of juſtice, yet he would ſometimes run into wild extravagancies, of which the following is an inſtance: A poor farmer of the Berebers race, having complained that ſome of his negroes, (whom by the way, he was noted for keeping at ſhort allowance) had ſtolen from him a yoke of oxen, which were his ſole dependence, he ordered all the negroes to paſs before him, and ſhot every one whom the farmer accuſed: but aſking him afterwards, what amends he could make him for the loſs of ſo many ſtout negroes, and the man being at a loſs what to anſwer, he made him undergo the ſame fate. He was for ever building and pulling down again; alledging, that he did it to keep his ſubjects ſo buſy, that they might have no time to mutiny or rebel; for, ſays he, "I have a bag of rats: unleſs I keep the bag ſtirring, they will eat their way through it." He had three thouſand wives, five thouſand concubines, nine hundred ſons, and three hundred daughters; all of whom, at times, felt the effects of his cruelty and capricious temper. He would frequently ſhoot, ſtab, or behead both ſlaves and ſubjects for his amuſement; and was ſo avaricious, that he ſpent his whole life in plundering his people, and amaſſing wealth: and indeed every thing was made ſubſervient to his miſerable temper.

When any body complained to him of having been robbed or defrauded, the criminal was firſt ordered to make reſtitution of the property in queſtion, not to the perſon aggrieved, but to himſelf, as he aſſerted that he was the only ſufferer, his dignity being inſulted by the crime; and then a conſiderable fine was levied upon the culprit, as a recompence to offended juſtice; but all went into his own

 coffers.

coffers. He extorted vaſt ſums of money from his ſubjects by unjuſt and cruel means; and was ſo ſordidly mean, as to keep the ſervants of his houſhold at ſhort allowance, and not allow his ſoldiers any thing to ſubſiſt on, telling them in a ſurly tone, that his mules, camels or other beaſts, aſked him for no maintainance, and therefore they might get theirs where they could find it, thus licenſing his army to plunder all that came in their way.

In proceſs of time, one of his ſons, Muley Mahomet, (who was the moſt accompliſhed, and indeed the only one of them who had a princely education), raiſed a rebellion againſt him; but being taking priſoner by his brother Muley Sidan, his right hand and left foot were cut off by the emperor's order, of which wounds he died; and Muley Sidan was appointed heir to the crown; but his cruelty and drunkenneſs were ſuch, that he was murdered by his own wives, before the death of his father. At length Muley Iſhmael, one of the moſt infernal monſters of cruelty and avarice that ever exiſted, died a natural death in 1727, having reigned fifty-five years; which, in a country where inſurrections, dethronements, and aſſaſſinations, were ſo common, is a circumſtance truly remarkable and aſtoniſhing.

On the death of Muley Iſhmael, his ſon Muley Hamet Deby ſucceeded to the crown: having been appointed to that dignity by his father merely becauſe he was the moſt diſſolute of all his children; for Muley Iſhmael fancied that his ſon's drunkenneſs and intemperance would be foils to ſet off his own ſobriety and abſtemiouſneſs; for he imagined that his temperance in eating and drinking made amends for his inſatiable avarice, unbounded cruelty, and exceſſes with reſpect to women. Muley Hamet was depoſed by his favourite eunuch, and his brother Abdelmelech proclaimed emperor: but the latter ſoon rendering himſelf odious by his cruelties, Muley Hamet was again reſtored to the throne: Abdelmelech was kept in cloſe confinement for ſome time, but at length ſtrangled, by order of his brother; and Muley Hamet, five days after, died by exceſſive drinking, being March 22, 1729.

The next ſucceſſor was Abdalla, another of the ſons of Muley Iſhmael; when the duke de Ripperda, having been driven from Spain, offered his ſervices to Abdalla, who accepted them, made him a baſſa, and careſſed him as his chief favourite. Ripperda then laid a plan before the emperor, which was, to drive the Spaniards from their poſſeſſions on the coaſt of Africa, and even to invade Spain; but his deſigns were fruſtrated by the bravery of the Spaniards, and the ſuperior ſkill of their engineers. Abdalla at length increaſed daily in cruelty, killed multitudes of people, attempted the life of his own mother, who, to be out of his reach, made a pilgrimage to Mecca: this monſter was heard to expreſs theſe ſentiments, "My ſubjects have no other title to their lives but my will; and my greateſt pleaſure is, to kill them with my own hand." His cruelties at length rendered him ſo odious, that he was depoſed by the black army, and his brother Muley Ali, raiſed to the throne in his ſtead. But this prince, being almoſt continually ſtupefied by an immoderate uſe of a ſadorific herb called archicha, they deemed him unfit to reign, and therefore deprived him of the crown, and, in 1736, reſtored it to his brother, who was now unbounded in his cruelty, ſacrificing many hundreds to his revenge, anger, or caprice, without the leaſt regard to rank, age or ſex. This occaſioned Abdalla to be again depoſed, and Muley Sidi, another prince of the blood royal, was placed on the throne. Abdalla, however, raiſed an army, gave battle to and defeated his rival, and once more reſumed the ſovereignty.

The ſiege of Ceuta, which commenced October 23, 1774, and that of Melille, which took place on the 8th of December of the ſame year, by the troops of Morocco, are the moſt recent tranſactions of which we have any certain account relative to this empire. The court of Spain had for ſome years paſt greatly neglected theſe places; ſo that neither the garriſon or fortifications were in a proper condition to ſuſtain a ſiege; but thoſe diſadvantages were overbalanced by the conduct of the Spaniſh officers, the bravery of the men, and the total want of diſcipline and experience in the Mooriſh troops, which occaſioned the emperor's army not only to fail of ſucceſs in their attack upon thoſe two places, but even to be repulſed by the ſmall garriſon of Penon de Velaz, a leſs conſiderable fortreſs upon that coaſt. Warlike preparations were continued on both ſides, though little was effected on either; and Melille was either blockaded or beſieged till the middle of March, when the Moors thought proper to abandon the enterprize.

SECT. IV.

Containing the Deſcription and preſent State of the Kingdom of ALGIERS, and its principal Towns.

THIS kingdom (which takes its name from its metropolis) is four hundred and eighty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and one hundred miles in breadth, where wideſt, and is ſituated between thirty and thirty-ſeven degrees north latitude, and one degree weſt, and nine degrees eaſt longitude, being bounded by the Mediterranean, on the north; mount Atlas, on the ſouth; the kingdom of Tunis, on the eaſt; and the river Mulvia, which ſeparates it from the empire of Morocco, on the weſt.

The principal rivers, which riſe in mount Atlas, and run northward into the Mediterranean, are, 1. The river Areſgola, or Hartegol, which falls into the Mediterranean, about ſeven leagues to the weſtward of Oran. 2. Aſſafran, which diſcharges itſelf into the ſea, five leagues to the weſtward of Algiers. 3. Chilef, which falls into the ſea, near Moſtagan. 4. Sofaya, which runs into the ſea, to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers. 5. Sef Gomar which runs by Conſtantina, into the Mediterranean. 6. Zinganor, or Major, which falls into the ſea, near Bugia. And, 7. Mira, which diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, near Arzea. None of theſe have a very long courſe, riſing but in the mountains of Atlas, or other hills in this kingdom: nor do we find that any of them are navigable, at leaſt that there is any navigation upon them: though there are ſome of them large enough, and would probably be made navigable, if any other people but the Turks were poſſeſſed of them; and indeed they appear ſo very indolent here, that they have not one bridge or ferry over any river in the country, but go about frequently ſome miles to find a ford; and, if there happens to fall heavy rains, travellers are forced to wait till the waters are down again, before they can paſs them.

This kingdom is uſually divided into eighteen provinces, namely, 1. Algiers Proper. 2. Tremeſen. 3. Termez. 4. Bujeyah. 5. Angan. 6. Beni Arazid. 7. Miliana. 8. Couco. 9. Labez. 10. Tebeſſa. 11. Human Bar. 12. Hareſgol. 13. Oran. 14. Moſtagan. 15. Bona. 16. Sargel. 17. Irgeri. 18. Conſtantina.

The climate of Algiers is remarkably ſerene and fine, ſo that the country ſeems to enjoy a perpetual verdure, and the people are unacquainted with the extremes of heat and cold. This is to be underſtood only of the parts towards the ſea, the inland parts being principally wild and barren, and very little inhabited except by a great variety of wild creatures, particularly lions, tygers, leopards, buffaloes, wild boars, ſtags, porcupines, monkies, oſtriches, &c.

The provinces beforementioned, into which Algiers is divided, are comprehended under three general heads: I. The eaſtern, or Levantine; II. The weſtern; and, III. The ſouthern government. The towns in the firſt are, Bona, Conſtantina, Gigeri, Bugia, Steſſa, Tebef, Zamoura, Biſcara, Necanz, and Couco. The ſecond contains Oran, Tremeſen, Moſtagan, Tenez and Sercelli. The third, or ſouthern government, has no houſes in it, the inhabitants being almoſt wild, and living in tents, which they remove at pleaſure.

Bona, ſuppoſed to be the antient Hippo, a ſea-port, built by the Romans, was once the capital of the province of its name. It lies on the Mediterranean, latitude thirty-ſeven, about ninety miles north-eaſt of Conſtantina; and near it is a coral-fiſhery. It is a poor mean place, thinly inhabited, and much expoſed to the incurſions of the Arabs. The only fragments of its antient grandeur are the ruins of a noble cathedral or monaſtery. Near this is a famous ſpring, called St. Auſtin's well, and reſorted to by French and Italian ſailors. The fortreſs hath a garriſon of three hundred Turks, commanded by an aga, who is governor of the town. The celebrated St. Auſtin is ſaid to have lived and died here. Charles V. took this town, among others, in his expedition againſt Tunis, but it was recovered by the Turks not long afterwards.

Conſtantina is ſituated on a river forty-eight miles from the ſea, and about ninety miles ſouth-eaſt of Bugia, latitude thirty-five. It was the Ciſta-Numidiæ of the Romans, and received its preſent name from Conſtantina, the daughter of Conſtantine the Great, who rebuilt it with great magnificence: the ſituation is on a peninſula, difficult of acceſs, except towards the ſouth-weſt. It is one mile in circumference, well fortified, and contains many antique fragments, particularly a noble bridge, near which is a large

large ſubterraneous aqueduct, that terminates in a caſcade, into which ſtate criminals are thrown, and receive their deaths by being daſhed to pieces againſt the rocky bottom. The bey of the eaſtern government reſides here, and has under his command three hundred Turkiſh horſe, and one thouſand five hundred Mooriſh ſoldiers. The inhabitants are opulent, haughty, and ſpirited. The neighbouring mountainous territory contains a robuſt, hardy, and brave people, tenacious of their liberty, civilized, and humane. They furniſh the neighbouring towns with great quantities of fruit and other proviſions, and are able to raiſe forty thouſand fighting men; on which account the bey of Conſtantina ſtands in great awe of them. They are, however, deſtitute of fire-arms, and have only lances and arrows to annoy the enemy with. On the ſea coaſt, at a ſmall diſtance from Conſtantina, ſtand the ruins of a Roman colony, antiently called Colo. It is ſituated on a high rock, and has a garriſon under the command of an aga: adjoining to it is a French factory, where the Moors bring hides, wax, and wool for ſale; and at no great diſtance are the remains of the antient city of Stora, the bay of which is ſtill good. Conſtantina was the reſidence of the kings of the province of the ſame name, till 1520, when it was conquered by Barbaroſſa, who annexed it to the territory of Algiers. Some noble ruins are found in and about this town.

Gigeri is ſituated on the ſea coaſt between Bona and Bujeyah, at about the diſtance of fifteen miles from each. The town (which contains about one thouſand five hundred houſes, inhabited by very poor people) is defended by a fort and a ſmall garriſon. The whole territory contains no other town, the natives living in a roving wild manner, robbing all they can come at, plundering any ſhip that is ſo unfortunate as to be wrecked upon the coaſt, and treating the crew with the moſt ſavage ferocity. The dey himſelf cannot reduce them to any kind of order, as they fly to places inacceſſible to all but themſelves, and ſet the Algerine army at defiance. The French were fortifying themſelves here in the year 1666; but were driven from thence by the Algerines, and obliged to leave their cannon and moſt of their effects behind them.

Bugia, formerly the capital of a kingdom of the ſame name, is ſituated at the mouth of the river Major, about twenty leagues to the eaſtward of Algiers. It now lies in ruins, and contains nothing remarkable but the ſepulchre of Seedy Buſgree, the titular ſaint of the place. Here are three caſtles, two at the port, and one upon a rock. The inhabitants deal in iron-works, particularly plough ſhares, oil, wax, &c. The Engliſh admiral, in 1671, took or deſtroyed nine Algerine men of war here, which the caſtle was not able to protect from his attack.

Steſſa, or Steffa, is ſituated in a fertile valley, about ſixty miles to the ſouth of Bugia, and fifteen from the ſea: it exhibits only the melancholy ruins of its former magnificent buildings, containing now about three hundred families, who are miſerably poor.

Tebef, is at preſent quite decayed, and very thinly inhabited, though it was antiently a flouriſhing city.

Zamoura, is reduced to as deſpicable a ſituation as the two former, by the tyranny of the Algerine government, though the territory is one of the moſt fertile ſpots in all Barbary. It is defended by a fort with a good garriſon; and has a market every Monday, which is frequented by the Arabs.

Biſcara, ſituated in five degrees fifty minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-five degrees ten minutes north latitude, has a fort and garriſon to keep the inhabitants of the neighbouring diſtrict in awe. The people here are very ignorant, and lead a wandering kind of ſavage life; but their chief employ is catching and taming wild beaſts, particularly lions and tygers, which they carry for ſale to Algiers.

Necanz, is one of the pleaſanteſt towns in Barbary, being ſituated about ſixty miles to the ſouth of Steſſa. It is watered by an agreeable river, whoſe banks are adorned with a variety of beautiful trees. The inhabitants in general are polite, the women handſome, the houſes neat, the gardens well laid out, and the neighbouring territory fertile. The town contains a magnificent moſque, and a large well endowed college for the education of Mahometan youth.

Couco, is ſituated between Algiers and Bugia. It was formerly the metropolis of a kingdom of the ſame name; but the ſovereigns entering into frequent alliances with the Spaniſh court, the Algerine government, in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, laid waſte the whole country, and deſtroyed every town in it. The inhabitants are independent, and dwell in the mountains, which are very fertile: the Algerines keep them miſerably poor, by preventing them from carrying on any kind of commerce, as they formerly did.

The weſtern, or ſecond Algerine government is divided into the five following places: the firſt is,

Oran, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, latitude thirty-ſix degrees, eaſt longitude one, about two hundred and fifty miles weſt of Algiers. It lies partly in a plain, and partly upon the aſcent of a hill, and is about a mile and a half in circumference, as well fortified as the ground about it will permit; but, it being commanded by ſome of the neighbouring hills, if there be not a garriſon of ten or twelve thouſand men to defend the avenues, diſtant caſtles, and redoubts, as well as the town itſelf, it cannot ſuſtain a long ſiege.

As the Spaniſh coaſts and merchant ſhips had ſuffered much from the corſairs or rovers of this town, Ferdinand, king of Spain, ſent over an army, under the command of his prime miniſter, Cardinal Ximenes, in the year 1509, to beſiege it; who having a correſpondence with ſome of the inhabitants, when the Moors ſallied out with the beſt part of the garriſon againſt the Chriſtian army, their friends in the town ſhut the gates againſt them, and the cardinal obtained an eaſy conqueſt, killing above four thouſand Moors, and delivering at the ſame time twenty thouſand Chriſtian ſlaves out of captivity: the Turks of Algiers made ſeveral attempts to recover this town from time to time for near two hundred years; but were always repulſed till the year 1708, when they made themſelves maſters of it, by the treachery or cowardice of the governor, as the Spaniards give out, and remained in poſſeſſion of Oran till the year 1732. But king Philip, having at this time no other enemy to contend with, and a fine army of veteran troops, that had no other employment, embarked a good body of them at Alicant, about the middle of June 1732, under the command of the Conde de Montemar, who landed near Oran, on the 29th of the ſame month, with very little oppoſition; and, having afterwards gained the height of the mountains above Oran, the garriſon abandoned the place, without waiting to be beſieged in form: of which tranſaction we received repeated advice in our common news-papers; but the account the Turks give of this enterprize affords ſome further particulars. According to them, the dey of Algiers, believing that this armament of the Spaniards was intended againſt his capital, did not ſend ſuch reinforcements to Oran as he would have done, if he had expected they would have attempted that city: However, the bey or viceroy of Oran had aſſembled an army of twenty thouſand men, for the defence of the place, moſt of them horſe; with which he endeavoured to hinder the deſcent of the Spaniards; but his troops were diſordered by the continual fire of the cannon of the enemy from their men of war and gallies. He attacked them alſo after they were landed; but, the ground being unfit for cavalry, and his horſe ſtill galled by the Spaniſh artillery, he was obliged to retire; and thereupon determined to wait for a reinforcement of four thouſand Turks, and ſix thouſand Moors, which he daily expected from Algiers, before he engaged the Chriſtians again: and, in the mean time, for fear of the worſt, removed all his effects, his treaſure, and his women, out of Oran to a place of ſecurity: whereupon the garriſon and inhabitants were in the greateſt conſternation; imagining they ſhould be ſoon abandoned by the governor, and ſacrificed to the Chriſtians; and thereupon packed up all that they had, after the baſſa's example, and kindly quitted the town to the Chriſtians without a blow; leaving in it an hundred and forty-ſix pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and at leaſt fifty ſhip-loads of proviſions, which contributed very much towards the preſervation of the conqueſt; for the ſea was ſo tempeſtuous they could receive nothing from their fleet for ſeveral days.

However, the baſſa attacked the Spaniſh army as they were marching into the place; and, though he found it impoſſible then to ſave the town, ſo obſtinate was the engagement, that the Spaniards loſt near five thouſand men; and were afterwards ſo much harraſſed by the Turks, before they could put the place in a poſture of defence, that great part of their army was cut off, and amongſt them their new governor the marquis of Santa Cruz, and ſeveral of their beſt generals. But to proceed:

This city was the reſidence of a bey, and, though greatly fallen from its priſtine ſplendor, is ſtill the beſt fortified place in the kingdom, except the city of Algiers. About ſix miles from Oran, ſtand the ruins of the antient city of Batha, where a little chapel is built to the memory of a

marabout, who ſaved up money enough to maintain five hundred diſciples, whoſe ſole buſineſs was, to repeat a long Mahometan litany, by the help of their beads, at certain hours. Oran, is ſtill in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards.

Tremeſen (the province), is bounded on the north, by the Mediterranean ſea; on the eaſt, by a province called Africa; on the ſouth, by the deſert of Saharah; and on the weſt, by the kingdom of Fez; it is above three hundred and ſeventy miles in length, and one hundred and twenty-five in breadth. The capital town, of the ſame name, is ſituated ninety miles ſouth-weſt of Oran, and ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, well fortified; has five gates with draw-bridges before them, and a ſtrong caſtle containing very handſome barracks for the janiſaries who are in garriſon. Tremeſen, while the metropolis of the kingdom of the ſame name, was a noble city, but is now fallen greatly to decay; for out of one hundred and fifty moſques and one hundred and ſixty baths, there are remaining only eight of the former, and four of the latter; and the place exhibits little but the fragments of its antient magnificence, among which, the remains of a reſervoir, or baſon for water, are the moſt conſpicuous. The inhabitants are extremely indigent. The territory contiguous to it is dry, barren, and mountainous, except on the north ſide, where there are plains abounding in corn, fruits, and paſtures.

Moſtagain, is ſituated fifty miles eaſt of Oran. This town is built in the form of a theatre opening to the ſea, and ſurrounded on every other ſide with rocks that hang over it. The ruins of an old Mooriſh caſtle ſtand in a ſpace between the rocks, and there is a ſtrong ſtone wall towards the port, with a modern built caſtle, garriſoned by a number of Turks. The citadel is erected upon the ſummit of one of the rocks, and commands both city and territory: the haven is commodious, and the town is well ſupplied with freſh water. The neighbouring mountains are inhabited by a people called Magarabas, who live in tents, poſſeſs a great number of flocks, and pay to the dey of Algiers twelve thouſand crowns annually. There is a handſome moſque in this town.

Tenez, is ſituated about one hundred miles to the eaſtward of Oran, and twenty miles eaſt of Moſtagan, and at a league diſtant from the ſea, where it has a convenient port. Here is a caſtle that was once a royal palace, and in which the governor reſides. The fortifications are ſtrong, the garriſon numerous, and the neighbouring territory fertile. This was ſuppoſed to have been the Julia Cæſarea of the antients.

Sercelli, lies between Tenez and Algiers, about twenty-four miles to the weſtward of the latter. It is defended by a Turkiſh garriſon, and has a little port, which will only admit of ſmall veſſels. This was antiently a large populous city, but is at preſent a very poor deſolate place.

The third Algerine government, being the ſouthern diſtrict, is inhabited by a wild ſet of people, who like ſome of the Tartars, roam from place to place, and live in tents while they reſide in any particular ſpot. The territory itſelf is hilly, a part of mount Atlas running through it: the only riches of the people are their numerous flocks and herds. The government exacts a tribute from them, but the bey is obliged to come annually at the head of an army to collect it; and many of them retire to inacceſſible places till the troops are withdrawn, in order to evade the payment.

We ſhall now proceed to give a particular deſcription of the metropolis and chief city in the kingdom.

Algiers is ſituated in latitude thirty-ſeven, weſt longitude three and a half, on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, a little to the eaſtward of the river Safran: it is built on the ſide of a mountain; the houſes flat roofed, terraſſed, and white-waſhed; and, riſing gradually from the ſea-ſhore up the hill, forms a kind of amphitheatre, and appears very beautifully on the approaching it by ſea; but this, like moſt other Turkiſh towns, looks better at a diſtance than when we are in it: The moſques, domes, ſpires, caſtles, and palace ſtanding in full view, give us a great idea of the place; but, as the ſtreets are extremely narrow, and the private houſes but mean, our expectations are not anſwered when we come to examine it cloſely: however, there is this convenience, that the inhabitants can viſit each other from the tops of the houſes almoſt all over the town, without going into the ſtreets. The walls are about a league in circumference, defended by ſome baſtions and ſquare towers between them: the port is ſecured by a pier or mole, in length about five hundred paces, extended from the continent to a ſmall rocky iſland, where ſtands a caſtle, called the Lantern, with three tier of braſs cannon, beſides other fortifications, lately erected for its defence, ſince the French bombardment: the town has five gates; and in it are ten great moſques, or Mahometan temples; fifty leſſer moſques, three colleges, and abundance of ſchools, where the children are brought up with the utmoſt prejudice to Chriſtianity. It is computed, there are about an hundred thouſand ſouls in the city.

The fortifications towards the ſea are much ſtronger, and more conſiderable, than thoſe on the land ſide: The mole was the work of Cheredin, the ſon of Barbaroſſa, as well as many of the other fortifications; for that monarch employed all the Chriſtian ſlaves in the improvement of the old, and conſtruction of new fortifications in and about Algiers; and, by perſonally inſpecting their proceedings, had the ſatisfaction to ſee the whole completed in the ſpace of three years.

To the ſouth, there is another fortreſs with three batteries to defend the entrance of the harbour. The ſlaves are continually employed in bringing ſtones from a quarry in the neighbourhood which they lay on the ſand, to defend the mole from the impetuoſity of the waves; and this laborious work is obliged to be repeated continually, becauſe the ſea conſtantly waſhes them away, and makes a perpetual ſupply neceſſary. The embraſures of the caſtle and batteries are in good repair; and the cannon, with their carriages, and all other neceſſary utenſils, are kept in excellent order.

This city is ſuppoſed to contain one hundred thouſand Mahometans, and one thouſand five hundred Jews, two thouſand Chriſtians ſlaves, and ſome renegadoes. There is one ſtreet, which is broad and handſome, and paſſes quite through the town from eaſt to weſt, in which the houſes and ſhops are elegant and capacious, and the markets are kept here; but all the other ſtreets are narrow, incommodious, and dirty. Some travellers have accounted for the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, by aſſerting that they were ſo contrived to keep off the extreme heat of the ſun, and others attribute their being built in that manner to the frequency of earthquakes, on which account the ſtreets are not only contracted, but the houſes low, and propped by pieces of timber paſſing acroſs the ſtreets from one to the other.

The houſes appearing one above another, make a very fine appearance from the ſea: they are about fifteen thouſand in number, are built either of ſtone or brick, upon a ſquare plan, with a paved court in the centre. Round the court is a double range of galleries one above the other, and both ſupported by columns. The tops of the houſes are all flat: for which reaſon they walk upon them in the evening to take the air; and many embelliſh them with pretty gardens, placing a neat ſummer-houſe in one corner. The people are obliged, by the laws of the place, to white-waſh their houſes inſide and out, at leaſt once a year; but all who can afford it, do it much oftener. Their furniture is exceeding mean, conſiſting only of a few wooden and earthen utenſils, a mat, and two quilts laid upon a few boards to ſerve as bed and bedſtead. As there are no ſquares or large vacancies throughout the city, the inhabitants may paſs from one end of it to the other over the roofs of the houſes, and moſt of them viſit each other this way. Though the houſes in general are mean, many of the principal people have very fine edifices, the pillars and pavements of which are of a very beautiful marble, and the cielings and folding-doors finely carved, painted, and gilt. Of theſe, the palace of the dey ſtands in the center of the city, and is the moſt magnificent building therein. It has two grand halls, in one of which the divan meets every Sunday, Monday, and Tueſday. This building is very extenſive, and ſurrounded by two ſuperb galleries, one above the other, ſupported by marble pillars.

Here are noble ſtructures erected as barracks for the Turkiſh troops: they are adorned with fountains, and contain many ſpacious and convenient apartments. Married men are not permitted to lodge here, but take up their reſidence either in private houſes, or in one of the four ſendacas of the place; the latter being large commodious buildings, conſiſting of ſeveral ranges of apartments, warehouſes, &c. which are let indiſcriminately to all who chuſe to take them, and ſerve inſtead of caravanſeras or inns. Chriſtian ſtrangers, if of any conſideration, are uſually accommodated at the conſul's houſe, according to the nation they belong to, but the poorer Levantine, or other traders, lodge at the abovementioned places, and may eat and drink according to their circumſtances or inclinations

tions, as there are many cook-ſhops, taverns, and other public-houſes, kept either by the Chriſtian ſlaves of the dey, or by the Jews, who will accommodate any perſon, or deal in any commodity. Here are one hundred and ſeven moſques, ſuperbly built, and chiefly ſituated near the ſea ſide; the baths are numerous, and in general large, ſumptuous, paved with marble, and well furniſhed with all requiſite conveniences. The Mahometans are obliged by their religion to uſe them five times daily, but their pleaſure often prompts them to go ſtill more frequently. A number of baths are appropriated to the uſe of women only, who do not reſort to them for the benefit of bathing alone, but alſo for the ſake of intriguing; for though the moſt dreadful puniſhments attend detection, yet the Algerine women venture every thing, that they may purſue their inclinations. There is a law enacted here, which is ſtrictly put in execution, purſuant to which, any woman who is convicted of being engaged in a criminal correſpondence with a Chriſtian, is ſentenced to be thrown into the ſea, with her head tied in a ſack, in caſe her lover does not turn Mahometan. Examples of this ſevere puniſhment are frequently ſeen; notwithſtanding which, the married women and maidens are fired with a moſt violent paſſion for the Chriſtians, and there are perhaps as many intrigues in Algiers as in any city in Chriſtendom.

About ſixty of the baths are uſed for bathing; but, beſides theſe, ſix others are converted into priſons for the Chriſtian ſlaves, in each of which there is a chapel for the free exerciſe of their religion. Every ſlave is let out at a certain hour in the morning, and muſt be punctual at night to the time limited for their return to be locked up; each of them is allowed a mattraſs and a rug for a bed.

There are ſeveral tolerable edifices without the walls of the town, which add to the beauty of the environs, particularly the marine officer's public hall, a marabout's ſuperb dwelling, and a variety of Turkiſh ſepulchres and monuments; among the latter, ſix magnificent tombs of a circular figure are the moſt conſpicuous: theſe were erected to the memory of ſix deys, who were ſucceſſively elected, and then murdered in the divan within a few days. It is to be obſerved, that the tombs of deys and baſſas are diſtinguiſhed by a ſtone, on which a turban is carved in relievo; thoſe of the aga's and other military officers, by a pile fixed in the ground cloſe to the coffin; thoſe of the ſea captains, by a ſtaff with a gilded ball at the top; and ſtones, in the form of a coffin, are laid on the graves of the common people.

The city of Algiers had formerly none but rain water, and the inhabitants were often greatly diſtreſſed upon that account: till a Moor, who had been driven from Spain, contrived, by means of two aqueducts, to introduce as much into the city as was requiſite to ſupply one hundred fountains with water. This water, which is allowed to be excellent, is brought thither by a long courſe of pipes and conduits, from a great variety of rivulets that have their ſources on the adjacent mountains.

The circumjacent country is very fertile, and the gardens, groves, and country ſeats numerous; in their gardens they uſe but little art, but truſt to nature in moſt productions of the earth, which occaſions a wild exuberance to prevail throughout the whole, and many of the fruits and vegetables not to arrive at the perfection they might be brought to by means of ingrafting, pruning, tranſplanting, &c. gardens are not walled, but ſurrounded by incloſures of Barbary fig-trees, which, from their compactneſs and prickles, are more ſecure than any other kind of fence. Among other rich ſpots in Algiers Proper, the great plain of Metijah is admired for its aſtoniſhing fertility: it is fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, includes many delightful villas, fragrant groves, and pleaſant gardens, and produces ſuch a profuſion of the moſt delicious fruits of all kinds, rice, roots, and grain of every ſpecies, that the inhabitants enjoy every year two, and frequently three crops.

The hot baths of Meereega are the only natural curioſities in the vicinity of this city; the principal of them is twelve feet ſquare, and four deep; the waters are exceeding hot; and, when they have filled the larger baſon, diſcharge themſelves into a ſmaller, where the Jews bathe, as they are not permitted to uſe the ſame bath as the Mahometans. Theſe hot baths proceed from the great quantities of ſulphur, nitre, and other inflammable bodies in the bowels of the earth; from whence likewiſe are cauſed the frequent earthquakes that the kingdom in general, and the city of Algiers in particular, are ſubject to.

SECT. V.

Of the Cuſtoms, Manners, Languages, &c. of the Inhabitants, alſo the Civil and Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of ALGIERS.

THE moſt antient poſſeſſors of Algiers were ſtiled Berebers; but the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of a mixture of theſe, with the Moors or Moreſcos driven from Spain, Arabians, Levantines, Turks, Jews, Chriſtian ſlaves of various nations, and the children deſcended from all the above combinations of people; the Moors and Arabians are the moſt numerous: the former are divided into two orders; namely, thoſe who live in towns and follow piracy, or various profeſſions by land or ſea, and others who wander about, not being poſſeſſed of either land or riches. The firſt are the citizens of the kingdom, the latter the bulk of the people.

We ſhall firſt deſcribe the wandering ſort, who are diſtinguiſhed into various tribes, each forming an itinerant village, and every family living in a portable tent; they ſubſiſt by the produce of the lands which they farm of thoſe of the firſt order; they pay their rent to their landlords in corn, herbs, fruit, honey, wax, &c. and a tribute to the dey, according to the number of the family in each moving camp. Their tents are mean, their utenſils trifling, their circumſtances poor, and their manner of living filthy. The family, and all domeſtic animals, lie promiſcuouſly in the hut together, except the dogs, which are placed on the outſide as guards. They live chiefly on rice, bread, fruit, and plain water, and their principal employ is huſbandry, or breeding bees and ſilk-worms.

The dreſs of the men is only a long piece of coarſe cloth wrapped round their ſhoulders, and falling down to their ancles, and a cap of the ſame. The women wear a piece of woollen ſtuff that covers them from their ſhoulders to their knees; they braid their hair, and adorn it with glaſs beads and fiſhes teeth, they deck their arms and legs with bracelets of ivory, horn, and even wood; and blacken their cheeks, foreheads, arms, legs, &c. The children are ſuffered to go naked till ſeven or eight years of age, when they cover them with a few rags, rather for ornament than decency. The ſheik or chief of every tribe wears a cap of fine cloth, and a ſhirt and cloak all of one piece, hanging from the ſhoulders half way down the leg. Theſe Arabs profeſs the ſame religion, cuſtoms, and manners, as thoſe of Arabia.

Theſe people are of a ſwarthy complexion and robuſt habit of body, both which may be aſcribed to their roving and abſtemious life. The men are active, the women fruitful, and the children healthy. When a youth would marry, he drives a number of cattle to the hut where the intended bride reſides. The girl and her parents, on viewing the ſtock immediately conſent; all the young women of the adowar or village are then invited to the feaſt: the bride is afterwards placed on a horſe of the bridegroom's and led home amidſt the ſhouts of all preſent. When ſhe arrives at the door of the bridegroom's hut, a mixture of milk and honey is given her to drink, while a nuptial ſong is ſung. She then alights, and is preſented with a ſtick, which ſhe thruſts into the ground, and repeats ſome lines to the following purport. "As this ſtick is faſtened in the earth, ſo I am in duty bound to my huſband: as nothing but violence can remove it, ſo death alone ſhall force me from his love." She then drives his flock to water and back again, to ſhew her willingneſs to perform any duty he may aſſign her. Theſe previous ceremonies being ſettled, all the company enter the hut, and the evening concludes with the greateſt feſtivity that theſe poor people are capable of enjoying. Subſequent to the marriage, the wife is obliged to wear a vail, and never ſtir from the hut for the ſpace of a month, and is excluded from all concern in and knowledge of public affairs ever after that time.

The Moors here are armed with a zagay or ſhort lance, and a ſcymitar, or broad cutlaſs: they are of a warlike diſpoſition, excellent horſemen, and ſometimes give the government great trouble: but are alſo great thieves, ſo that it is dangerous travelling without a marabout or prieſt in company, to whom they ſhew ſuch reſpect, that when they ſee a perſon thus attended, they will not attack him.

Of all the pirates in Africa, the Algerines are the moſt cruel and dangerous: they are alſo baſe, perfidious, and rapacious to the laſt degree; no oaths or ties, human or divine, will avail to bind them, when their intereſt interferes; in ſhort, notwithſtanding the reſpect they pretend to pay to Mahomet their prophet, gold is the only idol

they worſhip. The people who reſide on the coaſt are equally ſavage to ſuch as unfortunately fall into their hands by ſhipwreck: ſo that it appears the Algerines are as much ſtrangers to humanity as they are to an elegant taſte or polite behaviour.

Algiers retains the title of a kingdom, though in fact it is but a republic, as their public ordinances evince, which run thus: "We the great and ſmall members of the mighty and invincible militia of Algiers," &c. This alteration was cauſed by the tyranny of the Turkiſh baſſas, who were at length depoſed by the militia and janiſaries, who put up a dey of their own chuſing: when the Ottoman Porte, that they might not run the riſque of loſing Algiers intirely, found themſelves under a neceſſity of ratifying this regulation. The janiſaries now became extremely powerful, as they formed themſelves into a divan, and always elected a dey; but this dignity is a very precarious ſtation, for by the manner of election a dey is ſeldom choſen without much tumult and bloodſhed; he is always in danger, from the nature of his office; and ſeldom dies a natural death, which is owing to the diſpoſition of thoſe about him.

The aga of the janiſaries is the next officer in dignity and power: he only enjoys his poſt two months, and then retires upon a penſion. The other officers of importance are, a ſecretary of ſtate, twenty-four chiah baſſas, or colonels ſubordinate to the aga; eight hundred bolluk baſſas, or ſenior captains, and four hundred oldak baſſas, or lieutenants. In all theſe officers, the right of ſeniority is ſtrictly obſerved in Algiers; for a ſingle infringement in this eſſential point would immediately cauſe a revolt among the ſoldiery, and perhaps coſt the dey his life. Beſides the above, there are purveyors to the army, a body of guard to the dey, &c. and the officers to the Turkiſh forces, who are diſtinct from the reſt.

The people of Algiers in general uſe a compound of Arabic, Moreſco, and the remains of the antient Phœnician languages; but all public buſineſs is tranſacted, and records are kept in the Turkiſh tongue, though moſt of the Algerines of all denominations underſtand the Lingua Franca.

Though moſt of the Algerines are fond of the piratical trade, yet they admit free Chriſtians, Jews, Arabians, Moors, &c. to trade in ſilk, wool, cotton, leather, carpets, &c. in the country. They are alſo allowed to import gold and ſilver ſtuffs, damaſks, cloths, ſpices, tin, iron, braſs, lead, quickſilver, linen, cordage, ſail-cloths, bullets, rice, alum, tartar, cochineal, ſugar, ſoap, cotton raw and ſpun, aloes, copperas, brazil, logwood, arſenic, vermillion, gumlack, opium, ſulphur, aniſe and cummin ſeeds, ſarſaparilla, frankincenſe, galls, honey, paper, combs, cards, dried fruits, &c. And they are allowed to export oſtrich feathers, wax, hides, wool, copper, rugs, ſilk ſaſhes, embroidered handkerchiefs, dates, and Chriſtian ſlaves, who, for large ranſoms, are permitted to be ſent home. But commerce is greatly injured by the oppreſſions of the government, the ſuſpicions of the merchants, who are always afraid of being deprived of their properties, and the perfidy of thoſe who carry on the trade.

The three chief eccleſiaſtics are extremely reverenced by all: theſe are the mufti, the cadi, and the grand marabout. The firſt is the high-prieſt of their religion: the ſecond the ſupreme judge in eccleſiaſtical cauſes, and ſuch civil matters as the civil power does not interpoſe in; and the grand marabout, their great living ſaint, or hermit, or rather the general of that order who profeſs themſelves hermits or marabouts: the laſt have an inconceivable influence both on the government and the affairs of every private man in the kingdom, as upon all occaſions they take advantage of the weakneſs and ſuperſtition of the people, and enrich themſelves by their folly. The three eccleſiaſtics may be diſtinguiſhed by the largeneſs of their turbans: they ſit in the divan, a little below the dey, on his right hand; and when they enter the aſſembly, he riſes up and embraces them; but though they are adviſed with upon important occaſions, they have no vote here. The divan conſiſts of near two thouſand officers and ſoldiers, and of none but the Turkiſh ſoldiery.

Juſtice is venally adminiſtered, favour publicly ſold, and corruption ſo general, that it is not looked upon as a vice.

The uſual puniſhment at Algiers for offences not capital, is the baſtinado, which conſiſts often of ſome hundreds of blows over the ſoles of the feet, the calves of the legs, the buttock or belly, with an unmerciful cudgel. In capital caſes the Turks are ſtrangled with a bow-ſtring, which two people pull different ways with all their ſtrength: but the various deaths the poor Chriſtian ſlaves are put to, that offend theſe barbarous pirates, are almoſt innumerable; impaling, and burning, or rather roaſting, the unhappy ſufferers alive, are but too frequent on their attempting to make an eſcape, eſpecially if any Turk is killed in the ſcuffle; but the worſt of all deaths, is the throwing them off the walls of the town upon iron hooks, on which they are catched by the jaws, by the ribs, or ſome other part of the body, and hang in the moſt exquiſite torture for ſeveral days before they expire; but this, it is ſaid, has not been executed for many years: however, we find there have been inſtances of the crucifying Chriſtians, and nailing their hands and feet to the walls within theſe few years; to which they have been provoked by reports that were ſpread of ſome of their Chriſtian neighbours having been equally cruel to the Turks they had taken. A Moor convicted of burglary hath his right hand cut off, and faſtened about his neck, and then he is led through the city on an aſs with his face towards the tail; perſons of diſtinction, for crimes againſt the ſtate, are placed between two boards, and ſawn aſunder. Women detected in adultery are faſtened by their necks to a pole, and held under water till they are ſuffocated. And this leads us to give ſome account of the condition of the Chriſtian ſlaves at Algiers.

The corſair, or pirate, it ſeems, no ſooner takes a prize, but he examines into the quality and circumſtances of all his priſoners; and, if he imagines they do not give him a juſt account of themſelves and their comrades, he orders them to be baſtinadoed on the ſoles of their feet till they do. Having got what information he can, he brings them on ſhore after he has ſtripped them almoſt naked, and carries them to the dey's houſe, whither the European conſuls immediately repair, to ſee if there be any of the priſoners who belong to their reſpective nations, who are at peace with Algiers; for, in that caſe, they reclaim them, provided they were only paſſengers: but, if it be proved the priſoners ſerved for pay on board the ſhips of any nation at war with this government, there is no way to get them releaſed, but by paying the full ranſom.

The matter being ſettled between the dey and the conſuls, which of the priſoners ſhall be ſet at liberty, and which of them deemed ſlaves, the dey has his choice of every eighth ſlave, and generally takes the maſters, ſurgeons, carpenters, and moſt uſeful men belonging to the reſpective prizes: and, beſides his eighth, he lays claim to all ſuch priſoners as are of any quality, for whom a ſwinging ranſom may be expected: the reſt are left to the captor and their owners, and uſually carried to the beſiſtan, or ſlave market, where the crier proclaims the quality, the profeſſion and circumſtances of each of the unhappy captors, and the reſpective prices ſet upon them. They are led afterwards to the court before the dey's palace, and ſold by auction in his preſence to the beſt bidder; but whatever is given beyond the firſt price ſet upon them belongs to the government: the captors and owners have no more than the firſt price, which is divided equally between them.

The women throw a vail over them when they go abroad, ſo that they are unknown, to all but the ſlaves who attend them. Some are carried in litters made of oſier twigs and covered with painted cloth, but ſo low that they are obliged to ſit croſs legged in them: this mode of travelling is uſed by both ſexes in long journies, particularly pilgrimages, as the traveller can ſee and not be ſeen, and travel without being annoyed by wind, duſt, rain, heat, &c. The women in general lead a life of indolence, their principal employment being dreſſing, lolling on their ſofas, bathing, chatting, viſiting the tombs of their relations, and ſauntering in their gardens. The men ſpend moſt of their time with the women in their gardens, in converſation, drinking, coffee, ſmoaking, &c.

The Algerines, by their law, may have as many wives as they pleaſe, but they uſually content themſelves with two or three at the moſt. They ſeldom ſee them before marriage, but have their deſcription from a female go-between. When the marriage is agreed upon, the bridegroom ſends a preſent of fruits and ſweetmeats to the bride, and gratifies her relations with a feaſt and a muſical entertainment. On the nuptial day ſhe is conveyed, richly dreſſed, to the houſe of the intended bridegroom, where another entertainment is provided, and the marriage concluded.

When any of the Algerines are ſick, they are attended and nurſed by perſons of their own ſex. The phyſicians are very ignorant; and if they find their patients on the point of death, they turn them towards the eaſt. On the death of a perſon, the corpſe, after being waſhed, and clad in a ſhirt, drawers, ſilk robe, and a turban, is laid in a kind

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of ſquare coffin, and carried on mens ſhoulders by means of poles to the grave, attended by the relations, friends, &c. Mourning is expreſſed by the women going veiled for ſome days, and the men wearing their beards for a month; during three days after the interment of the body, the neareſt relations viſit the tomb, diſtribute alms to the poor, and ſuffer no fire to be lighted in their houſes: the better ſort of people have epitaphs, or ſuitable paſſages from the koran upon their tomb-ſtones, in which, as with us, the dead are complimented with virtues which they never poſſeſſed, that the living may be flattered in the ſuppoſed merits of their deceaſed relations and friends.

The militia who elect their dey, are all natural Turks or renegado Chriſtians, admitted into thoſe troops generally denominated janiſaries, and amount to above twelve thouſand men: theſe are, by ſome, ſtiled the nobility of Algiers; and certain it is, that the frequent revolutions that happen at Algiers, are brought about by this claſs of people chiefly: they are but few in number indeed, compared with the native Moors: and yet they do tyrannize over the natives in a moſt inſolent manner. On the contrary, in the empire of Morocco, the Moors govern every thing, and will not ſuffer the Turks to have any ſhare in the government. The Moors here are ſaid to be a cowardly and mean-ſpirited people, in compariſon of the Turks; who have defeated armies of them, both in Morocco and Tunis, of ſix times their number, and ſtormed and plundered both their capitals within a very few years, compelling their reſpective princes to accept of ſuch terms as the deys of Algiers were pleaſed to impoſe on them. The reaſon of which ſuperiority is ſuppoſed to proceed either from that ſubmiſſion the Turks have always exacted from the Moors, whereby the latter are in a manner diſpirited; or that the Algerine Turks, being all men of ſword, engaged perpetually in the moſt deſperate ſervices by ſea and land, and, dreading no dangers, are an over-match for all their neighbours, who endeavour to live in peace: but, from what cauſe ſoever this ſuperiority proceeds, it is ſurprizing to obſerve, that leſs than ten thouſand of the Algerine Turks ſhould dare to march through great part of the empire of Morocco, and make themſelves maſters of the capital city of Fez one year, and afterwards of Tunis the next. But, it is certain, the native Moors have as great a dread of theſe pirates by land, as our defenceleſs merchants have of them at ſea, and tremble at the very name of an Algier Turk. Part of the Algerine ſoldiery ſerve as marines on board their veſſels; about one thouſand of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. The dey can bring one thouſand Mooriſh horſe into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted.

The Algerines are more formidable at ſea, than any other power on the coaſt of Barbary; and the ſea-fearing people are in great eſteem, on account of the prizes they frequently bring in; but ſtill they have no ſhare in the election of a dey: the fathers of the trinity aſſure us, that the Algerines have no leſs than five and twenty ſhips of war, from eighteen to ſixty guns, beſides a multitude of ſmaller cruiſing veſſels; and, as they have very little timber in the country, nor any naval ſtores whatever, their ſhips are either thoſe they take as prize, or in part built, and rigged out of the materials of ſuch ſhips as are taken: however, they never ſuffer the number of their ſhips of war to be diminiſhed; but, if any of them are loſt, or decayed, they immediately add as many more, by means of the military ſtores with which they are ſupplied by the Europeans, who purchaſe their friendſhip with the implements of miſchief, and court them not to make depredations on their trading ſhips, by furniſhing them with the power to do it: the Engliſh conſul, in particular, provides them with powder, balls, bombs, fire-arms, anchors, cordage, &c. takes in return, corn, oil, proviſions, and other neceſſaries for the garriſon of Gibraltar; we muſt however confeſs, that the ſuccours afforded from time to time to this place have been of unſpeakable ſervice to it during the late tedious ſiege of that fortreſs by the Spaniards. The Algerine ſailors are compoſed of Couloglies, Moors, renegadoes, Chriſtian ſlaves, &c. but all the officers muſt be Turks. The ſailors in general are extremely filthy, and even boaſt of their naſtineſs, pretending to deſpiſe the nicety found in moſt of the veſſels belonging to the Chriſtians.

We ſhall now proceed to give ſome account of the hiſtory and revolutions that have happened in Algiers, from the time that the Romans were expelled the Algerine territories by the Vandals and other northern barbarians, who held them from the year 427 to 558, when they were conquered by Beliſarius, the emperor Juſtinian's celebrated general.

From the above-mentioned period, they continued ſubject to the Greek emperors till the year 663, when the whole country was over-run by the Arabs, who remained maſters of it till 1051, when Abel Texein, of the Zinhagian tribe, expelled them, and took the reins of government upon himſelf, which continued in his family till the twelfth century, when the Zinhagians were driven out by the marabouts. This prieſtly race was ſoon diveſted of power by the Benimerini, who in the thirteenth century, were likewiſe deprived of what they had conquered, by the ſharifs of Haſcen, who divided Algiers, and other parts of Barbary, into ſeveral petty kingdoms; but falling out among themſelves, Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, took advantage of their civil diſſentions; and in the year 1505, by advice of his prime miniſter cardinal Ximenes, ſent a powerful armament to Algiers, under the command of the count of Navarre. This nobleman ſoon made himſelf maſter of Oran, Bugia, and ſome other places. In this exigency the Algerines applied to Selimi Eutemi, an Arabian prince, for aſſiſtance; but though he aided them to the utmoſt of his power, he could not prevent the count from making the city of Algiers tributary to the court of Spain. This ſubjection continued till the death of king Ferdinand, which happened in 1516, when the famous pirate Barbaroſſa undertook their deliverance; but, inſtead of vanquiſhing their enemies, he conquered the kingdom of Tenez and Tremeſen, and eſtabliſhed his power ſo firmly as to be dreaded not only by the neighbouring ſtates, but by the Europeans; till, in 1517, the emperor Charles V. prepared to oppoſe him, and to ſet the young king of Tremeſen on the throne, of which he had been deprived by Barbaroſſa. The Spaniards and Arabs reconquered the kingdom of Tremeſen, after having totally defeated the army of Barbaroſſa, who was himſelf ſlain, and his head carried from the field of battle in triumph upon a lance.

Barbaroſſa's defeat and death occaſioned great conſternation at Algiers; but the people determined to chuſe his brother Hayradin Barbaroſſa king and high admiral in his room. But Hayradin, fearing that he ſhould not be able to ſupport himſelf againſt the numerous enemies that ſurrounded him, and his own domeſtic foes, applied to the Grand Signor, and propoſed to cede the Algerine kingdom to him, on condition that himſelf ſhould continue to rule it as viceroy, and be aſſiſted with ſome Turkiſh forces. Theſe propoſals were gladly accepted by Selim I. and a body of forces immediately diſpatched to the aſſiſtance of Hayradin.

Being now become formidable to the Moors and Arabians by land, and the Chriſtians by ſea, Hayradin laid ſiege to the Spaniſh fort, which was a continual thorn in his ſide, and took it by ſtorm, after a brave reſiſtance. Being now ſecure from enemies, he turned his thoughts to improve the harbour of Algiers; which he did effectually, by building a ſtrong mole for the ſafety and convenience of the ſhipping. Upon this great work, thirty thouſand Chriſtian ſlaves were inceſſantly employed till the whole was completed: he afterwards repaired the fort, and put a ſtrong garriſon in it, and thus rendered Algiers more ſecure than ever it had been, againſt the attack of an enemy.

Hayradin was now raiſed by the grand Signor to the dignity of captain baſſa of the Ottoman empire, and Haſſan, a Sardinian renegado, appointed baſſa of Algiers in his ſtead. The latter purſued his piracies with great ſucceſs, and even made depredations on the coaſts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. This induced the pope to exhort the emperor Charles V. to put a ſtop to the ravages of the Algerines; which that monarch immediately undertook, and ſoon ſet ſail at the head of a formidable armament, conſiſting of one hundred and twenty ſhips, twenty gallies, a large train of artillery, thirty thouſand ſoldiers, and a great number of volunteers of ſeveral nations, among whom were many knights of Malta. Theſe forces being landed, the emperor built a fort on an eminence, which to this day goes by the name of the emperor's fort; he then cloſely inveſted the city, and greatly diſtreſſed the inhabitants, by turning the courſe of the ſtreams that ſupplied it with water.

After theſe operations, the Algerines looked upon their condition as ſo deſperate, that the members of the divan were upon the point of ſurrendering the city, when a poor eunuch, named Yuſef, who was looked upon as a lunatic, appeared in their preſence, and thus addreſſed them: "My lords, I am the poor Yuſef, the ſlave of ſlaves, and moſt abject of Muſſulmen, perſecuted by the great, re-

preſented as a madman by our marabout, on which account not only my advices have been rejected, but myſelf treated ignominiouſly; the cadi, who is the judge of the law, hath often made me undergo very ſevere public puniſhments; and why? Becauſe the Almighty, whoſe ways are to us unſearchable, hath ſometimes given to me an inſight into futurity; and what I have hitherto foretold, hath been thought unworthy of their regard. I have remained ſilent towards them that deſpiſed me, but have informed thoſe poor people, who pitied and relieved me, of things of the greateſt moment to them: but at this juncture, Haſſan, being ruler of our city, the public danger forces me to ſpeak: here is a powerful fleet of infidels, whoſe veſſels are crouded with armed men, and who have come as ſuddenly upon us as if they had riſen out of the ſea. We are deſtitute of every means of defence, and our only hope is placed on an equitable capitulation, if equity can be expected from Chriſtians. But God, who laughs at the machinations of men, hath quite other thoughts; he will releaſe his people out of the hands of idolaters (for ſo the Mahometans call the Roman Catholics) in ſpite of all their ſaints, be they ever ſo many. Lord Haſſan, and you his miniſters, and great men of the kingdom, and learned men in the law, I call upon you to take courage, rely for this once upon the deſpiſed and abject Yuſef; and be aſſured, that before the end of this moon God will diſplay his glory to the utter confuſion of the Chriſtians. Their ſhips and army will periſh in your ſight, and our city be victorious and free. Their arms and equipage will fall to our ſhare: and as they have already employed a vaſt number of hands in erecting forts for our future defence againſt themſelves, ſo a ſmall number only of thoſe blind and hardened people ſhall be permitted to return to their own country, but ſhall continue ſlaves to us in the place they thought to conquer."

The members of the aſſembly were diverted by this ſingular ſpeech from their intended deſign of delivering up the city: and what is ſtill more extraordinary, every circumſtance of the prediction was verified within the month, the greateſt part of the emperor's fleet being deſtroyed by a violent tempeſt, and his army greatly diſtreſſed by the inceſſant rains, which occaſioned torrents of water to pour down from the mountains, and overwhelm his camp. Theſe diſaſters obliged him to raiſe the ſiege, which he did with precipitation, leaving behind him tents, baggage, artillery, &c. and betaking himſelf to his ſhips; which the Algerines no ſooner perceived, than they fell upon his troops while they were embarking, cut many to pieces, and took a great number of priſoners. In fine, the emperor's whole loſs amounted to one hundred and twenty ſhips and gallies, three hundred officers, and above twelve thouſand ſoldiers or ſailors killed or drowned, and near as many taken priſoners; with reſpect to the latter, the Algerines in deriſion put many of them up to public ſale, at an onion per head. The Algerines rewarded Yuſef liberally, looking upon him as a ſaint; and they have ever ſince been great admirers of the art of divination, and much addicted to the ſtudy of aſtrology.

Not long after this event, Haſſan died, and was ſucceeded by Haji, an officer of the militia, who was, however, obliged to reſign in favour of Haſſan, the ſon of Hayradin, the brother of Barbaroſſa; the latter being nominated by the Ottoman Porte. In the beginning of the reign of this prince, the Spaniards obliged the Algerines to evacuate Tremeſen; but a few years afterwards they ſubdued and plundered it. Haſſan was afterwards, by the intrigues of the baſſa Ruſtan and Salha Rais, depoſed, and a creature of theirs advanced to the throne in his ſtead. This prince rendered tributary ſeveral Numidian provinces, and returned with fifteen camel loads of gold duſt, and other valuable ſpoils; he afterwards died of the plague, and was ſucceeded by a Corſican renegado, called Haſſan Corſo, who was murdered by Tekelli, a Turk. This latter tyrannized but a ſhort time, being killed by Yuſef Calubres, who ſucceeded him, and reigned only ſix days, being ſuddenly carried off by the plague.

The ſupreme dignity was now held in truſt by Chajah, a Turk, till the pleaſure of the Porte was known; when Haſſan, who had been depoſed by means of Ruſtan and Satha Rais, was reſtored by the Grand Signor's order, and Chajah quietly reſigned the government to him. This prince invaded Tremeſen, but was totally defeated: the enſuing year, however, made ſome amends, for, the Spaniards making an attempt upon Moſtagan, he gave them a dreadful overthrow. In the fight, the brave count d'Æcondela and his ſon Don Martin de Cordova, with many other officers, and a great number of private men, were ſlain, and twelve thouſand Spaniards, including ſeveral noblemen and gentlemen, were made captives; but Haſſan, becoming obnoxious to the janiſaries, was again depoſed, and ſent to Conſtantinople in irons; when Boſnoc Huſſan, aga of the janiſaries, and Couza Mahomet, the general of the land-forces, took upon them jointly the office of deputies, to ſuperintend the affairs of government. Soon after a new viceroy, named Achmet, arrived at Conſtantinople, who began his reign by ſending the two deputies to that city, where they were beheaded. Achmet died in four months; and his lieutenant Yajat governed the kingdom four more, till the will of the Ottoman court could be known, when Haſſan was a third time appointed to the ſovereignty; ſuch was the friendſhip which Solyman II. entertained for him, and the eſteem which he always profeſſed for his father and uncle, the two famed Barbaroſſas.

Haſſan was no ſooner reinſtated on the throne of Algiers, than he raiſed a greater armament than had ever been collected by any of his predeceſſors; his army conſiſted of fifteen thouſand Turks, renegadoes, &c. one thouſand ſpahis, and ten thouſand horſe; and his fleet of thirty-two gallies and galliots, and three French veſſels laden with proviſions; with this force he intended to make himſelf maſter of Marſaquiver, and drive the Spaniards from thence, this he had nearly effected, when a powerful fleet appeared upon the coaſt, under the command of the celebrated Genoeſe admiral Doria, which obliged him to raiſe the ſiege with precipitation. The court of Conſtantinople now growing jealous of him, he was obliged finally to reſign his dignity; when retiring to that city with all his wealth, he died about three years after, in the eighth year of his baſſaſhip, and the fiftieth of his age.

Mahomet, the ſucceſſor of Haſſan, was a public-ſpirited prince, and became very popular on many occaſions; in particular, he incorporated the janiſaries and Levantines, which proved the firſt ſtep towards rendering Algiers independant of the Ottoman Porte. In this prince's reign, a bold Spaniſh adventurer, named Gaſcon, made a romantic attempt on Algiers; but, being taken priſoner, he was put to a cruel death. The Grand Signor, however, thought proper to depoſe Mahomet, and appoint a renegado, called Ochali, or Halibaſſa, in his room. This prince ſubjected Tunis, took three rich Malteſe gallies, and in the famous battle of Lepanto was the only Mahometan chief who gained the leaſt reputation: he was nevertheleſs ſoon after depoſed by the Porte, and Arab Achmed appointed to the government in his ſtead. Within three years the latter was recalled, and Rumardan Sardo placed in his room, who contributed to the expulſion of the Spaniards from moſt parts of Barbary, and aſſiſted Muley Moloch in the conqueſt of Fez; but being recalled from Algiers, he was ſent as baſſa of Tunis, and, in his ſtead, Haſſan Verſedic was appointed to the kingdom of Algiers. This prince reigned better than three years; and being recalled, on account of his uncommon extortions, an Hungarian renegado, named Jaffer, ſucceeded him, and arrived at Algiers about the end of Auguſt 1580, when that city ſuffered a dreadful famine, occaſioned by his predeceſſor's having monopolized the principal neceſſaries of life.

Jaffer, by the moſt prudent methods, relieved the diſtreſſes of the people, and acted with great equity upon all other occaſions; yet the rapacious Haſſan found means to make ſo many friends at the court of Conſtantinople, that the juſt Jaffer was recalled, and himſelf again appointed to the government of Algiers. The firſt thing he did, after his reſtoration, was, to fit out a conſiderable fleet, with which he made irruptions on the coaſts of Sardinia, and plundered other parts of Chriſtendom; but becoming once more diſpleaſing to the Ottoman Porte, he was again recalled, and poiſoned ſoon afterwards.

The above tyrant was ſucceeded by Mommi Arnaud, who grew ſo bold, that he effected what no corſair had ever before been confident enough to attempt, that is, to paſs the ſtraights of Gibraltar. After entering the Atlantic Ocean, he proceeded to the Canaries Iſlands, which he plundered, and returned to Algiers in ſafety, notwithſtanding a Spaniſh fleet of eighteen ſhips was ordered to watch his return; but he took the opportunity of repaſſing the ſtraights in a ſtormy night when the Spaniards ſought ſhelter in different ports. He was ſucceeded by Achmet, being ſoon afterwards ordered from Algiers to the Tuniſian government.

Achmet invaded the Chriſtian territories, reigned three years, and then was ordered to the government of Tripoli, to make room for Hidir baſſa, who, in the year 1592, was recalled, and ſucceeded by Shaabanbaſſa; the latter

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The Mode of DANCING in the Island of Ulietea.



Exact representation of a MORAI, or BURIAL PLACE, in Otaheite.

ruled Algiers about three years; when being ordered to Conſtantinople, his kinſman Muſtapha was placed on the throne. This prince was ſupplanted four years afterwards in favour of Hidir baſſa, who was re-appointed to the government of Algiers by the Porte. Hidir had no ſooner regained his power, than he extorted fifteen thouſand ducats from Muſtapha, before he ſet ſail for Conſtantinople, and ruled the Algerines with his uſual tyranny, oppreſſing the poor, and plundering the rich with the utmoſt rapacity. All theſe things Muſtapha, on his arrival at Conſtantinople, repreſented with ſuch energy, and painted Hidir's character in ſuch glaring colours, that the Ottoman miniſtry thought proper again to recall that tyrant and to re-appoint Muſtapha once more. The latter ſoon returned to Algiers, ſtripped Hidir of the principal part of his ill-got wealth, ſent him to Conſtantinople, and afterwards ruled the people with ſo much juſtice and moderation, and acted upon all occaſions with ſuch generoſity and humanity, that he was beloved by all ranks of people, and the nation was never more proſperous or happy than while he conducted the public affairs.

We have now brought the hiſtory of the Algerines down to the latter end of the ſixteenth century: all that now remains worthy of notice, is, that in 1682 the Algerines made a treaty of alliance with England, and in the ſame year plundered the French coaſts; which occaſioned the court of France to ſend a fleet againſt them under the command of the marſhal du Queſne, who cannonaded Algiers; but a ſtorm ariſing, his ſhips received ſome conſiderable injuries which obliged him to return home. He was no ſooner gone, than the Algerines ſallied forth, put to ſea, ſailed for France, and committed the moſt dreadful ravages on the coaſt of Provence. This new inſult ſo much exaſperated the French monarch, that he ordered the marquis du Queſne, and the marquis d'Amfreville to ſail for that city, in order to puniſh thoſe pirates for their audacity. The French ſquadron came before Algiers in May 1683, and poured in ſuch a ſhower of bombs, that the place was ſoon in flames: the dey's palace, many moſques, and other public buildings, with a vaſt number of private houſes, were deſtroyed; the ſlain and wounded were very numerous, and the people greatly diſtreſſed. This occaſioned them to ſue for peace; when one of the principal articles inſiſted upon by the marquis, was, the delivery of all Chriſtians taken under French colours. This was aſſented to, and one hundred and forty-two of them brought on board the next day, with a promiſe of ſending the remainder: but unfortunately the negotiation broke off, and the Algerines again hung out the bloody flag. The marquis accordingly renewed the bombardment, when great deſtruction and ſlaughter enſued; to revenge which, the Algerines had recourſe to the moſt bloody and ſavage cruelty, murdering all the French captives, and firing off the conſul of that nation from the mouth of a mortar. This inhumanity the French admiral puniſhed by deſtroying all the ſhipping and fortifications, and all buildings in the lower, with moſt of thoſe in the upper part of the city; that is in fact, all that his cannon or bombs could reach. Having done as much miſchief as he intended, he ſailed home, and a peace was ſoon after concluded between the two nations.

The Algerines, in 1686, entered into a treaty with the Engliſh (or rather renewed one entered into in 1682,) which was often broke, and often renewed in ſubſequent years, till it was thought proper to chaſtiſe them for their perfidy; when captain Beach attacked ſeven of their frigates, drove them on ſhore, and burnt them. This brought them to their reaſon: the treaty was revived in 1700, with the addition of three articles; and ſoon after two other articles were added, in a treaty with Sir George Byng, afterwards lord viſcount Torrington. But the Algerines were never punctual in the performance or due obſervance of their treaties with us, till we became poſſeſſed of the important fortreſſes of Gibraltar and Minorca, the latter of which has lately fallen by conqueſt into the hands of the French and Spaniards; for till we had poſſeſſion of thoſe places, their faith was a farce, and their words but wind; but our having command of the ſtraights, by means of thoſe important acquiſitions, obliged them to do thoſe things through fear, which they would never be prompted to from motives of integrity.

Admiral Baker, in 1716, renewed and ratified all the former treaties with Algiers, in the ſame manner as he did with the ſtates of Tunis and Tripoli, of which we ſhall take notice in the ſequel.

In July 1775 the Spaniards attacked Algiers with a very formidable fleet and army; but, by the miſconduct of their principal officer, the Algerines obtained a conqueſt, and the Spaniards were obliged to retire with great precipitation, after a loſs of about eight hundred killed, and two thouſand wounded; and no other attempt has been made ſince that time, though they have continued their preparations.

SECT. VI.

Treating of the preſent State of the Kingdom of TUNIS, its Bounddries and Extent, chief Towns, Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, &c.

THE kingdom of Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, on the north; by the ſame ſea and Tripoli, on the eaſt; by mount Atlas, on the ſouth; and by the river Guadilbarbar, which ſeparates it from the kingdom of Algiers, on the weſt; lying between thirty and thirty-ſeven degrees and a half north latitude, and extending near two hundred miles from weſt to eaſt. This kingdom was antiently the republic of Carthage.

The chief rivers are, The Guadilbarbar, already mentioned, which riſing in mount Atlas, runs northwards, and diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean near the iſland of Tabarca. The Capes, or Capitla, which riſes alſo in the mountains of Atlas, and runs north-eaſt, falling into the ſea near the town of Capes. Mejerada, which riſes in Mount Atlas, and running northwards, divides the kingdom of Tunis almoſt in two equal parts, diſcharging itſelf into the Mediterranean near the town and iſland of Goletta. There is alſo the Zaine, which ſeparates the Tuniſian from the Algerine dominions; the Miliana, which forms the bay of Tunis; and the Gabbs, or Triton of the antients.

The chief towns are, Cairvan, or Kayr-wan, ſituated on the river Mejerada, latitude thirty-two, ſaid to be the firſt town the Saracens built in this country, and moſt remarkable at preſent for being the burying place of the Mahometan princes and great men. Urbs, or Tuburbo, ſituated in a fine plain, on a river that falls into the Guadilbarbar, latitude thirty-five, about one hundred and fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Tunis; remarkable for the marble pillars, images, and other Roman antiquities found here. Africa, or El-Melidia, ſituated on the Mediterranean, in latitude thirty-five, ninety miles ſouth-eaſt of Tunis, ſaid to be the Adrumetum of the Romans. Suſa, or Ruſpina, ſituated partly on a flat, and partly upon the aſcent of a rock on the Mediterranean, twenty-five miles to the eaſtward of Tunis: it lies in ruins at preſent, and is ſaid to contain more antiquities than any town in the kingdom: here is a ſmall harbour, where the gallies and ſmall ſhips belonging to Tunis frequently lie. Modern geographers divide this kingdom into eight diſtricts, viz. Tunis Proper, Byrſa, or Carthage and Goletta, El-Medea, Suſa, Kayr-wan, Ramamet, Bizerta, Porto Farino. We ſhall deſcribe the principal provinces, towns, and cities.

The city of Tunis, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated on a fine plain near a ſpacious lake, in thirty-ſix degrees and a half north latitude, almoſt over-againſt the iſland of Sicily, and but a few miles from the place where the famous city of Carthage ſtood. It is about three hundred miles from Algiers, and three or four leagues diſtant from the Mediterranean, is a large, populous city, and a place of ſome trade; the walls about a league in circumference, but of no great ſtrength. The baſſa's palace, the moſques and bagnios are the moſt remarkable buildings in it. The houſes are all of ſtone, and but one ſtory high; thoſe belonging to the better ſort of people are built about little ſquares, adorned with pillars, galleries and fountains; but have no other light than what they receive from the doors that open into the ſquares; and the roofs of the houſes are flat and terraced, as in other Mahometan countries. When Charles V. took it in the year 1535, it is ſaid to have contained an hundred thouſand men, beſides women and children: but this, we preſume, muſt comprehend all ſuch Moors as fled thither for protection on this invaſion of the Chriſtians: certain it is, the numbers are not near ſo great at preſent.

The grand moſque is remarkable for its bigneſs and magnificent tower, but in other reſpects it merits not attention, as the architecture is intirely in the Turkiſh taſte. The city has five gates, viz. Vaſonk, Carthage, Elboar, Aſſeya, and Elinenar-gate; and without the walls are the Turkiſh ſepulchres, which have an agreeable look from the intermixture of marble tombs, and flower-plats. The bey's palace is a magnificent ſquare ſtructure, with four ſuperb gates, one at each front, and turrets at each end. The galleries are rich and elegant, the courts capacious, and the apartments very ſpacious, and handſome; but

the gardens, though large, are laid out in a bad taſte. In the treaſury chamber, beſides other valuable articles, the book containing the Tuniſian code of the laws, is kept. The city is defended by a ſtrong caſtle erected on an eminence, by the fort of Goletta, and by a fortreſs built on an iſland in the neighbouring lake. The colleges and academies, are numerous and large; the janiſaries barracks ſpacious, the cuſtom-houſe tolerably handſome, and the exchange for the merchants very convenient. The dock is tolerable, and the arſenal pretty well ſtored with materials for the building of gallies.

There is a very capacious piazza in the ſuburb, that formerly contained about three thouſand ſhops, but their number at preſent is much diminiſhed. The ſtaple commodities are woollen, and linen, in which articles the manufactures excel all others in Barbary.

The inhabitants of Tunis are a mixture of Turks, Moors, Arabians, Jews, and Chriſtians of various nations, but their general character does them ſingular honour, as they are reputed to be more polite and juſt, rather kinder to their ſlaves, and much leſs haughty, inſolent, and mercenary than moſt of the other inhabitants of Barbary; in fine the generality of them prefer the fruits of honeſt induſtry to unlawful plunder, and rather than ſeek wealth from piracy, endeavour to obtain it by commerce. Both ſexes are clean in their perſons, and neat in their dreſſes, uſe perfumes very much, and bathe frequently: the women, when they go abroad, are vailed, but at home they are permitted to be ſeen by, and converſe with ſtrangers.

Palms, figs, dates, citrons, lemons, olives, &c. are very plentiful in Tunis, but there is a great ſcarcity of corn, and the inhabitants are not ſecure of what little they raiſe; for it is no uncommon thing, in harveſt time, for the Arabs to come ſuddenly upon the huſbandmen, and plunder the whole territory of the ripe grain. The rich, however, are ſupplied by commercial means with wheat, with which they make fine cakes, and an excellent kind of vermicilli. The poor are obliged to content themſelves with barley, and even that they cannot at all times procure; but when they are ſo happy as to obtain a little, they regale themſelves, by making it into a dumpling, which they eat without cooking, only dipping it into a little oil and vinegar, or plain water if thoſe are not to be got; they have, however, plenty of honey and fruits, but ſeldom eat meat, except upon feſtivals, or ſome very ſingular occaſion.

Nabel is ſituated in a low ground, at about a mile and a half from the ſea ſhore, and nine miles from Tunis. It is famous for its potteries, and a flouriſhing town.

Marſa or El-Merſa, was ſuppoſed to have been founded by queen Dido, one hundred and forty-one years before the building of Rome. Its name implies a haven. It is ſituated where a part of antient Carthage ſtood; and contains a magnificent moſque, a capacious college, about eight hundred houſes and ſeveral palaces, built by the moſt conſiderable Tuniſians for pleaſure, as the territory is exceedingly agreeable and fertile. This pleaſant diſtrict was once the ſeat of the celebrated city of Carthage, the center of commerce, miſtreſs of the ſea, and rival of imperial Rome, when that city was in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate.

Kommart, ſtands at a little diſtance from the ruins of antient Carthage, and about nine miles north of Tunis; it is a walled town, inhabited by fiſhermen and gardeners, who ſupply Tunis with fiſh, fruit, and ſugar canes.

Ariana, is about three miles diſtant from Tunis: it is a ſmall village, and inhabited by poor gardeners, who bring to ſale to that city their fruits and herbs.

Arradez, is famous for its fine ſprings and excellent baths: it is ſituated on the road between Tunis and the gulf of Goletta.

Sonſa, or Suſa, is one of the moſt conſiderable cities in the kingdom, and the capital of the province of the ſame name. It has a flouriſhing trade for oil, linen, wax, honey, and pickled fiſh. The town is ſituated on a high rock, behind which runs an extenſive plain country, fertile in barley, figs, olives, fruit, and paſturage. Though it hath greatly dwindled from its priſtine grandeur, it is ſtill wealthy and populous, and the inhabitants are polite and courteous to ſtrangers. A Turkiſh baſſa reſides here; the ſuperior people are merchants, warehouſemen, and mechanics; the lower claſs are huſbandmen, herdſmen, and potters. It has a good port, and pays twelve thouſand ducats to the governor of the province.

Monaſteer, is a flouriſhing city, ſurrounded by ſtout walls, and ſituated on the extremity of a cape; the houſes are handſome, but the inhabitants are extremely poor. This city was famed in the Roman and Carthagenian times.

Scarce any veſtiges are now remaining of Heraclea, a city on the ſea-coaſt, built by the Romans, but ſince deſtroyed by the Arabians.

Kayrwan, or Carvan, though ſituated in a barren deſart, deſtitute of freſh water, and without the leaſt article for the ſuſtenance of life, except what is brought in carts from ſeveral miles diſtance, is nevertheleſs one of the moſt populous and flouriſhing towns of the kingdom, and the capital of a province of the ſame name. It is twenty-four miles from Sonſa, and has, about half a mile from the town, a reſervoir and a pond for the reception of rain-water; the inhabitants are ſupplied from the firſt, and the caſtle by the laſt; the waters of both, but more particularly of the latter, are unwholeſome, and occaſion many diſorders, not only in the beaſts, but in the human ſpecies. This city was rebuilt by Hukba, generaliſſimo of Ottoman or Hatman's forces, which laſt was the ſucceſſor of Mahomet III. calif of Damaſcus, in the year 652, and had ſent him from Arabia into theſe parts to make what conqueſts he could in them. Hakba having landed his forces in ſome of the neighbouring ports, made choice of this barren and deſolate ſpot for the place of their rendezvous, and of the ruinated city for his retreat, which he accordingly cauſed to be ſurrounded with lofty and ſtrong brick walls, flanked with ſtately towers; and, among other noble edifices, built a moſt magnificent moſque, ſupported by an incredible number of ſtately columns of the fineſt granate, two of which were of ſo exquiſite and lovely a red, beſpangled all over with little white ſpots like the porphyry, that their price was reckoned ineſtimable, and the whole ſtructure the moſt magnificent in all Africa. It had likewiſe a very conſiderable revenue and endowments, and the title and privilege of a head metropolis, as being the firſt Mahometan moſque built in this part of the world, upon which account it is likewiſe become the burial place of the Tuniſian monarchs; and not only they, but all the grandees and wealthy men of the kingdom, are ambitious of having their remains depoſited in it, from a ſuperſtitious notion, that the prayers of the head pontif and ſucceſſor of Mahomet will procure them a plenary pardon for their ſins, and ſend them by the neareſt way into Paradiſe. The very city itſelf is held ſo ſacred among them, that thoſe great perſonages uſually pull off their ſhoes before they enter it, and cauſe ſome ſtately chapels and oratories to be erected over the graves of their deceaſed relations, and ſettle a yearly ſum on ſome perſons, not only to keep them in repair, but likewiſe to retain a number of idle prieſts and monks to reſort thither at proper times. It is moſt probably upon the account of this ſuperſtitious concourſe, and vaſt donatives, that this city is ſtill ſo thriving, notwithſtanding proviſions are very dear and ſcarce.

Tobulba, is now but a very poor village, though it was once a conſiderable city; and Gables or Capes, once a noble city, is in much the ſame condition. The iſland of Jerba, which is the ſouthern boundary of the baſſa's ſummer circuit, is about twelve miles ſouth of the latter.

Hamamet, is fifty-one miles from Tunis by land, and ſixty leagues by ſea: it is a ſmall but opulent city, ſituated upon a promontory near the ſea, and ſo well ſecured on the land ſide by rugged and inacceſſible rocks, that a very ſmall expence would render it totally impregnable.

Biſerta is ſituated near the place where Utica formerly ſtood; thirty-ſeven miles north-weſt of Tunis, and two hundred and forty weſt of Algiers; it is well fortified, particularly on the ſide neareſt the ſea, and contains two towers to defend the haven, a conſiderable magazine, and two large priſons for ſlaves; it has plenty of freſh water, and is well ſupplied with fiſh. Eight inconſiderable villages belong to the governor of this place, whoſe inhabitants, as well as thoſe of Biſerta itſelf, are miſerably poor, though the territory is pretty fertile; their only dreſs is coarſe cloth wrapped round their bodies, and another about their heads in lieu of a turban. They are, however, admirable horſemen; but they do not ſhoe their horſes, or uſe either bridles or ſaddles. The Biſertans are deemed by all travellers the moſt ſuperſtitious people in the kingdom of Tunis, and by ſome in all Barbary. They will not undertake the moſt trivial affair without hanging a great number of amulets or charms about them; and if they travel, they load their horſes with the ſame kind of ſuppoſed ſecurities, which are only pieces of parchment or paper inſcribed with ſtrange characters, and ſewed in leather or ſilk. It is ſituated in forty degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, and twenty-ſeven degrees twenty minutes north latitude.

Porto Farino is ſeated to the weſt of the ruins of Carthage, and thirty miles north of Tunis; this place is

much fallen from its antient ſplendor, and is at preſent only remarkable for its fine cotton, where the Tuniſian navy is kept. The town is called by the natives Gar-el-Mailah, or the Cave of Salt, from the ſalt works in the vicinity. Lewis king of France, commonly called St. Lewis, died here on his expedition to the Holy Land: it is ſubject to the dey of Tunis, and lies in nine degrees eaſt longitude, and thirty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude.

Tuburbo, or Urbs, is inhabited by Andaluſian Moors: it is ſituated one hundred and eighty miles ſouth of Tunis, has a caſtle with ſome cannon, and a garriſon. Many veſtiges of its former ſpendor are here found; and Maham bey, from the ruins of a magnificent theatre, cauſed a very lofty bridge, or rather dam to be erected, in order to raiſe water from the river Mejerda ſufficiently high to water a beautiful plantation of oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, nectarines, peaches, apricots, dates, figs, and other fruit-trees, which were ſet in different ſpots, that they might grow without intermixing with each other. Between the caſtle and the town, a chryſtalline ſtream of freſh water ran through an alabaſter conduit, and turned ſeveral mills in its courſe, but this valuable work is now entirely gone to decay.

Along ſome part of the coaſts of this kingdom, there are the ſand banks, which hydrographers denominate *ſyrtes*, being very dangerous, as ſhips which approach too near are drawn in by the vortex, and often loſt. The hot ſprings in many parts of the country likewiſe deſerve mention. The water of thoſe of Meſkoutean and Meereeg, are exceedingly hot, particularly thoſe of the firſt; but their exceſſive heat renders them unfit for bathing. The baths of Jereed, Caſſa, and Zozer, are only lukewarm; but thoſe of Seedy-Ebli and Elelma-el-Hammah are juſt of a proper temperature.

There are ſeveral ſalt lakes and marſhes in this kingdom, and a mountain of ſalt, named Jibbel Hadileſſe, which is as hard as a rock, of a dark red colour, and bitter; but when it is waſhed from the precipices by the rains, it loſes its bitterneſs, and becomes ſoft and white; beſides the above, there are ſome ſmall rocks of a bluiſh caſt, the ſalt of which ſells at a high price, and is much admired.

In this kingdom ſome artificial curioſities are found, beſides thoſe already mentioned, particularly a threefold moſaic pavement, which is a noble piece of workmanſhip, exhibiting a great number of objects in the animal and vegetable creation, beautifully diverſified, finely variegated with the moſt admirable colours, and wrought with a ſymmetry that is truly aſtoniſhing; this place is called Seedy-Donde, or the Sanctuary of David; for the natives imagine that it is the ſepulchral monument of a celebrated Mooriſh ſaint of that name. However, from the nature of the workmanſhip, it evidently appears to be the fragment of a Roman prætorium, which is alſo the opinion of Doctor Shaw.

The amphitheatre of Jemine, or rather its fragments, is another magnificent piece of Roman antiquity: they conſiſt of ſixty-four arches, and four orders of columns, but have ſuffered conſiderably from one of the beys, who ordered four of the arches to be blown up; they have likewiſe ſuſtained great injury from the Arabs.

The mauſoleum near Hamamet is an admirable building, in the form of a cylinder, vaulted beneath, and ſixty feet in diameter; and the remains of the triumphal arches of Spaitla evince their antient magnificence.

Having thus given an account of the moſt remarkable cities and towns in the kingdom of Tunis, according to their modern ſtate; we ſhall proceed to deſcribe the antient and celebrated city of Carthage, the centre of commerce, miſtreſs of the ſea, and rival of imperial Rome, when that city was in its greateſt ſplendor.

Carthage was ſuppoſed to have been founded by queen Dido, one hundred and forty-one years before the building of Rome. This city ſtood on a gulf, in a peninſula of between forty and fifty miles in circuit. In the centre of it was the citadel, called Byrſa, on the ſummit of which was a temple dedicated to Æſculapius. On the land ſide the city was defended by a very high triple wall, flanked with towers four hundred and eighty feet diſtant from each other. The towers, walls, &c. contained ſtables, ſtorehouſes and barracks for twenty thouſand foot, four thouſand horſe, and three hundred elephants, with the requiſite food, fodder, &c. which, though lodged within the walls, did not in the leaſt incommode the trading part of the inhabitants.

This extenſive city had two harbours which communicated with each other, and had only one common entrance of ſeventy feet in breadth. The one was for merchant-ſhips, and the other for ſhips of war. The latter harbour, and the iſland of Cothen in the midſt of them, had appertaining to them many magnificent warehouſes full of ſtores.

The number of inhabitants in the city of Carthage, at the beginning of the third punic war, was ſeven hundred thouſand; a prodigious number, conſidering the many terrible blows they had received from the Romans during the firſt and ſecond punic wars, as well as from their own mercenaries betwixt theſe wars, and in their deſtructive broils with Maſiniſſa: the force they could bring into the field, as well as their power by ſea, was very formidable; the fleet conſiſted of more than two thouſand ſhips of war, and above three thouſand tranſports; and the troops under Hamilcar, againſt Gelon, of three hundred thouſand men.

We are told by a modern author, that Carthage at this time was twenty-three miles in circuit, and that the temple of Apollo was lined with plates of gold, and the image of that fabulous deity was of maſſy gold: the temple of Juno likewiſe, built by queen Dido herſelf, was extremely magnificent; but the treaſures belonging to them, as well as many other valuable articles, became the plunder of the Romans, when Scipio ſacked the city.

The Carthagenians were addicted to the groſſeſt idolatry; and their ſacrifices were replete with the moſt horrid cruelties. Diodorus Siculus relates, that their principal deity was Chronus, the Saturn of the Romans, to whom they ſacrificed the children of the beſt families, as a certain law enjoined them to offer up none but ſuch as were nobly born: At length, however, they ſubſtituted the children of ſlaves, priſoners, &c. to gratify their ſuppoſed bloody idol, till Agathocles made war upon them, and reduced them to the utmoſt extremity; when fancying that their misfortunes were owing to the improper offerings made to Chronus, they barbarouſly ſacrificed two hundred well-deſcended children; but their abſurd cruelty availed them nothing, for their army was ſoon after totally defeated. This ſo ſurpriſed them, that they imagined the ſacrifice was not ſufficiently bloody; whereupon, influenced by the ſame ridiculous idea, three hundred of the principal citizens voluntarily offered up their lives as oblations to the ſanguinary idol; their cruel ſacrifices were however uſeleſs; for their misfortunes, inſtead of diminiſhing, increaſed more.

From the abominable practice of ſacificing children to Chronus or Saturn, the fable of Saturn's devouring his children originated. But the cuſtom was ſo ſhocking to humanity, that the Roman poets and fabuliſts thought proper to drop the literal meaning for an allegorical one; and therefore changing the mythological Saturn into Time, the idea appeared without any horror annexed to it; and they repreſented thereby a pleaſing and inſtructive fable; for Saturn was ſaid to conſume all things, devour his own children, and vomit them up again. This alludes to Time, which conſumes all things that it produces, till they are revived, and as it were again renewed; thus days, months and years, are the children of Time, which he conſtantly devours, and re-produces.—However, the inhuman cuſtom of ſacrificing children did not ceaſe with the deſtruction of Carthage, but continued among the Africans till the time of Tiberius, who was ſo ſhocked at the horrid practice, that he not only prohibited it under ſevere penalties, but deſtroyed the idols, and put the prieſts to death.

Scipio Æmilianus finally deſtroyed this extenſive, opulent, and populous city, in the third year of the one hundred and fifty-eighth olympiad, in the year of the world 4159, and one hundred and forty-ſeven years before Chriſt, and no veſtiges of it remain at preſent, except ſome fragments of the noble reſervoirs which received into the city freſh water for the uſe of the inhabitants, and the ruins of the expenſive aqueducts, by which the water was conveyed; the latter reach above thirty miles into the country, are near twelve yards over, finely arched, coated with a ſtrong cement, and in moſt places faced with ſtone.

SECT. VII.

Containing the Political and Civil Hiſtory of, and the various Revolutions that have taken place in, the Kingdom of TUNIS, from the Conqueſt of it by the Romans, &c.

THE ſovereign of Tunis is independent both of the Ottoman Porte and his own divan, though a nominal reſpect to the perſons of both is ſtill affected to be kept up.

up. The government is deſpotic and hereditary, but not to the eldeſt ſon only, for the bey is at liberty to name for his ſucceſſor which ſon he pleaſes, or even to exclude all his ſons, and nominate a brother, nephew, or any other relation. A Turkiſh baſſa reſides here, and a divan is frequently aſſembled, but the former is a mere cypher, and the latter without the leaſt authority.

Through motives of fear, the beys of Tunis keep up a good correſpondence with their neighbours the ſtates of Algiers and Tripoli; and, from policy, aim to cultivate a friendſhip with the ſubjects of England and France, though they are at perpetual variance with the Spaniards, Sardinians, Venetians, Malteſe, the ſubjects of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and other neighbouring powers.

The Tuniſian forces are compoſed of renegadoes, and the militia of the country; the firſt form the bey's guard, and garriſon the metropolis, and the latter garriſon all the other ſea-ports and fortreſſes. This is the peace eſtabliſhment; but in war they are able to increaſe their army with ſtrong bodies of Arabians and Moors, though there is not much dependence to be placed upon the fidelity of theſe auxiliaries. Their maritime power is much leſs than what might be imagined, conſidering their admirable ſituation for commerce of every kind. Their capital ſhips are but four in number, the largeſt carry only forty guns; beſides which, they have about thirty galliots of various burdens, that are manned with from twenty to one hundred and twenty men each, who are renegadoes, Turks, and Coulouglies, or ſons of married ſoldiers; the command is, however, almoſt always given to renegadoes. The four large ſhips cruiſe twice a year, and are furniſhed with biſcuit, butter, oil, and vinegar, by the bey. The galliots are fitted out by private perſons, who pay a certain ſtipulated quota of whatever they acquire to the bey. The mercantile veſſels are very numerous, and the merchants purſue traffic with great avidity. The whole of their marine may be diſtinguiſhed into, 1. Ships, of four maſts; 2. Patachas, of three maſts; 3. Palachas; 4. Ketches; 5. Barks; 6. Pinks; 7. Tartans; 8. Canoes. When a ſhip brings in a prize, the half of the veſſel, and half of the cargo, after all expences are deducted, belong to the bey, and the remainder is divided between the captain and the ſhip's company. The bey has moreover one half of the priſoners taken, and the privilege of purchaſing the reſt, if he chuſes it, at one hundred piaſters per head, every tenth perſon excepted who becomes the property of the divan; but the members of that aſſembly do not dare to claim their right to this allotment. The revenues of Tunis conſiſt of cuſtoms ariſing from imports and exports, and the tributes paid by the Arabians and Moors.

When Chriſtian merchant ſhips arrive here, they always ſalute the caſtle with three guns: but men of war wait to be ſaluted according to their rate, when they return the compliment with the ſame number of guns. During the whole time that a Chriſtian ſhip of war is in the road, the conſul, and the merchants of the nation to which it belongs keep colours flying on the tops of their houſes. If a ſlave eſcapes, and gets on board a man of war, the bey cannot reclaim him; on which account it is uſual, as ſoon as a ſhip of force appears in the road, to keep all the Chriſtian ſlaves very cloſe confined, and abridge them of their liberty at other times allowed them, till her departure; previous to which, the bey ſends to the commander a preſent of oxen, ſheep, poultry, and other refreſhments. The French paſſports to theſe ſeas are limited to three years, but the Engliſh extend to fourteen, and are not loaded with ſo many reſtrictions as the former.

The Tuniſians export corn, oil, wax, wool, hides, morocco leather, beans, lentiles, &c. and import Spaniſh wool, Languedoc cloth, pepper, ſugar, vermilion, cloves, wine, brandy, hardware, iron, ſteel, paper, gold and ſilver tiſſue, damaſks, ſilken and woollen ſtuffs, &c. They likewiſe trade for a variety of articles to Egypt, Arabia, the Levant, and the neighbouring piratical ſtates. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, Genoeſe, and Germans, have their conſuls in Tunis, who are treated with great reſpect there.

Commerce is carried on here in that jargon of tongues known by the name of Lingua Franca; all public writings are in the Arabic language, which is in this country much corrupted from its original purity and elegance.

Jews are very numerous in this kingdom, and it is affirmed there are upwards of ten thouſand in Tunis only: but as they are much addicted to cheat all with whom they deal, keep falſe weights and meaſures, make fraudulent bankruptcies, and adulterate moſt articles in which they trade, the laws are particularly levelled againſt them, and they are, when detected, more ſeverely puniſhed than any other foreigners. Beſides Jews, here are renegadoes of all nations.

The religion, cuſtom, manners, laws, &c. of the Tuniſians being exactly the ſame with thoſe of the Algerines already deſcribed, we therefore refer the reader to the article of Algiers, and ſhall only add here a few circumſtances peculiar to theſe people. If a ſlave is caught in attempting to eſcape, or murders his patron, his limbs are all broken, and then he is faſtened to a horſe's tail, and dragged through the ſtreets till he dies. If a renegado ſhould turn Chriſtian again, they wrap him up in a cloth dipped in pitch, and burn him; or elſe pile ſtones, mud, mortar, &c. all round him, and having walled in all but his head, they rub that over with honey, which attracts waſps and other inſects, that torment the poor wretch with their ſtings till he expires, which ſometimes does not happen for ſeveral days.

With reſpect to the revolutions that have happened in this country hiſtorians of undoubted credit relate, that it was alternately ſubjugated and over-run by the Romans, Goths, Vandals, Saracens, and Arabs; at length Abdul-Hedi, a Mooriſh officer of Seville, came with a conſiderable force, landed at Tunis, obliged the Arabs to evacuate the towns and villages, and ruled the kingdom, in quality of viceroy to the emperor of Morocco, with great reputation, till his death, when he bequeathed the government to his ſon Abu-Zechariah, a martial yet prudent prince, who extended the Tuniſian territories, and raiſed contributions in all the countries to the confines of Negroland. On his demiſe, he left the kingdom and an immenſe treaſure to his ſon Abraham, or Abu-Ferez. This prince, finding himſelf ſufficiently powerful, revolted from the emperor of Morocco, aſſumed the title of king of Africa, ſtrengthened and embelliſhed Tunis, and gave it the name of the metropolis of Africa. At his death, he divided the kingdom between his three ſons, giving Tunis to one, Bugia to another, Numidia to the third. But Hutman, or Autman, who reigned over Tunis, ſoon diſpoſſeſſed his brother Hamar of Numidia, and left both to his ſon Abu-Bar, who was afterwards deprived of them by Subajah, one of the deſcendants of the caliſs of the Saracens.

Muley-Mahmet, one of the ſucceſſors of Subajah, had many children, but they were all, except the youngeſt, ſo profligate and wicked, that he appointed him to ſucceed him. This young prince, who was the celebrated Muley-Haſſan, was ſcarce ſettled on the throne, before his eldeſt brother attempted to make his eſcape from the priſon in which he was confined; but failing in his attempt, he was put to death, with ſeveral of his other brothers, and many perſons who were ſuſpected of adhering to their cauſe, for ſuſpicion in theſe caſes, is frequently as fatal as conviction. But one of his brothers, named Aſraſhid, fled to the king of Numidia, who raiſed an army in his favour, marched againſt Haſſan, and totally defeated him: but being without artillery, it was impoſſible to take Tunis. Aſraſhid, therefore burnt the ſuburbs, took leave of his Arabs, and repaired to Algiers, to engage in his cauſe the famous Barbaroſſa, who governed that kingdom for the Grand Signor.

This prince was conducted by Barbaroſſa to Conſtantinople, where he was apparently well received, and promiſed redreſs: he was, however, detained there as a kind of hoſtage, while Barbaroſſa ſailed for Tunis with a ſtrong armament, having taken Biſerta, Porto Farino, &c. he appeared before the fortreſs of Goletta. This ſo terrified Haſſan, who was hated by his ſubjects, that he fled in the utmoſt conſternation, leaving all his treaſures behind him. But he was no ſooner gone, than the principal people, imagining that prince Aſraſhid was in the Turkiſh fleet, releaſed his wife and ſon from confinement, paid them the moſt profound reſpect, and ſent two horſes finely capariſoned to Goletta, one for Aſraſhid, and the other for Barbaroſſa, that they might make their public entry into the city. Perceiving their diſpoſition and miſtake, the artful Barbaroſſa took care not to undeceive them, but gave them to underſtand that Aſraſhid was with him, and ſhould immediately land to receive their allegiance and homage.

Immediately hereupon ſixty royal gallies were filled with Turkiſh troops to the number of nine thouſand, who landed, and inſtantly took poſſeſſion of the city and caſtle. The people were rather ſurpriſed not to ſee Aſraſhid with Barbaroſſa; but how greatly was their conſternation increaſed, when, inſtead of even mentioning him, the politic Turk talked of nothing but their ſubmiſſion to the will of the Grand Signor. This apparent treachery ſo irritated the inhabitants, that they flew to arms: ſome went after Haſſan, to bring him back to their deliverance;

while others attacked the caſtle, but were repulſed with great loſs; and the Tuniſians were at length compelled to acknowledge the Grand Signor for their ſovereign, and Barbaroſſa as governor.

In order to regain his dominions, Haſſan had recourſe to a very unaccountable expedient, which was, making application to the Chriſtian emperor Charles V. to whom he promiſed to become tributary. This rendered him ſtill more odious to his own ſubjects, and obnoxious to all Mahometans in general. The emperor entered heartily into the enterprize, and prepared a powerful armament accordingly; while Barbaroſſa did all that an able commander could do upon ſuch an occaſion: he put Tunis into the beſt ſtate of defence poſſible: invited all the Mooriſh and Arabian princes to join him, who readily gave him aſſiſtance, as they imagined that it was a general cauſe, in which all Mahometans were concerned, and perſuaded moſt of the Levantine cruiſers to aid him with all their ſtrength: however, the court of Conſtantinople could afford him but little aſſiſtance, being then involved in its Atlantic wars.

At length the emperor's fleet, conſiſting of one thouſand four hundred ſhips of various ſizes, appeared on the Tuniſian coaſt, when the numerous forces were immediately landed, and the caſtle of Goletta inveſted in form, which, after a very ſtout reſiſtance, and great loſs on both ſides, was taken by ſtorm. The emperor then proceeded towards Tunis, while Barbaroſſa marched out on his approach, and drew up his army in order of battle in the plain of Cazar-Menevi, which is about three miles from the metropolis. The two armies preſently came to an engagement, when the Arabs ſoon giving way, Barbaroſſa ſuſtained a total overthrow. After retreating to Tunis, he now thought of nothing but eſcaping with his treaſure, though he did all he could to conceal his intentions from even his own people; but his deſign was perceived, both from his hurry to remove his riches from the caſtle, and the order he gave to blow up all the Chriſtian ſlaves. This diabolical order, however, none of his officers had the cruelty to put into execution.

Among the Chriſtian ſlaves was one named Paul Simoni, a brave Malteſe, who had behaved ſo gallantly againſt the Turks, that Barbaroſſa would never ſuffer him to be ranſomed on any account. This gentleman, having an intimation of Barbaroſſa's deſign, found means privately to procure ſome hammers and files, when he immediately releaſed himſelf and the reſt of the Chriſtian ſlaves from their chains, to the amount of ſeven thouſand, and jointly breaking into the caſtle armoury, they furniſhed themſelves with weapons, with which they ſallied out, and killed or routed all the Turks who guarded the avenues to the caſtle. They then ſecured the place, and waved a white banner from the battlements, inviting the Chriſtians to come to their relief. The tumult this occaſioned brought Barbaroſſa to the place, who demanded entrance into the caſtle, but was anſwered only by a volley of muſquetry; when perceiving how matters went, he cried out, "I am undone! theſe Chriſtian dogs have got poſſeſſion of the caſtle, and all my treaſure;" and fled with the utmoſt precipitation, ſo that he got ſafe to the city of Barca, before the emperor Charles knew of the revolution in his favour. Simoni, however, ſent him word of Barbaroſſa's flight: and as ſoon as he entered the city, preſented himſelf before him at the head of the newly emancipated Chriſtians; when the monarch tenderly embraced the Malteſe knight, ſaying, "My dear friend, bleſſed for ever be that noble reſolution which enabled you to break off your fetters, to facilitate my conqueſt, and encreaſe the glory of the Malteſe order." This gentleman was afterwards ſent to Malta loaded with favours, and was moſt cordially received by thoſe of his order. Thus the Chriſtians became poſſeſſed of Tunis; but we are ſorry to add, that the cruelties which they indiſcriminately excerciſed upon the poor Tuniſians of all ranks and ages, and of either ſex, tended greatly to tarniſh the laurels they had gained by their courage and conſtancy.

Haſſan was now re-ſettled upon the throne by the emperor, under the following conditions: 1. That the fort of Goletta ſhould remain in the emperor's hands as a pledge, though Haſſan ſhould be obliged to repair the fortifications at his own expence. 2. That a garriſon of the emperor's troops ſhould remain in it, but Haſſan ſhould maintain and pay them. 3. That prince Mahomet, Haſſan's ſon, ſhould remain in the emperor's power, as an hoſtage for the fidelity of his father. 4. That all Chriſtian captives, of whatſoever nation, ſhould be releaſed without any ranſom. 5. That the Chriſtians ſhould have a free commerce throughout the whole kingdom. 6. That they ſhould be allowed to ſettle in it, to build churches and monaſteries, and enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. 7. That no corſair, Turk, or Moor, ſhould be allowed to come to any ſea port, be furniſhed with any proviſions, or be aſſiſted or favoured in any caſe by the Tuniſians. 8. That the whole coral fiſhery ſhould belong to the emperor and his heirs for ever. 9. That the kings of Tunis ſhould hold themſelves vaſſals and dependents on the crown of Spain, and ſend thither yearly, in token of it, ſix horſes and twelve falcons; in conſideration of which, they ſhould be intitled to the protection of that crown, on any emergency.

Theſe ſtipulations were exceedingly diſagreeable to the Mahometan powers; and rendered Haſſan not only hated by them, but very contemptible in their eyes. As ſoon as the emperor returned to Europe, this general diſlike began to evince itſelf by the revolt of ſeveral of the cities, which either put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, or erected themſelves into little commonwealths: Barbaroſſa, at the ſame time, having raiſed a conſiderable army and fleet in Algiers, began a new attack upon Tunis. Haſſan, being harraſſed on every ſide, ſent to Europe for ſuccours, which were liberally promiſed him, but the performance was ſo ſlow, that he was determined to go and ſolicit them perſonally.

While he was in Europe upon this errand, his ſon Hamida revolted againſt him, and raiſed him a dangerous commotion at home, making the following ſpecious motives the pretext for his unnatural rebellion: 1. That his father was gone to the emperor, in order to turn Chriſtian. 2. That Haſſan's deſign was, to cut him off from the ſucceſſion, becauſe he was a friend to Mahometaniſm; and to place the crown upon his brother Mahmed's head, who had a great propenſity to Chriſtianity. The governor of Tunis, however, ſeverely reprimanded him for his unnatural proceedings, which repulſe ſo much chagrined the prince, that he retired to a country houſe at a ſmall diſtance from Tunis, where he mourned in private his precipitate conduct: but the people, who were more prepoſſeſſed in his favour than he imagined, really fancied that Haſſan was dead, according to ſome flying reports; and that the governor would conſpire with the Spaniſh garriſon in the Goletta to crown prince Mahmed, and thereby force a Chriſtian king upon them: theſe notions operated ſo powerfully upon the minds of the vulgar, that they tumultuouſly went to the place of prince Hamida's retirement, and made him an immediate offer of the crown. This exactly ſuiting his ambitious temper, he accepted of the propoſal, and, putting himſelf at the head of the malecontents, he proceeded to the caſtle, where he cauſed the old governor to be murdered, and committed ſeveral other enormities and exceſſes.

This revolution having reached the ears of Haſſan, he returned home, with about two thouſand Italian forces; but his ſon defeated him, took him priſoner, and deprived him of his ſight. However, Haſſan's brother Abdulmelech drove Hamida from Tunis, and aſſumed the reins of government himſelf; but dying in a very ſhort time, the Spaniſh government of Goletta had one of his ſons crowned king, inſtead of Haſſan's ſon Mahmed, who ought in juſtice to have been advanced to the throne. The unfortunate Haſſan himſelf found means to make another voyage to Europe; when applying to the emperor Charles V. he was kindly received, much pitied, and promiſed redreſs; but the promiſe was the only comfort he ever had, for it was never performed by the emperor. In the mean time, Hamida had been ſo ſucceſsful in forming alliances with the Arabian and Mooriſh princes, and chiefs, that he recovered Tunis, and reigned without moleſtation till the year 1570, when he was again diſpoſſeſſed of it by Halli, baſſa of Algiers.

During this interval, Haſſan remained in the emperor's court, till that monarch had prepared a powerful armament to drive Barbaroſſa, and other formidable pirates, from the places they poſſeſſed on the Barbary coaſt. The command of the Chriſtian fleet was given to the famous Doria, a great Genoeſe admiral, who was ordered to begin his operations by diſlodging the celebrated pirate Dragut from the places of which he had poſſeſſed himſelf on the Tuniſian coaſt; for Dragut not only commanded the piratical, but the Turkiſh fleet, Barbaroſſa having reſigned in his favour, that himſelf might have more leiſure to purſue all manner of debaucheries, as his inclination for every ſpecies of libertiniſm ſeemed to increaſe, inſtead of diminiſhing with his years, till he fell a martyr to exceſs at upwards of fourſcore years of age. At length the grand imperial Chriſtian fleet arrived on the coaſt of Africa with

the unfortunate Haſſan, old and blind, and his ſons Mahmed and Muley-Rubekar on board: but the wretched monarch ſoon after died of a fever in the camp of the Chriſtians, and was buried with his anceſtors at Kayrwan. He was of a majeſtic appearance, black complexion, brave, wiſe, and politic; but cruel, and to the laſt degree vindictive.

Admiral Doria in a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of moſt places on the ſea coaſt, particularly Mahodia, in which he got an immenſe plunder; but the emperor afterwards ordered that place to be totally demoliſhed, and the Chriſtians to evacuate their poſſeſſions on the Barbary coaſt, the Goletta excepted, having occaſion for his troops in Europe, when Hali the Turk poſſeſſed himſelf of Tunis; but Sinan baſſa made a total conqueſt of the kingdom in the reign of Selim II. and deſtroyed all the Chriſtians but fourteen whom he ſent in chains to Conſtantinople. Having brought the whole beneath the Ottoman yoke, he appointed for its government a baſſa or viceroy, a divan, ſeveral governors or beys over the different provinces, four thouſand janiſaries, and a number of garriſons in the different cities, towns, and fortreſſes. This revolution terminated the ſplendor of the kings of Tunis, after three hundred and ſeventy years continuance, from its firſt eſtabliſhment by Abu-Ferez, in 1204.

At this period the kingdom of Tunis began to be governed by deys choſen by the divan; but the ſtate was in ſuch confuſion, the jealouſies ſo great, and the intrigues ſo various, that new deys were frequently elected, almoſt all of them being either murdered or dethroned; ſo that in the ſpace of one hundred and twenty years no leſs than twenty-three reigned, the whole of whom, except five, were dethroned or murdered. The people in general were ſo diſſatisfied at the very firſt with the baſſa that Sinan had placed over them, that they petitioned the Porte to aboliſh that office, and permit them to elect a dey to govern them, as was done at Algiers. This requeſt was granted, and they immediately elected a popular perſon, of whom they were wonderfully fond at firſt, but they murdered him within the twelvemonth. One Ibrahim was their next choice; and they would have ſerved him in the ſame manner, if he had not luckily given them the ſlip, and fled to Mecca.

Theſe frequent and bloody revolutions gave an opportunity to the beys or officers of the ſecond rank to uſurp an authority over the deys, and to render the divan, or ſenate itſelf, ſubſervient to their pleaſure. The ſublime Porte, alarmed at the deſpotic power of the Tuniſian beys, determined to revive the office of baſſa, that they might have a perſon upon the ſpot to be a check upon the former: but ſo jealous was this politic court, that, fearing its own baſſa ſhould become as powerful, arbitrary and troubleſome as the bey himſelf, it never permitted that officer to reſide above two years at Tunis.

This kingdom, during the reigns of the ſeveral deys, muſt be conſidered rather as involved in anarchy and confuſion, than as a well regulated government; and we are leſs acquainted with their hiſtory at that period, than at any other. But, ſubſequent to the year 1681, we are better acquainted with the Tuniſian affairs; for at this time the bey Morat II. dying, left three ſons, viz. Mahomet, Hali, and Ramadan, who for ſome time maintained a bloody conteſt for the ſucceſſion; but Ramadan at length, greatly to his honour, declined his pretenſions, and gave up all his right to his brothers, perſuading them at the ſame time, in pity to the people, to compromiſe matters, and put a ſtop to their ſanguinary proceedings: but his brothers, more ambitious and leſs humane than himſelf, continued the diſpute for a conſiderable time by frequent appeals to the ſword, till Mahomet, growing tired of the conteſt, gave it up, and retired to Kayrwan, where he reſigned himſelf to a life of devotion; but the war was ſoon after rekindled by the perfidy of Hali; for Mahomet, when he went into retirement, intruſted his ſon Achmet to the care of his brother, that he might be brought up in the court in a manner ſuitable to his birth: but the treacherous Hali, inſtead of protecting, baſely murdered his nephew. This ſo exaſperated Mahomet, that it drew him from his ſolitude; and being informed that the perſons who had adviſed Hali to murder the young prince were fled, he purſued, overtook, and ſacrificed them to his reſentment. Hali himſelf had been driven from Tunis by the citizens, ſome of whoſe privileges he had attempted to infringe, but was now in full march to lay ſiege to that place, in order to reduce it to obedience.

This ſeemed a favourable opportunity for Mahomet to obtain the crown: but an ambitious and artful perſon, named Cheleby, had the addreſs to prejudice the people equally againſt both brothers ſo that Mahomet appeared as obnoxious to them as Hali. This, however, occaſioned a reconciliation to take place between the two brothers, who united their forces, and inveſted Tunis; when Cheleby making a ſally, totally routed their troops; but he had not the prudence to make a proper advantage of his ſucceſs, by purſuing the brothers, who ſoon rallied, recruited their forces, and ſtrengthened their army by the addition of forty thouſand Algerines, whom they hired of Ibrahim dey of Algiers. With theſe troops they ſoon made themſelves maſters of Tunis, and took Cheleby priſoner, whom they put to death. The Algerines, committed many horrid cruelties and depredations in the city, till they were paid, and ſent home, and Mahomet was univerſally acknowledged as bey: but this prince ruling in a very arbitrary manner, the people called in the Algerines to expel him from the government; which they did, and made Ben-Choukee, his brother-in-law, bey in his ſtead; but this change availed them nothing, for the latter was as arbitrary and rapacious as the former; ſo changing their minds again with their uſual facility, they reſtored Mahomet, and dethroned Ben-Choukee.

Ramadan was ſoon after made bey, on the death of his brother Mahomet; but this prince, having lived always a recluſe life, knew nothing of public buſineſs, or of mankind, and was conſequently very unfit to govern a kingdom; but, what was ſtill worſe, inſtead of taking any trouble to qualify himſelf for the ſovereignty, he was intirely devoted to pleaſure, and made an Italian fiddler his prime-miniſter, leaving the whole adminiſtration of affairs to him. This occaſioned ſeveral commotions, and at length ſo much exaſperated the people, that they ſtrangled Ramadan, and tore in pieces his prime miniſter.

Morat, the nephew of the former bey, ſucceeded his uncle, and proved a monſter of cruelty; but being murdered by Ibrahim, the captain of his guard, the aſſaſſin was advanced to the throne, and, after an unfortunate but ſhort reign, was killed in a ſea engagement (occaſioned by an inſurrection among his ſubjects) and was ſucceeded by

Haſſen-Ben-Hali, a politic and formidable prince, who freed himſelf from a dependence on the Porte, rendered himſelf ſo powerful as to ſtand in no awe of his neighbours the Algerines or Tripolitans, reſtrained his ſubjects from acts of piracy, and concluded many commercial treaties with the Chriſtian powers, particularly the Dutch and Engliſh: the ſtipulated articles between the Tuniſians and the latter were concluded with admiral Baker, and are nearly the ſame as thoſe agreed upon between the Engliſh and the people of Tripoli. Nothing that deſerves particular notice has happened in Tunis ſince that period.

SECT. VIII.

Deſcription of the Kingdom or Republic of TRIPOLI, its Boundaries, chief City, Towns, &c.

TRIPOLI is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea: on the ſouth, by the country of the Beriberies; on the weſt, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the eaſt, by Barca, and the kingdom of Egypt. It extends nine hundred and twenty-five miles along the ſea coaſt; but the breadth is various. Excluſive of the creeks and projections of the ſhore, its extent on the coaſt is from ten degrees thirteen minutes, to twenty-five degrees twenty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude.

The moſt accurate geographers divide the whole kingdom into ſix provinces; namely, Tripoli Proper, Meſrata, Haicha, Benoleſa, Gulf of Sidra, and Ouguela. The towns on the ſea coaſt are the moſt conſiderable, and the beſt known, thoſe of the inland parts of the country are ſo little known, and ſo trifling, that they have ſcarce been deemed worthy of attention by either antient or modern travellers: the inhabitants of both, however, are equally addicted to robbing, the former being profeſſed pirates; and the latter, whenever they can find opportunity, make no ſcruple to plunder their neighbours.

The antients diſtinguiſhed the city of Tripoli, which is now the capital of the whole country, into Old and New; the former was built by the Romans, ſubdued by the Vandals, and deſtroyed by the Mahometans. The new city aroſe out of the ruins of the old.

The preſent city of New Tripoli is populous, but ſmall; and the natives, though barbarous, are flouriſhing. It is ſituated on a ſandy ſoil, near the margin of the ſea; ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, defended by formidable ramparts, and

and flanked by pyramidical towers. Here are but two gates, the north gate towards the ſea, and the ſouth gate towards the country; and the whole city is in the form of a creſcent, the concave part of which incloſes the haven. At the extreme points of the harbour, which is very commodious, are ſome military works; thoſe to the eaſtward are in bad conditon, but on the weſtward there is a caſtle well fortified. The houſes in general are very mean, and low built, and the ſtreets narrow and crooked; yet ſome remaining monuments of magnificence ſeem to confirm the prevailing opinion of the inhabitants, that it was once remarkable for the ſplendor of many of its public buildings; among theſe, are the fragments of a triumphal arch, which is nearly buried in the ſand, but exhibits a ſufficient part above ground to give ſome idea of its elegance when perfect, and ſtanding in its proper ſituation.

This city labours under two very great inconveniencies, which are, the ſcarcity of corn, and want of ſweet water, the ſandy ſoil making it difficult to cultivate the firſt, and the want of rivers, ſprings, &c. rendering it impoſſible to procure the latter, without the diſagreeable neceſſity of catching rain in ciſterns and reſervoirs. The deficiency of freſh water, and great ſterility reſpecting grain, are both ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by the encroachments of the ſea, which has frequently been known to overflow the neighbouring territory to a very conſiderable diſtance: but theſe inundations, though they may have eſſentially injured them in the above reſpects, have conſiderably benefited them in another particular, that is, the amazing increaſe of lothus trees, which thrive beſt in a ſaline clay or ſandy ſoil, and produce both food and drink, as the fruit eats excellently well, and makes a moſt delicious wine. Yet, after all, the inhabitants of Tripoli could not ſubſiſt upon the produce of their country, without the additional proviſions continually brought in by their piratical veſſels, which are conſtantly cruiſing in the Mediterranean ſea.

The people of Tripoli truſt the guarding of their city, in the night time, to maſtiffs, which are ſhut up during the day, in one of the baſtions of the ramparts. Theſe maſtiffs diſcharge very faithfully the duties of their functions; they patrole through the ſtreets of the city, and if they happen to meet with any perſon, they are ſure to tear him to pieces. As ſoon as day breaks, they go of themſelves to the door of their priſon; and bark when they hear any perſon approach their habitation, and their roaring is heard in all the quarter of the city where they are confined. This city is frequently viſited by the plague; on which account the Franciſcans, who are ſettled here, have beſides their church and convent, an hoſpital, in which they adminiſter relief to the Tripolitans, as well as to thoſe of their own religion.

It has been remarked by a reputable writer, that Tripoli is far leſs conſiderable than Algiers, and not comparable to Tunis. The government is the ſame with that of the reſt of the cities of Africa; the Moors are in as little credit here as at Algiers; the Nazarene (i. e. Chriſtian) renegadoes enjoy the greateſt ſhare of authority of any ſect of people in this country, and fill the chief employments; indeed there are a vaſt number of renegadoes here, many of whom the perſon abovementioned had converſed with; and that they all appeared to be as ignorant of the religion they had embraced, as of that quitted by them: moſt of the perſons in queſtion having been ſo poorly educated, that they were ſcarcely acquainted with the rudiments of their belief, and indeed, ſays he, they aſſign the moſt trifling reaſons poſſible for quitting their religion; whereas in other countries, ſlaves are commonly prompted, from the ill treatment they meet with from their maſters, to turn Mahometans; but here, on the contrary, they are brought over by gentleneſs. Of all the corſairs of Barbary, none are leſs cruel than the people of Tripoli, though none are ſo much addicted to theft.

The country adjoining to Tripoli abounds with villas of the principal Tripolitans, the gardens belonging to which, are uſually managed by the Chriſtian ſlaves, who are however, all confined in a ſingle bagnio or goal in the city itſelf, during the night time.

Cabes, or Gabes, is ſituated near the gulf of the ſame name, and on the antient river Triton, to which the moderns have given the ſame name as the town Being the frontier town between Tripoli and Tunis, it is large and well fortified, and in its neighbourhood are found the ruins of the antient city called by the Romans Tacapa. Cabes, however, is but poor, and thinly inhabited by fiſhermen and a few huſbandmen; the latter of which cultivate a ſmall quantity of barley, a conſiderable number of palm trees, and a root which reſembles a potatoe. The natives are as black as negroes, and ſo poor, that they look upon a few pecks of barley, and half a dozen of palm trees, as a conſiderable fortune. The river Cabes riſes in a ſandy deſart, and diſembogues itſelf into the Mediterranean; hence the waters are ſo hot, that they cannot be drank till they have been put for about the ſpace of two hours, into a cool place. This town lies in ten degrees fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-nine degrees north latitude.

El-Hammah, is ſituated in ten degrees fifty-one minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-four degrees north latitude, near a lake called the Lake of Lepers, becauſe it cures that diſeaſe. The inhabitants are a few fiſhermen, who are pirates when occaſion offers; and ſome huſbandmen, who are thieves at all opportunities. It was never remarkable but for its Roman walls, its hot ſulphureous ſprings, the aqueducts by which they are conveyed, and of which ſcarce any veſtiges remain.

Zoara, ſixty miles weſt of Tripoli, is well fortified, and has a good harbour. It is ſurrounded by an old wall, almoſt in ruins: the inhabitants, who are but few in number, live by fiſhing, and burning quick lime or pot-aſh, or, when opportunity ſerves, by piracy. This town is ſuppoſed to be the antient Pitidau, and lies in thirteen degrees twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and thirty-two degrees forty-five minutes north latitude.

The towns above deſcribed, which are ſituated on the weſtern coaſts of the gulf of Sidra, are the beſt in the country; thoſe on the eaſtern ſide, and within the gulf, are in a moſt wretched condition, and preſent a dreadful picture of the deva ſtations of time.

The various inundations of Goths, Vandals, Arabs, Mahometans, &c. who have over-run the country at different times, have ſubjected theſe parts of Africa to a great number of revolutions: they have alſo ſuffered much from the depredations of the Europeans, and tyranny of the government. The iſland of Malta is a perpetual thorn in the ſides of the piratical ſtates, particularly thoſe of Tripoli and Tunis, from the vicinity of the ſituation; and the Malteſe knights merit the thanks of all commercial nations, for having ſo greatly circumſcribed the power of the Barbary rovers, and reſtrained their piracies.

The Moors, after they were driven out of Andaluſia in Spain, built the town of Derne, on the weſtern ſide of the gulf of Sidra, which indeed is the only place worth mentioning in the diſtrict of that name. It is ſituated at the diſtance of about half a mile from the ſea, and is better ſupplied with ſweet water than moſt of the towns in the Tripoline territories; nevertheleſs the inhabitants are few in number, and miſerably poor in circumſtances. The moſt remarkable produce is great quantities of honey, the delicacy of which is occaſioned by the bees feeding upon a kind of ſhrub peculiar to this country, which bloſſoms all the year, and bears a fragrant yellow flower.

The province of Meſrata, is at preſent much reduced, though it was antiently very flouriſhing: it contains, however, a few towns on the ſea coaſt and ſome ſcattered villages, and upon an emergency can raiſe ten thouſand men fit to bear arms. The inhabitants retain their former ſpirit, for they appear at preſent to be as impatient of the Tripolitan, as they were antiently of the Tuniſian yoke: they pay a tribute, though reluctantly, to the bey of Tripoli, and are often at war with the wild Arabs.

With reſpect to the inland diſtricts, we may obſerve, that they are leſs populous, leſs known, and have fewer towns, than any of thoſe deſcribed. Indeed Anguela, or Ouguela, though in many parts a barren deſart, contains a few ſpots that are fertile, particularly in paſturage and dates.

The revenues are raiſed by an impoſt on the corſairs, which are uſually about eight in number, by a tax on commercial imports and exports, and by a ſubſidy which the Jews are obliged to furniſh. The bey likewiſe taxes the wild Arabs and inland Moors; but theſe frequently refuſe to pay the tribute, when he is obliged to ſend his flying camp of janiſaries among them, to reduce them to obedience: but neither the Porte, or the Turkiſh baſſa trouble themſelves about the government, provided the bey pays with punctuality his ſtipulated tribute to the firſt, and gratifies the avaricious cravings of the laſt. The beys of Tripoli are not mere nominal vaſſals to the Turkiſh government, like thoſe of Algiers and Tunis, but are obliged to pay a conſiderable tribute, which puts them under the neceſſity of tyrannizing over the poor people, and reducing them to the utmoſt indigence and miſery, in order to obtain a ſufficient ſum to diſcharge their quota.

Their

Their chief article of commerce is in ſlaves, which are taken by the corſairs at ſea, or ſtolen by the wild Arabs and Moors from the neighbouring ſtates. Both are, however, uſually ſent to Turky, and ſold there as the beſt market, unleſs it is imagined that they belong to a diſtinguiſhed family, when they are kept in expectation of a conſiderable ranſom for them:

The only article of trade worth mentioning, beſides the above, is the ſale of aſhes, which are diſpoſed of to the Europeans for the purpoſe of making ſoap and glaſs. It is neceſſary to remark, concerning this regency, that, with reſpect to commerce and treaties, the people are much better obſervers of their word, and perform their promiſes with more punctuality, than any of the political ſtates who live near them.

SECT. IX.

The Hiſtory of, and various Revolutions in the Kingdom of TRIPOLI, &c.

WE find the firſt accounts of Tripoli in ſome of the Roman hiſtorians, who ſpeak of it as a very flouriſhing ſtate. In the decline of that empire, after the inhabitants had thrown off the Roman yoke, they were ſucceſſively ſubdued by the Vandals, Saracens, and the ſovereigns of Morocco, Fez, and Tunis. At length, in the reign of Bucamen, king of Tunis, who ruled the Trepolines very deſpotically, the inhabitants thought proper to revolt, and conſtituted one of their own people king of Tripoli; but the new monarch, turning tyrant, was poiſoned, and ſucceeded by Abubacer, who had been one of his officers, but, turning marabout, quitted the military for the hermetical life.

Tripoli was beſieged, in the beginning of this king's reign, by an army of fifteen thouſand Spaniards, who ſoon took the place, and ſent Abubacer, with his whole family, priſoners to the emperor Charles V. who was then at Palermo; but this monarch reſtored him to his kingdom, on condition of his becoming vaſſal and tributary to him.

Abubacer was ſovereign of Tripoli till the knights of Rhodes were driven from that iſland, and obliged to retire to Syracuſe, when the beforementioned emperor granted them the iſland of Malta, together with the city and caſtle of Tripoli, which lay oppoſite to it. They accordingly garriſoned the latter, but were ſoon diſpoſſeſſed of them by the famous Barbaroſſa. They were, however, ſoon after retaken by the emperor, who put the knights of Malta again in poſſeſſion of them.

The Turks, under the command of the baſſa Serai, in the reign of ſultan Solyman, beſieged Tripoli, when it was ſurrendered to him, as is imagined, by the cowardice or treachery of the governor, who was a Frenchman, after it had been forty years in the hands of the Chriſtians. It continued for ſeveral years under the government of a ſangiac, deputed by the Porte to rule the people, and collect the revenues, the caſtle being garriſoned by Turks, and the city inhabited by Moors. At length the Turkiſh deſpotiſm and extortions became ſo intolerable, that a marabout, named Sid Hajah, found an opportunity to cauſe a general revolt about the cloſe of the ſixteenth century: he was, however, repeatedly defeated by Haſchen baſſa, and at length aſſaſſinated by ſome of his own party.

Mahomet Beygh, a Greek renegado, was then ſent by the Porte to govern Tripoli; but this officer was no ſooner eſtabliſhed in his government, than he refuſed to receive any baſſa from the Grand Signor; he indeed acknowledged himſelf the vaſſal of the Porte, and voluntarily ſtipulated to pay a certain annual tribute, but he alledged, that in common prudence it was requiſite for him to defend himſelf from the fate of many other governors dependent on the Porte, who had been put to death upon the moſt unjuſt and oftentimes frivolous pretences, without being ſo much as allowed to vindicate their conduct.

The following are the only remarkable tranſactions which now remain to be taken notice of relative to the kingdom of Tripoli; namely, the bombardment of the capital city by the French, in the reign of Lewis XIV. and the treaty of peace and commerce between the Tripolitans and Engliſh, in the year 1716. The firſt of theſe occurrences took place in conſequence of the Tripolitans having taken a ſhip under French colours, and detained ſeveral French ſubjects in a ſtate of ſlavery. This occaſioned Lewis to order his officers to make repriſals upon the veſſels of Tripoli, wherever they met them. Theſe orders were ſtrictly obeyed by the French captains; in particular, M. d'Amfreville attacked ſix of their veſſels near cape Sapiença. Three of the corſairs fled in the beginning of the engagement; and the other three, after having been much ſhattered in the fight, took refuge at the iſland of Chios. The French commodore, M. Du Queſne, who commanded in the Levant, having intelligence thereof, immediately proceeded to block them up with ſeven ſhips of war: but, previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, he ſent a meſſage to the governor aga, to the following purport: "That his maſter was in perfect amity with the Chians, and the Porte of Conſtantinople, but came in ſearch of ſome Tripolitan pirates, who, contrary to the moſt ſolemn treaties, had committed the moſt outrageous depredations on the ſubjects of France, and therefore hoped that the aga would not protect ſuch infamous robbers." The aga, however, refuſed to give up the pirates; which ſo exaſperated the French commodore, that he began immediately to bombard the place, againſt which he threw upwards of ſeven thouſand bombs; made a dreadful havock both of the houſes and Tripolitan ſhips, and killed a great number of the people; but he could not enter the port on account of a ſtrong ſtaccado which the Tripolitans had contrived to lay in his way. The court of Conſtantinople thought proper to interfere, in order to get matters adjuſted, when at length it was agreed between the grand viſir, and the Gallic ambaſſador, that matters ſhould be compromiſed agreeable to the tenor of eight articles, which were drawn up for that purpoſe.

The abovementioned articles, however, which were framed greatly to the advantage of the French, were rejected with the utmoſt diſdain by the regency of Tripoli, who at the ſame time prudently prepared for the worſt. On the other hand, the French monarch ordered a powerful armament to ſail immediately to Tripoli, under the command of the famous marſhal D'Etrees, vice admiral of France, who being joined by the ſquadrons under the marquis d'Amfreville and captain Neſmond, appeared before Tripoli on June 15, 1685, with his whole fleet. On the 22d in the evening the bombardment began, and was carried on with great ſucceſs under the immediate direction of the celebrated M. Tourville. The marſhal D'Etrees then had the port every where ſounded, in order to find the moſt convenient place to raiſe a battery, which might effectually deſtroy both town and fortifications; this, with the number of houſes already deſtroyed, and people killed with the bombs, ſo terrified the Tripolitans, that they diſpatched a venerable old man, of near one hundred years of age, to ſue for a peace, which they were willing to receive upon any terms, when they at length agreed upon the two following articles: 1. That the Tripolitans ſhould pay two hundred thouſand crowns as an equivalent for all the captures made of French merchantmen; and, 2. That they ſhould reſtore all the Chriſtian captives they had taken fighting under French colours.

The terms propoſed occaſioned ſeveral delays, which aroſe chiefly from the difficulty of raiſing ſo large a ſum of money: it was, however, agreed to reduce the demand to five hundred thouſand livres, but even that could not be paid till the dey and principal people had ſtripped their wives of their bracelets, rings, jewels, &c. The whole was at length paid either in money or valuables. The French ſlaves were ſet at liberty, and two of the principal people of Tripoli were obliged to go to France, to do homage to the king of that nation.

A treaty of peace and commerce was concluded, in 1716, between the regency of Tripoli, and the Britiſh admiral Baker on the part of the king of Great Britain; the articles of which we ſhall give at full length, as they nearly concern England as a commercial nation, and reſemble thoſe agreed on with other Barbary ſtates.

"Articles of peace, and commerce between his moſt ſacred Majeſty king George, &c. and the moſt excellent lords, Mahamed Bey, Yuſef Dey, the Divan, and the reſt of the officers, and people of the city and kingdom of Tripoli, renewed, concluded, and ratified on the 19th of July, A. D. 1716, by John Baker, Eſq; vice-admiral, &c. &c.

"I. In the firſt place, it is agreed and concluded, that from this time forward for ever there ſhall be a true and inviolable peace between the moſt ſerene king of Great Britain, and the moſt illuſtrious lords and governors of the city and kingdom of Tripoli in Barbary; and between all the dominions and ſubjects of either ſide; and if the ſhips and ſubjects of either party ſhall happen to meet upon the ſea, or elſewhere, they ſhall not moleſt each other, but ſhall ſhew all poſſible reſpect and friendſhip.

"II. That

" II. That all merchant ſhips belonging to the dominions of Great Britain and trading to the city or any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall pay no more than three per cent. for all kinds of goods they ſhall ſell; and as for thoſe they ſhall not ſell, they ſhall be permitted freely to embark them again on board their ſhips without paying any duty whatſoever, and ſhall depart without any hindrance or moleſtation.

" III. That all ſhips and other veſſels, as well belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain or to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, as thoſe belonging to the city and kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall freely paſs the ſeas, and traffic where they pleaſe, without any ſearch, hindrance or moleſtation from each other. And that all perſons or paſſengers, of what country ſoever, and all manner of monies, goods, merchandizes, and moveables, to what people or nation ſoever belonging, being on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſhall be wholly free, and ſhall not be ſtopped, taken, or plundered, or receive any harm or damage whatſoever from either party.

" IV. That the Tripoline ſhips of war, or any other veſſels thereunto belonging, meeting with any merchant ſhips, or other veſſels of the king of Great Britain's ſubjects (not being in any ſeas belonging to his majeſty's dominions) may ſend on board one ſingle boat with two ſitters, beſides the ordinary crew of rowers, and no more than the two ſitters, to enter into the ſaid merchant ſhips, or any other veſſels, without the expreſs leave of the commander of every ſuch ſhip or veſſel; and then upon their producing to them a paſs, under the hand and ſeal of the high admiral of England, or of the commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office; the ſaid boat ſhall depart, and the merchant ſhip or ſhips, veſſel or veſſels, ſhall freely proceed on its or their voyage; and though the commander or commanders of ſuch merchant ſhip or ſhips, or veſſels, &c. produce no paſs from the high admiral of England, or the commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office; yet if the major part of the ſhip's or veſſel's company be ſubjects of the ſaid king of Great Britain, the ſaid boat ſhall preſently depart, and the merchant ſhip or ſhips, &c. ſhall freely proceed on their voyage. And any of the ſaid ſhips of war, or other veſſels of his ſaid majeſty meeting with any ſhip or ſhips belonging to Tripoli, if the commander or commanders of any ſuch ſhip or ſhips, &c. ſhall produce a paſs ſigned by the governors of Tripoli, and a certificate from the Engliſh conſul reſiding there; or if they have no ſuch paſs or certificate, yet if the major part of the ſaid ſhip's or veſſel's company be Turks, Moors, or ſlaves belonging to Tripoli, then the ſaid Tripoli ſhip, veſſel, &c. ſhall freely proceed on their voyage.

" V. That no commander, or other perſon, of any ſhip belonging to Tripoli, ſhall take out of any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid majeſty's ſubjects any perſon or perſons whatſoever, to carry them any where to be examined, or upon any other pretence, nor ſhall uſe any torture or violence unto any perſon of what nation or quality ſoever, being on board any ſhip or veſſel of his ſaid majeſty, upon any pretence whatſoever.

" VI. That no ſhipwreck belonging to the ſaid king of Great Britain, or to any of his ſubjects, upon any part of the coaſt belonging to Tripoli, ſhall be made or become a prize, and that neither the goods thereof ſhall be ſeized, nor the men made ſlaves: but that all the ſubjects of Tripoli ſhall do their beſt endeavours to ſave the ſaid men and their effects.

" VII. That no ſhip nor any other veſſel of Tripoli, ſhall have permiſſion to be delivered up, or to go to any other place at enmity with the king of Great Britain, to be made uſe of as corſairs againſt his majeſty's ſubjects.

" VIII. That if any ſhip or veſſel belonging to Tunis, Algiers, Tetuan, Sallee, or any other place being at war with the king of Great Britain, bring any goods or veſſels of his ſaid majeſty's ſubjects to Tripoli, or any other port or place of that kingdom, the governors there ſhall not permit them to be ſold within the territories of Tripoli.

" IX. That if any of the ſaid king of Great Britain's ſubjects ſhall happen to die in Tripoli, or any of its territories, his goods or monies ſhall not be ſeized by the governors or any miniſters of Tripoli, but ſhall remain with the Engliſh conſul.

" X. That neither the ſaid conſul, nor any other ſubject of Great Britain ſhall be bound to pay the debts of any other Britiſh ſubject, unleſs they become ſurety for the ſame by a public act.

" XI. That the ſubjects of his ſaid Britiſh majeſty in Tripoli, or its territories, in matters of controverſy, ſhall be liable to no other juriſdiction but that of the dey or divan, except the difference be between themſelves, in which caſe they ſhall be liable to no other determination than that of the conſul.

" XII. That in caſe any ſubject of his Britannic majeſty being in any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall happen to kill, wound, or ſtrike a Turk or Moor; if he be taken, he ſhall be puniſhed in the ſame manner, and with no greater ſeverity, than a Turk ought to be for the like offence; but if he eſcape, neither the Engliſh conſul, nor any other Britiſh ſubject, ſhall be in any ſort queſtioned or troubled on that account.

" XIII. That the Engliſh conſul now, or at any time hereafter, reſiding at Tripoli, ſhall be there at all times with intire freedom and ſafety of his perſon and eſtate, and ſhall be permitted to chuſe his own interpreter and broker, and freely to go on board any ſhip in the roads, as often as he pleaſes, and to have the liberty of the country, and ſhall be allowed a place to pray in; and that no perſon ſhall do him any injury in word or deed.

" XIV. That not only during the continuance of this peace and friendſhip, but likewiſe if any breach or war happen to be hereafter between his ſaid Britiſh majeſty and the city and kingdom of Tripoli, the ſaid conſul, and all other his majeſty's ſubjects inhabiting in the ſaid kingdom of Tripoli, ſhall always and at all times, both in peace and war, have full and abſolute liberty to depart, and to go into their own or any other country, in any ſhip or veſſel of what nation ſoever they ſhall think fit, and to carry with them all their effects, goods, families, and ſervants, though born in the country, without any moleſtation or hindrance.

" XV. That no ſubject of his Britannic majeſty, being a paſſenger from or to any port, ſhall be moleſted or meddled with, though he be in a ſhip or veſſel at war with Tripoli.

" XVI. That if any of his ſaid Britannic majeſty's ſhips of war come to Tripoli, or to any other port or place of that kingdom, with any prize, they ſhall have liberty to ſell it, or otherwiſe diſpoſe of it at their own pleaſure, without any lett or moleſtation; and that his ſaid majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall not be obliged to pay any cuſtoms whatſoever; and that if they ſhall want proviſions, victuals, or any other things, they may freely buy them at the market price.

" XVII. That when any of his Britannic majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall appear before Tripoli, upon notice thereof given to the Engliſh conſul, or by the commander of the ſaid ſhips to the chief governor of Tripoli, public proclamation ſhall be immediately made to ſecure the Chriſtian captives; and if, after that, any Chriſtians whatſoever make their eſcape on board any of the ſaid ſhips of war, they ſhall not be required back again; nor ſhall the ſaid conſul or commander, or any other Britiſh ſubject, be obliged to pay any thing for the ſaid eſcaped Chriſtians.

" XVIII. That all the merchant ſhips coming to the city or kingdom of Tripoli, though not belonging to Great Britain, ſhall have free liberty to put themſelves under the protection of the Britiſh conſul, in ſelling and diſpoſing of their goods and merchandize, if they ſhall think proper, without any moleſtation.

" XIX. That all the Britiſh ſhips of war carrying his majeſty's flag, upon their appearing before the city of Tripoli, after due notice given of it by the Britiſh conſul, ſhall, in honor of his Britannic Majeſty, be ſaluted with twenty-ſeven cannon fired from the caſtle of the city, and the ſaid ſhip ſhall return the ſame number to it.

" XX. That no merchant ſhip belonging to Great Britain, or any other nation under the protection of the Britiſh conſul, being in the port of Tripoli, ſhall be detained from proceeding to ſea on her voyage longer than three days, under pretence of arming the ſhips of war of this government, or any other whatſoever.

" XXI. That no Britiſh ſubject ſhall be permitted to turn Muſſulman in the city and kingdom of Tripoli, being induced to it by any ſurprize whatſoever, unleſs he voluntarily appear before the dey or governor, with the Engliſh conſul's interpreter, thrice in twenty-four hours, and every time declaring his reſolution to become Mahometan.

" XXII. That his Britannic majeſty's conſul, reſiding in Tripoli, ſhall at all times when he pleaſes, have liberty to put up his ſaid majeſty's flag on the top of his houſe, and there to continue it diſplayed as long as he pleaſes; and likewiſe that the ſaid conſul ſhall have the like liberty of putting up and diſplaying the ſaid flag on his boat, when he paſſes on the water; and no man whatſoever to

oppoſe, diſturb, or injure him therein either by word or deed.

" XXIII. That whereas the iſland of Minorca, and city of Gibraltar, have been yielded to his Britannic majeſty by the king of Spain, as well as ſeveral other powers of Europe engaged in the late war; it is agreed and concluded, that from this time forward for ever, the ſaid iſland of Minorca and city of Gibraltar ſhall be eſteemed in every reſpect, by the government of Tripoli, to be part of his Britannic majeſty's dominions, and the inhabitants thereof ſhall be deemed his natural ſubjects, as if they had been born in Great Britain; and they, with their ſhips carrying Britiſh colours, ſhall be permitted freely to trade and traffic in any part of the kingdom of Tripoli, and ſhall paſs without any moleſtation, either on the ſeas or otherwiſe, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame freedom and privileges, as have been ſtipulated in this and all former treaties, in behalf of the Britiſh nation and ſubjects.

" XXIV. And whereas in the treaty concluded in the reign of king Charles II. A. D. 1676, by Sir John Narborough, an article was inſerted, by which the ſhips of Tripoli were excluded from cruiſing before or in ſight of the port of Tangier, then belonging to his majeſty; it is now ratified and concluded, that none of the ſhips or veſſels belonging to Tripoli ſhall cruiſe or look for prizes before or in ſight of the iſland of Minorca and Gibraltar to diſturb or moleſt the commerce thereof, in any manner whatſoever.

" XXV. That all and every article in the treaty ſhall be inviolably kept and obſerved between his ſacred majeſty &c. and the moſt illuſtrious lords, &c. of the city and kingdom of Tripoli; and all other matters not particularly expreſſed in this treaty, and provided for in any former, ſhall ſtill remain in full force, and ſhall be eſteemed the ſame as if inſerted.

" Dated in the preſence of Almighty God, in the city of Tripoli, on the 19th day of June, in the year 1716 of the Chriſtian æra; and of the Mahometan hegira 1128."

We ſhall cloſe our deſcription of this country with obſerving, that the kingdom of Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and reſpectable of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced; and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between four and five hundred thouſand have all the vices of the Algerines.

Barca, which is included in the kingdom of Tripoli, is ſituate between ten and thirty degrees eaſt longitude, and thirty and thirty-four degrees of north latitude, is ſtiled by the few Arabs who inhabit it, Ceyart Barca, or the deſart of whirlwinds and hurricanes, extends four hundred miles from north to ſouth, and three hundred from eaſt to weſt. This inhoſpitable country compriſes thoſe diſtricts which the antients termed Marmarica and Cyrenaica. It was better known to the antients than the moderns, and is particularly mentioned by Virgil, on account of the ferocity of the people, in the ſpeech which that poet puts into the mouth of Anna, queen Dido's ſiſter, when ſhe is recapitulating the ſtates that ſurround Carthage.

The territory about the towns and villages produce a ſcanty pittance of corn, millet, and maize; all other parts of this wretched region, are totally barren; and the whole labours under a great ſcarcity of water. Small as the quantity of grain is, the poor people are under the neceſſity of bartering ſome of it for camels, ſheep, dates, &c. Perhaps the moſt pleaſant place in the whole country is that ſmall diſtrict upon which the temple of Jupiter Ammon formerly ſtood; yet this is ſurrounded by horrid plains of burning ſands, which move under the traveller's feet like waves, or, being raiſed by the winds, overwhelm him with clouds of duſt. If any are obliged to travel through this diſagreeable region, they muſt travel with a compaſs, or they would be loſt in the deſart, and wander about till they periſhed with hunger and thirſt.

The antient Cyrenaica, is the deſart part, and that called Marmarica the habitable diſtrict; thoſe who live near the ſea coaſt are all given to piracy; and the maritime part itſelf is called the coaſt of Dernha, from the chief city remaining, all the other towns known to the ancients being either totally ruined, or dwindled to the moſt inconſiderable villages; ſo that what condition they are in, what commerce they carry on, or how and by whom governed, we cannot give any ſatisfactory account of; and can only farther add, that the people are the moſt determined, ferocious, and cruel robbers, both by ſea and land; and they are ſo poor, that in order to augment their means of ſubſiſtence, and get rid of all that they may deem an incumbrance, they are frequently obliged to ſell their wives and children to the Sicilians.

SECT. X.

Giving a general and ſupplementary Account and Deſcription of BARBARY, its Seaſons, Soil, Produce, Huſbandry, Cattle, Inhabitants, &c.

BARBARY is bounded by the Mediterranean, on the north, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt, by Egypt; on the ſouth, by the deſerts of Zaara: and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; being in length from eaſt to weſt, about two thouſand two hundred miles; and in breadth, from north to ſouth, where wideſt, about ſix hundred miles.

This country enjoys a wholeſome temperature of air, neither too hot in ſummer, nor too ſharp and cold in winter. The winds are generally from the ſea, i. e. from the weſt (by the north) to the eaſt. Thoſe from the eaſt are common at Algiers from May to September, at which time the weſterly winds take place, and become the moſt frequent. Sometimes alſo, particularly about the equinoxes, we very ſenſibly experience that force and impetuoſity, which the antients have aſcribed to the Africus, or ſouth-weſt wind, called labetch by the mariners of theſe ſeas. The ſoutherly winds, which are uſually hot and violent, are not frequent at Algiers. They blow ſometimes for five or ſix days together, in July and Auguſt, rendering the air ſo exceſſively ſuffocating, that during their continuance, the inhabitants are obliged to ſprinkle the floors of their houſes with water. The winds from the weſt, the north-weſt, and the north, are attended with fair weather in ſummer, and rain in winter: but the eaſterly winds, no leſs than the ſoutherly, are for the moſt part dry, though accompanied by a thick and cloudy atmoſphere in moſt ſeaſons.

Rain is very uncommon in this climate during the ſummer ſeaſon: and in moſt parts of the Zaara, or Deſart, on the ſouth of Algiers, particularly in the Jereed, they have rarely any rain at all. The firſt rains fall ſome years in September; in others a month later; after which the Arabs break up their ground, and begin to ſow wheat, and plant beans. This commonly falls out about the middle of October: but the ſowing of barley, and the planting of lentils and gravances, is a fortnight or three weeks later, or not till the end of November. If the latter fall in the middle of April (as they uſually do) the crop is reckoned ſecure; the harveſt following in the latter end of May, or in the beginning of June, according to the preceding quality of the ſeaſon.

Two buſhels and a half of wheat, or barley, are judged here to be ſufficient to ſow as much ground as a pair of oxen will plow in one day, which we have always found to be, a little more or leſs, equal to one of our acres. We could never learn that any part of Barbary afforded yearly more than one crop, one buſhel yielding ordinarily from eight to twelve, though ſome diſtricts may afford a much greater increaſe. There is but one kind of wheat and barley cultivated in this country. In ſome diſtricts, where they have a command of water during the ſummer ſeaſon, the natives cultivate rice, Indian corn, and particularly a white ſort of millet, which the Arabs call drah, and prefer it to barley for the fattening of their cattle. Oats are not cultivated at all by the Arabs (the horſes of this country feeding altogether upon barley) neither is big (or winter wheat) ſo much as known in this climate.

The Moors and Arabs continue to tread out their corn, after the primitive cuſtom in the eaſt. After the grain is trodden out, they winnow it, by throwing it up into the wind with ſhovels, lodging it afterwards in mattamores or ſubterraneous magazines.

Beans, lentils, and gravances (the latter of which is a cicer or chich pea) are the chief ſorts of pulſe that are cultivated in theſe kingdoms. Peaſe, till of late, were known in the gardens only of the ſeveral Chriſtian merchants. They are ſown with the firſt rains, and bloſſom in the latter end of February, or the beginning of March. Beans are uſually full podded at that time, and being boiled up with oil and garlick, are the principal food of perſons of all diſtinction during the ſpring. After them lentils and gravances begin to be gathered. Of roots, pot-herbs, and the fruits of the country, there is not only a great plenty and variety, but a continuance or ſucceſſion at leaſt of one kind or other throughout the whole year.

Palm

Palm trees are very numerous in this country; as are alſo almond trees, plumbs, cherries, mulberries, apples, pears, peaches, nectarines, pomgranates, prickle pears, olives, walnuts; but no hazel filberts, currants or gooſeberries.

Their grapes ripen towards the latter end of July, and are cut for the vintage in September. The wine of Algiers, before the locuſts in 1723 and 1724, made ſuch deſtruction of the vineyards, was not inferior to the beſt Hermitage, either in briſkneſs of taſte or flavour. But ſince that time it greatly degenerated, and has not for many years recovered its uſual qualities; but at preſent it may diſpute the preference with the wine of Spain or Portugal. The lemon (and ſometimes the civil orange) tree, is always in a ſucceſſion of fruit and bloſſoms; but the China, as it is commonly called, is a foreigner, and bears only towards the latter end of autumn.

With reſpect to their gardens, there is nothing laid out with method, beauty, or deſign; the whole being only a medley or confuſion of trees, with beds of cabbages, turnips, beans, gravances, &c. nay, ſometimes of wheat and barley diſperſed among them. Fine walks, parterres, and flower-plats, would be to theſe people the loſs of ſo much profitable ſoil; as planting in order and regularity, the ſtudy of ſoil and compoſts, or the aiming at any new improvements and diſcoveries, would be ſo many deviations from the practice of their anceſtors, whoſe footſteps they follow with the utmoſt attachment and reverence.

The ſoil, from which theſe vegetables are produced, is for the moſt part of ſuch a looſe and yielding contexture, that an ordinary pair of oxen is ſufficient, in one day, to plow an acre of the ſtiffeſt ſort of it. The colour of it is not always the ſame; for in the plains of Zeidouſe it is blackiſh, whilſt in thoſe of Elmildegah, &c. it inclines to be red; though all of them are alike impregnated with great quantities of ſalt and nitre, and are equally fruitful.

The banks of ſeveral rivers, to the depth ſometimes of two or three fathoms, are ſtudded, in ſummer time, with nitrous and ſaline knobs and exudations, which, beſides the depth of the ſoil, ſhew us likewiſe how well it is ſaturated with theſe minerals. In the ſalt-petre works at Tlemſan, they extract ſix ounces of nitre from every quintal of the common mould, which is there of a dark colour; and at Douſan, Kair-wan, and ſome other places, they have the like quantity from a loamy earth, of a colour between red and yellow. To this grand and inexhauſtible fund of ſalt we may in a great meaſure attribute the great fertility for which this country has always been remarkable, and ſtill continues to be ſo, without any other manuring than the burning, in ſome few places, of the ſtubble; though it is ſomewhat extraordinary that the province of Byzacium, which was formerly held in ſo much repute for its fertility, ſhould be at preſent the moſt barren and unprofitable part of theſe kingdoms.

Salt is the chief and prevailing mineral of theſe kingdoms, as well from the ſeveral ſalt ſprings and mountains of ſalt, as from the great number of ſaline ſhibkahs that are to be met with in every diſtrict. The ſalt pits of Arzew lie ſurrounded with mountains, taking up an area of about ſix miles in compaſs. They appear like a large lake in winter, but are dry in ſummer, the water being then exhaled, and the ſalt left behind cryſtallized. In digging, they paſs through different layers of this ſalt, whereof ſome are an inch, others more in thickneſs; in proportion, we preſume, to the quantity of ſaline particles the water was impregnated with, before their reſpective conerations. This whole area is made up of a ſucceſſion of ſimilar ſtrata heaped one upon another: and in the ſame manner are the ſalinæ between Carthage and the Goletta, thoſe of the Shott, and of other places, bordering upon or lying within the Saara.

Jebbel Had deſſa is an intire mountain of ſalt, ſituated near the eaſtern extremity of the lake of Marks. The ſalt of it is of a quite different quality and appearance from that of the ſalinæ, being as hard and ſolid as ſtone, and of a reddiſh or purple colour. Yet what is waſhed down from theſe precipices, by the dews, acquires another colour, becoming as white as ſnow, and loſing that ſhare of bitterneſs, which is in the parent rock ſalt. The ſalt of the mountains, near Lwotaiah and Jibbel Miniſs, is of a grey or bluiſh colour, and, without ſubmitting to the like accidental purification as at Had-deſſa, is very agreeable to the palate; the firſt eſpecially being ſold for a penny an ounce at Algiers.

The ſalt of the lake of Marks (called likewiſe Bahirah Fharuoune), and of other leſſer plains of the ſame nature, is of the like quality and flavour. Theſe are uſually called Shibkah, i. e. ſaltiſh plats of ground, being commonly overflowed in winter (at the ſame time they appear like ſo many extenſive lakes), but are dry all ſummer (when they may be taken for the like number of bowling-greens prepared for the turf). Some of theſe ſhibkahs, have a hard and ſolid bottom, without the leaſt mixture of gritty mould, retaining the ſalt that lieth cryſtallized upon them after rain. But others are of a more ouzy, abſorbent nature, ſeldom preſerving any ſaline incruſtations upon the ſuface.

But, beſides the ſalt ſprings and rivulets, already mentioned, theſe countries abound in hot and ſulphurous ſprings and baths. Some of theſe waters are little more than lukewarm; others of more intenſe heat, and very proper to bathe in, while the Hammiam-Meſkouteen, and the upper bath at Mereega, are much too hot for that purpoſe; the former boiling a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Beſides the hot mineral effluvia that are continually diſcharged by the thermæ, there ſtill remain below the ſurface ſome vaſt and inexhauſtible funds of ſulphur, nitre, and other inflammable bodies, of which the freqency and violence of the earthquakes, anno 1723 and 1724, ſhook down a number of houſes, and cloſed up the courſe of ſeveral fountains: but by one of theſe violent concuſſions, anno 1716, a large patch of ground at Wamre, lying in an eaſy deſcent, with a well, a few trees, and a farm houſe, glided all down together for the ſpace of a furlong, till they were, one or other of them, ſtopped by the channel of the Harbune. Several of the branches, together with ſome pieces of the houſe turned upſide down, and lying a diſtance from each other, are to this day ſtanding monuments of this cataſtrophe. I was likewiſe informed, that the like accident happened at the ſame time in ſome of the mountainous diſtricts near Boujeiah and El-Khadarah. The great ſhock in anno 1724, was perceived from Miliana to Bona, the air being then very clear and temperate, and the quickſilver ſtanding at the greateſt height, whilſt, upon enquiry, other concuſſions were only found to be local, or of ſmall extent; the quickſilver, in theſe caſes, obſerving no certain period, and the air being, as at other times, either calm or windy, hazy or ſerene.

Earthquakes, at Algiers, generally fall out a day or two after a great rain, at the end of the ſummer, or in the autumn. The cauſe, perhaps, may ariſe from the extraordinary conſtipation or cloſeneſs of the ſurface at ſuch times, whereby the ſubterraneous ſtreams will be either ſent back or confined; whereas the whole country being full of deep chinks and chaſms, the inflammable particles have an eaſier eſcape.

Lead and iron are the only metals that have yet been diſcovered in Barbary; the latter is white and good, but in no great quantity. Their lead ore is very rich, and might be obtained in large quantities, if their mines were under a good regulation.

Beſides the horſe, the mule, the aſs, and camel, uſed in Barbary for riding and carrying burdens, Dr. Shaw (from whoſe travels into theſe parts this account is chiefly taken) mentions another animal, called the kumrah, a little ſerviceable beaſt of burden, engendered betwixt an aſs and a cow, being ſingle hoofed like the aſs, but the tail and head (except the horns) like a cow, and a ſkin ſleeker than that of the aſs.

In this country, the neat cattle are generally very ſmall and ſlender, the fatteſt of them, when brought to the ſtall, rarely weighing above five or ſix quintals, or hundred weight: neither is their milk in proportion to their ſizes, for notwithſtanding the rich herbage of this country from December to July, the butter never has a ſubſtance or richneſs of taſte equal to what our Engliſh dairies afford us in the midſt of winter. Abdy baſſa, dey of Algiers, was no leſs ſurpriſed than his miniſters, when admiral Cavendiſh acquainted him, that he had a Hampſhire cow on board the Canterbury (then in the road of Algiers) which gave a gallon of milk in a day; a quantity equal to what half a dozen of the beſt Barbary cows would yield in the ſame time. The Barbary cattle have likewiſe another imperfection, which is, that they always loſe their calves and their milk together.

The dairies here are alſo in ſome meaſure ſupplied by the ſheep and goats, as the Moors and Arabs chiefly make cheeſe of their milk. Inſtead of runnet, they make uſe (in the ſummer ſeaſon particularly) of the flowers of the great-headed thiſtle, or wild artichoke, to turn the milk, putting the curds thus made into ſmall baſkets of ruſhes, or palmetta leaves, and binding them afterwards and preſſing them. Many of theſe cheeſes weigh about two or three

three pounds, being uſually of the ſhape and ſize of a penny loaf. They have no other method of making butter, than by putting their milk or cream into a goat-ſkin, which being ſuſpended from one ſide of the tent to the other, and preſſed to and fro in one uniform direction, quickly occaſions that ſeparation of the unctuous and wheyey parts which is requiſite.

We may obſerve further, that, beſides the great variety of the cattle of this country, each ſpecies are very numerous and prolific. Several Arabian tribes can bring into the field only three or four hundred horſes, at the ſame time that they are poſſeſſed of more than ſo many thouſand camels, and thrice that number of ſheep and black cattle. The Arabs rarely kill any of their flock, living chiefly upon their milk and butter, or elſe upon what their wool brings them in exchange for foreign commodities.

With reſpect to cattle that are not naturally tame and domeſticated, theſe kingdoms afford large herds of the neat kind, called bekker-el-waſh by the Arabs. This ſpecies is remarkable for having a rounder turn of body, a flatter face, with horns bending more to each other than in the tame kind: theſe agree in colour with the red deer, and are of the ſame ſize.

The lion and panther are among their wild beaſts: the tyger is not a native of Barbary. The dubbah is an animal about the bigneſs of a wolf, but of a flatter body, and naturally limps upon the hinder right leg. Beſides theſe animals, it has others in common with other countries, as red and fallow deer, the gazel or antelope, the bear, the ape, the ichneumon, porcupine, hedge-hog, fox, ferret, weaſel; alſo the mole, rabbet, hare, and wild boar, which are every where in great numbers. The lion is ſuppoſed to prey chiefly upon the latter, which notwithſtanding hath ſometimes been known to defend itſelf with ſo much bravery, that the victory hath inclined to neither ſide, the carcaſes of them both having been found lying dead together all in a gore, greatly torn and mangled.

The abovementioned traveller obſerves, that the locuſts which he ſaw in the years 1724 and 1725 were much bigger than our common graſshoppers, having brown ſpotted wings, with legs and bodies of a bright yellow. Their firſt appearance was towards the latter end of March, the wind having been for ſome time ſoutherly; and in the middle of April their numbers were ſo vaſtly increaſed, that, in the heat of the day, they formed themſelves into large bodies, appeared like a ſucceſſion of clouds, and darkened the ſun: about the middle of May, when their ovaries were turgid, each of theſe bodies began gradually to diſappear, retiring into the metijah and other adjacent plains, to depoſit their eggs. Accordingly, in the month following, their young broods began gradually to make their appearance, and it was ſurprizing to obſerve, that no ſooner were any of them hatched, than they immediately collected themſelves together, each of them forming a compact body of ſeveral hundred yards ſquare, which marching afterwards directly forward, climbed over trees, walls, and houſes, and eat up every plant in their way, letting nothing eſcape them.

The inhabitants, to ſtop their progreſs, made trenches all over their fields and gardens, and filled them with water; or elſe placing in a row great quantities of heath, ſtubble, and ſuch like combuſtible matter, they ſet them on fire on the approach of the locuſts. But all this was to no purpoſe, for the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out by infinite ſwarms ſucceeding one another, whilſt the front ſeemed regardleſs of danger, and the rear preſſed on ſo cloſe, that a retreat was impoſſible. A day or two after one of theſe bodies was in motion, others were already hatched to glean after them, gnawing off the young branches, and the very bark of ſuch trees as had eſcaped before with the loſs only of their fruit and foliage; ſo juſtly hath the inſpired writer compared them to a great army, and obſerved, that the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a deſolate wilderneſs.

Having, in this manner, lived near a month upon the ruin and deſtruction of every thing that was green and juicy, they arrived at their full growth, and threw off their worm-like ſtate by caſting their ſkins. To prepare themſelves for the change, they clung by their hinder feet, to ſome buſh, twig, or corner of a ſtone, when immediately, by an undulating motion, uſed upon the occaſion, their heads would firſt appear, and ſoon after the reſt of their bodies, after which they lay in a languiſhing condition; but as ſoon as the ſun and air had hardened their wings, and dried up the moiſture that remained upon them, after the caſting off their ſloughs, they returning again to their former voracity, with an addition both of ſtrength and agility: but they continued not long in this ſtate, before they were intirely diſperſed, as their parents had been before, after the laying of their eggs; and as the direction of their marches, and flights of them both, was always to the northward, it is probable they periſhed in the ſea, a grave, which according to thoſe people, they have only in common with other winged creatures. Theſe inſects, ſprinkled with ſalt, and fried, are not much unlike the river crayfiſh in taſte.

Africa produces few monſters: according to the ſame author, the natural and ordinary courſe of things is much the ſame in Barbary, as in other places; each ſpecies, as far as he could be informed, keeping inviolably to itſelf; for if, ſays he, we except the mule and kumrah, (which two are produced from animals under the direction of mankind, and therefore not ſo properly left to themſelves) few, it is preſumed, if indeed any inſtances, can be fairly urged in favour of the old obſervation, that Africa is always producing ſome new monſters.

Arts and ſciences are little known or encouraged in Barbary: beſides their koran, and ſome other enthuſiaſtic comments upon it, very few books are read or enquired after, by thoſe few perſons of riper years, who have both time and leiſure for ſtudy and contemplation. All that variety of learning which they formerly either invented themſelves, or adopted into their own language, may be reduced, at preſent, to a few ſheets of blundering geography, or to ſome tireſome memoirs of the tranſactions of their own times; for ſuch branches of hiſtory as are older than their prophet, are a medley only of romance and confuſion.

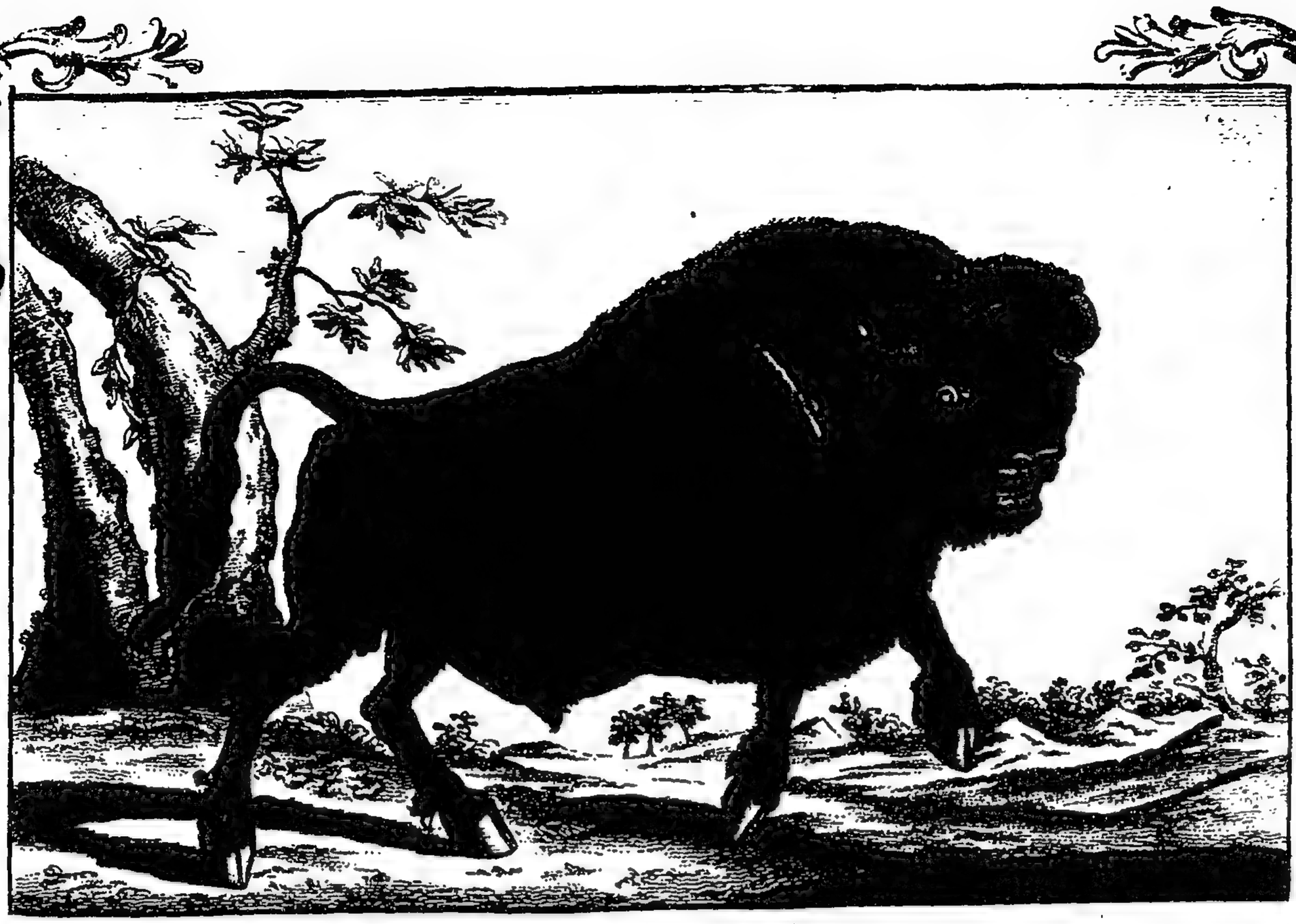
The ſame writer obſerves, that, upon his arrival at Algiers, he made it his chief buſineſs, to be acquainted with ſuch perſons as had the character of being learned and curious; and though it is very difficult (as well from their natural ſhyneſs to ſtrangers, as from a particular contempt they have for Chriſtians) to cultivate any real friendſhip among them; yet in a little time, it was perceived that the chief aſtronomer (who had the ſuperintendance and regulation of the hour of prayer) had not trigonometry enough to project a ſun-dial; that the whole art of navigation as it is practiſed at Algiers and Tunis, conſiſted in nothing more than what is called the pricking of a chart, and diſtinguiſhing the eight principal points of the compaſs. Even chemiſtry is no farther applied at preſent than to the diſtilling of roſe water; though this was formerly the favourite ſcience of theſe people.

Notwithſtanding the extreme ignorance of theſe people in general, there are, however, ſeveral perſons who preſcribe in phyſic, play upon a variety of muſical inſtruments, and are concerned in other actions and performances, which ſeem, at leaſt, to ſuppoſe ſome ſkill in mathematics; yet all this is learnt merely by practice, long-habit, and cuſtom, aſſiſted, for the moſt part, with great ſtrength of memory and quickneſs of invention; for no objection can be made againſt the natural parts and abilities of theſe people, who are certainly ſubtil and ingenious, and only want time, application, and encouragement, to cultivate and improve them.

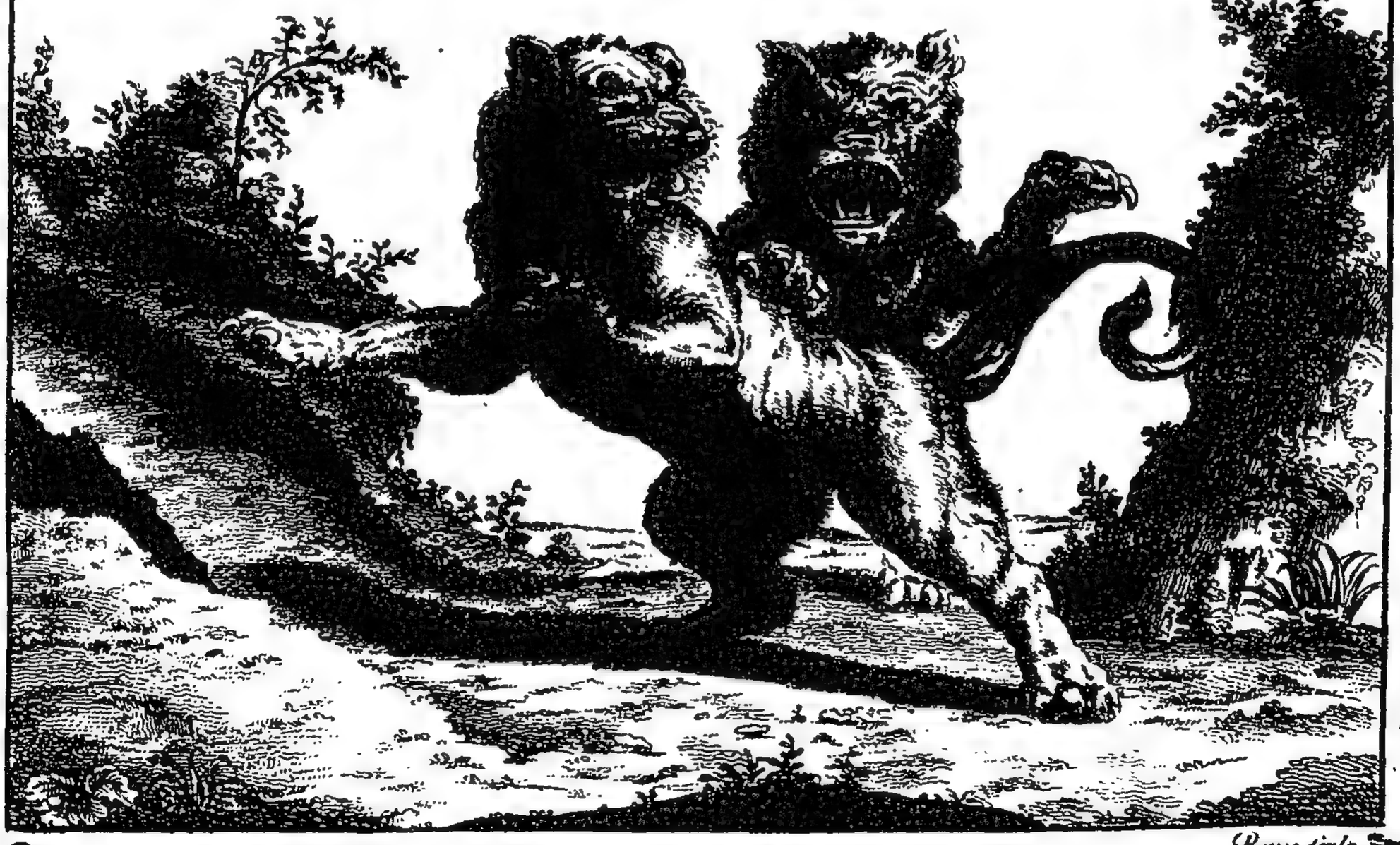
As the people believe in ſtrict and abſolute predeſtination, few of them will either admit of advice or medicine; whilſt others, who are leſs ſuperſtitious reſpecting religion, prevent the aſſiſtance of both by their ill conduct and management, leaving all to the ſtrength of nature, or elſe to mager-eah, as they call charms and enchantments, concerning which they are very credulous.

There is ſcarcely one perſon in twenty thouſand that is verſed in numeral arithmetic or algebra, notwithſtanding their forefathers, if we may judge from the name, ſeem to have been the inventors of the one, as they have given to all Europe the characters of the other. However, the merchants, beſides being frequently very dextrous in the addition and ſubtraction of large ſums by memory, having a ſingular method of numeration, by putting their hands into each other's ſleeve, and then touching one another with this or that finger, or ſuch particular joint of it (each of them denoting a determined ſum or number), they will tranſact affairs of the greateſt value, without ſpeaking to one another, or being at all underſtood by the byeſtander.

The Arabs are more addicted to ſuperſtition than any other nation in the world, or even than the Mahometans in general. They hang about the childrens necks the figure of an open hand, which the Turks and Moors paint upon their ſhips and houſes, as an antidote and counter charm to an evil eye; for five, with them, is an unlucky



Exact likeness of the BUFFALO, *or Wild Bull.*



Natural representation of LIONS *found in* AFRICA.

lucky number. They who are grown up, carry always about with them ſome paragraph or other of the koran, which, as the Jews did their phylacteries, they place upon their breaſt, or ſew under their caps, to prevent faſcination and witchcraft, and to ſecure themſelves from ſickneſs, and other misfortunes they are expoſed to.

The people ſuppoſe the virtue of theſe charms and ſcrolls to be ſo far univerſal, that they hang them upon the necks of their horſes, and other beaſts of burden. They alſo place great confidence in magicians and ſorcerers; and upon ſome extraordinary occaſions, particularly in a lingering diſtemper, they uſe ſeveral ſuperſtitious ceremonies in the ſacrificing of a cock, a ſheep, or a goat; by burying the whole carcaſe under ground, or by drinking a part of the blood, or elſe by burning or diſperſing the feathers: for it is a prevailing opinion all over this country, that a great many diſeaſes proceed from ſome offence or other that has been given to the jenoune, a ſort of creatures placed by the Mahometans betwixt angels and devils. Theſe, like the fairies of our fathers, are ſuppoſed to frequent ſhades and fountains, and to aſſume the bodies of toads, worms, and other little animals, which, being always in our way, are liable every moment to be hurt and moleſted. When any perſon, therefore, is ſick or maimed, he fancies that he has injured one or other of theſe beings, and immediately the women, who are dextrous in theſe ceremonies, go upon a Wedneſday with frankincenſe and other perfumes, to ſome neighbouring ſpring, and there ſacrifice as we have already hinted, a hen or cock, an ewe or a ram, &c. according to the ſex and quality of the patient, and the nature of the diſtemper he is afflicted with.

SECT. XI.

Containing a Deſcription of the MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

AS the ſeveral provinces and diſtricts of Barbary, lately treated of, have the Mediterranean for their northern boundary, it will be therefore neceſſary to give a particular deſcription of that celebrated ſea, before we proceed with our account of the other parts of Africa; eſpecially as there are many particulars relating to it, too curious to be overlooked in a work of this nature, and which we ſhall now give our readers in as ſuccinct a manner as the ſubject will admit of.

The Mediterranean ſea is ſo called on account of its being ſurrounded by the land on all ſides, except at the two ſtraights at the end of it, viz. that of Gibraltar, on the weſt, and the Boſphorus on the eaſt, which laſt lets the Euxine or Black ſea, as the former doth a conſtant current from the weſtern ocean into it. The antients called it the Heſperian ſea, from the word Heſper, or Veſper, ſignifying the weſt. It was alſo ſtiled Mare magnum, or the Great ſea; and Mare infernum, or Lower ſea. The former was given to it by the ſacred books of the Old Teſtament, in oppoſition to the ſea of Galilee, and the Dead ſea, which, though dignified with the name of ſea, were but ſmall lakes in compariſon of it; and the Latter or Lower ſea was given it by the Romans, from the coaſt of Genoa to thoſe of Sicily. Thoſe of Internum, Interius, and Inteſtinum, were given it on the ſame account with that of Mediterranean. The Spaniards call it Mar di levanto, or the Eaſtern ſea, by reaſon of its ſituation with reſpect to them.

This ſea is parted from the weſtern ocean by the ſtraights of Gibraltar abovementioned: from the Red ſea by the iſthmus of Suez; and from the Propontis, by the ſtraights called Dardanels. It is bounded by Europe, on the north; by Africa, on the ſouth; by Aſia, on the eaſt; and by the ſtraights of Gibraltar, on the weſt. Its utmoſt extent from north to ſouth, where wideſt, that is from the gulf of Sidra, in Tripoli, to that of Venice, reaches from thirty, twenty, forty-ſix, forty, that is, upwards of ſixteen degrees, or three hundred and twenty leagues, or nine hundred and ſixty miles. Its length from eaſt to weſt, is ſtill much greater, viz. from five degrees weſtern, to thirty-ſix eaſtern, or forty-one degrees of longitude, making in all ſeven hundred and ten leagues, or two thouſand one hundred and thirty miles. During this long courſe, though it retains the general name of Mediterranean, yet it hath a variety of appellations given to its ſeveral parts, according to the countries it touches on each ſide; ſuch as the ſea of Genoa, the Tuſcan or Etruſcan, the Sicilian ſea, &c. and that branch of it which runs northward from the Cape Otranto, quite up to Venice, is ſtiled the Adriatic ſea, or gulf of Venice; and ſo of the reſt.

The Mediterranean hath abundance of theſe gulfs. The moſt conſiderable of them are, that of Venice, laſt ſpoken of; that of Lions, on the coaſt of France; the Archipelago, in the Levant; and that of Sidra, on the coaſt of Barbary. It hath likewiſe a real number of peninſulas, of which we ſhall only mention the three principal ones, viz. Italy, Greece, and Anatolia. The moſt conſiderable of its iſlands are thoſe of Sicily, Sardinia, Corſica, Majorca, Minorca, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Candia, Rhodes, Cyprus, thoſe of the Archipelago, and many others; an account of which the reader will find at the cloſe of the quarter to which they reſpectively appertain.

It is allowed on all hands, that a continual current flows from the Atlantic ocean into it, at the ſtraights of Gibraltar; and another as conſtantly flows into it at the Boſphorus, from the Euxine or Black ſea. Captain Bolland, who lived nine years at Tangier, and made his conſtant obſervation on the former, tells us, that he never ſaw it fail, during all that time; but that the ſhips in the middle of the ſtraight were always carried by the ſtream into the Mediterranean, unleſs hindered by contrary winds; and it is well known, that at Conſtantinople a ſtrong rapid ſtream ſets always in from the Black ſea; notwithſtanding which, and the prodigious quantities of water that are likewiſe thrown into it, many of which are very large and deep, this ſea is never obſerved to overflow, or even riſe beyond its uſual height. What becomes of all the water that is thus thrown into it, by two ſuch large and conſtant currents; the one of which is computed about four miles broad, and the other about two, is a queſtion, that is much more eaſily aſked than reſolved, though the learned have formed many conjectures concerning it. The moſt received opinion, is, that which ſuppoſes the middle ſtream to flow into it, whilſt the two ſides, by a contrary courſe, diſcharge themſelves out of it into the ocean. And indeed it is obſervable, that though in the middle of the ſtraight there be a rapid current always ſetting in, yet, on the ſides, there is a ſtream of about a third part of that breadth, that flows ſix hours, and ebbs ſix, every day; and that a ſtill narrower ſtream along the ſhore doth likewiſe ebb and flow full twelve hours, but at contrary times from the other: ſo that on the firſt day of the moon it is flood at one of the clock, and ebb at ſeven, in the two intermediate ſtreams next to the middle current; and, on the ſame day, it is flood at ten, and ebb at four, in the two outermoſt ſtreams next to the ſhore: or rather, as the abovementioned captain Bolland aſſures us, it flows at ten, and ebbs at four, on the African ſhore; and flows at eleven, and ebbs at five, on the European ſide.

We ſhall now only add that ſurpriſing phœnomenon of its oppoſite currents; as difficult to be accounted for, as that we have been ſpeaking of concerning the Mediterranean. Theſe currents have been long ſince taken notice of by Procopius, who lived in the ſixth century, and tells us, that the fiſhermen who frequented it, eſpecially that part which is ſtiled the abyſs, obſerved, that their nets, when flung into it, were dragged by the upper current directly from north to ſouth from the ſurface downwards to a certain depth, after which they bent viſibly a quite contrary way; whence they concluded, that the lower current was quite oppoſite to the upper. M. Tournefort, who hath examined the truth of this obſervation, endeavours to account for this contrary courſe, by ſuppoſing that the waters moving violently againſt ſome hollow rock, and meeting with a ſtrong repulſe from it, muſt of conſequence be beaten back with an oppoſite motion to what they had before. However, that judicious author is far enough from being ſatisfied that this is the true cauſe of this wonderful phœnomenon, and only propoſes it as a conjecture of his own, which may excite others to ſeek out for a better. Several other ingenious men have alſo carefully examined the fact, and owned it altogether ſurpriſing, particularly Mr. Gilles, and count Marſilly; but neither they, nor any other, have ventured to give their opinion about the cauſe of it. Thus much ſhall ſuffice for the deſcription of this ſea, which has been ſo remarkable both in antient and modern hiſtory.

CHAP. II.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

NEGROLAND.

SECT. I.

Treating of the Situation and Boundaries of the River GAMBIA, Settlements thereon, the Kingdom of MUNDINGO, the GUM DESART, Country of the PHOLEYS, &c.

NEGROLAND, or Nigritia, is ſituate between eighteen degrees weſt, and fifteen degrees of eaſt longitude, and between ten and twenty degrees of north latitude. The great river Niger or Senegal is ſuppoſed to run through the whole length of it, falling, by ſeveral channels, into the Atlantic ocean: on the banks of this river, as alſo on the borders of the river Gambia, are ſeveral ſettlements belonging to the Engliſh. This extenſive country is bounded, on the eaſt, by Abyſſinia and Nubia; on the north, by the deſart of Zaara; on the weſt, by the Atlantic ocean; and on the ſouth, by Guiney and the kingdom of Benin. It extends about eight hundred miles in the broade part, from north to ſouth; and is upwards of two thouſand two hundred miles from eaſt to weſt.

The river Gambia lies in thirteen degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in fifteen degrees twenty minutes weſt longitude, from whence it is little to be wondered at that the climate ſhould be exceſſively hot. The rainy ſeaſon uſually begins with the month of June, and continues till the latter end of September, and ſometimes the beginning of October: the firſt and laſt are generally the moſt violent. The wind comes firſt, and blows exceſſive hard for the ſpace of half an hour, or more, before any rain falls, inſomuch that a veſſel may be ſuddenly ſurprized and overſet by it; but then a perſon may be aware of it a good while before it comes, for it looks dark, and the lightning breaking out of the black clouds, as they move ſlowly on, makes it appear very dreadful. During the rainy ſeaſon, the ſea breezes ſeldom blow, but inſtead of them eaſterly winds right down the river, which in the months of November, December, January and February generally blow very freſh, eſpecially in the day time. Four months of the year are unhealthful. The greateſt heats are in May, three weeks or a month before the rainy ſeaſon begins.

The river Gambia is divided by a number of iſlands and ſand-banks, and in the wideſt part is about nine miles acroſs. It is navigable for ſmall veſſels upwards of ſix hundred miles, the ſides reaching to that diſtance from its mouth. The land on each ſide is chiefly flat and woody; but there are ſome parts very open, on which the natives plant rice, and in the dry ſeaſon they produce paſture for the cattle. The wild beaſts conſiſt of lions, tygers, and elephants, and there are great numbers of crocodiles in the river.

On this river, the Engliſh, French, and Portugueſe have ſettlements. The chief belonging to the Engliſh is in a ſmall place called James's iſland, which lies about ten miles from the north of the river. There is alſo another conſiderable factory at Gyllifree, a large town on the north bank of the river, near the beforementioned iſland; and a third at Joar, higher up the river in the kingdom of Barſally, which we ſhall more particularly treat of hereafter. Between James's fort and the mouth of the river, at a place called Albedra is the chief ſettlement of the French.

Gold, elephants teeth, bees-wax, and ſlaves, form the principal part of the trade carried on here; the latter of theſe are either priſoners taken in war, or perſons ſtolen or condemned for crimes. The gold is of an excellent quality, and much finer than ſterling gold. The ivory, or elephants teeth, called by the natives morphel, is either found in the woods, or got by hunting and killing the beaſts; and the larger the teeth the more valuable the ivory: ſome of them are quite white, others yellow, but the difference of colour neither adds to, or diminiſhes the value. Bees wax is ſold in great quantities about the river, and is made in cakes from twenty to one hundred and twenty pounds weight. Gum dragon is alſo brought from this country: it comes from a tree called bois de ſang, or blood wood, from whence an inciſion being made in the tree, the red liquor oozes out drop after drop, till ſeveral lumps are formed, which are afterwards dried in the ſun.

Several ſorts of people inhabit the banks of the river Gambia; they are known under the following appellations; namely, the Mundingoes, the Jolloifs or Jalofs; the Pholeys or Fouleys; the Floops or Faloops; and the Portugueſe; of all which, together with the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, we ſhall now proceed to give an account.

Mundingo is much larger than any other kingdom ſituated on the banks of the Gambia, and the inhabitants of it are much more numerous. The Portugueſe conquered this kingdom in the beginning of the fourteenth century, when ſome of them ſettled in it, and their deſcendants have ever ſince intermixed with the natives, ſo that there is little difference between them either as to their colour or ſhape, the former of which is quite black, and the latter thick and clumſy; but as they ſtill retain a corruption of the Portugueſe language, and as they chriſten and marry by the help of the prieſt ſent annually from St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verd iſlands, they conſider themſelves as different from the Mundingoes, as if they were really natives of Portugal; and as the term Negro is only uſed by them for the ſlaves, they eſteem it the greateſt affront that can be offered, to apply it to them.

The kingdom of Mundingo is of conſiderable extent, but its exact diſtance cannot be aſcertained. The natives are quite black, and have very diſagreeable features, their lips being exceedingly thick, and their noſes remarkably broad and flat. They are rational and humane in their diſpoſitions, and are particularly civil to ſtrangers. They are in general very briſk and lively; but, if affronted, are impetuous and revengeful; nor can any quarrel be adjuſted, otherwiſe than by the deſtruction of one or other of the perſons contending.

Theſe people have a great ſenſe of pride, the wealthier part of them keeping a prodigious number of ſlaves; but they treat them in ſo humane a manner, that it is ſometimes difficult to know the ſervant from the maſter: they are frequently much better cloathed, particularly the women, who are ornamented with necklaces, bracelets, and ear-rings made of coral, amber, and ſilver, to a conſiderable value. Several of the natives have many ſlaves born in their families; and though in ſome parts of Africa theſe are ſold, yet in Mundingo it would be thought not only indiſcreet, but very wicked; nor is ever any family ſlave ſold, except for ſuch crimes as would have authorized its being done had he been free. If indeed there are many ſlaves in the family, and one of them commits a crime, the maſter cannot ſell him without the conſent of the reſt; for if he does they will deſert him, and fly to a neighbouring kingdom for protection.

In moſt of the towns of this kingdom they have a kind of drum of a very large ſize, called a tangtong, which they only beat on the approach of an enemy, or on ſome very extraordinary occaſion, to call the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns to their aſſiſtance; and when this is beat

beat in the night time, it may be heard at ſix or ſeven miles diſtance.

If any of the natives ill treat an European, he applies to the alcaid, or head man of the town, who is appointed to do juſtice on ſuch occaſions; he is called the white man's king, and has otherwiſe great power: he has the firſt voice in all conferences relative to public tranſactions, and decides all quarrels.

There are ſeveral perſons called lords of the ſoil, in this and the other kingdoms: they are conſidered as kings in the reſpective towns where they reſide; to them belong alſo the palm and ciboa-trees, which are here in great abundance; and no one dare uſe any leaves, or draw any wine from them, without firſt obtaining their conſent. They who have the liberty of drawing the wine, acknowledge the obligation by giving two days produce in a week to the lord of the ſoil; and white men are under the neceſſity of making a ſmall preſent to them before they can cut leaves or graſs to make coverings to their houſes.

Having mentioned the palm and ciboa-tree, it may not be improper in this place, to give a particular deſcription of them. The palm tree is very ſtrait and ſmooth, and ſome of them grow to the height of one hundred feet. From the trunk of the tree the natives extract a liquor called palm wine, which in colour greatly reſembles whey: to effect this they make an inciſion at the top of the trunk, to which they apply goard bottles, and the liquor is conveyed into theſe by means of a pipe made of leaves. The wine is very ſweet in its taſte, and if drank as ſoon as drawn is very purgative; but if kept two or three days, it ferments, grows ſtrong, and becomes not only palatable, but alſo very wholeſome. The natives climb theſe trees with ſurpriſing agility, in the following manner: They take a piece of the bark of a tree, formed in the ſhape of a hoop, with which they incloſe themſelves and the tree, the hoop being afterwards ſecured; they then fix the hoop under their arms, and reſting their back againſt it, and their feet againſt the tree, they climb up with ſurpriſing expedition. Sometimes indeed they meet with a fatal accident, which either ariſes from the bark, on which they reſt, not being properly ſecured, or from miſſing their ſtep in climbing. The ciboa, or palmetto tree, greatly reſembles the palm tree, and runs alſo to a very conſiderable height; the wine extracted from it taſtes ſomething like that from the palm tree, but is not quite ſo ſweet; and they make coverings of the leaves which grow on the top.

Their buildings, eſpecially thoſe of the common people, are very low and mean, of a conical form, and have no other light but what is admitted by the door, which is ſo low, that they are obliged to ſtoop in entering it; they are formed of a kind of wicker work plaiſtered over with earth, and covered with leaves of the palm tree on the top.

With reſpect to their furniture, they have only a few common neceſſaries, ſuch as earthen diſhes for their food, wooden bowls, plates, diſhes, &c. They have neither chairs, tables, or beds, a mat ſupplying the place of all three; for on that they ſit, eat, and ſleep. Among the better ſort indeed the maſter of the houſe is diſtinguiſhed by having a bed, which conſiſts of a kind of hurdle laid upon pieces of wood, and elevated about two feet from the floor: on the top of it is laid a mat, on which, they ſleep; but they have no kind of covering, nor any ſheets.

Rice, pulſe, and Indian corn are their principal food, which they mix with boiling water, or broth made from the fleſh of crocodiles: they like the latter the beſt, and are not only fond of the fleſh of crocodiles, but alſo their eggs; their greateſt dainty, however, is fiſh dried in the ſun, or ſmoked, and the more it ſtinks the better they like it; in ſhort, they are far from being delicate in their appetites, as they will not only eat what is already mentioned, but alſo ſnakes, monkies, alligators, or any other thing that comes in their way. Their common drink is water; but they ſometimes uſe palm wine and mead, and they will not refuſe rum and brandy if they can meet with it. They make two meals a day, one about noon, and the other in the evening. They ſit at their meals, and take up the victuals with the fingers of the right hand only, conſidering it indecent to touch with the left either their food or lips.

Poor people among them go almoſt naked, having only a piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt with a girdle, in which they always carry a long knife. The richer ſort wear a kind of ſhirt, with drawers made of cotton; and they have alſo ſandals to their feet, which are faſtened on the inſtep with ſtrings. Some of them carry a long dart, others have bows and arrows, and ſome have a ſword ſlung over the right ſhoulder.

The women have a piece of cotton tied round the waiſt, from whence it reaches to the knees. The upper part of the body is naked, but, by way of ornament, it is ſtained or painted with figures of various colours. Some indeed have a looſe piece of cotton thrown over their ſhoulders, but that is conſidered as a particular kind of extravagance. Both ſexes wear a large bunch of keys hanging at the end of their girdles; which is an addition they are extremely proud of.

The people marry their daughters very young in this, as in moſt other hot countries: ſome of them are even contracted as ſoon as they are born, and the parents can never afterwards break off the engagement; the men, however, can refuſe accepting them when at a proper age; neither dare the girl marry any other without his conſent. Before a man takes his wife he is obliged to make a preſent to her parents of two hundred cola: two iron bars, and two cows; the cola is a fruit that grows in the inland parts of the country, and ſomewhat reſembles a horſe cheſnut. When a man takes home his wife he makes a grand entertainment, to which they who think proper come, without the ceremony of a formal invitation. The bride is brought on mens ſhoulders, with a vail over her face, which is not removed till the marriage is properly conſummated; and during this time the company ſing, dance, and exhibit every kind of the moſt ridiculous mummery imaginable.

The men are allowed to take as many wives as they pleaſe; and if any one of them proves falſe, the huſband is at liberty to ſell her as a ſlave. If any diſlike ariſes, he may turn off his wife, and make her take all her children with her, unleſs he is inclined to keep any of them himſelf, in which caſe he generally chuſes ſuch as are able to aſſiſt him in the buſineſs he follows. He has alſo the liberty of going any time after they have parted, and taking any of the other children from her.

A very diſtinguiſhed reſpect is paid by the women to their huſbands, inſomuch that if buſineſs calls them a day or two from home, their wives, when they return, ſalute them on their knees; and they farther ſhew their humility, by always placing themſelves in that poſture when they give them drink.

And their lordly huſbands, in order to render their power as complete as poſſible, compel their wives to obedience by all the force of fear and terror. For this purpoſe, they have a figure about eight feet high, made of the bark of trees, and dreſſed in a long coat, with a whiſp of ſtraw on the head, made in the form of a cap. It is called a mumbo jumbo; and when any controverſy ariſes between a man and his wife, this ſtrange figure is ſent for to determine the diſpute, which generally terminates in favour of the man. When the women hear him coming, they run away and hide themſelves; but if you are acquainted with the perſon concealed in the mumbo jumbo, he will ſend for them all to come, make them ſit down, and afterwards ſing or dance, as he pleaſes; and if any refuſe to come, he will ſend for, and whip them. The people alſo ſwear by the mumbo jumbo, and the oath is eſteemed irrevocable. Moſt towns of note have one of theſe objects of terror in it.

They dip a new-born child in cold water ſeveral times in the day, at each of which, after having dried up the water with a cloth, they rub the infant over with palm oil, particularly the back-bone, ſmall of the back, elbows, neck, knees, and hips. When born, they are of an olive complexion, and ſometimes do not become black, till they are two months old. They are not born with flat noſes; but as that ſhape is greatly admired, their mothers or nurſes, whenever they waſh them, preſs down the upper part of their noſe with the finger, and, from its natural tenderneſs at that time, the compreſſure has the wiſhed-for effect. They give their children a name about a month after they are born: ſhaving the head, and rubbing it well over with palm oil, is the only ceremony attending this.

They circumciſe their male children a ſhort time before the commencement of the rainy ſeaſons: after the ceremony is over, theſe children wear a peculiar habit adapted to the occaſion. From the time of circumciſion to that of the rains, they have the privilege of committing any kind of outrage, without being called to account: but they muſt lay aſide thoſe follies, throw off the dreſs of circumciſion, and put on the habit of the country, when the firſt rain begins.

On the death of any perſon, all his friends and acquaintance come and cry over him for two days; and ſuch of his relations as are not on the ſpot, when they hear of it, though at a conſiderable diſtance will teſtify the ſame

kind

kind of lamentation as if they were really preſent with the deceaſed. When they bury the corpſe, they dig a hole about ſeven feet long, three deep, and about two feet in breadth. The body is wrapped in white cotton cloth, and at the time it is put into the grave, the whole aſſembly bow, and give one univerſal ſhriek. After the corpſe is depoſited, they lay ſticks acroſs the grave even with the ſurface of the earth, on which they place ſtraw, or the leaves of trees, ſo thick as to prevent the mould from getting into the grave, and on the top of theſe they lay the earth, which they trample hard down with their feet, preſſing it very cloſe.

Theſe people have a language peculiar to themſelves, which is more generally ſpoken on both ſides the river, than any other; one who is well acquainted with this language, may travel from the mouth of the river quite to the country of the Joncoes, or merchants, ſo called from their yearly buying a vaſt number of ſlaves, and bringing them to the lower parts of the river for ſale. The natives have alſo a corrupt kind of Portugueſe, which, when they trade with the Portugueſe, is generally uſed by them.

The Mundingoes are chiefly Mahometans, and preſerve many maxims of the moſt ſuperſtitious nature. When an eclipſe of the moon happens, they believe it is occaſioned by a large cat putting one of her paws between the earth and the moon; and during the time of its progreſs, they pay reverence to Mahomet. They keep their ſabbath on the Friday, when they pray three times, but on the other days of the week only twice.

They have neither temples nor moſques, but are ſummoned to their devotions under the ſhade of a large tree by their marabouts, or prieſts, of which there is one to every village. They pay the greateſt reverence to their prieſts, inſomuch that if perſons of the firſt diſtinction happen to meet with one of them, they immediately form a circle round him, and, falling on their knees, ſolicit his benediction.

From their ſuperſtitious notions, they have ſuch faith in their prieſts, that if they can but obtain a charm, or, as they call it a griſgris, they think themſelves ſecure from any kind of danger. This griſgris conſiſts of nothing more than a few Arabic characters drawn on a piece of paper, or the figure of lizards, ſerpents, or ſome other animal, which they wear about them as the moſt valuable poſſeſſion. They have ſuch an opinion of the utility of this ſuppoſed charm, that the pooreſt negro will not be without it; and he is particularly careful to have it about him whenever he engages in any hazardous enterprize, as ſuppoſing it a preſervative from every danger: however, when it happens to prove ineffectual, which is ſometimes the caſe, the marabout attributes it not to any defect in the charm, but to the bad conduct of him who poſſeſſed it. The prieſts reap conſiderable benefits by the ſale of theſe charms, as they fix the price in proportion to the circumſtances of the purchaſer; and ſome of them carrying on the richeſt commerce of the country, not only by trading largely in theſe articles, but alſo in gold, ſlaves, elephants teeth, &c.

There is a ſort of people on the borders of the kingdom of Mundingo, called Floops, who are in a manner wild, and inveterate enemies to their neighbours. Their country is of conſiderable extent, but they have not any king, and are intirely independent of each other; notwithſtanding which, they are ſo numerous, that the Mundingoes, with all their force, cannot conquer them. Their towns are ſurrounded with a kind of fortification made of ſticks driven into the ground cloſe together, and covered with clay. They have the character of being very grateful when they receive any favour; but if any injury is offered them, they will never forgive the party, or ſuffer it to paſs unrevenged, when an opportunity preſents itſelf.

About one hundred miles from fort St. Lewis is ſituated the Gum Deſart, which is the place where the trade is carried on with the Moors. It is a large plain, ſurrounded at a conſiderable diſtance by hills of red ſand, and ſo barren, that it produces only a few ſtraggling ſhrubs. Near the ſide of the river is a large palmetto-tree; and there are a few huts built by the French, to ſecure their merchandize from the depredations of robbers: they are ſurrounded by a ditch ſix feet in breadth, and encompaſſed with a kind of rampart and palliſadoes. This part of the country may properly be called the Deſart, for it is generally deſtitute of inhabitants, and is only viſited at ſuch times as the Moors have an opportunity of bringing gum to ſell to the French, who then go down to it, and purchaſe what they bring, how great ſoever the quantity may be.

There is a place called Engerbel, about twenty miles to the eaſt of this Deſart, where the king of the Jolloi's has his palace, which conſiſts only of a large number of huts, built much like thoſe of the other negroes, but only more ſpacious. They are incloſed with palliſadoes made of reeds, and in the center is an open place well planted with trees, round which are the king's ſtore-houſes, ſtables, and apartments for his women and officers. The gate that leads to the palace is always guarded by a number of negroes armed with piſtols and ſabres, who are relieved by others at certain times. This whole country, from the northern bank of the river Gambia, to the lake Cajor, is called in general the kingdom of the Jolloiſs, though divided among ſeveral petty princes. It extends from north to ſouth about three hundred miles, and is near four hundred from the ſea coaſt eaſtward.

The people who inhabit this country, called Jolloiſs, are blacker than the Mundingoes, and much better featured, their noſes not being ſo broad, nor their lips ſo thick. Their dreſs conſiſts of a looſe garment made of callico, which reaches from the ſhoulders to the knees, and is faſtened about the middle with a girdle agreeably ornamented. Both ſexes are fond of decorating their hair, wearing bracelets and anclets on their legs and arms, and rings in their ears.

The king is abſolute, and the greateſt reſpect is paid to him and his family; for when any perſons come into their preſence, they muſt immediately proſtrate themſelves with their faces to the ground. No one, except the king, is allowed to ſleep under tendres (that is, clothes to keep off flies and muſquetoes), on pain of being ſold as ſlaves, ſhould it come to the knowledge of the king. They alſo are ſubject to the ſame puniſhment, who preſume to ſit on the ſame mat with the royal family unleſs licenſed ſo to do. His ſubjects are naturally courageous, and addicted to arms; notwithſtanding which, they are good natured, modeſt, and hoſpitable, particularly to ſtrangers.

It is needleſs to mention here the manners, cuſtoms, ceremonies, religion, &c. of theſe people, they being nearly the ſame as thoſe in the kingdom of Mundingo.

The kingdom of the Pholeys, or Fouleys adjoins to that of the Jolloiſs: many of the natives of it are diſperſed throughout the different kingdoms and provinces of the whole country of Negroland. This kingdom extends along the river Gambia, from eaſt to weſt, near ſix hundred miles; but its diſtance from north to ſouth cannot be aſcertained with any certainty, on account of its deſolate ſtate.

The people of this country are much like the Arabs, but not ſo white, nor yet ſo black as the negroes, being rather of a tawny complexion. They generally ſpeak the Arabic language, though they have one peculiar to themſelves. The men are of a middle ſize, well ſhaped, and have good features; but the women are very ſhort, and at the ſame time remarkably thin. They are all naturally of a weak conſtitution, notwithſtanding which, they are very aſſiduous in their profeſſions, which principally conſiſt in taking care of their cattle, and cultivating their lands. They live in hords or clans; and form their buildings on ſuch a conſtruction, that they are eaſily removed from one place to another. Their country is very fertile and produces plentiful crops of large and ſmall millet, cotton, tobacco, peaſe, rice, corn, potatoes, yams, &c. They have great numbers of cattle: their goats and ſheep are extremely fine; and their own oxen ſo large, that the French buy up all their hides at a very great price. They plant tobacco near their houſes, and round their towns they plant cotton, beyond which are their corn fields. The corn is of four ſorts, viz. maize or Indian corn, rice, and the larger and leſſer Guiney corn, the latter of which is called by the Portugueſe, manſaroke.

The Pholeys are very fond of European merchandize, and treat the traders that bring them with great civility. They uſe a variety of muſical inſtruments, and are very fond of dancing. The dreſs of both ſexes conſiſts of a kind of wrapper made of ſeveral ſlips of cotton, which is faſtened round the waiſt, from whence it reaches to the knees; and they adorn their arms and legs with anclets and bracelets of amber, gold, pearls, and glaſs beads of various colours. Their houſes are of a round form, terminated by a cone; they are built in rows at ſome diſtance from each other, and are placed with great uniformity.

They are very temperate in their living, and remarkably induſtrious and frugal. As they raiſe much more corn and cotton than they conſume, they ſell it at a reaſonable

price to ſtrangers, to whom they are very civil and hoſpitable when they come to viſit them. They alſo ſupply the wants of their neighbours; and have been even known to diſtreſs themſelves in aſſiſting the Mundingoes, who in ſome bad ſeaſons would have otherwiſe been expoſed to the ravages of dreadful famines. But though they are remarkable for the mildneſs of their temper, yet they are far from being deficient in courage, for they are as brave as any people in Africa.

Their arms conſiſt of the lance, bows and arrows, ſhort cutlaſſes and muſquets, all which they uſe with great dexterity. They are very expert in the management of cattle, and are excellent huntſmen; they not only kill lions, tygers, and other wild beaſts, but they alſo go in companies together to hunt elephants, whoſe teeth they ſell, and dry the fleſh in the ſame manner as bacon is cured in England. They frequently remove their dwellings from one place to another; but commonly chuſe a ſpot near the Mundingoes, who think themſelves happy in having ſuch uſeful neighbours, and indeed there is hardly a Mundingo town of note up the river, that has not a Pholey town in its neighbourhood.

The monarch of this country is very powerful, and not only receives homage from the king of the Jolloiſs, but all the great men of that kingdom are his vaſſals, and pay him every fourth year a number of ſlaves, and as many oxen. He keeps a ſtanding force of cavalry, and his infantry are armed with ſabres, lances, and bows and arrows. The governors or principal men of his kingdom are diſperſed in the ſeveral parts into which it is divided, and they are obliged when commanded by the king, to join their forces with his; in which caſe they have a right to make ſlaves of all the negroes they meet with in their march, though the king has not that liberty over any of his ſubjects, unleſs they are convicted of an offence of a capital nature.

In this kingdom, the following are the moſt remarkable places; namely,

1. Queda; which is a village ſituated on a ſmall river that runs from the lake Cajor into the Senegal; and Cajor, another village, which receives its name from the ſaid lake. Theſe two places have each their particular lord, who are vaſſals to the king of this country.

Terrier Renge, lies to the eaſt of Queda, and is famous not only for the gum trade, but alſo for elephants teeth, oſtrich feathers, hides, and ambergris.

Hovalade, is another trading place, farther to the eaſt, and ſituated on the northern bank of the Senegal. The whole country between theſe two places is exceeding pleaſant, being laid out in large meadows, which abound with the beſt of cattle, and are very fertile.

Guiorel, is ſituated about ſixty leagues from Hovalade; it is a large village, and the trading place of the ſirotic, or king of the Pholeys, though he has not any houſe there. His palace, or place of reſidence, is ſituated about thirty miles to the north eaſt of this village; near a large river, that ſwells much at the ſame time as the Senegal, and, overflowing its banks, forms a large marſh, where the negroes plant rice, millet, pulſe, &c. after the waters are dried up.

Boucar, is another conſiderable village, and belongs to the eldeſt ſon of the king of the Pholeys: it is about eight miles from Guiorel, towards the north-eaſt, and ſituated on a hill in the center of a large plain, where the wind blows from all quarters, which renders the climate ſerene and wholeſome. The whole country is well cultivated, and beſides other things, produces a great quantity of cattle. The inhabitants are very numerous, and carry on a good trade with thoſe who live near them.

Laca, is the laſt place of any note in this kingdom, and lies about twelve miles north of Guiorel; it is a very conſiderable village, and belongs to a near relation of the king, who is called lord of this part of the country. His huts or habitations are at ſome diſtance from the village, ſituated on a riſing ground, planted with lofty trees that ſecure them from the violent heat of the ſun. The whole building conſiſts of three ſpacious courts, the firſt of which contains ſtables for ſeveral kinds of cattle, and is incloſed on three ſides with reeds and thick briers: in the ſecond court are the lord's huts, thoſe of his wives, and ſome of his ſervants: the reſt have huts in the third court, where there are alſo others uſed as warehouſes. Between Guiorel and Laca are ſeveral other villages, which almoſt join each other; and the whole country in this part is well cultivated, and very populous.

Thus having deſcribed the principal places in this country it will not be improper here to introduce a remarkable ſtory of one Job Ben Solomon, of the race of the Pholeys, and ſon to the high prieſt of Bundo, in Forta, who was ſold as a ſlave, came to England, and received diſtinguiſhed honours from the royal family and nobility. Mr. Moore deſcribes the particular circumſtances of this amiable African; and as that gentleman was in company with him after his return to his own country, his relation of him muſt be therefore the moſt genuine and credible.

As this perſon was travelling, in the year 1731, on the ſouth ſide of the Gambia, with a ſervant, he was robbed and ſeized by order of a king of a country a little within the land, who ſold both him and his man for ſlaves to one captain Pyke, who ſailed with them to Maryland. The Pholeys, his humane countrymen, would have redeemed him, had he not been carried out of the river before they had notice of his being a ſlave. Job, on his arival at Maryland, was ſold to a planter, who, finding he had very diſtinguiſhed abilities, treated him with great reſpect; and at the expiration of twelve months, Job had the good fortune to have a letter of his own writing, in the Arabic tongue, conveyed to England. This letter coming to the hands of Mr. Oglethorpe, he ſent it to Oxford to be tranſlated, which being done, it gave him ſuch ſatisfaction, and inſpired him with ſo good an opinion of the author, that he immediately ſent orders to have him bought of his maſter.

Mr. Oglethorpe ſoon after this ſet out for Georgia; and before his return from thence Job arrived in England, where, being brought to the acquaintance of Sir Hans Sloane, he was found to be a perfect maſter of the Arabic tongue, by his tranſlating ſeveral manuſcripts and inſcriptions on medals. Sir Hans Sloane recommended him to the duke of Montague, who being pleaſed with his genius and capacity, the agreeableneſs of his behaviour, and the ſweetneſs of his temper, introduced him to court, where he was graciouſly received by the royal family and moſt of the nobility, who honoured him with many marks of their favour. After he had continued in England about fourteen months, he determined to return to his native country, from an earneſt deſire he had to ſee the high prieſt his father.

On his leaving England, he received many noble preſents from her majeſty queen Caroline, his royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland, the duke of Montague, the earl of Pembroke, ſeveral ladies of quality, and the royal African company; the latter of whom ordered their agents to ſhew him the greateſt reſpect. On the 8th of Auguſt 1734, he arrived at James's fort, at which time Mr. Moore, then employed in the ſervice of the African company, was at that place; and finding the veſſel came from England, he immediately went on board. Mr. Moore thus relates what followed after the firſt interview; and which we ſhall give in his own words:

"Job," ſays he, "deſired that I would ſend a meſſage to his country, to let his friends know where he was. I ſpoke to one of the blacks whom we uſually employed, to procure me a meſſenger, and he brought me a Pholey, who not only knew the high prieſt his father, but Job himſelf, and expreſſed great joy at ſeeing him returned from ſlavery, he being the only man, except one, ever known to come back to his country, after being once carried a ſlave out of it by white men. Job delivered him the meſſage himſelf, and deſired that his father ſhould not come down to him, obſerving that it was too far for him to travel; and that it was fit the young ſhould go to the old, and not for the old to come to the young. He alſo ſent ſome preſents to his wives, and deſired the man to bring his little one his beſt beloved down with him.

"Job, having a mind to go up to Joar, to talk to ſome of his countrymen, went along with me. We arrived at the creek of Damoſenſa, and having ſome old acquaintances at the town of that name, Job and I went there together. In the evening as we were ſitting under a great tree, there came ſix or ſeven of the very people who three years before had robbed and made a ſlave of him, at about thirty miles diſtance from that place. Job, though naturally poſſeſſed of a very even temper, could not contain himſelf on ſeeing them; he was filled with rage and indignation, and was for attacking them with his broad ſword and piſtols; which he always took care to have about him. It was with great difficulty I could diſſuade him from ruſhing upon them; but at length repreſenting the ill conſequences that would infallibly attend ſo raſh an action, and the impoſſibility that either of us ſhould eſcape alive, I made him lay aſide the attempt, and perſuaded him to ſit down, and, pretending not to know them, to aſk them queſtions about himſelf; which he accordingly did,

did, and they told him the truth. At laſt he inquired how the king their maſter did; they replied; that he was dead: and by farther inquiry we found, that amongſt the goods for which he ſold Job to captain Pyke, there was a piſtol, which the king uſed commonly to wear ſlung by a ſling about his neck; and as they never carry arms without their being loaded, the piſtol one day accidentaly went off, and the balls lodging in his throat, he preſently died. Job was ſo tranſported at the cloſe of this ſtory, that he immediately fell on his knees, and returned thanks to Mahomet for making his perſecutor die by the very goods for which he ſold him into ſlavery. Then turning to me, he ſaid, "You ſee now, Mr. Moore, that God Almighty was diſpleaſed at this man's making me a ſlave, and therefore made him die by the very piſtol for which he ſold me: yet I ought to forgive him, for had I not been ſold, I ſhould neither have known any thing of the Engliſh tongue, nor have had any one of the fine, uſeful, and valuable things I have brought with me; nor have known that there is ſuch a place in the world as England; nor ſuch noble, good, and generous people as queen Caroline, the duke of Cumberland, the duke of Montague, the earl of Pembroke, Mr. Holden, Mr. Oglethorpe, and the royal African company."

"After this, Job went frequently with me to Cower, and ſeveral other places about the country. He always ſpoke very handſomely of the Engliſh; and what he ſaid removed much of that horror the Pholeys felt amongſt them for the ſtate of ſlavery their countrymen had been ſubject to: for they before generally imagined, that all who were ſold for ſlaves, were at leaſt murdered, if not eaten, ſince none ever returned. His deſcriptions alſo gave them an high opinion of England, and a veneration for the Engliſh who traded amongſt them. He ſold ſome of the preſents he brought with him for trading goods, with which he bought a woman ſlave and two horſes. He gave his countrymen a great deal of writing paper, a very valuable commodity amongſt them, and the company had made him a preſent of ſeveral reams. He uſed frequently to pray, and behaved with great affability and mildneſs to all, which attracted the eſteem of every one.

"The meſſenger whom Job had ſent to his father, &c. not returning ſo ſoon as was expected, he deſired me to go down to James's fort, to take care of his goods, and I promiſed not only to ſend him word when the meſſenger came back, but to ſend other meſſengers, for fear the firſt ſhould have miſcarried.

"At length the meſſenger returned with ſeveral letters, and advice that Job's father was dead, but had lived to receive the letters his ſon had ſent him from England, which gave him the welcome news of his being redeemed from ſlavery, and an account of the figure he made in England. That one of Job's wives was married to another man; but that as ſoon as the new huſband had heard of his return, he thought it adviſeable to abſcond; and that ſince Job's abſence from his native country, there had been ſuch a dreadful war, that the Pholeys there had not any cows left, though before Job's departure his country was famed for its numerous herds. With this meſſenger came many of Jobs old friends, whom he was exceedingly glad to ſee; but notwithſtanding the joy their preſence gave him, he ſhed abundance of tears, for the loſs of his father, and the misfortunes of his country. He forgave his wife, and the man who had taken her; For, ſaid he, ſhe could not help thinking I was dead, for I was gone to a land from whence no other Pholey ever yet returned; therefore neither ſhe nor the man are to be blamed. During three or four years he converſed with his friends without any interruption, except to ſleep and eat.

Job took his laſt farewel of Mr. Moore in the moſt affectionate manner, when he embarked on board the company's veſſel for England; and at the ſame time gave him letters to the duke of Montague, the royal African company, Mr. Oglethorpe, and ſeveral other gentlemen in England, telling him to give his love and duty to them, and to acquaint them, that as he deſigned to learn to write the Engliſh tongue, he would, when he was maſter of it, ſend them longer epiſtles. He alſo deſired Mr. Moore, that as he had lived with him almoſt ever ſince he came there, he would let his grace and the other gentlemen know what he had done, and that he would endeavour to produce ſuch an underſtanding between the African company and the Pholeys, that he did not doubt would be of great advantage to the Engliſh, from whom he had received innumerable favours, and by whom he had been redeemed from ſlavery, and brought ſafely home to his country and friends."

SECT. II.

Giving an Account of the EUROPEAN Settlements, and other Places on the River GAMBIA; alſo a Deſcription of the River NIGER or SENEGAL; with the Principal Kingdoms, &c. on its Banks.

THE Engliſh have their principal ſettlement here at St. James's iſland: it is ſituated near the center of the river, which is here at leaſt ſeven miles wide, and about thirty miles from the river's mouth. The iſland, at low water, is about three quarters of a mile in circumference. Though this iſland belongs to the Engliſh, it is nevertheleſs ſubject to a ſmall tribute paid annually to the king of Barrah.

The fort is a ſquare ſtone building, with four baſtions, on each of which are ſeven guns well mounted. Under the walls, facing the water, are two round batteries, on each of which are four large cannon: and between them are planted ſmall guns. Within the fort are convenient apartments for the governor, merchants, factors, and military officers; as alſo magazines and ſtorehouſes. Without the walls of the fort are ſtrong barracks for the ſoldiers, artificers, ſervants, and ſlaves: they are made with ſtone and lime, and are ſurrounded with ſtrong palliſadoes. As a proper ſecurity to the fort, the ſoldiers are conſtantly on duty; and centinels are appointed night and day to patrole round it, and make their report to the governor. They generally keep here three or four ſloops and as many long boats; ſome of which are continually employed in fetching proviſions and water from the main, for the uſe of the garriſon, and the reſt are employed in carrying goods up to the other factories, and bringing from them wax, elephants teeth, and ſlaves.

The company have alſo a factory pleaſantly ſituated at a large town called Gillifree, a little below James's fort; and here are large gardens that ſupply James's fort with all kinds of vegetables. This town is inhabited by Portugueſe, Mundingoes, and ſome Mahometans, the latter of whom have a neat moſque.

On the north ſide, oppoſite to St. James's iſland, and about a mile and a half from Gillifree, is a ſmall place called St. Domingo, conſiſting only of a few round huts belonging to the company, in which ſome of their ſlaves live, who fill the caſks ſent there daily for water, take care of a well, and cut wood for the fort.

Here is alſo another factory belonging to the Engliſh, nearly oppoſite to the ſouth ſide of James's iſland; this is ſituated on a river called Cabata, which falls into the Gambia; but as the chief uſe of the factory is to ſupply James's iſland with proviſions, little trade is carried on here.

The Engliſh have likewiſe another factory about twenty miles above James's fort, at a town called Vintain, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which falls into the Gambia. The chief commerce of this factory conſiſts in hides, ivory, and wax. The town belongs to one of the kings of Fonia, and is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſide of a hill, near the river. The inhabitants conſiſt of Portugueſe and Mahometans, the latter of whom have a handſome moſque. The town is plentifully ſupplied with proviſions, great quantities of which are brought by the Floops which border upon it.

The people of this town are extremely proud of their hair; ſome or them wear it in tufts and bunches, others cut it in croſſes, and ſome ſtring coral, or beads upon it. The men wear a cloth round their waiſts, which reaches to the knees, and they have another cloth thrown over the right ſhoulder: on their heads they wear caps of cotton cloth, ſome of which are plain, and others adorned with feathers and goats tails. The dreſs of the women conſiſts of a piece of cloth wound round the waiſt, and reaching to the ſmall of their legs; they tie handkerchiefs round their heads, leaving the crown bare, which ſome of them ornament with ſmall horſe bells; and they who have not got handkerchiefs, ſupply their places by uſing a ſlip of blue and white cotton. Their huts are about fifty feet in circumference, built with ſticks and clay, and covered either with long graſs or palmetto leaves. Their furniture conſiſts only of a ſmall cheſt for cloaths, a mat to lie on, which is raiſed about a foot from the floor; a jar to hold water, and a calabaſh to drink it with; two or three wooden mortars, in which they pound their corn and rice, and a few large diſhes, out of which they eat their food with their fingers, ſince they uſe neither knives, forks, or ſpoons.

Theſe people are very fond of ſmoaking tobacco, which

is of their own growth; and ſome of them, being furniſhed with this article, will go two days together without eating. They make their pipes themſelves, the bowl of which is formed of a reddiſh coloured clay, but the ſtems are only a piece of reed, or a ſmall ſtick bored through with a hot iron wire, and ſome of them are ſix feet in length. After they are bored, they poliſh them with rough leaves, till they are ſmooth, white, and handſome. They faſten the bowl and ſtem together with a piece of red leather, and ſometimes they hang a fine leather taſſel to the center of the pipe, as an ornament to it.

The abovementioned town is ſituated in the kingdom of Fonia, which begins where Cabata river falls into the Gambia, and reaches to the river Vintain. It is governed by two kings, who have each their ſeparate diſtricts; but it has not any remarkable place, that deſerves the leaſt notice, except the town juſt treated of.

At Tancrowall, in the kingdom of Caen, about thirty-five miles from James's fort, is the next factory belonging to the Engliſh. This town is about half a mile in length, pleaſantly ſituated by the ſide of the river, and behind it is a fine hill beautifully variegated. It is divided into two parts, one of which is inhabited by Portugueſe, and the other by Mundingoes. The former live in large ſquare buildings, and the latter in round huts made of ſticks and clay; they are about eight feet high, and twenty in diameter, with a roof like that of a bee-hive, made either of ſtraw or palmetto-leaves, and ſo thick as not only to keep the rain from penetrating through, but alſo to ſecure them from the violent heat of the ſun.

This town is the reſidence of a prieſt annually ſent over from St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verd iſlands, who has a church here, in which, during his reſidence, maſs is ſaid almoſt every day. Here are many of the deſcendants of the Portugueſe, who ſend canoes up the river once or twice a year; by which means they have made this town the richeſt on the whole river, and a place of great reſort.

Caen reaches about ſeventy miles along the river, and is governed by an emperor and a king, who are both Mundingoes, and have their reſpective revenues from commodities of different kinds.

Barſally, is the next kingdom we come to: it is a very noted country, governed by a king of the Jolloif nation; and here the Engliſh have alſo a factory at a town called Joar, where they carry on a very conſiderable trade. This town is ſituated in a fine ſavannah ſurrounded with woods, in which are moſt kinds of wild beaſts. It is about two miles from the Gambia, and is inhabited by a few Portugueſe. It is very ſmall, the whole number of houſes not exceedingly twelve, among theſe are included the factory, and a houſe belonging to the king of Barſally, which two take up more ground than all the other buildings. About a mile from the town is a ridge of high and rocky hills, covered with trees, which runs many miles up the country. It is very pleaſant walking on theſe hills in the ſummer; but in the rainy ſeaſons it is extremely dangerous, from the wild beaſts who reſort there in great abundance on account of the low grounds being overflowed. About the ſavannah are plenty of deer, buffaloes, and wild hogs; alſo a great number of partridges, which are exceeding good, and greatly admired by the natives. Here are likewiſe cameleons; and great numbers of crocodiles, which the people kill and eat, conſidering them as their moſt delicious fare.

Cohone, where the king of Barſally uſually reſides, is about eighty miles from the Engliſh fort at Joar. As there are tolerable advantages to be made by the company at this place, provided their ſupercargoes are honeſt, they generally ſend a ſloop thither two or three times in a year. At theſe times the king frequently ranſacks ſome of his enemies towns, makes priſoners of the people, and ſells them for ſuch commodities as he wants, which are commonly brandy or rum, gunpowder, balls, guns, piſtols, and cutlaſſes for his attendants and ſoldiers, and coral and ſilver for his wives and concubines. The king, as well as his people, are of the Mahometan religion, nothwithſtanding which they are greatly addicted to drunkenneſs. The dreſs of the king conſiſts of a garment made like a ſurplice, but reaches no lower than his knees, and a large piece of cloth gathered round his waiſt: he wears no ſtockings, and has only morocco ſlippers on his feet. His head is covered with a ſmall white cotton cap, and he wears large gold ear-rings. His people, as well as himſelf, always wear white clothes and white caps; which being a direct contraſt to their natural colour, makes them look exceeding whimſical. This king's dominions are very extenſive, and divided into ſeveral provinces, over which he appoints governors, called boomays, who come annually to pay him homage; and though they have almoſt an unlimited power, yet they are beloved as well as feared by the people whom they govern.

The country of Yang lies contiguous to the kingdom of Barſally eaſtward: it is very large, divided into two parts, and diſtinguiſhed by the names of Upper and Lower, each of which is under the government of a different king, the one a Mundingo, and the other a Jolloif. In the Lower Yang the company have a ſmall factory at a place called Yanrmarew, which is kept by a black factor, whoſe only buſineſs is to buy corn and rice for the uſe of James's fort. This is the pleaſanteſt fort on the banks of the river, it being delightfully ſhaded with palm and ciboa-trees, the leaves of which the inhabitants uſe for covering their houſes with.

There is a ſmall town in the Upper Yang called Cuttejarr, ſituated about a mile from the river, between which the company had once a factory; but it being overflowed in the year 1725, and great quantities of goods deſtroyed, they removed it to Samy, about eight miles farther, where it has continued ever ſince. This town is noted for a good trade, particularly in ſlaves; and is about twelve miles from the river.

The factory of Fatadenda is higher up the river, which is here exceeding broad, and deep enough to admit veſſels of forty tons burden. The ſides of the river are woody, and the land low; but the factory ſtands on an eminence, and is at leaſt ten miles from any town. On each ſide of the factory is a pleaſant proſpect of the winding of the river for ſeveral miles, and in the front of it is an agreeable view of part of the kingdom of Cantore. The port here ſerves for a landing place to Suteco, a town about nine miles diſtant: but, excepting the factory, it has not any houſe near it.

The Engliſh have alſo another factory near a large town called Brucoe, about half a mile from the river, in the kingdom of Jemarrow. The town is inhabited by a people of the Mundingo race, but they are ſtrict Mahometans. About half a mile below the town is a ridge of rocks that runs three parts acroſs the river, and leaves ſo ſmall a channel, as to render it very dangerous for large veſſels.

Dabocunda, nine miles from Brucoe, is a large town: it is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the river, and divided into two diſtinct parts; one of which is fortified by a wall made of palmetto-trees fixed in the ground, and clay laid in between, ſo that it is little inferior in ſtrength, to thoſe made of brick and mortar. The other town is only encompaſſed by a fence of canes faſtened together by a number of ſtakes, in which manner moſt of the towns on the Gambia, as well as the factories, are ſurrounded. In peaceable times, the people live in the open town; but in times of war, they ſhut themſelves up in that which is moſt ſtrongly fortified. Theſe are naturally a refractory ſort of people, and have a king of their own, called Suma, who has a great power over all the towns adjacent.

The kingdom of Tomany, is next to that of Jemarrow: this is a very extenſive country, and contains more towns than any other on the whole river. The Engliſh have a factory at a ſmall place called Yamya macunda, where a conſiderable trade is carried on, particularly in dry commodities. The town is on the north ſide of the river; but the factory is on the ſouth, and is defended by a ſtrong fortification. All veſſels that paſs this port pay a duty to the king of Tomany, who is a Mundingo, and lives at a place called Sutimore, about three miles diſtant from Yamyamacunda.

Contoro lies beyond Tomany: this is a large and populous country, with many ſmall towns diſperſed about it, but not any one nearer the river than three miles; and they are all ſo inſignificant as not to deſerve any particular deſcription.

We ſhall now proceed to give an account of the famous river Niger, or Senegal, which takes its riſe in the eaſtern part of Africa, and, after a courſe of three hundred miles nearly eaſt and weſt, divides itſelf into three branches, under the names of the Senegal, the Gambia, and the Sierra Leona; all which, like the Nile, overflow their banks at a particular time in the year.

Geographers have not been able hitherto to aſcertain the whole extent of this great river; but from the farther part that has been penetrated to the ſea, it reaches near two thouſand four hundred miles. It runs eaſt and weſt till within about ſix miles of the ocean, when it ſuddenly breaks off, and forms a curve that runs from north to ſouth about twenty-five leagues,

leagues, when it diſembogues itſelf into the ſea. The mouth of the river is about three miles acroſs, but the paſſage here is often very dangerous, on account of the bar, which is not only continually ſhifting, but alſo chooks it up; and when the north winds blow, the ſtream is ſo rapid, and the waves run ſo high, that it is impoſſible for any veſſel to paſs it. The ſafeſt times for croſſing the bar, are, between the months of March and September when the winds are changeable, and the bar is generally fixed till the rainy ſeaſon ſets in. The banks of this river are very fertile, and beautifully variegated.

Near the river Senegal are lofty trees inhabited by various ſorts of birds, ſome of which are very ſmall, others large, and many of them exceeding handſome, and of the brighteſt colours. There are alſo great numbers of ſquirrels and monkies; and the more diſtant parts abound with lions and elephants, the latter of which have not that ferocity in them that is natural to thoſe in other countries, for they will not attempt to attack any one they meet with, unleſs firſt moleſted. Some parts of the low grounds abound with a ſort of thorny trees which run to a prodigious height, and bear large branches of yellow flowers that have an odoriferous ſcent. The barks of theſe trees are of different colours, ſome being black, others white, green, or red; and whatever colour the bark is of the ſame, and appears to be a ſpecies of the ebony, from its ſubſtance.

On the banks of the Senegal, the following kingdoms and places, being the principal ones, are ſituated; namely,

Guber, which lies forty miles from Niger, and almoſt three hundred miles eaſtward of Gago: between this latter and Guber there is a vaſt deſart, without water. This kingdom is ſurrounded with very high mountains, and contains a great number of villages, many of which are inhabited by people who are employed in taking care of their cattle and ſheep: the whole country abounds with rice, and other grain. There are alſo abundance of artificers and linen weavers, the former of whom make ſandals, and ſell them to the people of Tombuto and Gabo. The whole country is overflowed every year by the inundations of the Niger, and at that time the inhabitants ſow their rice. There is one town, which contains almoſt ſix thouſand families, among whom are many merchants.

Zanfara, lies to the weſtward of the kingdom Zegzeg, and is bounded by Guber on the weſt. It is very large and fertile, the fields producing great quantities of rice, millet, and cotton. The inhabitants are in general very poor, and are chiefly employed in the buſineſs of huſbandry; they are of a tall ſtature, and very black complexion, with broad faces, and moſt ſavage and brutiſh diſpoſitions. This kingdom is very little known to Europeans.

Cano, is bounded by Zaara on the north; by the river Niger, on the ſouth; by the kingdom of Agades, on the weſt; and that of Caſena, on the eaſt. Some of the inhabitants are herdſmen, and others till the ground, and dwell in villages. Some parts of it produce great quantities of rice, corn, and cotton; but other parts of it are very barren, conſiſting of deſerts and woody mountains, in the latter of which are wild citrons and lemon trees. In the center of the province is a large town of the ſame name, ſituated in ten degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude, and fifteen degrees thirty minutes north latitude. The walls and houſes of this town are made of a kind of clay, and the inhabitants in general are of a civil and obliging diſpoſition; the principal of whom are merchants. Their king was once a powerful monarch, and had a prodigious number of troops always at his command; but he has for many years been tributary to the king of Tombuto; on which account one of that prince's courtiers always reſides in the town, to collect the tribute. This kingdom is ſeven hundred miles ſouth of Tripoli in Barbary.

Caſena, or Caſſena, is ſituated on the eaſt of Cano, and conſiſts principally of fields and mountains, which produce great plenty of millet. There are many villages in the province, but they are very ſmall, and the buildings exceeding low and mean. They alſo had formerly a deſpotic monarch, but he is now ſubject to the king of Tombuto. The inhabitants have broad noſes and thick lips; and their complexions are a jet black.

Zegzeg, is about one hundred and fifty miles from Caſena, from which it is ſeparated by the Niger; it has that of Zanfara on the eaſt; Renin on the ſouth; and the deſarts, on the weſt; and borders on Cano. This country, which is very extenſive, is divided into two parts, one of which is a plain, and the other mountainous: the air of the former is exceeding hot, but in the latter it is intolerably cold, inſomuch that they are obliged conſtantly to keep fires in their houſes; and when they go to ſleep, they put hot coals under their bedſteads. Their fields are in general fertile, and there are many ſprings of excellent water. Theſe people were formerly governed by a king of their own; but he being conquered and ſlain by one of the kings of Tombuto, they are now ſubject to the monarch of that kingdom. Their houſes are poor wretched buildings made of the ſame materials, and much after the ſame manner as thoſe at Caſena.

Guangara, is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt by the province of Zanfara, and is ſituated to the north of the Niger. It is a large and populous country, and contains a great number of villages chiefly inhabited by huſbandmen. About the center of it is a large town of the ſame name, which is ornamented with many handſome buildings, and the inhabitants carry on ſuch a trade with the neighbouring nations, that many of them are exceedingly wealthy, and live in the greateſt ſplendor. Some parts of the country to the ſouth of Guangara town abound with gold; and when the merchants travel to thoſe parts for that valuable article, their goods are carried by ſlaves, the roads being too rough and dangerous for any beaſt. Theſe ſlaves carry prodigious burdens, with which they will travel upwards of twenty miles a day. The great loads they carry is amazing; for beſides the merchandizes, they are loaded with proviſions for their maſters, as alſo for the ſoldiers that guard them. They are governed by a king, who maintains a garriſon conſiſting of a great number of horſemen and archers, and he receives conſiderable tributes annually from his ſubjects.

Bito, which lies to the ſouth of the Niger, is a ſmall kingdom, and is bounded, on the eaſt, by Temian: on the weſt, by Tombuto; on the north, by the kingdoms of Guber and Zanfara; on the ſouth, by Dauma. The inhabitants are great traders, and many of them ſaid to be exceeding wealthy. This country is large and fertile; but has only one capital town in it, called by the ſame name.

Temian, is bounded on the north, by the Niger; on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Wangria, the deſart of Zaara, and the kingdom of Dauma; on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Guber; and, on the weſt, by that of Bito. The inhabitants of this country, who are ſaid to be very ſavage, are very little known to the Europeans.

Dauma, is ſituated in fourteen degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and eight degrees north latitude. This is alſo a ſmall kingdom, and has not any thing very remarkable to diſtinguiſh it, though the inhabitants are ſaid to be very rich.

Biafana, is ſituated to the ſouth of Dauma; and is bounded, on the north, by the deſart of Seth, which is a large ſpace of barren ground, and reaches as far as the borders of the kingdom of Gago, where it joins another large tract of land called the deſart of Zaara, or Sahara.

Gago, is ſituated four hundred miles ſouth of Tombuto, having Dauma on the eaſt, Melli and the Mundingo country on the weſt, and Guiney on the ſouth, from which it is ſeparated by a ridge of mountains. It abounds with corn and fleſh, but there is ſcarce any wine, trees, or fruits. The villages are paincipally inhabited by ſhepherds and huſbandmen. The people are very illiterate: they go ſtark naked in ſummer, but in the rainy ſeaſon are cloathed with the ſkins of beaſts. The principal village is called Gago, and is of great extent: the king reſides here; but the houſes are very mean buildings, except thoſe belonging to the king and his courtiers, which are more ſpacious and handſome. The country for ſome miles round the town produces great quantities of rice, millet, corn, and cattle, alſo ſome melons and citrons: there are likewiſe many ſprings, which produce excellent water. There are many rich merchants in this town, which is much frequented by people of neighbouring countries, who come to buy cloth brought hither from Barbary and Europe. They alſo carry on a great trade in ſlaves, for they make no ſcruple of ſelling their wives and children.

The people here are in general very poor, owing to the enormous taxes continually laid on them by the king, who has a great number of ſlaves and concubines, the latter of whom are kept in a private place, and attended by eunuchs. His body guards conſiſt of a troop of horſe, and a great number of foot: beſides, which, he has upwards of one hundred archers. The king determines all controverſies between his ſubjects, in the execution of which he attends with great diligence. The place ſet apart for this purpoſe is between the inner and outer gate of the palace; and though

though he is as it were judge himſelf, yet he has his counſellors and other officers; beſides whom, he has alſo ſecretaries, treaſurers, factors, and auditors.

Melli, lies along the banks of a river that runs into the Niger. It is bounded, on the north, by Ghines; on the ſouth, by mountains and deſarts; on the weſt, by large woods and foreſts reaching to the ſea ſhore; and on the eaſt by Gago. It received its name from a large town called Melli, which was once the reſidence of a ſovereign who reigned over the whole kingdom, and at that time the town is ſaid to have contained ſix thouſand families. At preſent, however, the kingdom is divided into different ſovereignties and lordſhips, and but a ſmall part of it retains the original name. The inhabitants are ſaid to be the moſt civilized of all the negroes, and very courteous to ſtrangers; they are likewiſe very induſtrious and frugal. The country produces great quantities of corn, rice, and millet; alſo good cattle, and ſome cotton. The people are generally employed in the buſineſs of huſbandry; but there are amongſt them ſome artificers and merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade with the neighbouring kingdoms. The religion of the country is a kind of Mahometaniſm. Some affirm that this kingdom is tributary to Tombut. Between Melli and the kingdom of Gago is a large tract of land called Foute Guilon, ſaid to be the original country of the Pholeys; but it is now almoſt uninhabited, and little better than a mere deſart.

There are ſeveral conſiderable places towards the ſea coaſt, the firſt of which is Kachao, called by the French Cachaux. It is a Portugueſe colony, ſituated on the river St. Domingo, or Kachao, which falls into the ſea about ſixty miles below the town. It ſtands in the country of the Papells, an idolatrous people, who ſacrifice dogs to their fetiſh, or idol, which they call Shina. The Papells have frequently been at open war with the Portugueſe, for which reaſon the latter have encompaſſed the town on the land ſide with a ſtrong palliſado, terraced and defended by batteries; and they keep conſtantly a watch for fear of any ſudden enterprize. The town is built on the ſide of a river, and conſiſts chiefly of two long narrow ſtreets, with a few ſmall ones that croſs them in different parts. The houſes are made with earth, and are whitened within and without: in the rainy ſeaſon they are covered with palmetto leaves, but all the reſt of the year they are only covered with a ſail cloth, to keep off the violent heat of the ſun. The houſes are low, not having any ſtory above the ground floor; but they are at the ſame time very ſpacious.

In this town there are but few natural Portugueſe, moſt of them being mulattoes, and ſo black as hardly to be diſtinguiſhed from negroes. The faireſt of them, however, keep their wives under very cloſe confinement, never ſuffering them to go abroad in the day time, not even to maſs; and the better ſort have chapels in their houſes, where, on high feſtival days, they hire a prieſt to perform religious duties. The Portugueſe here particularly pride themſelves in being jealous, and will ſometimes carry that paſſion to the greateſt exceſs. Their black wives, indeed, are not ſo much reſtrained as the others, for they are permitted to go abroad in the day time; but they are ſo wrapped up, that no part of them can be ſeen except their feet.

There is a church and convent in this place, and the ſpiritual government is inveſted in a viſitador, or grand vicar, ſent hither by the biſhop of St. Jago, to whom all the Portugueſe that inhabit this country are ſubject. The convent belongs to the capuchins; but from the unwholeſomeneſs of the country, there are ſeldom more than two or three friars that reſide here; and when any of them die, it is a difficult matter to find another that will ſupply his place.

The civil and military government is under the direction of one called captain-major, who has under him a lieutenant, an enſign, and an adjutant; beſides whom, there are other officers, as, an intendant of the king's duty, a notary, and ſome ſcriveners. The garriſon conſiſts of thirty ſoldiers, who are baniſhed from their own country for the commiſſion of ſome capital crime; and this baniſhment is of the moſt horrid nature, for they are kept at ſuch ſhort allowance, and ſo miſerably cloathed, that if they had not ſome kind of buſineſs to aſſiſt them, they muſt inevitably periſh. Some of them will often follow the profeſſion for which they were ſent here; for after dark they will parade the ſtreets, and rob all they meet; ſo that it is very dangerous to walk after ſun-ſet, unleſs a perſon is well provided with arms; this is alſo practiſed in moſt of the other Portugueſe colonies.

The country on the ſouth ſide, where the town ſtands, conſiſts chiefly of marſhes, with a few fields in which they ſow ſome rice; but they are ſo ſmall, and ſo little cultivated, that they do not produce a ſufficiency for the maintenance of the inhabitants. The river before the town is at leaſt a mile acroſs, and ſo deep as to admit the largeſt ſhips, were it not for a dangerous bar that interrupts them at the mouth of the river. The north bank of the river is covered with mangroves, beyond which are ſome of the fineſt trees in Africa for thickneſs, height, and quality of the timber: the natives make their canoes out of theſe trees, which are all of one piece, and ſo large and ſtrong that they will carry ten ton weight. The Papells are eſteemed the beſt rowers on the whole coaſt, by the Portugueſe. The natives of Cachao employ the principal part of their time in the cultivation of a plant called manioc, which is uſed inſtead of bread, not only here, but in ſeveral other parts of Africa. This plant is alſo cultivated, and brought to no leſs perfection by the inhabitants of the iſland of Biſſao. The paſte of manioc is called caſſava, which is converted into a cake by roaſting, without moving it. It would be dangerous to eat as much caſſava as flour of manioc, becauſe the former is leſs roaſted. Both of them keep a long time, and are very nouriſhing, but a little difficult of digeſtion. Though this food ſeems at firſt inſipid, it is preferred to the beſt wheat by many white people.

Another town, called Farim, is ſituated about ſeventy miles from Kachao, on the ſame ſide of the river: a tolerable trade in wax and ivory is carried on here; and markets are held for the ſale of ſlaves in the months of October and November.

Bot, is a village to the north-eaſt of Farim: moſt of the traders buy rice at this place, where it is very plentiful, and exceeding good in quality; and they ſell millet and oxen at another village a little farther, called Bole.

Geſves, is ſo called from a river of the ſame name: it is a very conſiderable town, and ſuppoſed to contain at leaſt forty thouſand inhabitants, among whom there are not above twelve white families, the reſt being all tawny or black. The trade carried on here conſiſts of wax, ivory, and ſlaves. The natives that live on the banks of this river are partly Papells, and partly Mundingoes. The Portugueſe have a factory on it.

There is a province in this country called by the Portugueſe Kobo, the king of which reſides at a ſmall place about thirty miles eaſt of the town of Geſves: and near the mouth of the river of that name is a ſmall town called Courbali, where a conſiderable trade is carried on in ſlaves, ſalt, and ivory.

The river Caſamanga, whoſe courſe is conſiderably long, and its ſtream very rapid, is ſaid to be an arm of the Gambia, and lies to the ſouth of the river of St. Domingo, or Cachao. The only trade carried on here conſiſts chiefly in ivory and wax, which is all in the hands of the Portugueſe, who have two ſmall forts on the banks of this river, but they conſiſt of little more than a few wretched huts, ſurrounded with ſmall moats; and the principal ſecurity of each lies in the difficulty there is to come at it, for they are both ſituated in marſhy grounds, and are hid by mangroves, defended by legions of muſquetoes.

SECT. III.

Containing an Account of SIERRA LEONA, its Boundaries, Climate, Inhabitants, Animals, Produce, Soil, &c.

SIERRA, or Serra Leona is bounded on the north and ſouth by two famous capes, the former of which is called Cape de la Vega, and the latter Cape Tagrin, or Sierra Leona. This country is rendered conſiderable by the river which gives name to it, whoſe banks are more fertile than thoſe on the weſtern coaſt of Africa. The capes abovementioned form a ſpacious bay, into which the river diſcharges itſelf. The flood in the bay runs ſeven hours, and the ebb five: it is between ſeven and eight fathom deep, and ſhips may ride in any part of it with the greateſt ſafety.

The river is ſaid by ſome to have received its name from the noiſe of the ſea againſt its rocky ſhores, reſembling the roaring of lions; others affirm, that it was firſt called ſo by the Portugueſe, from the great number of lions that infeſt the neighbouring mountains. It alſo goes by the names of Tagrin and Mitomba (from the capes ſo called), the latter of which it preſerves for about eighty miles above the mouth of the river. On the ſouth ſide of it is a town called Las Mageas, where none but the Portugueſe

are permitted to reſide for trade; and when there are any French or Engliſh ſhips in the bay, the natives come down the river to barter for commodities.

A creek called the Bay of France, is near the entrance of the river: there is a baſon or reſervoir of freſh water in it, that falls from the adjoining mountains. It flows down in gentle murmurs or impetuous ſtreams, and, in a country almoſt parched by the heat of the ſun, produces a moſt agreeable ſcene, beſides which, its beauties are conſiderably heightened by the ſurrounding hills, that are covered with lofty trees, that afford a perpetual ſhade, and render the whole one of the moſt delightful ſpots that can be met with in ſuch hot countries. Here are alſo ſeveral ſmall iſlands, the principal of which are Taſſo and Benſe.

Taſſo, is a large flat iſland, near three leagues in circumference, where the company's ſlaves have a good plantation. The chief part of the iſland is covered with wood, among which are ſilk cotton trees of a prodigious ſize; and good indigo is produced in ſome parts of it. And about nine miles from the road is ſituated,

Benſe, where the Engliſh had once a ſmall fort, whoſe advantages aroſe chiefly from its ſtanding on a ſteep rock, the aſcent to which was by a flight of ſteps. The fort was built of lime and ſtone, and before it was a platform with ſix guns. The garriſon generally conſiſted of twenty white men, and thirty gromettoes or free blacks, who lived in a ſmall village under the ſhelter of the fort. This fortreſs, however, was taken by two French men of war in the year 1704, who firſt pundered, and then razed it to the ground: Benſe iſland is much ſmaller than the other: it produces only a ſmall quantity of rice, the ſoil of it being very indifferent.

The climate of this country is in general very unwholeſome, particularly in the mountainous parts; where during four months in the year, it rains, thunders, and is ſo intolerably hot, that the people are obliged to keep cloſe in their huts: and the air is corrupted in ſuch a manner by the lightning, that all animal food is reduced in a few hours to a ſtate of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not ſo bad; for though in ſummer the heat is exceſſive in the former part of the day, yet it is very temperate in the afternoon, from the refreſhing breezes that generally come from the ſouth-weſt quarter.

Great numbers of mangrove-trees grow on the banks of the Sierra Leona; the leaves of them exactly reſemble thoſe of an European laurel. The branches of theſe trees are nearly of an equal length, but the ſhoots, growing downwards, as ſoon as they touch the water or the earth, take root, and by that means make a hedge ſo thick as to be almoſt impenetrable.

The whole country abounds in millet and rice, which is the principal food of the natives. It alſo produces great plenty of oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, anynas, pompions, water-melons, yams, potatoes, wild pears, white plums, ſeveral ſorts of pulſe, and the kola fruit. This laſt fruit ſomewhat reſembles a cheſnut, and grows in cluſters of ten or twelve together, four or five in a rind, each divided by a thin ſkin. The outſide of the nut is red intermixed with blue; and the inſide, when out, is of a violet colour mixed with brown. The negroes and Portugueſe uſe it in the ſame manner as the Indians do arek and betel. It makes the water exceeding ſweet, when put into it; and has a harſh ſharp taſte.

There is a variety of large trees on the ſhores, particularly the palm, cocoa, and cotton-tree; and on the mountains are abundance of palm and laurel trees.

Deer, hogs, goats, and fowls, are very numerous here; theſe the natives ſell to the Europeans for a ſmall quantity of brandy, a liquor which they are particularly fond of. In the mountains are great numbers of elephants, lions, tygers, wild boars, and roe-bucks; alſo apes of ſeveral ſorts; and ſerpents, which laſt are ſo large, that it is ſaid they will ſwallow a man whole; but this we do not give intire credit to.

The apes, monkies, and baboons are ſo numerous, that they make great deſtruction in the plantations. There are three ſorts of theſe animals, one of which is of a prodigious ſize, and remarkably ſagacious. When taken young, they are taught to walk upright, and by degrees are rendered very uſeful to the natives: they are taught to pound Indian wheat, to fetch water in calabaſhes or gourds, from the river or ſprings, on their heads, and to turn the ſpit. Theſe creatures are ſuch lovers of oyſters, that, at low water, they go down to the ſhore among the rocks, and when the ſhells open with the violent heat of the ſun, they put a ſmall ſtone between, and take out the oyſter; ſometimes it happens that the ſtone ſlips aſide, or is too ſmall, when the monkey's foot being caught, he is taken and killed by the blacks, who reckon their fleſh, and alſo that of elephants, delicious food.

Pigeons, parrots, parroquets, and Guiney hens are in great numbers in the woods, the latter of which are about the ſize of a pheaſant, and beautiful: but it is very difficult to catch them, on account of the thickneſs of the trees. They have alſo other ſorts of fowl, among which are white pelicans as large as ſwans, a bird called ox-eyes, herons, curlews, and boobies.

There is a great variety of fiſh in the bay and entrance of the river, ſuch as raics, thornbacks, and a fiſh called old wives: alſo gar fiſhes, cavalloes, ſharks, and ſword fiſhes, dog fiſhes, and one called ſhoemaker, having on each ſide the mouth pendents like barbel, and they make a noiſe ſomewhat reſembling the grunting of a hog. The moſt common fiſh, however, caught here, are, pilchards, the becune, the monk or angel fiſh, the mullet, and old wives: the latter is ſhaped much like a tench, is about nine inches long, and has large ſcales. It is mottled with red, yellowiſh, and browniſh lines placed alternately, and running from the head to the tail, being five or ſix in number. The ſnout is oblong, and turns upwards, and the lips are thick, fleſhy, and project from the jaws; but the mouth is ſmall. The teeth are ſerated, but not very ſharp, and the fins are mottled with red, blue, and yellow. The tail, when expanded, is roundiſh, and the fiſh is extremely beautiful altogether.

The becune and monk, or angel fiſh, being little known in Europe, we ſhall here give an account of them. The former of theſe greatly reſembles a pike, but only longer, having been frequently caught upwards of eight feet in length. It is a greedy fiſh, and dangerous to be met with in the water, becauſe it can bite much eaſier than the ſhark, and ſo fearleſs, that it will not be driven away by any noiſe that can be made. The fleſh has the ſame taſte as freſh water pike, but there is often great danger in eating it: for unleſs the teeth are white, and the liver ſweet, it is poiſonous. The monk, or angel fiſh, is between a ſhark and a ſkate, and grows to a large ſize, often weighing upwards of one hundred pounds. The colour on the back and ſides is of a duſky aſh, and the belly is white. The mouth is broad and placed at the end of the head, in which it differs from the other flat, griſly fiſh. The head is roundiſh at the extremity, and there are three rows of teeth in each jaw, each row conſiſting of eighteen, ſo that there are one hundred and eight teeth in all. The tongue is broad and ſharp at the end; and the noſtrils are wide, being placed on the upper lip, and filled with a ſort of ſlime. The eyes are of a middle ſize, placed not far from the mouth, and do not look directly up, but ſide ways. Inſtead of gills, it has holes like the thornback. Near the head are two fins that look much like wings, for which reaſon it is called the angel fiſh. On the extremities of theſe fins, near the corners, there are ſhort, ſharp, and crooked prickles; as there are alſo on the lowermoſt fins, which are placed near the vent. Below the vent are alſo two fins, and the tail is forked. The chief value of this fiſh conſiſts in its ſkin, which is uſed in making caſes for inſtruments; but the fleſh is ſo rank, and of ſo diſagreeable a taſte, that it is little uſed.

The European ſailors find the great quantity of fiſh that are in the bay and river of Sierra Leona to be of infinite ſervice to them, not only for proviſions, but alſo for traffick; for the natives are ſo indolent, that they will not be at the trouble to catch them, but content themſelves with ſuch as are left among the rocks by the ebb tides.

Great plenty of oyſters are on the ſides of the bay; and they appear as if growing on the Mangrove trees, which are very numerous here. Many of them hang down in the water, and are ſo thick covered with oyſters, that at firſt ſight it might be imagined they were produced from the tree. Some of theſe oyſters are of ſuch a ſize, that one of them would ſerve a moderate man for a meal: but they are ſo tough as to be ſcarce eatable, unleſs firſt boiled, and then fried in ſmall pieces. The trees that grow on the ſides of the bay make commodious haunts for crocodiles; as alſo for the manatea, or ſea cow, which are here in great abundance. As theſe creatures are little known to Europeans, we ſhall here deſcribe them more minutely.

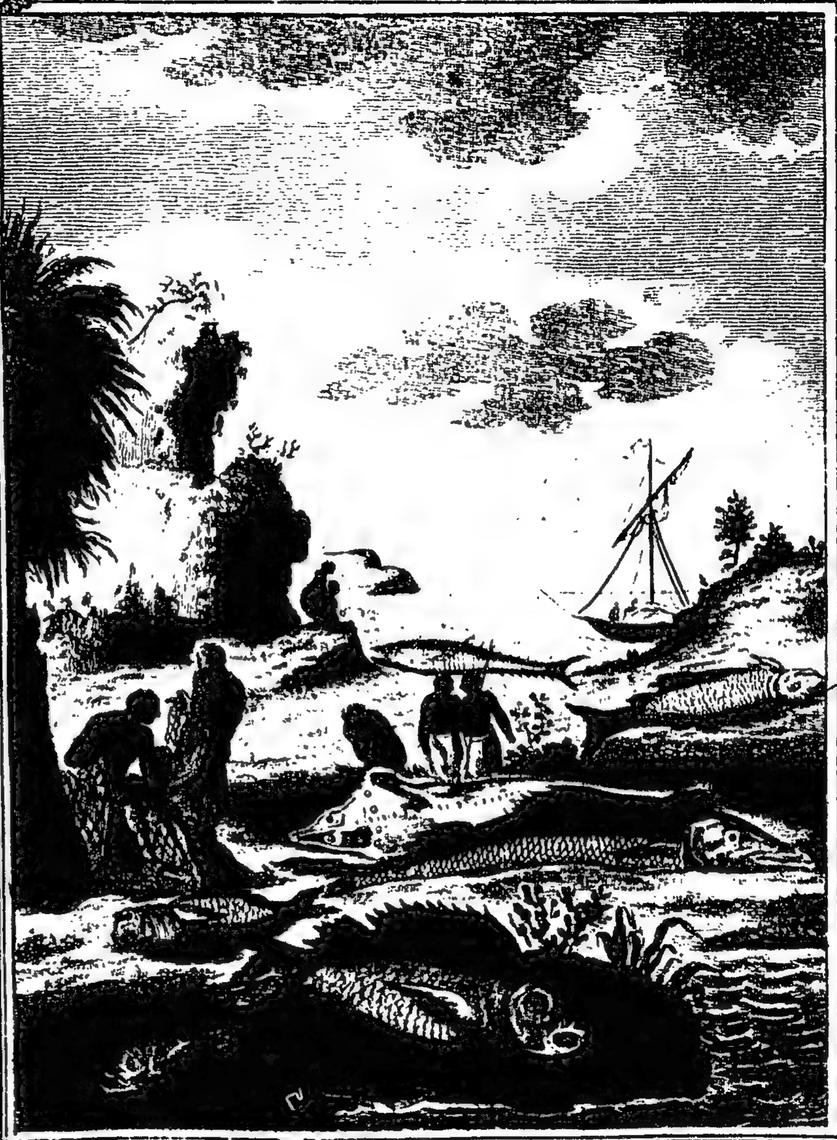
It is ſuppoſed by ſome, that the manatea, or ſea-cow, is an amphibious creature, but this opinion has been ſufficiently controverted; for it is always found in large rivers and bays, and feeds upon ſea weeds that grow near the ſhore. It is covered with a very thick ſkin, which greatly reſembles the bark of an old oak, for it is rough, wrinkled, without hair, and ſo hard as ſcarcely to be penetrated.

Though



Various BIRDS in different parts of AFRICA. Royce

1 The Nests of the Bird Kurbalot or Fisher which are suspended over the Water.—
2 The Aigret.—*3 The Bastard.*—*4 The Numidian Damsel.*—*5 Royal Bird.*—
6 Monoceros of the River Gambia.—*7 The Guinea Hen.*—*8 The African Swan.*—



Various FISH of SIERRA LEONA, a Country of Negroland in Africa. scalp.

such as Gar Fish.—*Old Wives.*—*Pilchards.*—*The Beeme.*—
The Monk or Angel Fish.—*The Mullett.*—*&c.*—

Though the back is the ſmootheſt part, yet it is covered with circular wrinkles from the top of the neck to the tail fin. They are in general about twenty-five feet in length, but the head is very ſmall in proportion to the body. It is flat at the top, and goes off ſloping to the ſnout, which is eight inches in diameter. The head is covered with a black hard ſkin, exceeding rough, but thinner than in other parts. The mouth is ſmall, but large enough for its manner of feeding. The lips both above and below are double, and divided into the inner and outer: the upper lip terminates the ſnout, and appears like a ſemi-circle at the end: it is very thick, being fourteen inches broad, and ten deep; and is white, beſet with tranſparent briſtles about four inches long. The nether lip is alſo double; the outer one is black, and forms a ſort of chin ſeven inches broad, but without briſtles. The inner lip is hairy, and only a little ſeparated from the outer, neither does it appear when the mouth is ſhut. The corners of the mouth are beſet with thick white briſtles an inch and an half long, which keep the water from waſhing away the food while the creature is eating. The briſtles are like ſmall quills, hollow within, and bulbous at the root. The lower jaw, which is only moveable, is ſhorter than the upper, and the lips move in the ſame manner as thoſe of cattle. They have not any teeth, but, inſtead thereof, two ſtrong white bones that run the whole length of both jaws. The noſtrils reſemble thoſe of a horſe, and are parted by a griſtle above an inch thick: they are two inches over, with wrinkles on the inſide, and briſtles half an inch long. The eyes are placed in the centre of the head, between the end of the ſnout and the ears, and are not bigger than thoſe of ſheep. The neck is thick, and ſo ſhort, that it can hardly be perceived, unleſs by its motion in feeding. From the ſhoulders to the navel, the body is large; but from thence to the anus, it grows ſlender. The circumference of the head is ſeven feet, and of the body next the ſhoulder twelve; but where it is largeſt, the circumference is upwards of twenty feet. The fore fins, or arms, are about two feet in length, and conſiſt of two points: they are covered with ſolid fat, intermixed with tendons and ligaments, with a thick ſkin reſembling a horſe's hoof; they are convex on the upper ſide, and flat beneath, and are beſet with rough briſtles about half an inch long. The breaſts are placed between the arms, one under each, and are of a convex form, about a foot and an half in diameter: they are hard, rough, and wrinkled; and when they give ſuck, the teats are four inches long. The ſcull greatly reſembles that of a horſe, and is much about the ſame ſize and thickneſs. The ſtomach is exceeding large, being ſix feet long and five broad; it is ſmooth within, and has a gland about the ſize of a man's head near the inſertion of the gullet.

The manatea, has no voice or cry; and the only noiſe it makes is in fetching its breath. Theſe animals keep together in large companies, and are very careful of their young, which they bring forth in autumn, and have but one at a time. The fat of theſe creatures which lies between the cuticle and the ſkin, when expoſed to the ſun, has a fine ſmell and taſte; it has alſo this peculiar property, that the heat of the ſun will not ſpoil it, or make it become greaſy. The taſte is like the oil of ſweet almonds; and the only effect it has on the body, is that of keeping it open. The fibres and the lean parts are all beef, but more red and harſh, and may be kept a great while in the hotteſt weather without tainting. The fat of the young ones is like pork, and the lean greatly reſembles veal. In the head, are four ſtones of different ſizes, which are ſomewhat like bones, and are uſed in medicine. Hoffman affirms they are exceeding uſeful in caſes of epilepſy; and they are alſo ſaid to be good againſt agues, and to cleanſe the kidnies of gravel.

The method of catching theſe creatures is as follows: The negroes go in a canoe, and paddle towards it with as little noiſe as poſſible, it being exceeding quick of hearing. As ſoon as they find themſelves near enough, the man, who is placed ready at the head of the boat, ſtrikes a harpoon fixed at the end of a long pole into it, and then lets go. The beaſt immediately betakes itſelf to the mangroves, where the water being ſhallow, they follow it cloſe, and renew the ſtrokes till they have wearied it out, when having obtained poſſeſſion of the creature, they drag it aſhore.

With reſpect to the inhabitants of Sierra Leona, they are not ſo black as thoſe of the neighbouring countries; neither have they ſuch flat noſes or thick lips. The men in general are tall and well-made, of a cheerful diſpoſition, and not given to quarrel, but the women are ſhort and robuſt, owing to their being conſtantly employed in labour; for beſides the buſineſs of houſewifry, they work hard in tillage, make palm-oil, and ſpin cotton. The poorer ſort go naked till they are twelve years of age, when they wear a piece of cloth round the waiſt, or a kind of apron made of the leaves of trees. They alſo wear a leathern girdle, to which are faſtened a long knife and a poniard. Perſons of rank, eſpecially when they appear abroad, wear a long flowing robe of ſtriped callico, tied round the waiſt with a ſilken girdle. They adorn their arms with bracelets, and wear a great number of rings on their fingers. Their ears are ornamented with various toys, and on their cheeks they have different figures made with red hot irons. Both ſexes anoint their bodies and limbs with palm oil, and ſome uſe civet in order to give them an agreeable ſcent. They wear no hair on their eye-lids, and they cut that on their head in croſs lines, leaving ſquare tufts ſtanding erect, but the women in general ſhave all cloſe. They are naturally temperate in their living, and very ſober; for though they are exceeding fond of brandy and other ſpirituous liquors, yet they never drink to exceſs, conſidering drunkenneſs as one of the greateſt crimes.

The huts and houſes of theſe people are low, built with wooden ſtockades ſet in the ground, and thatched with ſtraw; ſome of them are round, ſome ſquare, and others oblong; and moſt of them are ornamented in the front with two wings of a ſpiral form. They are kept very clean, being ſwept at leaſt once every day. Their furniture conſiſts of two or three earthen pots to boil their victuals in, a gourd or two wherein to fetch palm-wine, and half a gourd for a cup; a few earthen diſhes, a baſket or two for the wife to gather cockles in, and a knapſack for the huſband, made of the bark of trees, to carry his proviſion in when he goes abroad. Their bedſtead is made of billets of wood laid acroſs each other, on which they lay a mat, and ſleep without any covering. Some of them lie on the ground upon mats made of ruſhes, and have their weapons by their ſides, which, for the moſt part, are, ſwords, daggers, darts, bows and arrows. Some of them have guns, which they are very fond of, and uſe with great dexterity. The points of their arrows are infected with the juice of a poiſonous fruit, which is ſo inconceivably ſubtle and quick, that wherever it ſtrikes, it is ſure to prove fatal.

Roots, herbs, fruits, cockles, and oyſters, are their chief food; and their common drink is water. They plant about their houſes gourds, potatoes, pompions, and tobacco, the latter of which they are very fond of, particularly in ſmoaking. Their pipes are made of clay well burnt, and the bowl is remarkably large. They put a ſmall hollow cane, about a foot and a half long, into the lower end of it, through which they draw the ſmoak and ſwallow it. They ſqueeze the juice out of the tobacco when the leaves are green, from an opinion that it would otherwiſe make them drunk; after which, they ſhred it ſmall, and then dry it on coals.

They are very fond of dancing, and generally ſpend their evenings in that diverſion. They make a ring in the open part of the town, and one at a time ſhews his ſkill in antic motions and geſticulations, but with a great deal of agility; and their muſic conſiſts of two or three drums made of a hollow piece of wood, and covered with the ſkin of a kid or other animal.

The women of this country ſend their daughters, at a certain age, to one peculiar houſe in every town or village, where they are taught for a year to ſing, dance, and perform other exerciſes, by an old man appointed for that purpoſe, and when the year is expired, he conducts them to the market-place, where they publicly exhibit ſuch performances as they have been taught at ſchool. During this time, if any of the young men are diſpoſed to marry, they make choice of thoſe they like beſt, without regard either to birth or fortune. When the man has declared his intention, the parties are conſidered as actually married, provided the bridegroom can make ſome preſents to the bride's parents, and to the old man from whom ſhe received her education.

It is cuſtomary here, when they bury their dead, to put all the beſt goods of the deceaſed into the grave, and erect a roof over it, which they cover with linen cloth. The corpſe is always attended to the grave by a number of people hired as mourners, who howl and lament in proportion as they are paid for their trouble by the relations.

They call the courts of juſtice Pallavers, where the principal or elderly men aſſemble to ſettle differences amongſt them, which generally ariſe in matters relative to trade: each ſalutes the other, at meeting, with a bend of the elbow, and raiſing his hand to his face. When they have heard the parties, they determine the diſpute by vote; and

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he that has the majority, is accounted the innocent perſon. In caſe of fornication, the party, whether man or woman, is ſold for a ſlave. On a charge of murder, the ſuſpected perſon muſt drink of a red purgative water prepared by the judges, which is called purging the criminal: if he is known to have led a bad life, and to have bore malice to the deceaſed, notwithſtanding a poſitive evidence may be wanting, his judges will give him ſuch a quantity of liquor as to kill him, but if they are inclined to ſpare him, they will give him leſs, or make it weaker, that he may appear innocent to the friends and relations of the deceaſed. If a man has been defrauded by another, he has a right to take from him as much as amounts to his own loſs; but he muſt make it appear before the judges that he has not exceeded thoſe limits, as in that caſe he would be called to a ſevere account.

Attempts have been frequently made by the Mundingo negroes, who are ſtrict Mahometans, to propagate their religion among theſe people; but they have ever rejected it, and ſtill follow their own maxims. They acknowledge one ſupreme Being, Creator of all things, whom they call Kanu: they alſo believe in a future ſtate, but they do not worſhip any living creature whatever, nor even the ſun or moon. They have many ſuperſtitious notions, and pay great reſpect to their fetiſhes, or charms, which they conſtantly carry in a bag about their necks, and other parts of their body. The number of theſe deities is not fixed, every one chuſing his idol according to his own fancy; ſome have a horn, ſome a crab's claw, and others a ſnail's ſhell, a bird's head, or ſome ſuch trifle. To theſe they pray with the greateſt diligence, and at their meals always offer them a part. They never go to ſea or on the rivers without theſe idols, conſidering themſelves by thoſe means ſecured from all accidents; for they ſuppoſe the fetiſh has a particular authority upon a ſea; and, after the voyage, thank it for the care it has taken of them during that time.

This country is ſeparated by the river Sierra Leona into two kingdoms; namely, that of Bulon or Bulm, to the north, and that of Burre to the ſouth. The former of theſe kingdoms lies very low and flat, but the ſoil is fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, millet, and maize, of which they make excellent bread. The natives are very fond of the Engliſh and Portugueſe, many of whom inhabit that part of the country, and they take great pains to imitate the maxims and manners of thoſe Europeans.

Burre, is a much more open kingdom than that of Bulm, and near it is that long ridge of mountains called Sierra Leona, which is the admiration of all ſtrangers. There are ſo many caves and dens about the mountains, that when a ſingle gun is fired from a ſhip in the bay, the echo is ſo often repeated, and the ſound ſo loud and ſharp, that there ſeems to be the report of ſeveral cannon. This is far from being diſagreeable to hear; but when it thunders, the noiſe is at firſt dreadful, each clap being echoed with as much force as the real.

Not far from the mountains abovementioned, there runs out into the ſea weſtward a hilly point, much lower than the above mountains, forming almoſt a peninſula, over which the blacks carry their canoes on their ſhoulders when they deſign to launch out to ſea, as it ſaves them the trouble of rowing round there from the bay. This point, according to the moſt exact obſervation, is ſituated in eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and is called Cabo Ledo.

The king of Burre reſides in a town about eight leagues from the mouth of the river. It is compoſed of about three hundred houſes, which are round, and built all one way. The king's houſe, or rather his huts, are in the center of the village, and reſembles thoſe of his ſubjects. Some of them are a little larger, which he keeps for the Europeans, or ſtrangers that viſit him. The king governs his ſubjects with great juſtice and lenity, and is greatly beloved by them.

The huts of the lower claſs of people are made with ſide poſts ſeven or eight feet high, ſupporting rafters that unite at the top in the form of a cone. They are covered with reeds, or palm-leaves interwoven through laths ſo cloſe and thick, as to be impenetrable either to rain or the violent heat of the ſun. The ſide walls are formed of reeds and ſmall branches faſtened between the poſts, over which they lay a coat of lime made of burnt ſhells, which gives their huts a clean look, but does not laſt long, becauſe they mix no ſand with it. The fire-place is in the center, and the ſmoke iſſues through a hole at the top. The doors of the huts are ſquare, the threſhold being raiſed at leaſt a foot from the ground: they are commonly about two feet broad, and three high, ſo that the generality of people muſt ſtoop to go in, and thoſe who are corpulent muſt enter ſideways. Although the climate is hot, yet the nights are cold and moiſt, ſo that the negroes keep fires in their houſes continually.

The dialect of Bulm is the common language of the country; this is a hard, unpleaſing tongue to ſtrangers, and not eaſy to be deſcribed; but about the bay they ſpeak either Portugueſe, or Lingua Franca, and a little Engliſh and Dutch is underſtood by ſome of them.

The Europeans, particularly the Engliſh and Dutch, have long frequented the river of Sierra Leona: here they either trade, or procure refreſhments, in their way to the Gold Coaſt, or Whidah. The goods purchaſed here by way of trade, are, elephants teeth, ſlaves, ſandal wood, gold and bees wax; with ſome pearls, cryſtal, ambergris, long pepper, &c. The gold purchaſed here is brought either from South Guiney by the river Mitomba, or from Mundingo, and other countries towards the Niger.

The merchandize which the Europeans bring hither, is, French brandy and rum, iron bars, white callico, Sileſia linen, braſs kettles, earthen cans, all ſorts of glaſs buttons, braſs rings or bracelets, bugles and glaſs beads of various colours, braſs medals, ear-rings, Dutch knives, hedging bills and axes; coarſe laces, cryſtal beads, red callicoes, oil of olives, guns, muſkets, balls and ſhot, paper, red caps, all ſorts of counterfeit pearls, cotton, &c.

CHAP. III.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

GUINEY.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Deſcription of GUINEY, its Extent, Situation, Diviſion, &c. alſo an Account of the GRAIN COAST, its Extent, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, their Trade, Towns, &c.

GUINEY is a very extenſive region, and commonly divided into two large countries, called Upper and Lower Guiney; the latter of which is more properly diſtinguiſhed by the name of Congo. Theſe two together (reckoning from Cape Tagrin, near the mouth of the river Sierra Leona, in nine degrees eighteen minutes of north latitude to Cape Negro, in ſixteen degrees forty-five minutes of ſouth latitude) extend upwards of three thouſand five hundred miles, excluſive of all the turnings, windings, and bays on the coaſt.

Guiney Proper, or Upper Guiney, is ſituated between fifteen degrees weſt, and fifteen degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and an half and ten and an half degrees north latitude, bounded by the unknown parts of Africa, on the

eaſt; by Congo and the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth; by the ſame ocean, on the weſt; and by Negroland, on the north.

The moſt accurate geographers divide the whole country into four parts, under the appellations of, 1. The Grain, or Pepper Coaſt; 2. The Ivory Coaſt; 3. The Gold Coaſt; and, 4. The Slave Coaſt; in which order we propoſe to treat of it. The principal rivers are, Sherbro, Ceſtre, St. Paul, and Sierra Leona.

The Grain or Pepper Coaſt, begins at Cape Tagrin, from whence it extends upwards of four hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of Cape Palmas. It received its name from the Guiney pepper, called by the Spaniards, Malagueta, which grows here in abundance. It alſo produces another ſpecies of pepper common in the Weſt Indies, and generally known in England by the name of Jamaica pepper. The Engliſh and Dutch purchaſe great quantities of theſe articles: but ivory and ſlaves conſtitute the chief commerce of this country.

Travellers uſually make but two ſeaſons in this country, namely, the wet and dry ſeaſon. From April to September incluſive, is their rainy ſeaſon; and from October to March incluſive, is their drieſt and hotteſt, as well as faireſt weather; though then the ſun is fartheſt from them on the ſouth-ſide of the equator; whereas, the coaſt of Guiney lies five degrees north. But their wet ſeaſon does not always begin juſt at the ſame time: nor is it the ſame at all places on this coaſt: at ſome times, and in ſome places it begins a month or two ſooner than in others, and is ſometimes of a longer, and at others of a ſhorter duration; however, between the vernal and the autumnal equinox, they generally have exceſſive rains, attended with violent ſtorms of wind, as well as thunder and lightning: and, as the winds at this time blow from the ſouthward, and there is not one harbour upon the coaſt, if any ſhipping happens to be there in theſe ſtorms, they are infallibly run on ſhore, unleſs they ſtand out to ſea, or get into the mouth of the river of Sierra Leona, when they find them coming on: and there always ſits ſuch a ſurf, or ſwelling ſea, on this coaſt, that it is very difficult going on ſhore at any time, even during the fair ſeaſon, eſpecially at Whidah.

The moſt violent ſtorms, or travadoes, are in July and Auguſt, and come from the ſouthward. It is obſerved alſo, that during the hot ſeaſon, the winds are periodical on this coaſt, blowing from midnight till one or two in the afternoon, from the land; and then, ſhifting to the ſouthward, blow from the ſea: and that the ſea rages to that degree, on this ſhore, ſome months in the year, that it looks like fire, which makes the ſailors ſtile it, The Burnings, at which times it is almoſt impoſſible to go on ſhore.

The ſoil is tolerably good, and, beſides pepper, produces plenty of vegetables and roots, as alſo various kinds of fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and dates. Their cattle conſiſts of cows, which give wretched milk, and very little of it; ſheep, which are cloathed with hair inſtead of wool, make very indifferent food, yet are very dear: they have alſo goats, hogs, hares, and deer, which are much better food than the former: they have a few horſes, but they are very ſmall, and of little uſe. Here are alſo ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, as lions, tygers, leopards, elephants, buffaloes, wild hogs, wild dogs, foxes, crocodiles, and apes of various ſorts. They have likewiſe a ſpecies of monkey here, ſome of which are five feet high; and are ſo bold and impudent, that they will ſometimes attack men: but they have another ſort of monkies, coal black, with white beards, not above two feet high, and very pretty. Theſe creatures are all very thieviſh here, as well as in other places, plundering gardens and corn fields, but pretty nice in their diet, chuſing the beſt of every kind of grain or fruit. The cameleon is alſo found in this part of Africa; of which it is confidently ſaid, that he often changes colour: the colour he uſually puts on, when he is ſurpriſed, is a fine green, ſpotted brown or yellow, for his ordinary colour is grey, but they never change to a red; and the ſkin is almoſt tranſparent; it is a very ſmall animal, leſs than a rat, but conſiderably bigger than a mouſe, and will live ſeveral months (ſome ſay years) without food; though others are of opinion, that it catches flies, as ſome other creatures do, by putting out its tongue, which is almoſt as long as the body: but the flies muſt light on the cameleon's tongue, if he does catch them, for he is ſo exceeding ſlow in his motion, that he can overtake nothing by running after it. Their poultry conſiſts of geeſe, turkies, and ducks, with plenty of cocks and hens, the latter of which are eſteemed as good in quality as thoſe of Europe.

With reſpect to the natives of this part of the country they are in general tall and well featured, tolerably ſenſible and courteous to ſtrangers, and are ſaid to be the moſt honeſt in their dealings of any on the whole coaſt. The habit of a negro is a paan or pagne, (a cloth) about his waiſt, two feet broad; and thoſe of the better ſort have another cloth of a good length wrapped about them, and thrown over their ſhoulders; but yet ſo as their arms, legs, and a great part of their bodies appear naked, both of the men and women. Their ornaments conſiſt of a multitude of rings, or bracelets, of gold, ivory, or copper, according to their circumſtances, worn on their arms and legs, with necklaces, and girdles of coral, one upon another; but the plaiting and adorning their hair take up the greateſt part of their time, eſpecially of the women: the hair of ſome of the negroes is longer than that of others; and they have a way of pulling it out of the natural curl, and making it ſtrait, by hanging weights to it; after which, they form it into various faſhions, dreſſing it up with little thin plates of gold, copper, tinſel, beads, coral, and ſhells, that make a glittering ſhew; ſome of the women throw a vail over all, to keep off the ſcorching ſun, and ſome of the men have caps; their fiſhermen, particularly, have them made of ſkins or ruſhes, and are very happy if they can get an European hat: but many of the negroes go perfectly bare headed; and their ſcalps, it is ſaid, are ſo hardened by it, that they are not ſenſible of the ſun's intenſe heat.

Rice, millet, fiſh, and fruits, are their common food; and their general drink is water mixed with a little palm-wine, or the milk of cocoa-nuts. Moſt of them are very abſtemious, and will not drink any ſtrong liquors to exceſs; ſuch as do are ſeverely puniſhed, by order of the king, for that practice.

The monarch of this country governs with deſpotic ſway; and with ſuch auſterity, as to ſtrike an awe into his ſubjects, who reverence him more from fear than affection: he is limited by no laws, or any other reſtraints. When he goes abroad, he appears with the greateſt pomp and magnificence; but he is never ſeen in public but upon particular occaſions.

Theſe people are all Pagans, but believe in one ſupreme Being, and ſeem to entertain ſome notions of a future ſtate. The chief part of them are employed in huſbandry; but there are ſome artificers amongſt them, that are excellent workmen, particularly ſmiths, carpenters, and maſons, the former of whom are ſo well acquainted with the nature of tempering ſteel, that they make their various inſtruments to the greateſt perfection. They purchaſe fire-arms, gun-powder, and bullets of the Europeans; but darts, arrows, lances, and broad ſwords, they make themſelves. The carpenters make the canoes of various ſizes with great neatneſs: and they alſo build their houſes or huts, (which are made of wood or clay, and thatched with reeds or branches of the palmetto-tree), in a very regular manner.

Some of the natives of this place are of a mixed breed, called mulattoes. Theſe are an abandoned ſet of people, and have proceeded from the intermixture of negroes and Europeans; for when the Portugueſe firſt diſcovered the ſouth-weſt part of Africa, they not only propagated their religion, but alſo their ſpecies, in many parts of it. Theſe are of a tawny complexion, and profeſs themſelves Chriſtians, notwithſtanding which they retain many of the moſt ſuperſtitious notions of the Pagans. The men are great drunkards, lewd, thieviſh, and treacherous; the women are altogether the moſt abandoned, proſtituting themſelves at all times, and to all ſorts of men, without the leaſt degree of reſtraint. They imitate the Portugueſe in their dreſs, but exceed both them and the negroes in their vices.

The trade is carried on by ſignals from the ſhips; on the appearance of which, the natives immediately go in their canoes, carrying with them their pepper, ivory, &c. for the Europeans have no ſettlement in this part of Guiney.

One of their principal rivers is the Sherbro, called by ſome authors Selbole, and by others Palmas, which diſcharges itſelf into the great bay formed by the capes of Tagrin and Vega. It ſeparates the country called Sierra Leona from that named Seſtos, and has its ſource in Upper Ethiopia; from whence it is conjectured by ſome either to be a branch of the Senegal, or of the river Gambia. Large ſhips go up this river for about ſeven leagues from its mouth, but farther up it grows ſhallow, and is only navigable for canoes. The country round it is very mountainous, and the river has many turnings and windings,

but the ſtream is not rapid, except at two or three cataracts or water-falls, one of which is exceeding large, and makes a prodigious noiſe, the water falling from the rocks upwards of twenty feet perpendicular. The negroes that ſail up this river, before they reach the cataract, are obliged to go aſhore, and land their goods, which, with their canoes, they drag along the mountains till they have paſſed the cataract. The other two water-falls are trifling; notwithſtanding which, they frequently have their canoes overſet, eſpecially when they are heavy laden; but as the cam wood, with which they are generally loaded, is very heavy, it ſinks, and in the dry ſeaſon they go and take it up, there being at that time hardly any water in the river. Their times of going up the river are in the latter end of the rainy ſeaſons, when they cut the cam-wood, and ſearch for elephants teeth; theſe ſeaſons generally continue five months out of the twelve.

There is a ſmall iſland near the mouth of the river, called by the Engliſh Sherbro, and by the Dutch Maſſacoy. It is ſurrounded by rocks, and before it lies a large ſand bank, ſo lofty as to be diſcovered at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea, The weſt end of this iſland is called St. Ann, and is exceeding pleaſant, being covered with lofty trees on both ſides. The ſoil of the whole is very fertile, and produces plenty of rice, maize, yams, potatoes, bananas, orange and lemon-trees, citrons, pomegranates, and other fruits; beſides which, there are great numbers of poultry, and on the ſides of the ſea are found oyſters that contain ſome of the moſt valuable pearls. The inhabitants practiſe much the ſame maxims as thoſe of Sierra Leona, and are idolaters.

York iſland, lies to the north of Sherbro: the Engliſh had once a factory and a good fort here, but they abandoned it about the year 1727, when they removed to Jamaica, a ſmall iſland about four miles farther to the weſt. This they alſo deſerted, and have not for ſome years had any factory either on the river of Sherbro, or on the iſland of that name.

Seſtre, or Seſtros, which lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Sherbro river, is very rocky at the entrance; but the rocks are all, except two, ſo deep in the water, that moſt veſſels paſs over them, and thoſe two are ſo high above it as to be eaſily avoided. This river is pleaſantly incloſed by lofty trees, and there are ſeveral ſmall ſprings and rivulets that diſcharge themſelves into it. The banks of it are very fertile, and in particular produce great quantities of excellent rice. In different parts are many pretty villages, among which is that where the king reſides, called by the Dutch Koningſdorp, ſituated about twelves miles up the river. It contains about thirty houſes, which are all ſmall buildings, except the king's, and that is not only handſome but ſpacious. About one hundred yards from the mouth of the river is a pleaſant village on a riſing ground, which contains about ſixty houſes, all neatly built; ſome of them may be ſeen many miles from the ſea, as they are very lofty buildings.

There is a large mountainous rock, about eight miles below the river Seſtos, on which grows a remarkable lofty tree: this place is called Little Seſtros or Seſtre; and about four miles from it, farther to the eaſt, a point juts out into the ſea, near which, on the land, appears a great rock, white at the top, which at ſea looks like a ſhip under ſail; it is ſurrounded by large ſand-banks, and is called Cabo Baixos by the Portugueſe.

The natives of this place are very courteous to ſtrangers; but they are idolaters, and practiſe ſome of the moſt ſuperſtitious maxims. Both ſexes go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt. Their food is the ſame as thoſe above deſcribed. Many of them are employed in fiſhing, and the king has a certain duty of what they catch. When they ſalute each other, they take the fore-finger and thumb into their hands, and putting them into a certain poſture, pull them till they ſnap, when they ſay Aquio, which ſignifies, your ſervant.

They uſe but little ceremonies in their marriages; thoſe who are able to purchaſe a wife, after agreeing with the woman, apply to the parents or relations, and, if they approve of the bargain, the wife is delivered to the huſband, who conducts her to his hut, and his other wives prepare a wedding ſupper. The huſband ſtays all night with his new bride, and the next morning ſhe goes to work with the reſt, no farther ceremony being obſerved on this occaſion. There ſeems, in ſome reſpects, to be little difference between their wives and their ſlaves.

Thoſe that live the eaſieſt amongſt them, are the wives of the merchants, the dealers in wine, and the fiſhermen, who have no lands to manure; for theſe do ſomething towards bringing in a livelihood, and providing for their families; whereas the men of eſtates make their wives manure and cultivate them; and the more wives they have, the greater is their ſtock of corn, rice, and plants, which makes them multiply their wives as faſt as they can. They have one wife called their boſſum, dedicated to their houſhold god, who is exempted from working, and enjoys many other privileges in the life-time of her huſband.

The boſſum is uſually a young beautiful ſlave, purchaſed with a deſign of dedicating her to his god, and with whom he ſeems under ſome obligation of ſpending his time on the night of his birth-day, and of the other day of the week appropriated to the ſervice of their gods. There is alſo another wife, to whom the affairs of the houſe are entruſted, and the government of the reſt is committed, who is exempted from labour; and theſe two the negroes are very jealous of, and endeavour to keep to themſelves; but for the reſt they are not ſo much concerned.

Great diſtinction is ſhewn to the wife who is firſt delivered of a boy, as ſhe thereby becomes the favourite or chief; but ſhe ſometimes pays very dear for the preference given her, being obliged, if her huſband dies firſt, to follow him, and be buried alive in the ſame grave. This ceremony a French writer of credit, who was an eye witneſs of the melancholy tranſaction, has given us the following account of.

"The captain or chief of the village, dying of a hard drinking-bout of brandy, the cries of his wives immediately ſpread the news through the town. All the women ran thither, and howled like furies. The favourite wife diſtinguiſhed herſelf by her grief, and not without cauſe. However, as ſeveral women in the ſame caſe have prudently thought fit to make their eſcape, the reſt of the women, under pretence of comforting her, took care to watch her ſo cloſely, that there was no means of eſcaping. The relations of the deceaſed all came to pay their compliments, and take their farewel.

"After the marabout had examined the body, and declared the perſon died a natural death, he, with his brethren, took the corpſe, waſhed, dried, and then rubbed it with fat from head to foot. After this, they ſtretched it on a mat in the middle of the houſe. His wives were placed round it, and his favourite at the head, as the poſt of honour. Several other women made a circle round them; all theſe endeavoured to outroar each other, tearing their hair, and ſcratching themſelves methodically, like people who knew perfectly the part they acted. Sometimes they left off, and kept ſilent; at others they repeated the praiſe and great actions of the deceaſed, and then began their lamentations afreſh. This mock muſic laſted near two hours, when four luſty negroes entering the houſe, took the dead body, and tied it on a hand-barrow made of branches of trees; then lifting it on their ſhoulders, they carried it through the town, running as faſt as they could, and reeling from time to time as if they had been drunk, with a thouſand ridiculous geſtures, very ſuitable to the exclamations of the wives of the deceaſed, and the other women who attended the proceſſion. In ſhort, the noiſe was ſo great, as would have drowned the loudeſt thunder.

"The parade being over, the body was taken from the hand-barrow, and depoſited in its place; after which, the ſongs, cries, and extravagancies of the women began again. During this, the marabout made a grave deep and large enough to hold two bodies: he alſo ſtripped and ſkinned a goat; the pluck ſerved to make a ragout, of which he and the aſſiſtants ate; he alſo cauſed the favourite wife to eat ſome, who had no great inclination to taſte it, knowing it was to be her laſt. She ate ſome, however, and during this repaſt, the body of the great goat was divided into ſmall pieces, broiled, and eaten. The lamentations began again; and when the marabout thought it time to end the ceremony, he took the favourite wife by the arms, and delivered her to two luſty negroes. Theſe ſeizing her roughly, tied her hands and feet behind her, and, laying her on her back, placed a piece of wood on her breaſt; then holding each other with their hands on their ſhoulders, they ſtamped with their feet on the piece of wood till they had broken the woman's breaſt. Having, thus, at leaſt, half diſpatched her, they threw her into the grave, with the remainder of the goat, caſting her huſband's body over her, and filling up the grave with earth and ſtones. Immediately the cries ceaſing, a quick ſilence ſucceeded the noiſe, and every one retired home with the greateſt compoſure and unconcern."

The common people wink at their wives beſtowing favours on other men; and indeed promote their own diſhonour,

honour, provided they can get money by it: they will contrive with their wives how to draw young fellows into the ſnare, for the ſake of the damages they are entitled to, when another invades their property; for the meaneſt man does not recover leſs than five or ſix pounds ſterling, if he can prove the offence; and they generally find means to have ſome evidence of the fact, beſides the wives: for if the man will take a ſolemn oath that he is innocent, and there can be no witneſs againſt him but the wife, he cannot be convicted. The women that are unmarried, it is ſaid, take very great liberties, which is no reproach to them upon this coaſt, neither does it hinder their getting huſbands; but this is to be underſtood only of the inferior claſs of people.

Circumciſion is practiſed here by the blacks; but they give no other reaſon for it, than that it is an antient cuſtom tranſmitted to them by their anceſtors. They pay great reſpect to their prieſts, who, beſides their eccleſiaſtical function, are looked upon as the moſt able phyſicians, though in general they are very ignorant.

Their principal commodities of traffic are, Guiney pepper, elephants teeth, cattle, and poultry. Their language is ſo unintelligible, that they are obliged to trade with the Europeans by ſigns; and in this they are ſo expert, that bargains and agreements are made without much difficulty.

Cape Monte, is the next conſiderable place we come to: it is ſituated about twenty-five leagues from the mouth of the river Sherbro; it is called by the natives Waſh Kingo, and, when firſt diſcovered at ſea, appears like a lofty iſland. It contains a great number of villages, the inhabitants of which are remarkably induſtrious, particularly in cultivation of rice and boiling of ſalt, which they do not only for themſelves, but alſo for the benefit of their king, to whom they are under ſuch ſubjection, as to be accounted his ſlaves.

Their chief cattle are ſheep; and they have ſome fowls that are exceeding large and good. They have likewiſe a great plenty of various ſorts of fiſh, the catching of which is the chief employment of many of the inhabitants. Wild beaſts, as elephants, tygers, buffaloes, harts, &c. are alſo met with here in great numbers.

The dreſs of the men is a white garment reſembling a ſurplice; but the women have only a narrow piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt. Both ſexes take great pains with their hair, or wool, which they twiſt into ringlets, and ornament the top of it with gold or precious ſtones. They wear alſo necklaces of ſeveral rows; and on their arms and wriſts they have bracelets, and rings above the ancles, where ſome hang bells of ſilver, the noiſe of which, when they divert themſelves by dancing, they are very fond of.

Though the houſes are for the moſt part mean buildings, yet they are kept exceeding clean. Thoſe belonging to the king and principal men are built long; ſome of them are two ſtories high, with a vaulted roof of reeds or palm-leaves, ſo thick laid as to render rain or heat of the ſun abſolutely impenetrable. At the entrance is the hall of audience, which is alſo their place of eating: here is a kind of ſopha, made of earth or clay, about ſix feet in breadth; and raiſed about twelve inches from the ground; it is covered with fine mats made of graſs or palm-leaves, and dyed of various colours. In this place the principal people ſpend the greateſt part of the day with their wives, and amuſe themſelves with ſmoaking, talking, and drinking palm-wine. Adjoining to the audience-room is the bed chamber, where they have an eſtrade or ſopha, conſiſting of a number of mats laid one on the other, and ſurrounded with pagnes ſewed together, or printed linen like curtains. Their kitchens are ſituated at ſome diſtance from the dwelling houſe, and are very neat.

The people here are in general more cleanly in eating their victuals, than their neighbours. They uſe bowls made of hard wood, and baſons of pewter or copper tinned, which they keep exceeding neat. When they roaſt their meat, they faſten it on a wooden ſpit; but as they have not the means of making it turn round, they firſt roaſt one ſide, and then the other.

A man may marry as many wives as he can keep, for which reaſon ſome of them have a great number, for the expence is very trifling, as they make them work ſo hard, that each nearly earns her own maintenance; they ſeldom quarrel, but in general live very happy; and ſo little jealous are the men, that if their wives beſtow favours on others, it does not give them the leaſt concern.

Their religion conſiſts chiefly in reverencing and obeying their king; and they have ſuch little notions of ambition, that each lives happy in his own way, neither exulting at the downfal of the poor, or envying the proſperity of the rich. Their military weapons conſiſt only of bows and arrows, but they are kept more for ornament than uſe. They never go to war with their neighbours; for if any differences ariſe, they are amicably adjuſted by treaty between the parties.

Many of their mats are bought by the Europeans that trade here: they are of a bright yellow, and exceeding beautiful; alſo great quantities of ivory, which is equally good in quality to that of Sierra Leona: they likewiſe purchaſe the ſkins of lions, panthers, tygers, and other wild beaſts, as alſo a great number of ſlaves, which are brought hither by the Mundingo merchants from the inland parts of Africa. The foreſts yield plenty of ſeveral ſorts of wood fit for dying, particularly camwood, which the natives cut, and bring to the ſhore in blocks of four or five feet in length; the Europeans buy a great deal of it, thinking it much more ſolid and beautiful than Braſil wood, to which they prefer it.

At a ſmall diſtance from cape Monte, is a river called Rio Novo, on the banks of which are ſeveral good villages, and the ſoil is very fertile, producing great quantities of rice, and other grain, with various kinds of fruit, as oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, &c. Here are alſo ſeveral ſorts of quadrupeds, as cows, ſheep, goats, hogs, deer, and horſes. In ſummer, the water of this river is brackiſh about two leagues from the coaſt, on account of the flowing in of the tide; and in the winter it ſometimes ſwells ſo as to overflow its banks; before the mouth of it is a conſiderable ſand bank, which prevents large veſſels from entering it, but ſmall barks paſs it without any difficulty: it is navigable as far as a village called Davaranja, to which place it is very deep, and at leaſt four hundred feet broad. Above this village, the river is encumbered with large rocks, which occaſion conſiderable water-falls, that greatly obſtruct the navigation, and are very dangerous.

Towards the ſouth-eaſt, and about ten leagues from cape Monte, is a prodigious hill called cape Menſurado, though not quite ſo high as cape Monte; it is round and very large, and is almoſt ſurrounded with water; that part next the ſea is very ſteep and high, but that to the land is more gentle and acceſſible. On the eaſt ſide of it is a bay of conſiderable extent, which is terminated by a high land covered with lofty trees. On the weſt ſide is another large bay formed by the river, whoſe mouth is in the center of it. Theſe two bays are ſeparated by a long narrow neck of land. The cape is ſituated in ſix degrees thirty-four minutes north latitude, and that part of it which projects moſt to the ſea runs ſouth-eaſt; from whence there is a ſmall river that falls into the weſtern bay, and is navigable for near forty miles. This river abounds with a great variety of excellent fiſh, but the water is always brackiſh. The top of the mountain is quite level, covered with lofty trees, and commands each of the bays, the beſt of which is that to the north of the cape, about one hundred yards from ſhore, where there is good anchorage in eight or ten fathom water between the point of the cape, and the river's mouth. Before the mouth of the river, along the bay, is a bar, which is dangerous in ſome places, but eaſily paſſed by thoſe who are well acquainted with it.

Near the foot of the cape is an ever-running ſpring, which yields excellent water: it iſſues from a rock in the bank of the ſea, and forms a natural caſcade; and here the ſailors furniſh themſelves with a ſupply of that neceſſary article. To the weſt of this cape are three villages, containing about twenty houſes each; theſe houſes are low, and divided into three apartments; they are built with ſticks and clay, and are covered with ſtraw. In one of them are generally lodged at leaſt forty people, conſiſting of men, women, and children of different families, all confuſedly mixed together.

The people here are very civil and good-natured, and the women remarkably handſome. The men are naturally very indolent, and leave the principal part of buſineſs to be executed by their wives. They are as careleſs about religion as their neighbours at cape Monte, and only attend to the enjoyments of feſtivity and diverſion. They live very peaceably with their neighbours, and are not apprehenſive of any enemy except the Engliſh, their fears of whom aroſe from two large veſſels that once ſtopped here, the crews belonging to which ravaged the country, deſtroyed all their canoes, plundered their houſes, and carried off ſome of the people for ſlaves: ſince which time they have ever been fearful of moſt Europeans, but particularly the Engliſh, and have retained an enmity to them ever ſince.

The garb of the common people is only a piece of cotton wound round the waiſt, and faſtened between the legs: but the better ſort have a ſtriped frock which reaches to the

the knees; and they think themſelves equipped to the greateſt advantage, if they can get an old hat to grace their heads with.

The weapons of theſe people are lances about five feet long, with pointed iron heads; ſmall bows and arrows, the latter of which are poiſoned at the ends; and if they touch the blood, it inevitably kills the object, unleſs the part affected is immediately cut off. Their arrows have neither iron heads or feathers, and they always ſhoot them at random; notwithſtanding which, they ſeldom miſs their mark. They carry ſquare targets of thin board about four feet long and two broad, which are made to hang on their arms, but in ſo convenient a manner, that they can eaſily manage the bow with their hands.

Palm-wine and rice are their chief articles of trade; of theſe they have great quantities, and exceeding good in quality; they procure cowries and ſmall bars of iron, in exchange for theſe commodities.

About eight miles up the river, and near a quarter of a mile from the ſide of it, the king's town is ſituated. This is ſurrounded with woods, and the entrance to it from the river is through a beautiful walk ſhaded with lofty trees. The council-hall is in the center of the town: here the king and his chief people meet to hear all cauſes, diſpenſe juſtice, and ſettle the affairs of ſtate. The floor of this building is of clay raiſed about a foot from the ground, and over it a penthouſe of a circular form ſupported by poſts, and thatched with palm branches, to ſhelter them from the heat of the ſun. The whole is open on all ſides, for the convenience of light and air, and is about twelve yards in diameter.

There are about forty houſes in this town, which, though low buildings, are very neat: they are open on one ſide, and walled on the other three with ſtakes intermixed with red clay, which bind well, and is very laſting. Their kitchens are even with the ground; but the bed chambers are raiſed about a foot from it, to avoid the inconvenience of the dews. The roof is raiſed like a tent, and covered with reeds, or palm-leaves, ſo cloſe interwoven as to admit neither ſun nor rain. In the center of the kitchen is the fire-place, which is raiſed about ſix inches from the ground; and they keep their fires conſtantly burning; in the day-time, for dreſſing their victuals, and the convenience of ſmoaking; and, in the night, to ſecure them from the moiſtneſs of the air, and the cold.

They have, beſides their houſes, buildings for holding their proviſions, as rice, millet, palm-oil, brandy, and other neceſſaries. Theſe buildings are of a round make, with a conic roof, and are ſecured by padlocks, of which the huſband keeps the keys, and diſtributes daily or weekly ſuch proviſion as he thinks neceſſary for his family. This does not give the leaſt offence to his wives, who live amicably together, and ſpend their time in working abroad, or taking care of the children and other neceſſary buſineſs at home. The buildings belonging to each family are covered with reeds or palm-leaves to ſecure them from the inclemency of the weather, and are encloſed with a wall of earth ſeven or eight feet high.

The river called St. Paul runs to the weſt of Menſurado; the entrance of it is about ſix feet deep, and in calm weather it is navigable for veſſels of a tolerable burden. This river takes its courſe weſtward about three miles, and eaſtward to the river Seſtos, whither the natives daily paſs in their canoes, and trade either in the natural produce of the country, or in elephants teeth, which latter article is brought in conſiderable quantities to the river Seſtos.

The river called del Punto or Rio Junck, is to the ſouth-eaſt of cape Menſurado; but the entrance is ſo clogged with rocks, that it is impoſſible for any ſhips to paſs them: however, on the other ſide of them the river is navigable, and runs for ſeveral miles up the country with a fine ſmooth current.

The river St. John is farther to the ſouth-eaſt of that laſt-mentioned: the banks of it are covered with lofty trees; and to the eaſt of this river is a high mountain, in the form of a bow; but it is chiefly barren and uninhabited. Near the ſea-coaſt, a few miles from its mouth, is a village called Tabo Carea, and not far from it, is another, called by the natives Tabo Dagron, and by the French Petit Diappe: there is a river of the ſame name near it.

Seſtre Cro, or Seſtre Crue, is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt of the river St. Paul; near it there is a large and beautiful village inhabited by people remarkable for being honeſt in their dealings, and preſerving a more regular and prudent conduct than their neighbours. The country here is flat and low; but at ſome diſtance from the village the land is high, and covered with trees that afford excellent timber. Near the ſea are two large rocks about a mile diſtant from each other; and the place is known at ſea by theſe marks. The houſes at Seſtre Cro are built upon piles at leaſt five feet high from the ground, not only to ſecure them from the unwholeſome damp of the earth during the rainy ſeaſons, but alſo from the wild beaſts, which are a conſtant terror to the inhabitants, being very numerous here.

Wappo, is a ſmall village about three miles beyond Seſtre Cro; there is a piece of freſh water in it, that is exceeding good and wholeſome. This place is known at ſea by ſeveral high trees that appear upon a hill behind the ſhore, the tops of which ſeem of a red colour at a diſtance. Before this place is a large rock, which ſeems as it were ſeparated from the ſhore, though actually on it.

There are ſeveral other villages between Wappo and cape Seſtos, the moſt conſiderable of which is Great Seſtro, where there is a large baſon of freſh water ſituated among a number of rocks: but this village contains nothing elſe that is remarkable; and the reſt of them are too inconſiderable to require any particular deſcription.

We ſhall now proceed to take a view of the countries adjoining to the Grain Coaſt, or the interior part towards the weſt and ſouth-weſt. Theſe countries are divided into ſeveral territories or kingdoms; the principal of which are, Quilliga, Quoja, Hondo, Folgia, and Manow, the laſt of which is very extenſive.

Qnilliga, or Quilga, is three hundred miles north of Moſambique; it is a large fertile country, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, and was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1498, to whom it is now tributary.

Quoja, reaches from Sierra Leona to the Grain Coaſt; and contains, beſides Proper Quoja, the kingdoms of Bolm, Giln, Guilliga, and Carredabu. This is a large kingdom, and inhabited by two diſtinct people, namely, the Vey-Berkoma and Quoja-Berkoma, the former of which are the deſcendants of the antient inhabitants of cape Monte, who were once a populous and warlike people, but being conquered by the Quojans, and reduced to ſubjection, are now very inſignificant, and few in number. In this kingdom are many handſome towns and villages, the chief of which are ſituated on the river Maguiba, by which the whole country is plentifully watered.

Great numbers of water-elephants are found in this river, and on its banks; and the natives, when they catch them, preſent them to the king, who claims them as his particular property, but uſually compliments the perſons who bring them with a handſome preſent. This creature is properly called the hippopotamus, or ſea-horſe. It is an animal that feeds upon graſs, but frequently hides himſelf under water, where he continues for ſome time. When he raiſes his head from the water, he looks about to ſee if any danger is near, and can ſmell a man at a conſiderable diſtance. If any thing frightens him, he will immediately hide himſelf in the water, where he will continue for a conſiderable time before he again raiſes his head. As ſoon, however, as he appears, the hunter, who has patiently waited for the opportunity, levels his gun at his head; and if the creature happens not to ſee him, it ſeldom miſſes doing the wiſhed-for execution. If he is killed, the colour of the water will diſcover where he lies, when they go with a boat, hooks, and cords, and drag him aſhore. They then ſkin him, take out his bowels, and convey him away on a carriage; for his weight is very conſiderable, being from two thouſand five hundred to three thouſand pounds, when full grown.

The water-elephant in colour and ſhape greatly reſembles a rhinoceros, except the legs being ſomewhat ſhorter. The head is much like that of a common horſe, but the mouth and noſtrils are much larger. His ears and eyes are ſmall, and his hoof is cloven like that of an ox; but his paſtern being too weak to ſupport the weight of his body, nature has taken care to ſupply that defect, by placing two little hoofs about it, on which he reſts in walking, and they leave on the ground the impreſſion of four points. The body is very ſmooth, but the tail has hair on it, and is ſhort like that of an elephant. The udder of the female hangs between the hind legs like a cow's, but it is very ſmall in proportion to the bulk of the beaſt. The hide is about an inch thick; and ſo hard, that it can ſcarcely be penetrated with a muſket ball, which is the reaſon that they who endeavour to catch them generally aim at the head. The moſt remarkable things about this animal are its tuſks, which are four in number; they proceed from the lower jaw, and riſe out of the mouth to a conſiderable length. They are as thick as the horn of an ox, and weigh about ten pounds each. They are very white, and always retain

retain their colour; for which reaſon, they are much uſed by the mathematical inſtrument-makers for ſcales, ſectors, &c. Beſides theſe, he has in all forty-four teeth, viz. eight inciſors, four in each jaw; four dog teeth, two in each ſide, which are all cylindrical; and thirty-two grinders, of which there are ſixteen above, and the ſame number below. The fleſh of this animal is exceeding good, and in ſome parts is ſold at ſix-pence per pound. The fat is of equal value with the lean, being exceeding wholeſome, and generally uſed inſtead of butter. This creature delights in rivers, where the water is good, and chuſes thoſe parts where the banks are well furniſhed with graſs. They feed chiefly on fiſh, in purſuit of which they go ſeveral of them in a body. Their method is, to plant themſelves at the mouths of large rivers, by which they intercept all the fiſh that come down it. They do not ſleep in the water, but among reeds or ruſhes on the ſides of the rivers; and they frequently ſnore ſo loud, as to diſcover themſelves to their purſuers. They bring forth their young on the land, where they ſuckle and keep them unleſs diſturbed, when they immediately take to the water. The negroes who have huts near the rivers, are obliged to guard their fields day and night, otherwiſe theſe creatures would do great damage to their rice and corn, as well by trampling it down with their feet, as eating it.

Another animal, nearly reſembling the above, is ſometimes found in this river. It is almoſt of the ſame ſize, of a brown colour, with white ſtreaks, a long neck, ſhort body, ſmall legs, and has horns like a bullock. They are only caught in the water; for though they are ſometimes ſeen on ſhore, yet they are too nimble to be overtaken by any beaſt.

There is alſo a great variety of fiſh in this river, among which is a remarkable one called the ſea-woodcock. It is about ten feet long, and five in circumference. It has a large fin on the back, and two of the ſame ſize below the gills. The tail is large, indented, thick, and ſtrong; the eyes full, big, red, and lively. The mouth is wide, armed with ſmall teeth, cloſe ſet, and ſharp; beſides which, it has a bill about twenty inches long, divided into two parts, proceeding from the upper and lower jaw. This bill is hard and boney, ſurrounded with a cartilage covered with a rough ſkin ſomething like ſhagreen. The fleſh of it is intermixed with fat and lean, and is far from having a diſagreeable taſte.

Hondo, is divided into four principalities, the chiefs of which are appointed by the king of Quoja, to whom they all pay annual tribute of red cloth, ſalt, and braſs kettles.

Folgia and Manow, are both very extenſive empires, but the latter is the moſt conſiderable; and the Folgians are in the ſame manner ſubject to the emperor of Manow, as the Quojas are to the Folgians. The emperor's authority extends over all the neighbouring nations, who acknowledge their ſubmiſſion by making him annual preſents of cloth, bugles, iron bars, ſlaves, &c. and he in return teſtifies his reſpect by preſenting them with a certain quantity of red cloth. The Folgians pay the ſame compliment to the Quojas, who do the like to the king of Hondo. The ſubjects of the emperor are called mendi, which ſignified lords; and the Quojas are called mendimonow, that is, "the people of the lord." Each of theſe kings has an abſolute authority over his own diſtrict; and they can make laws, declare war, or proclaim peace, without the emperor's conſent, notwithſtanding their ſubjection to him.

Beſides rice and other grain, theſe countries produce a great variety of vegetables and roots, as alſo plenty of panguavers, bananas, pine-apples, &c. The only cattle they have are ſheep: they are indifferently ſupplied with fowls, except ſmall birds, which they catch in the woods, in which there are alſo great numbers of elephants, tygers, buffaloes, and other wild beaſts.

One of the birds in this country is called kloſi-ſowkegboſſi, and is reckoned an ominous bird by the blacks. When they are on a journey, and happen to ſee one of theſe birds, or hear it ſing, they immediately return home; and if any one dies ſoon after, they ſay, kegboſſi killed him. This bird is about the ſize of a ſparrow-hawk, and black-feathered; piſmires is its uſual food.

They have two other birds, which, beſides the above, the blacks will never touch, but hold them in the moſt ſacred light. The firſt of theſe is called the fenton, and is about the ſize of a lark. When the negroes are hunting in the woods, this bird will place itſelf on a tree near the ſpot where the animal is hid, and on the approach of the hunters will immediately begin to ſing; when ſhe is ſatisfied the people have taken notice of her, ſhe immediately quits her place, and flies to the covert where the animal is ſecreted. The other bird is called a Joxwa, and is nearly of the ſame ſize with the former. It lays its eggs in beaten paths; and the natives believe, that if any body breaks them, that incident will certainly be ſucceeded by the death of one of the family.

The people who inhabit theſe nations, but particularly the Quojas, are in general good-tempered and very obliging to ſtrangers: they are exceeding fond of ſpirituous liquors, particularly brandy; but unleſs it is given them, they ſeldom have any, for they are ſo penurious that they will not purchaſe it.

They build their houſes round, and their villages are alſo in the ſame form; they have two ſorts of the latter, namely, the open and the fortified. The open villages are exceeding pleaſant, being encompaſſed with lofty trees, that join ſo cloſe together as to keep off the heat of the ſun. The fortified villages are called San Siah, and have a fort of baſtions, through which they paſs in and out of the village, by a gate ſo low and narrow, as to admit only one perſon at a time. Theſe villages are incloſed with pales faſtened to the ſurrounding trees, ſo that nothing can be ſeen through the incloſure. At each of the gates is a hut, where a centinel is conſtantly kept on guard; and the people retire promiſcuouſly to theſe villages, as a ſecurity both to their perſons and property, when any danger is apprehended from an enemy.

Rice is the common food of theſe people, who are principally employed in the cultivation of that uſeful grain. Their trade is very inconſiderable, having but few ſlaves to diſpoſe of, and the great number of European veſſels, that paſs along their coaſts, ſoon take off the articles they vend, which conſiſt only of elephants teeth, wax and cam-wood.

Between their harveſts, the Quoja blacks employ themſelves in fiſhing and hunting; but they muſt not follow the latter without permiſſion from the king, who receives a moiety out of every thing they kill. The women have a great ſhare in cultivating their lands, it being their taſk to ſow the rice, and keep it free from weeds. They alſo prepare it for uſe, by beating it in long deep mortars, made of the hollow trunk of a tree.

The inhabitants of theſe countries, both men and women, are ſubject to many diſeaſes; but the moſt fatal is the bloody flux, which often carries off prodigious numbers in a very ſhort time; and they attribute this affliction to the ſovah monow, or ſorcerers. The beaſts are ſubject to a diſorder called ibatheba, which kills a great number of elephants, buffaloes, wild boars, and dogs; they are alſo liable to ſeveral other diſeaſes not known in Europe.

The Quoja language is the moſt common in theſe parts; but the Folgian is the moſt elegant, and is chiefly ſpoken by the better ſort in honour of the king. They often make uſe of allegories that are very judiciouſly applied, and are very circumſpect in their converſation.

They allow polygamy here, as in moſt other negro countries; and the firſt wife has always the pre-eminence. The huſband maintains the boys, and the girls are taken care of by the wives. Their ceremony of marriage conſiſts chiefly in preſents made by the parents of the parties to each other; but the ceremony of naming their children is very particular. When a boy is to be named, the father walks through the village armed with bows and arrows; he keeps continually ſinging; and as he paſſes along, the inhabitants join him with inſtruments of muſic. As ſoon as the people are properly aſſembled, they form a ring, when the perſon appointed to perform the ceremony, taking the child from the mother, lays it on a ſhield, and puts a bow into one hand, and a quiver in the other. He then makes a long harangue to the people; after which he addreſſes himſelf to the infant, wiſhing he may be like his father, induſtrious, hoſpitable, and a good huſbandman. He then names the child, and returns it to the mother; after which the company retire. The men go to hunt for game, and to gather palm-wine, which they bring to the houſe of the perſon belonging to the child, when the mother dreſſes the game with rice, and the evening is concluded with merriment and feſtivity.

The ceremony of naming a girl is as follows: the infant is brought by the mother or nurſe through the village, in the ſame manner as the boy is by the father; and when the people are aſſembled, it is laid on a mat on the ground, with a ſmall ſhaft in one hand. The perſon who is to name it then makes a long harangue, exhorting it to be a good houſewife, and a good cook; to be cleanly, chaſte, and a dutiful wife: that her huſband may love her above all his other wives, and ſhe attend him in hunting. Such wiſhes being pronounced, he names the child, and then de-

livers it to the mother; after which, the whole company diſperſe, except a few ſelect friends, for whom an elegant entertainment is provided, after which they divert themſelves in their uſual manner.

On the death of any perſon, all the friends and acquaintance of the deceaſed immediately aſſemble, and ſurrounding the corpſe, ſing elegies, in which they ſet forth the praiſes and exploits of the defunct. After this ceremony is over, the corpſe is waſhed, and the body ſet upright, ſupported by props at the back and under the arms. If it is a man, they put a bow and arrow in his hand, and dreſs him with his beſt garment. His neareſt relations and friends then make a ſort of ſkirmiſh with their arrows; after which they kneel down with their back to the corpſe, and extend the bowſtring to its utmoſt limits, intimating their readineſs to fight againſt his enemies, or thoſe who ſhall preſume to ſpeak diſreſpectfully of him. While theſe ceremonies are in agitation, the women attend on the widow, to lament and condole with her; in doing of which, they throw themſelves at her feet, and continually keep repeating theſe words, Bgune, Bgune, that is, be comforted, or ceaſe your lamentations. After the whole ceremonies are over, previous to interment, the corpſe is carried on a bier to the grave, which is generally made near the ſepulchres of their anceſtors in ſome deſolate ſpot, and there depoſited about three feet in the ground: they throw into the grave all the kettles, baſons, and principal things the deceaſed was poſſeſſed of; after which, they cover the whole with a mat, and hang his armour on an iron rod, which they faſten in the center of the grave. They generally erect a hut over the grave, to ſecure it from rain, as alſo the better to preſerve the memory of the deceaſed. If a woman is buried, the emblems placed on the rod are, baſons, mugs, and other things neceſſary in houſe keeping.

It is cuſtomary for the releations and friends of a deceaſed perſon, after the funeral is over, to make a vow of abſtinence, which is called Bolli Guwe; this vow, for the common ſort is obſerved ten days; and for the king, or any very conſiderable perſon, thirty. They who keep this faſt, on making the vow, liſt up their hands, and declare they will not eat any rice during that time, nor drink any liquor but what is kept in a hole made for that purpoſe in the ground, as alſo to abſtain from connubial enjoyments; and the women vow to clothe themſelves only with white or black rags, or to go with their hair looſe, and to ſleep on the bare ground. When the time of abſtinence is over, they lift up their hands again, to denote that they have very punctually fulfilled their engagements. After this, the men go to ſeek for game, and if they meet with any, on their return it is dreſſed for regaling the company. All who have kept the faſt are complimented by the neareſt relation of the deceaſed with preſents, conſiſting of a piece of cloth, a baſket of ſalt, an iron bar, &c. but a mat, a ſtaff, or ſome kind of weapon, is generally preſented to thoſe of a more diſtinguiſhed ſort.

When it is ſuſpected that a perſon did not die a natural death, they neither waſh the corpſe, or lament, till they are ſatisfied of their doubts, and the criminal is detected. As ſoon as the ſuſpected perſon is taken into cuſtody, he is chained to a great block, and aſked if he will acknowledge the fact: if he does, he is immediately put to death; if not, they try him by making him ſwallow a large quantity of quony. This is the rind or bark of a tree ſo called, which in preſence of the deceaſed's friends, is pulled off by the ſuſpected perſon, that the ſap or juice may be uſed without any deceit. The bark is pounded, and then put into a large quantity of water, which, after ſome time ſtanding, is of an acid taſte. Of this liquor they make the criminal drink three or four quarts on the following morning, in the preſence of the whole company. If he ſoon diſcharges it from his ſtomach, he is deemed innocent, but if it continues there long he infallibly dies, when they either caſt his body into the river, or burn it.

Although the Quojas Berkoma are ſubject to the king of Folgia, yet that prince confers on the king of Quoja the title of Dondagh, which he alſo preſerves, and which is conferted on him by the emperor of Manow; and the king of the Quojas gives the ſame title to the king of Bulm, who does not pay homage to the king of the Folgias, but to him.

Notwithſtanding the king of Quoja is an abſolute monarch, yet his government is mild, and his councils are formed of the wiſeſt and moſt experienced perſons in the nation: however, he is jealous of his authority and prerogative. When he appears in public, he ſits or ſtands on a ſhield, to denote that he is the defender of the country, the leader at war, and the protector of his people. He keeps a great number of concubines, moſt of whom are brought from the neighbouring kingdoms.

If a perſon of note, who has been diſgraced, is deſirous of obtaining an audience of the king, in order to regain his favour, he firſt delivers preſents to the chief of his wives, conſiſting of ribbands, elephants teeth, &c. theſe ſhe carries to the prince, begging that ſuch a perſon may be admitted. If the king chuſes to grant the petition the preſent is accepted, and the perſon admitted; but if not, the preſent is privately reſtored to the owner. However, he dares not return home, till the king, through the mediation of his friends, gives his conſent, then the preſent is accepted and an audience granted; when he obtains forgiveneſs, provided his crime be not of a very enormous nature.

When a nobleman has been guilty of any miſconduct, he is ſummoned before the king; and if he refuſes to appear, his majeſty ſends his koredo, or ſhield, by two drummers, who are not to ceaſe beating their drums till the party comes with them, carrying in one hand the koredo, and in the other ſome valuable preſent. As ſoon as he comes into the king's preſence, he proſtrates himſelf on the ground, and, throwing earth over his head, begs forgiveneſs, and acknowledges himſelf unworthy to ſit on the koredo; but promiſes amendment in future. The ſhield is ſent to him by way of reproach; intimating, that as he refuſed to obey the mandates of the king, he might come himſelf and take the place of the ſovereign, and bear the fatigues of government. Offenders in criminal caſes, that are ſentenced to death, are executed in ſome wood at a conſiderable diſtance from the village in which they reſided. Here the criminal kneels, with his head bent, and the executioner thruſts a lance through his body; after which, he cuts off his head with an ax or knife, and quarters him, delivering the limbs, to his reſpective wives. If a man is charged with theft or perjury, and the evidence is not ſufficiently clear, he takes his trial by belli, a compoſition made by the belli-mo, or prieſt, with the bark of a tree and herbs, which is laid on the perſon's hand; if it does not hurt him, he is ſuppoſed innocent; if otherwiſe, he is deemed guilty; in which caſe he is ſentenced to death, and executed in the manner abovementioned.

When a woman is accuſed of adultery, ſhe ſwears by the belli, wiſhing that if ſhe is guilty, the ſpirit (jannanin, the ſpirit of the woods) may deſtroy her. If ſhe has ſworn falſely, and is afterwards convicted, ſhe is publicly led by her huſband to the market-place, where the council ſit to hear the merits of the caſe. They firſt invoke the jannanin; after which they cover the woman's eyes, that ſhe may not ſee the ſpirits that are ſuppoſed to be waiting to carry her off; ſhe then receives a ſevere reprimand for the diſorderly life ſhe has led, with the moſt dreadful threats if ſhe ever does the like again. A horrid noiſe then enſues; after which, her eyes are uncovered, and ſhe is diſcharged by the jannanin, on promiſing to live chaſte, and mortifying herſelf for the remainder of her life. If, however, ſhe ſhould relapſe after this, and is again convicted, the belli-mo, with his attendants, go early in the morning to her houſe, and making a ſtrange noiſe with inſtruments adapted for the purpoſe, conduct her to the market-place, where the council again ſit, round which they oblige her to walk three times, that the brotherhood may have an opportunity of properly ſeeing her; they who are not of the order muſt not preſume to appear, nor even ſo much as to look out from their houſes, for fear they ſhould be taken away by the jannanin. After the criminal has walked three times round the market-place, ſhe is conducted to the wood of belli, and is never after heard of. The negroes in general think ſuch women are carried away by the belli; but it is moſt reaſonable to conjecture that they are put to death; and indeed ſome of the more ſenſible part intimate as much, but nevertheleſs aſſert that it is done to appeaſe the indignation of the belli, in order that they may ſtill preſerve their ſuperſtitious notions.

With reſpect to their religion, they believe in one ſupreme Being, though they cannot form any juſt idea of him. They call him Canno, and attribute to him omnipotence, omniſcience, and omnipreſence. They alſo believe that the dead become ſpirits, whom they call jannanin, that is, patrons or defenders, and imagine them able to protect them in all calamities. Thus when a man happens to eſcape ſome imminent danger, he ſacrifices at the grave of his ſuppoſed deliverer ſome kind of beaſt, and makes a feaſt for the entertainment of the relations of the

defunct,

deſunct, as an acknowledgment for the protection he has received. They believe alſo that the jannanin, or ſpirits, reſide in the woods; and when they receive any particular injury, they repair thither, and repeat their grievances with cries and lamentations, intreating Canno and the jannanin to chaſtiſe the malice of the party whom they name. In ſhort, ſuch is their veneration for thoſe ſpirits, that they rely on them as well for their preſent as future welfare. They never drink palm wine without firſt ſpilling a little of it for the jannanin, which cuſtom is alſo practiſed even by the kings themſelves; and indeed their religious worſhip is chiefly directed to thoſe ſpirits, whom they daily invoke, though they appear at the ſame time to pay great reverence to Canno.

Circumciſion is conſidered by them as a divine inſtitution, and therefore they practiſe it with great punctuality. They generally circumciſe their children at the age of ſix months; but ſome defer the operation till they are three years old, that it may be performed with the greater eaſe and ſafety to the child.

On the day of every new moon they keep a feſtival, when they abſtain from all kinds of buſineſs, and will not permit any ſtranger to be with them; and they alledge, that if they were not ſtrictly to obſerve theſe ceremonies, the moon would not only change the colour of their rice, but render it of no uſe or benefit to them.

All the nations of this part of the country have two other ceremonies that are of a very peculiar nature, and are generally practiſed by them. Theſe ceremonies belong to two ſocieties or ſects, the one of men and the other of women, but they are intirely independent of each other. The firſt of theſe is called belli, and is properly a ſchool or college, eſtabliſhed once upon a certain time by order of the king for the education of youth, who are taught to dance, and to ſing often what they call belli-dong, or the praiſes of the belli. When they have completed their education, and gone through all the ceremonies of the ſchool, they are diſtinguiſhed by the title of, The marked of the belli. After this, they are conſidered as perſons of great ſagacity, and are admitted to give their opinion in all matters relative to the good order and government of the ſtate. Theſe ſeminaries are ſituated in a large wood, where proper barracks or huts are built, and the land is cultivated ſo as to produce a ſufficiency for the ſcholars, that they may not have occaſion to go to other places for the common neceſſaries of life. When thoſe who intend to ſend their ſons to the ſchool, have given intimation of their intentions, proclamation is made, forbidding all females to approach the ſacred wood during the continuance of the ſchool, which is generally four years, and ſometimes five, as circumſtances may require.

As ſoon as the ſoggonos, or elders, who are appointed by the king to govern the ſchool, have taken their places, they proclaim the laws to the ſcholars, forbidding them to ſtir out of the precincts of the college, or converſe with any but their fellow-ſtudents, or ſuch as have the mark of the belli, which is the firſt thing they receive after admiſſion. This is done by making ſeveral cuts in the fleſh from each ſide of the neck to the ſhoulder-bone: the operation is painful, but they are ſoon cured by proper ſimples; after which, they obtain ſuperior dignity, and alſo receive a new name.

They are removed from ſchool, when their time of education is expired, to huts built for the purpoſe at ſome diſtance, where they are viſited by their relations, who endeavour to poliſh their manners, and make them fit for ſociety; for, from their long confinement in this retreat, they are ſuch utter ſtrangers to decency and good behaviour, as to be mere ſavages. While under this tuition, they are dreſſed with a particular garment about their waiſts, and their necks are ornamented with ſtrings of beads, intermixed with leopards teeth. On their heads they wear a large cap with flappets, that hang over the face; their legs are loaded with braſs bells and rings, and their bodies are ornamented with feathers of various colours. In this dreſs they are conducted to a place appointed for the purpoſe near the king's palace, where, in the preſence of numerous ſpectators, they take off their caps, and then ſing, dance, and exhibit ſuch other performances as they have learnt while at ſchool; and if any be found deficient, they are ridiculed in a particular manner by the women, who exclaim, "He has ſpent his time in in eating of rice:" the ſame kind of ſtigma is alſo laid on them by the men, and they are afterwards looked upon by both ſexes with the greateſt contempt. When the performance is over, the ſoggonos or teachers, call each their own pupil by the name that was given him on his admiſſion into the ſchool, and then preſent him to his parents: this name he ever after retains.

The ſchool or ſeminary calculated for the improvement of females, is called Neſſogue: the ceremonies attending it are theſe: at a time appointed by the king, a number of huts are erected in the middle of the wood, for the reception of ſuch unmarried women as chuſe to become members of the ſociety. When intimation is given of the number of perſons deſirous of being admitted, the moſt antient woman of the profeſſion is appointed as a governeſs, and is called ſogwilli. As ſoon as the ſcholars are aſſembled, ſhe enters upon her office by giving them a treat, and exhorting them to be ſatisfied with their confinement of four months, which is the uſual time allotted for their tuition. She then ſhaves their heads, and they having, by her orders, ſtripped themſelves naked, ſhe leads them to a brook, where they are waſhed all over, and their bodies anointed with palm-oil; after which they go intirely naked during their continuance in the ſchool. The ſogwilli, or governeſs, teaches them the dances of the country, and to recite the verſes of the Sandi, which gives name to the profeſſion, they being called Sandi Simodiſino, or the daughters of Sandi. Theſe verſes conſiſt of certain encomiums which are chanted; and at the time they exhibit ſtrange geſtures and motions of the body, ſome of which are not only ridiculous, but of the moſt indelicate nature. When the time of their education is nearly expired, the parents ſend them clothes and various trinkets to adorn their bodies with, as bugle ſtrings, braſs bells, rings, &c. On the proper day appointed, they are conducted by the ſogwilli to the village where the king reſides, whither prodigious numbers of people of both ſexes reſort, to ſee them perform the feats they have learnt at ſchool. During the exhibition, the governeſs ſits on the ground, and the daughters of the Sandi dance one after another to the beat of a ſmall drum, when each receives the applauſes of the public in proportion to their merits; after which they are diſmiſſed, and delivered by the governeſs to the care of their parents to whom they reſpectively belong.

We might take notice of other ſtrange maxims which prevail among the negroes of theſe nations; but ſhall only add to their other ſuperſtitious notions, the great faith they have in magicians and ſorcerers, as alſo in a ſort of men whom they call munuſin: theſe they believe can ſuck the blood from the body of either man or beaſt; at leaſt they imagine that they can corrupt it in ſuch a manner, as to occaſion lingering and painful diſeaſes. There are alſo other enchanters called pilli, who, they believe, can prevent the growth of their rice. Such men, they ſay, are poſſeſſed with the ſovah or devil, and that being overcome with melancholy, they ſeclude themſelves from all ſociety, by retiring to the moſt deſolate parts of the woods and foreſts, where the devil ſhews them ſuch herbs and plants as are to be uſed in their enchantments, as alſo the words, geſtures, and grimaces proper for ſuch practices. The blacks are ſo confident of there being ſuch people as theſe in the woods and foreſts, that they will never travel there without company; and they always carry with them a certain compoſition, which they fancy ſecures them from the malicious machinations of the ſuppoſed ſorcerers.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of the IVORY COAST, its Towns, Rivers, Produce, Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, &c.

THE Ivory Coaſt derives its name from the great number of elephants teeth purchaſed here by the Europeans, the principal part of which are found on this coaſt, and in its vicinity. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by the Gold coaſt; on the weſt, by the Grain or Pepper coaſt; on the north, by Negroland; and, on the ſouth, by the Atlantic ocean. The whole coaſt, which extends from cape Palmas to cape Apollonia, is about two hundred and fifty miles in length, and is called by the natives the Quaqua coaſt, the word quaqua ſignifying a tooth, in the language of the country.

Cape Palmas is ſituated in eight degrees weſt longitude, and four degrees thirty minutes north latitude. The moſt favourable times of the year on this coaſt, are the months of February, March and April; during which the air is very ſerene, and the breezes gentle; but towards the end of May there ariſe violent ſtorms from the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, attended with thunder, lightning, and heavy ſhowers of rain, which often continue till the end of

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January following. To the weſt of this cape are three round hills, and a little further in land is a grove of palm-trees, which, ſtanding on an elevated ground, is ſeen a conſiderable diſtance at ſea, and was the occaſion of this cape being called Cabo das Palmas, or the Palm-tree cape. Behind the cape is a bay, where ſhips ride ſafely at anchor, being ſheltered from the ſoutherly winds. About three miles eaſtward of the bay, is a ſhoal that appears like a long mountain; and oppoſite the weſtern point of the cape is a long range of rocks, even with the ſurface of the water, which reach from ſouth-eaſt to ſouth, about four miles into the ſea. The coaſt here, beſides abounding with rocks and ſhoals, is very muddy, and therefore dangerous for veſſels to paſs along it.

There is a river called Cavadel, about five leagues from cape Palmas, and to the eaſt of it ſtands a very high rock. About twelve leagues north-eaſt is a town called Oſtend, which name it probably received from the Dutch; but it is a very inconſiderable place, not meriting any particular deſcription.

A town of ſome note, called Drewin, was formerly near the mouth of the river St. Andrew; but the inhabitants of the latter having a diſpute with thoſe of Drewin, went to war with them, and burnt their town to aſhes, making priſoners of all the men, women and children, and they ſold them to the Europeans, whoſe ſhips then lay in the river aboſ. mentioned.

St. Andrew is a very large town, and is ſituated on a fine river of the ſame name, which diſcharges itſelf into the ſea about twenty-five miles to the north-eaſt of cape Palmas. This river divides itſelf into two branches, one running north-weſt by weſt, and the other eaſt ſouth-eaſt; at moſt times of the year it is navigable for ſmall veſſels four leagues up; but in the height of the ſummer the entrance is ſo obſtructed by a bar of ſand, that no veſſels can get into it. This town is very large, and ſince the demolition of Drewin has become a place of conſiderable trade. The country about it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed by a number of land-marks and lofty trees, as alſo ſeveral villages, which are ſo cloſe together, that the whole are ſeen at one view. The ſoil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, millet, maize, peas, and a great variety of fruits. The paſturage is excellent for cattle, of which they have great numbers, particularly oxen that are very large, and ſold by the natives at a very cheap rate.

Eaſtward of St. Andrew's river are a great number of red cliffs, which extend many miles along the ſhore, and are very conſpicuous ſeveral leagues at ſea. Between the ſeventh and eighth cliff is a ſmall village called Dromwa Petri, remarkable only for two large trees that ſtand in the center of it, by which it is diſcovered at a conſiderable diſtance. And ſtill farther to the eaſt is cape La Hou or Laho, which is the moſt conſiderable place for trade throughout the whole coaſt, the elephants teeth being not only the largeſt here, but in the greateſt abundance. The town is extenſive, running at leaſt three miles along the ſhore, and is very populous. The country about is fertile, and produces great plenty of moſt kinds of proviſions, which are cheaper and much better than thoſe of St. Andrew. The natives here are very civil, and eaſy to trade with; but they raiſe the price of their commodities in proportion to the number of European ſhips they ſee on this part of the coaſt.

There is a large river, about four miles weſt of Laho, whoſe main channel runs to that of St. Andrew; and the ſmaller branch ſtretches a few leagues eaſtward up the country. And three miles to the eaſt of Laho are two villages nearly together, one of which is called Jack-la-How, and the other Corbi-la-How, but the ſoil about them is very indifferent. Between theſe two villages are ſeveral ſmall rivulets; and to the weſt of the latter, about a league from the ſhore, is a tract of the ſea, called by the Dutch Keel ſonder Grondt, but by others the bottomleſs pit. It received this name from a ſuppoſition that there was no bottom; ſeveral attempts were at different times made by the natives to ſound it, but without ſucceſs; at length, however, it was effected by the Europeans, who found it to be no more than ſixteen fathom in depth.

Cape Apollonia is ſituated at the eaſtern extremity of this coaſt, in four degrees fifty minutes north latitude. It received this name from the Portugueſe, who diſcovered it on the feſtival of that ſaint; and is remarkable for its great height, and the lofty trees that grow on it. The cape runs out a little to the ſouth; and towards the ſhore the ground is flat, but farther back it riſes into three diſtinct hills, which in clear weather may be diſcovered ten leagues at ſea. On the top of theſe hills are ſeveral lofty trees, which, though diſpoſed in a ſtraggling manner, render the proſpect very agreeable. There are three villages near theſe hills, on the ſhore, but the landing is dangerous on account of the ſwelling and breaking of the ſea on the flat ground between the hills and the ſhore. The villages here are inhabited by ſome negro natives, under the government of the Dutch, who prohibit them, under very ſevere penalties, from trading with any other Europeans but themſelves.

Thus have we deſcribed the moſt material places which form that part of Guiney called the Ivory coaſt, which being one of the moſt delightful diviſions of this part of Africa, we ſhall therefore now proceed to take a general view of the country, and deſcribe its various productions, with the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants, their method of trade, dreſs, language, religion, laws, &c.

The rocky mountains in this coaſt, which are red, and the conſtant verdure of the trees that cover them, form, by their various colours, an agreeable proſpect, which is greatly heightened by the beauty of the vallies, that contain many villages encompaſſed with groves of lofty trees. The ſoil is in general very fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, millet, maize, and a variety of roots and vegetables; alſo ſeveral ſorts of fruits, as melons, oranges, citrons, cocoa-nuts, &c. Here are likewiſe walnut-trees of a peculiar kind, bearing nuts ſmaller than ours, which are divided in the middle, and taſte like the beſt almonds. Sugar canes alſo grow here very plentifully, and to great perfection, but they are not regarded by the natives, and only ſerve as food for the elephants, which are more numerous here than in any other part of Guiney. They have ſome tobacco, which, if carefully managed, might turn to great advantage. Indigo and cotton are alſo ſo common in this country, that they grow without cultivation.

They have abundance of moſt ſorts of cattle here, as oxen, goats, hogs, ſheep, &c. a good ox is ſeldom ſold for more than a few dozen of knives, and the inferior ones in proportion. They have alſo great plenty of poultry, and the whole coaſt abounds with variety of fiſh. Among the latter, are frequently found three remarkable creatures, namely, the ſea-ox, the zingana, or hammer-fiſh, and the ſea-fiſh; which, for the information of our readers, we ſhall here give particular deſcriptions of.

The firſt of theſe, viz. the ſea-ox, or horned fiſh, is about eleven feet in length, from the ſnout to the end of the tail. The body is about five feet in circumference, and of the ſame thickneſs all over. The ſkin is hard, rough, and without ſcales, but full of unequal points, and marked with large ſpots of various colours. The head is ſhaped much like that of a hog, but has a protuberance at the end, like the trunk of an elephant, by means of which, like that animal, it receives its food. The eyes are exceeding large, and ſurrounded with prominent lids, compoſed of hard, coarſe, and rough hairs. On the fore-part of the head are two horns, of a long ſubſtance; they are ſtrong, rough, and pointed at the ends, and are about ſixteen inches in length; they lay ſtrait and parallel to his back, on the upper part of which, near the ſhoulders, are two excreſcences, that continue from thence to within a foot of the tail. That part of the tail next the body, is very fleſhy, and covered with the ſame kind of ſkin; but the extreme part is compoſed only of a fin, ſtrong and thick, of a brown colour, croſſed with white rays, or parallel lines. This ſeems to ſerve as a defence to the fiſh, who has alſo two ſpurs at the extremity of his belly, each of which is a foot long, round, boney, and pointed like his horns. The gills are large, and to each of them is a fin, ſmall in proportion to his bulk, but very ſtrong. Beſides theſe, and a ſmaller one beneath his belly, between the two ſpurs, he has alſo on his back a riſing lump, which ſupports a fin ſhaped like a fan, about a foot and a half in diameter, and the ſame height. The fleſh is far from having a diſagreeable taſte, and it is very white and fat.

The next is the zingana, or hammer-fiſh, which is a voracious creature, and will feed on any thing it meets with, particularly human fleſh. The head of this animal is flat, and extends itſelf on both ſides like a hammer, from whence it probably derived its name; at the extremity of each of theſe are placed the eyes, which are large and ſparkling; the mouth is formed much like that of a ſhark, and contains two rows of long ſharp teeth; the body is round, and terminates with a long ſloping tail, having a thick ſkin with rough ſpots; the fins are large and ſtrong, and greatly aſſiſt him in ſeizing his prey, which he always attacks with the moſt ſurprizing eagerneſs. The

flesh of this creature is intirely useless, on account of its coarseness, and unpleasant taste.

With respect to the sea-devil, we may reasonably suppose that it is so called from the ugliness of its form, in which it has the pre-eminence above all other creatures in these seas: it has four eyes, and is about twenty-five feet in length, and eighteen in breadth; on each side of it is an angular substance as hard as a horn, and very sharp; the tail is very long and taper, and terminates with a dangerous point: the back is covered with small lumps about two inches high, and sharp at the ends, the head is large, but there is no appearance of any neck, and the mouth is furnished with a great number of sharp-pointed teeth; two of the eyes are near the throat, and are round and large, but the other two are placed above them, and much smaller; on each side the throat are three horns of an unequal length, the middlemost of which is three feet long, and an inch and a half in diameter, but they are flexible, and therefore can do but little harm. The negroes catch this creature for the sake of the liver, from which they extract large quantities of oil; but their flesh is ill-tasted and harsh.

In these seas there is another fish of the same name with that last mentioned: this is only about four feet long, and broad in proportion; it has a bunch on its back covered with thorns and prickles like those of a hedge-hog, and the skin is hard, rough and black, rising with several small bunches, between which there are two small black eyes: the mouth is very wide, and armed with several sharp teeth, two of which are crooked like those of a wild boar: it has four fins, and a broad tail forked at the end; and over the eyes are two sharp horns that bend towards the back. The flesh of this fish is a deadly poison, and it is also an exceeding frightful creature to look at.

The natives of the Ivory coast, called the Quaqua blacks, are tall, lusty, and well featured; but at the first view appear rather frightful, which in all probability is the reason that some writers have described them as a savage and barbarous people: this, however, is a great mistake; for in general they are rational and well-behaved, and are very honest in their dealings, particularly with the Europeans that visit this coast. When they go to trade with any ship, they take some water into their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes, this is a kind of oath; by which they intimate, that they would rather lose their eye-sight, than cheat those they trade with. They are no less averse to drunkenness than fraud; and though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they will not drink any palm-wine, but only a certain liquor called bordon or tombo-wine, which is much weaker, and, by being mixed with water, is rendered still more so.

The dress of the common people consists of only a small piece of linen close round the waist; but the better sort wear a kind of mantle or large linen sheet wrapped about them, with a scymetar or poniard by their sides. They file their teeth very sharp, but they are in general irregularly placed, and very crooked. They are fond of having long nails, and take particular pride in the length of their hair, which they plait and twist in different forms, and grease it with palm oil mixed with red earth. With this composition they anoint their bodies every day; and continually chew betel, the juice of which they rub about their mouths and chins. As the more rings a man wears, the greater is his quality, so they adorn their legs with a great number of iron rings, in which their chief dignity consists.

The women wear only a piece of cloth before, which hangs from the shoulders to the knees, but their backs are quite naked. They deck their hair with little toys of pure gold, which are of various forms, and generally very thin; but the wives of the rich negroes have such a quantity of them on their heads, as amount to a considerable value. These are sometimes of great use to their husbands, who, when they are unable to purchase goods for want of cash, make no scruple to strip their wives of their ornaments, and turn them into money to defray their expence on this account.

These people use a language that is altogether unintelligible to us, and they speak hastily, and by starts. When they meet each other, they use the word quaqua, at the same time each laying one hand on the other's shoulder, and taking hold of the fore-finger, pull it till it snaps, when they close the salutation by repeating the word quaqua in a low voice.

Though there are several petty princes in different parts of the coast, yet the whole are subject to a king called Soccoo, whom they not only respect, but dread. They look upon all their kings and priests as sorcerers, but particularly the king of Soccoo; and they imagine that he could cause all his enemies to die, if he would only make use of his fetishes or enchantments: they are all idolaters.

A fundamental law of this country is, that every one is obliged to continue all his life-time in the condition wherein he was born; so that for instance, one whose father was a fisherman, can never follow any other trade or profession, but must always remain a fisherman.

At Laho, and some other parts of the coast, they make a pretty sort of cotton stuffs, striped blue and white, about three quarters broad, and three or four ells long. These sell for a good price in most parts of Guiney, and are greatly valued.

Though the native negroes are extremely fond of trade, yet they are very cautious in going on board European ships, particularly those from England. When they see a vessel on the coast, they first examine it; and, if they think they can deal safely, they carry their goods on board, such as gold, ivory, slaves, or provisions. However, they are always mistrustful, and their fears are in some degree justly founded, since the Europeans have trepanned many of them, whom they have sold for slaves. They generally go four or five in a canoe, but only one will go on board first, the others remaining in the canoe, till he has satisfied them of their safety; nor can they, on any occasion whatever, be persuaded to go down between the decks. The most effectual method of alluring them on board, is, for the master, or some of his officers, to take up a bucket of water from the sea, and with their hands sprinkle some of it on their eyes. This they imagine binds them like an oath, looking upon the sea as a deity, or object of religious veneration. It is impossible to conceive what patience is required to trade with most of these people; and, what is worse, they cannot be understood, nor do they understand Europeans; so that all is done by signs and gestures of the hands or fingers, and by setting a quantity of goods against the teeth they offer for sale.

The negroes here, besides the articles of ivory, gold and slaves, carry on a great trade in salt, which they sell to their neighbours, who carry it farther into the inland countries, where it is very scarce, and dispose of it to great advantage.

The largest and best elephants teeth in the universe are found in the inland parts of this coast; Monf. Marchais says, "The quantity of ivory which this country affords is so great, that 10,000l. worth has been sold here in one day. The inland country is so full of elephants, that the inhabitants of the hilly parts are obliged to dig their houses in the backs of the mountains, and to make their doors and windows narrow and low; that they are forced to use all kinds of artifices to drive them from their plantations, or to lay snares for them to kill them. The reason of ivory being so plentiful here is, because the elephants cast their teeth every three years; so that the teeth they get from those they kill are fewer in number than those they find loose in the forests."

Though elephants teeth are as plentiful here now as formerly, yet the blacks have considerably enhanced the price of them, so that the advantages of that trade are much lessened. This, however, is in a great measure owing to the coast being annually visited by prodigious numbers of ships, not only belonging to the English, French and Dutch, but also to the Danes and Portuguese, which has occasioned the trade to become more general, and not so profitable as heretofore.

SECT. III.

Containing a Description of the GOLD COAST, its Boundaries, Situation, and Natural History: also an Account of the Inhabitants, their Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Religion, Towns, Villages, Government, &c.

WE cannot pretend to determine why this division of Guiney is distinguished by the appellation of the Gold coast; since the other three parts of the coast produce equally as much gold, and at least as good in its quality. All the inland countries abound with gold mines; and though the natives are not artists enough to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of it in several of their mines; but they preserve them so secure, that they will not permit any European either to see those they have discovered, or to search for others. Besides

their mines, thoſe who live near the ſea have another method of finding gold, which is this: in the rainy ſeaſons, after a wet night, they go to the ſea-ſhore, each having a couple of bowls or platters made of calabaſhes, the largeſt of which they fill with earth and ſand, ſuch as is driven down from the mountains by the violence of the rain, into the rivers, brooks, &c. They waſh this with many waters, by often turning the bowl round, ſo that the dirt which riſes on the ſurface waſhes over the brim; if there be any gold, it ſinks to the bottom by reaſon of its weight; and thus they continue till they have waſhed all the earth and ſand away, except a ſmall quantity at the bottom, which they carefully take out, and lay by for a minute inſpection. They then fill their platter again and work on, till they have gathered a tolerable quantity of dregs, which they carry home, and there ſearch with great diligence. Sometimes they find as much as is worth ten ſhillings, ſometimes a leſs quantity, and frequently they cannot procure any.

The Gold coaſt is ſituated within the fifth degree of north latitude; is bounded, on the eaſt, by the Slave coaſt; on the weſt, by the Tooth or Ivory coaſt; on the north, by Negroland; and, on the ſouth, by the ocean. It is about one hundred and eighty miles in length, and contains eleven different diſtricts, namely, Axim, Anta, Adom, Jabi, Commany or Commendo, Fetu, Saboe, Fantyn, Acron, Agonna, and Aquamboe. Theſe countries contain ſome one, two or more towns or villages lying on the ſea-ſhore, either under or between the European forts and caſtles. However, theſe villages are only for the convenience of trade and fiſhing, for the principal towns lie within land, and are very populous. Some of theſe diſtricts are independent republics, under the direction of their own magiſtrates; and ſeven of them are kingdoms governed by their reſpective ſovereigns or captains.

The heat here is exceſſive from October to March; but in the other ſix months it is tolerably temperate. The coaſt is very unhealthy, owing to the extreme heat of the day, and the coolneſs of the nights; to which may be added the damp ſulphurous miſts that ariſe every morning from the mountains. Tornadoes are alſo frequent here, particularly in the months of April, May, and June. Theſe are violent ſtorms of wind riſing ſuddenly from the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, and ſometimes from the north, with a few points to the weſt. They are generally attended with repeated claps of thunder and dreadful lightening, with prodigious ſhowers of rain falling like a flood, and an uncommon darkneſs. They ſometimes laſt an hour, and ſometimes two or more; but as ſoon as they are over, the weather immediately becomes clear and fine. If they happen in the ſummer ſeaſon, which is ſometimes the caſe, they are not ſo violent as in the winter, but they are more incommodious both to land and ſea faring people, being uſually followed by cold rains, ſo heavy and conſtant for ſeveral days together, that they ſeem to threaten to deluge the country.

The native blacks, who live on the coaſt, ſhun rain with the greateſt care, thinking it prejudicial to their bodies: this indeed the Dutch themſelves experience, particularly in the tornado ſeaſon. The rains that fall then are of ſo pernicious a quality, that if a perſon ſleeps in his wet cloaths, he is ſure to contract a dangerous diſeaſe: it has been found, that cloaths laid by wet have in a ſhort time been ſo rotten as to fall to pieces with the moſt gentle touch. The negroes, for this reaſon, avoid the rain as much as poſſible; and when they happen to be caught in it, they cover their ſhoulders with their arms acroſs, to keep it off their bodies. They are ſo fearful of the bad effects of rain, that they always ſleep with their feet to the fire, and anoint their bodies with oil, through a perſuaſion that the frequent unction keeps the pores ſhut ſo that the rain cannot penetrate; for they attribute all their diſeaſes to this cauſe.

We ſhall now proceed to give the natural hiſtory of the Gold coaſt, which in general abounds with a variety of trees, ſome low, and others very large and lofty: there are alſo many beautiful groves, which ſerve to render the malignity of the climate more ſupportable. Some of the trees here grow naturally in ſuch order, as to appear as if placed by art; whilſt others ſtand ſo thick, and extend their boughs ſo wide, as to form the moſt agreeable retreat; and theſe run for many miles into the inland parts of the country. One of the moſt remarkable trees, which ſpecies grows in great abundance all along the coaſt, is the papay-tree, the trunk of which is ſeveral feet thick, and compoſed of a ſpongy wood, or rather root, which it moſt reſembles; it is hollow, and may be eaſily penetrated with an ax. The fruit at firſt is produced at the top of the trunk without any branches; but as the tree grows older, it ſhoots out branches towards the top, which reſemble young ſtocks, whereon fruit likewiſe grows. At the vortex of the trunk and branches ſhoot other ſmall ſprigs almoſt like reeds, a little crooked and hollow; and at the extremity of theſe ſprigs grow large broad leaves, reſembling in their ſhape thoſe of the vine. The fruit is about half the ſize of a cocoa-nut, and of the ſame form: it is green both within and without; but after being ſometime gathered, it turns red, and abounds with white kernels, which are the ſeeds from whence the trees are produced. The fruit in its taſte reſembles that of a pompion, but of the two is rather inferior to it. Theſe trees are of two ſorts, male and female; the males bear no fruit, but are continually full of bloſſoms, conſiſting of a long white flower: the female alſo bears the ſame bloſſom, though not ſo long, neither are they ſo numerous. Some of theſe trees are very large, and run up to a conſiderable height.

With reſpect to the inland countries on the coaſt, they are in general fertile, and produce ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly maize and millet, which grow in great abundance. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of vegetables and roots, as cabbages, beans, wild purſlain, potatoes and yams. Theſe laſt are extremely beautiful, and, next to rice, of the greateſt advantage to the natives: they grow under the earth like potatoes, and are about two ſpans long, and as much in circumference. They ſhoot out a long green ſtem, almoſt like that of French beans, with little prickles, and they run up ſticks placed by the ſide of them in the ſame manner, by which the negroes know when they are ripe, and then dig them up. They are quite white within, and when boiled or roaſted eat exceeding well, and are uſed inſtead of bread, not only by the natives, but many of the Europeans. The taſte reſembles that of earth nuts, though not quite ſo ſweet, but they are much more ſubſtantial, and alſo drier.

Here are abundance of palm-trees, which are of infinite ſervice to the natives, not only from the wine that flows from the trunk, but the oil which they extract from their nuts. They have plenty of various kinds of fruits, ſuch as plumbs, pears, oranges, citrons, cocoa-nuts, and figs; to which may be added, ananas, water-melons, and the kormantin apple. This laſt fruit is more peculiar to this country than any other: it is about the ſize of a walnut, and has a green huſk; but the outer rind is of yellowiſh caſt, ſomewhat inclining to red. In the core are four large kernels ſeparated by the pulp, which is red and white, of a ſweetiſh tart taſte, but moſt inclining to the latter. It is a very agreeable and refreſhing fruit, and of infinite ſervice to thoſe afflicted with the bloody-flux: for it is very aſtringent, and is not only more ſalutary, but pleaſanter than tamarinds, when boiled with wine and ſugar.

In this country are ſeveral kinds of tame animals, ſuch as bulls, oxen, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs; but the paſture is ſo indifferent, that they are in general exceeding poor and ſmall: the cows yield very little milk, and one of the beſt, when full grown, is ſo light, that it will not weigh above 250 lb. The ſheep are not above half the ſize of thoſe of Europe; but, inſtead of wool, their bodies are covered with long, ſhaggy hair. The goats are very numerous, but ſmall if compared to thoſe of Europe: however, the fleſh is very fat and ſweet, and greatly preferred to that of the ſheep. Here is alſo a great number of hogs, but their fleſh is very indifferent, and the little fat they have is of an oily nature.

Dogs and cats are their chief domeſtic animals. The negroes frequently eat the former, and are very fond of them, inſomuch that they will not only give a ſheep for one of them, but alſo ſomething to boot. They prefer dog's fleſh to any other, and conſider it in the ſame light as the Europeans do veniſon. The dogs here are much like our foxes, and have long upright ears: their tails are long, but taper, and are without hair; the ſkin is alſo naked; and they never bark, but only howl. They are very diſagreeable to the ſight, but much more ſo to the touch. The blacks call them cabra de matta, which, in the Portugueſe, ſignifies a wild goat; and ſo univerſally are they admired in this country, that in ſome places they breed them for ſale, and they fetch a much better price than the ſheep, when carried to the markets.

The negroes are alſo very fond of cats, but they do not eat them, unleſs out of neceſſity. If they are good mouſers, they value them much, as they are prodigiouſly peſtered with various ſorts of vermin: their cats are called by the natives ambaio, and are in general very handſome.

Among

Among their wild béaſts (of which they have various ſorts, both on the coaſts, and in the inland parts) none are more diſtinguiſhed than the elephants; for though in other parts theſe animals are rendered docile and uſeful, yet here they are never tamed; but, notwithſtanding this, they ſeldom hurt any one, nor is it an eaſy matter to provoke them. The following ſtory of one of theſe animals is related in Mr. Boſman's deſcription of Guiney: "In December 1700, at ſix in the morning, an elephant came to El Mina, walking eaſily along the ſhore under the hill of St. Jago. Some negroes were ſo bold as to go to him without any thing in their hands: he ſuffered them to encompaſs him, and went quietly along with them under mount St. Jago, where one of our officers ſhot him above the eye: but this, and the following ſhot which the negroes now poured on him, did not even make him mend his pace, and he only ſeemed between whiles to threaten the negroes, by pricking up his ears, which were of a prodigius ſize. However, he went on, and ſoon entered our garden. This drew the director general and myſelf thither, and we were ſoon followed by ſome of our people. He had broke down four or five cocoa trees, and in our preſence he broke down five or ſix more; when the ſtrength he ſeemed to uſe in breaking down a tree might be fitly compared to the force exerted by a man in knocking down a child of three or four years of age. While he ſtood here, above an hundred ſhot were fired at him, which made him bleed as if an ox had been killed on the ſpot. But this did not make him ſtir, he only ſet up his ears, and made the men apprehend that he would follow them. At length a negro, going ſoftly behind him, wantonly got hold of his tail, and was going to cut off a piece of it; but the elephant giving the negro a blow with his trunk, and drawing him to him, trod upon him two or three times, and, as if that was not ſufficient, gored two holes in his body with his teeth, large enough for a man's double fiſt to enter. He then let him lie, and even ſtood while two negroes ventured to fetch away the body, without offering to hurt them. At length the elephant, after he had been about an hour in the garden, wheeled about as if he intended to fall on us; whereupon we all fled to the fore door, in order to make our eſcape; but he followed none of us, but going to the back door, threw it to a great diſtance; then turning from it, walked through the garden hedge, and proceeding ſlowly to the river by mount Jago, bathed himſelf. Having thus refreſhed himſelf a little, he came out of the river, and ſtood under ſome trees by our water tubs, where he alſo cooled himſelf, and then broke the tubs in pieces, as he did alſo a canoe that lay by them. The firing was here renewed, till the elephant at length fell; after which, they cut off his trunk, which was ſo hard and tough, that it coſt the negroes thirty ſtrokes before they could ſeparate it, which muſt have been very painful to the elephant, ſince it made him roar, which was the only noiſe I heard him make. He was no ſooner dead, than the negroes fell on him in crouds, each cutting off as much of his fleſh as he could, ſo that he furniſhed great numbers with food. They who pretend to underſtand elephant ſhooting, afterwards told us, that we ought to have ſhot iron bullets; indeed, ours were not only of lead, but too ſmall, and therefore moſt of them had rebounded from his ſide, and very few penetrated his ſkull." Thus far Mr. Boſman. Theſe creatures are ſo very numerous here, that they are very prejudicial to the fruit-trees, eſpecially to the orange, banana, and fig-trees: they not only eat the fruit, but alſo the ſtem of the latter, and totally deſtroy the tree.

Great numbers of tygers are all over this coaſt, ſome of which, being not only large, but of the moſt ferocious nature, are exceeding dangerous. Jackalls are alſo very numerous, and nearly as ravenous and fierce as tygers. They are uſually about the ſize of a ſheep, but have longer legs, which are thick in proportion to their bodies. Their hair is ſhort and ſpotted, their head flat and broad, their teeth exceeding ſharp; and they are very ſtrong. Some wild boars are alſo here; but they are not ſo rapacious as in other countries; and their fleſh is very agreeable to the taſte, and is exceeding good to eat.

Monkies and apes, in great numbers and variety, are to be found in this country. Some of theſe are called by the Dutch bearded monkies, from their having long white beards; the hair on their backs is of a light brown, that on the belly white, and the reſt of the body is covered with ſpots. There are others called white noſes, from that part of them only being white. Theſe animals though of various ſorts, are all very cunning, and ready to imitate what they ſee. They are fond of their young, always in action, and greatly reſemble the human form; ſo that the negroes call them curſed men, and ſay they could ſpeak if they would. They are in general thieves, and ſhew a remarkable ſubtilty in what they ſteal, particularly millet, of which we have the following relation: they take one or two ſtalks in each paw, as much under their arms, two or three in their mouths; and thus laden they march away, continually leaping on their hind legs; but if purſued they hold what they have in their mouth, and let the reſt drop to be at liberty to run. Every ſtalk they pluck is nicely examined, and if they do not like it, they throw it away, and pull another; ſo that this daintineſs occaſions more damage than their thievery.

The natives call one of the moſt remarkable of theſe ſpecies boggo; and the Europeans, mandril: it is different from all others, and approaches much nearer to the human ſhape. The body, when full grown, is as large as that of a man; their legs are much ſhorter, but their feet longer, and their arms and hands are in proportion. The head is very large and the face broad and flat, without any other hair than the eyebrows. The noſe is very ſmall, the lips thin, and the mouth wide. The face is wrinkled as if with old age, and the teeth are broad and yellow. The hands and feet are white and ſmooth, but all the reſt of the body is covered with long hair. They always walk erect; and, when teazed, cry like children. A preſent of one of theſe monkies was made to a gentleman at Sherbro. It was a ſhe-cub about ſix months old, yet larger than a baboon. He gave it in charge to a negro ſlave, who knew how to feed and nurſe it; but whenever he left the deck, the ſailors began to teaze it: ſome loved to hear it cry, others hated its ſnotty noſe. One of them hurt it, for which being checked by the negro ſlave, the former told him he was very fond of his countrywoman, and aſked him, If he ſhould not like her for a wife? To which the negro readily replied, "No this, no my wife; this white woman, this fit wife for you." The owner ſuppoſed that this unlucky wit of the negro haſtened the death of the animal, for it was found dead under the windlaſs the next morning.

There are, beſides the wild beaſts of a voracious nature, others that are much milder, ſuch as harts, antelopes, and hares. The former of theſe are of various ſorts, ſome of theſe being as large as cows, others not bigger than ſheep, and ſome even ſo ſmall as cats. They are in general of a red colour, with a black ſtripe on the back, and ſome of them are beautifully ſtriped with white. Their fleſh is particularly admired by the Dutch; and all the different kinds are good to eat.

Several ſorts of wild cats are to be met with here, ſome of which are ſpotted like tygers, and are very fierce and miſchievous. Among theſe is the civet-cat, called by the negroes kankan, and, by the Portugueſe, gatos de algalia. They are about the ſize of a fox, but longer legged; and the tail reſembles that of a common cat, except being longer in proportion to the body. Their hair is grey, and full of black ſpots; thoſe who keep them for the ſake of the muſk, generally feed them with raw fleſh, or entrails, as they yield much more from that than a drier food. When hungry they are very ravenous, and will even gnaw through the wood of their cage. They are very cleanly, and always roll and tumble on their food before they eat it. They who keep them generally vex and teaze them before they take out the muſk from the bag: for the more the animal is enraged previous to this operation, the better will be the civet. The bag which contains the civet is in the middle betwixt the anus and the pudendum, both in the male and female; but it is much larger in the male. The liquor of which the civet conſiſts, appears to be excreted from certain glands that lie between the coats that compoſe the bag from which the civet is taken. The civet is not of any uſe in medicine, but is valued as a great perfume.

Some porcupines are alſo in this country, which are in general about two feet in height, and their teeth are remarkably ſharp. They are very daring, inſomuch that they will venture to attack the largeſt and moſt dangerous ſnakes. When irritated, they ſhoot their quills at the enemy; and with ſuch violence that they ſometimes prove fatal. Their quills are from eight to ten inches long, and pointed at both ends; they are of a horny ſubſtance, and much reſemble tortoiſeſhell in colour. The negroes eat them, and conſider their fleſh as a great delicacy.

There are ſeveral other animals in this part of the coaſt of Guiney, and, among the reſt, that remarkable one called by the natives potto, but more generally known by the name of ſloth, and is ſaid to be the moſt ugly creature

ture in the univerſe. This animal is ſo ſlow in its motion, that it cannot travel above twenty yards in a day. The head is ſtrangely diſproportioned, and the fore-feet greatly reſemble hands. The hair of the young ones is of a pale mouſe colour; but that of the old is red, and looks more like wool than hair. The female, when big with young, climbs the trunk of ſome old tree, in which there is an hollow, from ſome accidental decay, at a diſtance from the ground. Here ſhe depoſits her young, which are generally two in number: during the time ſhe ſuckles her young, ſhe continues in the ſame hole, and though that period is very ſhort, before it is expired, ſhe becomes almoſt emaciated. When the young are able to crawl after her, ſhe leads them to the neareſt branches of the tree, where they devour the leaves firſt of one and then another. When the tree is quite ſtripped, they are obliged to ſeek a new place of abode: the journey, however, to the next tree, takes up no ſmall time in performing; and though the creature is fat and in good condition, at the time he leaves his former habitation, yet before he has reached his new one he becomes as poor and lean as poſſible; and if the tree is high, or at any diſtance, and he meets with nothing in his journey, he inevitably dies with hunger. While it is thus travelling ſlowly on the ground, any beaſt may kill and devour it, for it is intirely defenceleſs, and, when attacked, only makes a noiſe like the crying of a kitten. It has three claws on each foot, and the fore-feet longer than thoſe behind.

A four-footed animal, called by the negroes quoggelo, lives in the woods. It is almoſt eight feet long, including the tail, and is covered from the neck to the end of the body with ſcales reſembling the leaves of an artichoak; they are placed very cloſe together, and ſecure the creature from the attacks of his enemies, particularly the tygers and leopards, who frequently purſue him, and, as he is not very ſwift, they ſoon overtake him; on which occaſion the animal rolls himſelf up in his coat of mail, when his enemies dare not attack him. It is a very inoffenſive creature, and will not hurt any thing: it lives on piſmires, catching them with its tongue, which is very long and glutinous. The negroes knock them on the head, ſell their ſkins to the Europeans, and eat their fleſh, which they ſay is exceeding white and palatable.

The grano is an amphibious creature, and greatly reſembles the crocodile; but it is very inoffenſive, not hurting any thing except cocks and hens, among which it ſometimes makes great ſlaughter. This animal is about four feet in length, the body is black ſpeckled, the eyes are round and ſharp, and the ſkin very tender. The negroes eat their fleſh, as do alſo the Europeans, and they all agree that it is far preferable to that of their cocks and hens, being very grateful to the taſte.

Cocks and hens, geeſe, ducks, turkies, and pigeons are their tame poultry; their wild ſort are, mallards, pheaſants, and partridges; beſides which, they have peacocks, fieldfares, ring-doves, cranes, &c. Here are alſo great numbers of parrots, parroquets, eagles, kites, green-birds, and ſeveral others. The moſt common are the cocks and hens, which are exceeding plentiful all over the coaſt: in ſome parts they are very fat and good, but in general they are ſo dry and lean, that few people chooſe to eat them.

The beſt birds here for uſe are the wild ducks, which are very plentiful, and little inferior to thoſe of Europe. There are alſo various kinds of ſmall birds, ſome of which are exceeding beautiful; among theſe, there is one that has this remarkable circumſtance attending it, that whenever it moults, it changes its colour; ſo that thoſe which are black this year, become blue or red the next; they will be yellow the following year, and afterwards green; but they never vary from theſe five colours, which are always very bright, and never mixed. The crown bird is more beautiful than thoſe in other parts of Guiney. They are about the ſize of a ſtork, and receive their name from a large tuft that grows on their head, ſome of which are red, others blue, and ſome of a ſhining gold. Their tails are very long; and the negroes pluck their feathers to adorn their heads with. Their bodies are chiefly covered with black feathers; the ſides of their heads are beautified with purple ſpots, and the feathers of their wings and tails are of different colours, as yellow, red, white, and black.

Abundance of reptiles and inſects are on this coaſt, ſuch as ants, bees, beetles, ſpiders, gnats, caterpillars, millepedes, locuſts, cock-roaches, ſcorpions, frogs, toads, and ſnakes: here are alſo ſome camelions, many crocodiles, and great numbers of lizards.

The moſt remarkable of theſe inſects are the ants, which are of various ſorts and colours; ſome are white, others black, and ſome red. The white are as tranſparent as glaſs, and bite very forcibly; but the red are the worſt, their ſting being inflammatory, and the pain it produces is of much longer continuance than that of the millepedes. They make their neſts in the fields, and generally raiſe them at leaſt ten feet from the ground; but ſome build them in high trees, from whence they fly in ſuch ſwarms to the European ſettlements, as to become exceeding troubleſome to the inhabitants. They are very ravenous, and will ſometimes attack a living ſheep, which in a night's time they will reduce to a perfect ſkeleton, leaving not the leaſt thing except the bones. Fowls and chickens frequently ſhare the ſame fate; and even rats, though ſuch active animals, are not able to eſcape. As ſoon as one of theſe animals is attacked by the ants, his deſtruction is at hand, for they gather in ſuch prodigious numbers, that they ſoon overpower him; nor will they quit him till they are ſufficiently reinforced to carry him off to ſome convenient place, when they immediately fall to work, and in a ſhort time reduce it to a mere ſkeleton. It has been remarked, that if theſe little animals have not a language (as many believe they have), yet they have certainly ſome method of communicating their thoughts, which has been experienced in the following manner: when two or three of them have been found ſtraggling on the hunt, a cock-roach has been killed, and thrown in their way. As ſoon as they found what it was, they ſent away for help, while the others ſtaid and watched the dead body, till their comrade returned at the head of a large poſſe; who if they found themſelves too few to carry off the prize, have detached a ſecond meſſenger for an additional force.

Gnats are very numerous near woods and marſhy grounds: they ſting very ſharp, and raiſe prodigious ſwellings, attended with violent pain. They frequently oblige the inhabitants to change their habitations, as they are exceedingly troubleſome in the night ſeaſon.

Millepedes or hog-lice, are alſo very numerous; and though their ſting is not ſo dangerous as that of the ſcorpion, yet it occaſions a very ſharp pain for ſome time. They are flat and red interſected like other worms, and have two ſmall horns or claws with which they ſtrike. Their feet are forty in number, viz. twenty on each ſide; from whence they are called forty-legs by the Engliſh and Portugueſe.

Here are great numbers of locuſts, which ſometimes make great deſtruction among the corn and vegetables. This inſect is about five inches long, and about the thickneſs of a man's little finger; it has a cowl over the neck, and a pyramidal head, from whence there proceed two horns or feeders, almoſt an inch long; the eyes are prominent, and of a dark red colour; the body is oblong, and of a bloody purple colour; and the tail is forked like a ſwallow's. It has four aſh-coloured wings marked with duſky ſpots: the fore-feet and thighs are very ſlender, but the hinder ones are long and thick, and marked with tranſverſe ſtreaks of a blackiſh colour. Beſides the ſort already deſcribed, there are other ſpecies of this inſect, ſome of which are not above three inches in length; theſe are of the cowled or hooded kind; the lower wings are finely chequered with brown and ſcarlet, and the upper are of a light green ſtreaked.

Cock-roaches are in general about two inches long, of a dark brown colour, and in ſhape ſomewhat like a beetle. They are ſaid to be great enemies to bugs.

Scorpions are in general about three inches in length; they have four legs on each ſide, beſides two claws armed with ſnippers, between which is the head. The body conſiſts of nine joints, and the tail of ſix, which has a hooked weapon at the end. There are ſome on this coaſt as big as ſmall lobſters, and have the ſame ſort of claws and feet; but their bodies are covered all over with long black hair. All of them have a ſmall bladder full of deadly poiſon at the end of their tails, which they diſcharge either at man or beaſt.

Toads are remarkably large here; and ſome of them ſo ſtrong and venomous, that they frequently engage and kill ſerpents.

Snakes not only infeſt the woods, but alſo the houſes of the negroes, and even the European forts and ſettlements. Moſt of them are very large and venomous; but there is one of a peculiar nature, and ſo inoffenſive that it will neither hurt man or beaſt. It is called the horn-ſnake, from a horn, or rather a tooth, that riſes from the upper jaw, and projects through the noſe. It is about five feet in length, variegated with black, brown, yellow, and white ſtreaks very agreeably mixed. The head is broad and flat,

and the horn is white, hard, and ſharp-pointed. The negroes often tread upon them; for they ſometimes ſo glut themſelves with food, that they ſleep extremely ſound, ſo that the greateſt noiſe will not awake them. The negroes often eat them, and account their fleſh a very delicious fare.

There are on the Gold coaſt great quantities of various kinds of fiſh in the ſea and rivers. Thoſe of the former are, doradoes, bonitas, cod, tunny, thornbacks, the flying-fiſh, &c. There are alſo lobſters, crabs, prawns, ſhrimps, and muſſels. The principal freſh-water fiſh are of three ſorts; the firſt of which is called carmon, and is a white fiſh about two feet long; but they are very fat and oily, otherwiſe their fleſh would be extremely agreeable. The ſecond is the mullet which differs from the former only in its ſize, and not having ſo thick a head, and the fleſh is of much the ſame quality. The third ſort is called batavia, the largeſt of which are tolerably good, but they are apt to taſte muddy: they are about a foot in length, and very proportionably ſhaped. There are alſo ſome plaice; and flounders are exceedingly plentiful, but they are not ſo good as thoſe in Europe, and differ greatly in their ſhape.

The dorado is the beſt fiſh of thoſe caught in the ſea, the fleſh of which is exceeding delicate, and in taſte ſomewhat reſembles that of a ſalmon. They are generally about four or five feet long, and have a ſort of creſt on the head, which joins to a large fin that runs to the extremity of the tail; there is alſo another that is ſhorter, and runs only from the vent to the tail. The belly fins reach almoſt to the vent, which is placed in the center of the body; and the mouth is of a middle ſize, having ſmall ſharp teeth in the jaws, palate, and tongue. The eyes are large, the ſcales exceeding ſmall, and the colour of a bluiſh green. The liver dried and pulverized, if taken in wine, is a cure for the dyſentery. They greatly reſort about ſhips, and are eſteemed the ſwifteſt fiſh that ſwims.

The king-fiſh is reckoned, when in ſeaſon, one of the beſt on the coaſt. They are in general about five feet in length, with a long forked tail, and the back and ſides are full of brown ſpots, but the belly is white. They continually harbour among rocks; and ſometimes get into ſuch ſhallow waters, that they are caught with very little difficulty.

The horn-fiſh, called by ſome the cat-fiſh, received the firſt name from having an horn on the top of its head, or beginning of the back: it is about a foot long, with a very large head, and ſmall mouth; the back is bluiſh, the belly white, and the fins and tail yellow. It is much eſteemed, and the fleſh reckoned very wholeſome.

The moon-fiſh is of a flat form, and would be almoſt oval, were it not for its tail, which is large and hollowed. It is about two feet long, one broad, and near two inches thick. The mouth is ſmall, and contains two rows of teeth; over it is a little riſing, which appears like a noſe with noſtrils, and the part above that looks like a forehead, with large wrinkles. The eyes are round, and very red: it has only two fins, but they are large, and placed at the ſides of the gills, with two briſtles, one about the middle of the back, and ending at the tail, and the other running in the ſame direction beneath the belly. The fleſh is particularly admired by the Europeans, and is white, firm, and well-taſted.

The bonito is a good fiſh, but inferior to the dorado, above deſcribed. It is about three feet in length, and two in circumference, and has a ſharp head, a ſmall mouth, large gills, full eyes, and a tail like a half moon. It has not any ſcales, except on the middle of the ſides, where there is a line of gold colour, that runs from the head to the tail. The back and ſides are of a greeniſh colour, but the belly is white, and ſhines like ſilver. It has ſeven fins, two on the back, two at the gills, two on the belly joint below the gills, and one in the center of the belly, oppoſite to the largeſt on the back. From the laſt on the back proceeds a ſmall narrow one, that reaches to the tail, and another that extends from the laſt on the belly to the tail in like manner. They are caught in places where the ſea is rougheſt. The ſailors catch them with a hook baited with a white rag, which they ſnap at with great eagerneſs.

The albicore is in general about ſix feet in length, and has yellowiſh eyes, with a forked tail, the bottom of the belly is blue, inclining to green; and near the tail, on the under part, are ſeveral ſhort fins. The ſkin is ſmooth and white, and they have but one bone, which extends through the body: the fins are of a yellowiſh colour, and the fiſh, when in the water, appears exceeding beautiful. It reſembles in ſome reſpects the bonito, but the fleſh is drier, and not ſo well taſted.

There are, beſides the fiſh already mentioned, others of a much larger ſize that infeſt the Gold coaſt, particularly grampuſes, ſharks, and porpoiſes; but theſe are ſeldom caught by the natives. Here are alſo two ſorts of ſprats, which only differ in their ſize, one of them being much larger than the other: but the ſmaller are the beſt, and, when either pickled or dried, eat very agreeably.

With reſpect to the blacks inhabiting the Gold coaſt, they are in general of a middling ſtature, and well proportioned: they have ſparkling eyes, ſmall ears, and lofty eye-brows; their teeth are white, and tolerably well ranged, their lips are red, and not ſo thick as thoſe of the inhabitants in the other parts of Guiney. They are broad-ſhouldered, have large arms, thick hands, and long fingers. They anoint their bodies every morning with palm-oil, ſo that their ſkin is very ſmooth and ſleek; but, excluſive of this, they conſider that as a very wholeſome practice; and, as they are naturally apt to breed vermin, reckon it a preſervative from them.

The men are very quick of apprehenſion, and in general have excellent memories; but they are naturally ſlothful and indolent, ſo that they are only induſtrious from neceſſity. They tranſact their affairs with great compoſure of mind, and always appear indifferent whether they riſe to proſperity, or ſink into adverſity; and though they are naturally covetous, yet the loſs of any conſiderable property does not ſeem in the leaſt to affect them. This, however, does not appear to be real, or well-grounded; for they are very proud, cunning, deceitful, and greatly addicted to theft; and ſo envious and ſelfiſh, that they will quarrel among themſelves on the moſt trifling occaſion. Thoſe of conſequence walk with their eyes fixed on the ground, ſeldom looking about, or taking notice of any one, except it be a perſon of higher rank; but to their inferiors they ſhew ſuch contempt, that they will not even deign to ſpeak to them. They are generally very complaiſant to ſtrangers, but they do that for the ſake of its being returned, which is a diſtinguiſhed gratification of their pride. They pay great reſpect to the Europeans, and are highly pleaſed with their accuſtomed civilities; but of theſe they frequently take advantage, by laying ſome ſcheme either to plunder or defraud them.

The women, though not ſo tall as the men, are very ſtrait and well-proportioned; they have fine ſparkling eyes, ſmall mouths, and beautiful teeth; their noſes are in general high, and a little crooked, and they have all long curling hair. They are good houſewives, very cleanly in their perſons, and have excellent conſtitutions. They are naturally ſober and induſtrious, but at the ſame time proud, artful, and covetous. Their dreſs is much ſuperior to that of the men; and they are very careful of their cloaths, for they have two ſorts, one of which they only wear when they go abroad. Their common dreſs conſiſts of a large piece of linen wound round the body, from the breaſt to the knees, and faſtened with a girdle of red, blue, or yellow cloth, to which they hang their knives, purſes, keys, &c. Their better dreſs is formed of a large piece of ſilk or ſtuff wound round the waiſt, and reaching from thence to the ancles: their favourite colours are red, blue, or violet, and they have generally a bunch of keys at their girdle, with bracelets of ivory or gold. They wear ſmall ear-rings of braſs, copper, pewter, or tin, artificially wrought, and on their arms and legs they have bracelets and rings of copper or braſs: they take great pains with their hair, which they form into various ſhapes, and decorate it with gold, coral, and ivory; and in honour of their fetiſh, they wear round their necks ſtrings of beads, beautified with ſmall pieces of gold.

The common people have only a piece of cloth wound round the waiſt, and another between the thighs faſtened with a girdle. The better ſort, however, wear a piece of ſilk taffaty, or Indian damaſk, two or three ells long, folded round the waiſt, the ends hanging down to their ancles. Sometimes they wrap another piece of ſtuff about them, which either reaches from the breaſt to the calf of the leg, or is thrown acroſs their ſhoulders like a mantle. They adorn their neck, arms, and legs, with ſtrings of gold, ſilver, ivory, ſhells, &c. ſome of which are of very conſiderable value. They take great pride in their hair, which they diſplay in various forms: ſome have it long and ſtrait, others curl and plait it together, or tie it up to the crown; and all of them ſmear it with palm-oil, and decorate it with various toys, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which is a kind of coral, called conta de terra, and by them eſteemed more valuable than gold.

These people are very cleanly in their persons, and where opportunity offers, wash themselves several times a day, for which purpose they generally build their villages near the sea, or on the banks of rivers. This custom is exceeding necessary, as it not only cleanses them from the lice and fleas, to which vermin they are naturally subject, but also helps to take off the disagreeable scent of the palm-oil with which they anoint themselves.

On the coast, their towns and villages are composed of a number of huts, irregularly placed; but those in the inland parts are much better, and more uniform, than those near the sea. Their houses are generally of a square form, and very low; they are made of wood, and covered with square mats of palm-leaves, or bulrushes. The door-way is so low, that a man must bend himself almost double to enter. The floor is smooth, made of red clay, as hard as if laid with stone, and in the center of it is laid the fire-place. Some of their villages are so constructed as to form narrow lanes, in the center of which is an open place, adapted not only as a place of diversion for the inhabitants, but for the more necessary purpose of a market for the sale of provisions and other commodities.

The people of higher rank have their houses generally situated near the market, and separated from other buildings. They are built of the same materials as those of the common people, but are more lofty and spacious. In the center is a portico open on all sides, but covered with a sloping roof made of the leaves of trees, to shelter them from the heat of the sun; and here they divert themselves at their leisure hours.

The houses of the common people are built at a very small expence; the materials, which consist only of timber, clay, and leaves, being taken by the slaves wherever they can find them. They commonly erect a house in six or seven days, and the expence to the carpenters seldom exceeds forty shillings. Each family has a granary or store-house, where they keep their wheat, millet, and other grain: these are without the town.

With respect to their furniture, a few stools, some earthen pots to hold water and dress their victuals in, and a few small wooden cups, compose the whole. The poorer sort have only a mat to lie on, which they spread on the ground, and some of them cover themselves with the skins of beasts. The better sort use quilts made of rushes, on which they lay a fine mat with a bolster, and by it a large kettle with water to wash them.

In their diet, they are very filthy, and prefer either flesh or fish that stinks to that which is sweet and wholesome. Their common food is a pot full of millet boiled to the consistence of bread; or instead of that, yams and potatoes, over which they pour a little palm-oil, and mix with it some herbs, and a small quantity of stinking fish. They have another dish called malaghetta, which is composed of fish with a handful of Indian wheat, the same quantity of dough, and some palm-oil, all boiled in water. This they esteem excellent, and indeed it is far from being disagreeable, provided the fish be sweet.

At their meals, they use neither knives, forks, or spoons, but take up their victuals with their fingers, and eat it very greedily. They lay it on a mat on the ground, and sit cross-legged, leaning on one side, or else with both their legs under them squatting on their heels. The husband generally eats alone in his own hut, and his wives separately in theirs, except when he happens to invite his chief wife, or pays a visit to his favourite one. They make but two meals in a day, one at sun-rising, and the other at sun-set. At their morning's meal they drink water, or poyton, which is a kind of small beer, and they drink palm wine in the evening.

The chief employment of the men is abroad, either in trade, fishing, or making palm-wine, great quantities of which are every day sold in the markets; and the profits they get from their labour they give to their wives, who dispose of it in a very frugal manner, as they are in general excellent housewives.

The women are chiefly employed in providing for the family, under the direction of the principal wife. The first thing they attend to, in the article of diet, is, to make the bread. In the evening they set by the quantity of corn thought necessary for the family the succeeding day. This they beat in the trunk of a tree, hollowed for that purpose like a mortar, or in deep holes of rocks, with wooden pestles; they then winnow and grind it on a flat stone; after which, they mix it with flour of millet, and knead it to a sort of dough, which they divide into small round pieces, and boil like dumplings. Of the same dough they also make a sort of biscuit, which will keep for several months, and with this the large canoes are victualled when they go long voyages. They are also very careful in bringing up their children, particularly their daughters, whom they instruct in every thing that may tend to make them good and prudent wives, and acquaint them with every branch of domestic œconomy.

Their marriage ceremonies are in general much the same as those all along the coast, except in a few particulars. When a father finds his son is able to get his own living, he seeks out for a wife for him, unless the latter should disappoint him by providing for himself. When the parties are agreed, the father of the bridegroom communicates it to the parents of the young woman, who readily agree to the marriage. A priest is then sent for, who, after administering the fetish, or oaths, obliges the woman to promise she will love her husband, and be faithful to him: the husband, in return, promises to love her, but omits the point of fidelity. After this ceremony is over, the parents make mutual presents, and the whole company spend the day in feasting and mirth. In the evening the husband leads his wife home, attended by some other relations or friends, who stay with her a whole week to bear her company; after which, they leave her, and she enters on the employment appointed for her.

The negroes sometimes dispose of their daughters when they are too young to consummate the marriage, the ceremonies attending which are as follow: on the day appointed for the wedding, all the kindred on both sides meet at the house of the bride's father, where an elegant entertainment is provided. In the evening the bride is taken to the bridegroom's house, and put in her husband's bed between two women, where she remains all night; after which the bride is sent back to her father's house, and there kept till she is of age for the marriage to be consummated.

Polygamy being allowed among them, some have from twenty to thirty wives: for the greater the number, the more they are respected; but the common sort have seldom more than ten. All their wives are employed in tilling the ground, and managing the affairs of the family, except two, who, if the husband is rich, are always exempted from labour: the principal of these is called the muliere grande, or the great wife; and the second is called the bossum; but having taken occasion to mention these favourite wives, in the former part of our general account of Guiney, to avoid repetition, we shall only add, that when the husband thinks proper to sleep with one of his other wives, he gives her private intimation of it, in order to prevent jealousy, when she retires to her apartment with the greatest privacy, and the matter is kept a profound secret from the rest of them.

They name their children as soon as born; which are naturally of such strong constitutions, that little care is required in nursing them. The poorer sort of women fasten them to their backs when they go to their daily labour, and suckle them at different times, by raising them up to their shoulders, and turning their breasts over to them. They take great pains in washing them every night and morning, when they rub them well with palm-oil, which makes their joints flexible, and greatly facilitates their growth. They go quite naked till they are ten or twelve years of age, when they wear a kind of clout fastened round the middle. When they arrive at that age, the father takes the boys under his care, and brings them up to his own business. The girls are taught to grind corn, bake bread, and carry it to market for sale; as also to weave baskets, mats, caps, purses, and other things. The boys are chiefly brought up to fishing or agriculture, but some of them are put to trades, the principal of which are, smiths, carpenters, and goldsmiths.

The smiths make all sorts of tools for husbandry and household uses; and though they have no steel, yet they make them with great neatness. Their chief tools are a hard stone instead of an anvil, a pair of tongs, and a small pair of bellows with three or four nosels, which is an invention of their own, and blows very strong. Their files are of various sizes, and well tempered: they purchase their hammers of the Dutch.

They chiefly employ their carpenters in making canoes, and the frame or timber-work of houses, the roofs being made by others called thatchers, who have a peculiar method of ranging the leaves of palm-trees, the straw of Indian wheat or rushes, which they bind and fasten together on poles of different sizes. These they sell ready-made in the markets; so that they who have occasion to rebuild or repair a house, are at no loss to supply themselves with a roof, as they are fabricated in all sizes and forms.

Their

Their goldſmiths make a variety of articles of pure gold; ſuch as breaſt-plates, helmets, bracelets, idols, hunting-veſſels, pattins, plates, ornaments for the neck, rings, buttons, &c. They alſo caſt, in the moſt curious manner, the figures of all ſorts of tame and wild beaſts, the heads and ſkeletons of lions, tygers, oxen, deer, monkies, and goats. They are, indeed, excellent artiſts; but their greateſt ingenuity is ſhewn in the gold and ſilver hat-bands made for the Europeans, the thread and texture of which cannot be excelled by any artiſt in Europe or elſewhere.

There are alſo among them ſome good potters, who have learnt that art from the Portugueſe. Though their earthen-ware is thin, yet it is very ſubſtantial, and equally good for uſe as any made in Europe. Their veſſels will endure the moſt violent heat, and are made of a clay of a dark colour.

They have a variety of muſical inſtruments, all which they make themſelves. They conſiſt of copper baſons, blowing horns, ſnappers or caſtenets, and an inſtrument with ſix ſtrings, reſembling a guittar; alſo hand-bells, flutes, and flagelets. The blowing-horns are made of elephants teeth, and ornamented with the figures of birds, beaſts, fiſhes, &c. They blow at the ſmall end, and reduce the ſound to a kind of tune, by varying it as their fancy directs. Their drums are of ſeveral ſorts, and are moſtly made of hollow trunks of trees covered at one end with a ſheep's ſkin, but the other is left entirely open. They ſometimes hang them about their necks with ſtrings, but in general ſet them on the ground like kettle drums. They beat them with two long ſticks, and ſometimes only with their hands; but the noiſe is very harſh and diſagreeable either way.

They always uſe theſe inſtruments at their dances; which is a diverſion ſo delighted in by both ſexes, that it is the cuſtom for them to aſſemble every evening at the market-place for that purpoſe: On theſe occaſions, they dreſs themſelves in their beſt attire; the women have a number of ſmall bells hanging at their feet and legs, and the men carry ſmall fans in their hands made of the tails of elephants or horſes. They who compoſe the dance divide into couples oppoſite to each other, and the dance commences by their throwing themſelves into many wild and ridiculous poſtures, advancing and retreating, leaping, ſtamping on the ground, bowing their heads to each other as they paſs, and muttering ſome ſtrange noiſe. The men then ſtrike each other alternately with their fans; and the women lay large circles of ſtraw on the ground, into which they firſt jump, and dance round them, then throw them up into the air, and catch them with their hands. Thus they divert themſelves for about an hour, when they break up the dance, and retire to their reſpective habitations. This is their manner of dancing in general; but they have ſome dances adapted to peculiar times and circumſtances, particularly thoſe in honor of their fetiſhes, which are of a very ſerious and ſolemn nature. In ſome towns they have public dances inſtituted by order of their kings, which are held annually for eight ſucceſſive days, when people of both ſexes reſort to it from all parts of the country. This is called the dancing ſeaſon, and during the whole time of its continuance the greateſt mirth and feſtivity is preſerved amongſt them.

The natives of the Gold coaſt are troubled with few diſeaſes, notwithſtanding the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. That with which they are moſt afflicted is, the canker, or fleſh worm; they breed between the fleſh and the ſkin, where they extend themſelves till they force a paſſage; and not only men and women, but alſo cattle, are ſubject to this diſorder. Various conjectures have been formed relative to the cauſes of theſe worms: ſome attribute them to the great quantities of fiſh the negroes eat, and others to the palm-wine; but the moſt reaſonable opinion is, that they are occaſioned by the unwholeſomeneſs of the water, which is generally taken out of pools or ponds. This appears the moſt likely, as it is certain, from that cauſe alone the inhabitants of the iſle of Ormus are afflicted with the ſame diſeaſe; and to prevent it, they drink freſh water, which is procured at ſea eighteen fathoms deep, by the help of divers. Theſe fleſh worms are of different ſizes, but in general run about a foot in length, and are not thicker than a hair. While they remain in the body, they occaſion the moſt excruciating pain, inſomuch that ſome can neither ſtand or walk, others are incapable of ſitting or lying down, and others again are thrown into a ſtate of inſanity.

Theſe canker worms diſcloſe themſelves by various ſymptoms, ſometimes with cold ſhiverings, and at others with burning heats: in ſome they are accompanied by a large ſwelling, under which they may be plainly ſeen; and in others they break out in carbuncles and ulcers. They come in different parts of the body, but in general thoſe that are the moſt muſcular and fleſhy. The negroes do not uſe any remedy for them, but let them come out freely, and afterwards treat the part either by waſhing it with ſalt water, or anointing it with freſh butter intermixed with ſalt. As ſoon as the worm appears ſo far out as to be taken hold of, they faſten that end to a ſmall ſtick, to prevent its ſhrinking in again: when it moves forward, a corrupted matter iſſues from the ſore, which increaſes in proportion as the worm advances. During its progreſs, the greateſt care muſt be taken in winding it round the ſtick; for if it ſhould be forced, and by that means happens to break, the ſwelling grows dangerous, and is often attended with fatal conſequences. It ſometimes happens that when one worm is extracted, another will immediately preſent itſelf at the ſame opening, and many people have ſeveral of them at a time in different parts of the body, in which caſe the pain they feel is not to be conceived; inſomuch that, as one obſerves concerning them, the pains occaſioned by theſe worms is ſo exceſſive, that rather than endure it, a man would for ever renounce all the profit of trading on this coaſt.

The negroes here are likewiſe ſubject to other diſtempers, namely, the lues venerea, the head-ach, and fevers; but as theſe are very ſpeedily cured, by compoſitions made of herbs and other ſimples, they are under no uneaſy apprehenſions concerning them.

On the death of any perſon, the relations and friends immediately aſſemble, and, ſurrounding the corpſe, expreſs the moſt hideous lamentations; they then wrap the body in an old cotton cloth, and put it into a coffin made of the bark of a tree, covering the face over with the ſkin of a goat; in this manner they expoſe it in the open air for half a day, the favourite wife ſitting by it all the time, and rubbing the face with a whiſp of ſtraw. If the deceaſed is a woman, the huſband uſes the ſame ceremonies. During this time the neareſt relations appointed on the occaſion ſing mournfully, and beat their braſs baſons, till the bearers come to remove the body, and every thing is ready for the proceſſion. In the interim, however, an old woman goes from houſe to houſe, and collects ſomething for the funeral charges, towards which every perſon in the town or village is obliged to contribute, in proportion to their circumſtances: with the money then collected they purchaſe a cow or an ox, which they preſent to the prieſt, that he may obtain repoſe for the deceaſed, and aſſiſt him in his journey to the other world: this beaſt the prieſt ſacrifices, and ſprinkles the fetiſh of the deceaſed with its blood, which with them is conſidered as a propitiatory offering for the departed perſon.

The previous ceremonies being over, the corpſe is laid on a board, and the company for a ſhort time ſing and dance round it, after which it is carried to the grave by men, but only women are ſuffered to attend as mourners. The chief or favourite wife walks immediately after the corpſe; and if the deceaſed be a woman, the huſband only follows it, no other man being permitted to attend. When they come to the place of interment, the body is immediately lain in the grave, which is generally made about four feet deep; it is incloſed with ſtakes, and over it they raiſe a ſhed or covering, ſo that neither rain or beaſts can come near it. When the body is depoſited, the women creep beneath this ſhed, and renew their lamentations by way of a concluſive farewel. They then raiſe a ſquare heap of earth over the body, on which they lay the principal tools and inſtruments uſed by the deceaſed in his life-time, and alſo his cloaths and weapons. The friends of the departed alſo bring their gifts, as tokens of their affection, which they either lay in the grave, or place over it.

But the moſt exceſſive lamentations, and tokens of ſorrow are expreſſed, when the king dies; for as his condition and dignity require great attendance, he is provided with ſervants not only to accompany him in his journey, but alſo to wait on him in the other world. To effect this, each of his grandees, or chief men, preſent him with a ſlave; others give one of their wives, and ſome one of their children, ſo that there is always a conſiderable number, who are all ſacrificed previous to the interment of the royal corpſe. The perſons thus deſigned for victims are inſnared by ſtratagem, for, on the day appointed for the funeral, they are ſent on a pretended errand to ſome remote place, where people choſen for the purpoſe lie in wait, and eaſily diſpatch them. Their bodies are brought

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to the palace, and publicly expoſed, as a teſtimony of the great reſpect in which the king was held by his ſubjects; after this, they are beſmeared with blood, and carried with the royal corpſe in great ſolemnity to the grave, which is previouſly made in a wood, or ſome other place equally private. Their bodies only, however, are interred, for their heads are ſevered off, and fixed on poles round the grave, which is conſidered as an honourable ornament. Beſides theſe, the king's favourite wives requeſt to be ſacrificed, that they may be laid with him in the ſame grave, in order to accompany him in the other world. They bury alſo with him his cloaths and weapons, with ſuch other things as he eſteemed moſt valuable; and near the grave they place veſſels containing victuals and drink, which, as ſoon as empty, they change, and bring others in their ſtead.

We ſhall here give an account of the ceremonies obſerved at the funerals of the kings of Fetu, which, though not exactly the ſame as thoſe abovementioned, tend to ſhew the ſtrange notions theſe people have of paying reverence to the dead. When one of theſe kings dies, the people expreſs their grief by mournful ſongs and outcries. They waſh the corpſe, dreſs it magnificently, expoſe it to public view, and ſerve up victuals to it at the uſual hours, as if the deceaſed were living. When the body begins to corrupt, four ſlaves bear it, without ceremony, and inter it in the woods, for ever concealing where they put it. If any of the wives of the deceaſed follow them, they kill them, and bury them along with him. In the ſame grave they lay his fetiſhes, his cloaths, his arms; in ſhort, whatever he was fondeſt of when alive, with victuals and drink. When the ſlaves have covered up the grave, they return to the palace, and without ſpeaking, kneel down at the gate, ſtretching out their necks to the executioner, that they may go and ſerve their maſter in the other world; in full perſuaſion that he will reward their fidelity, by giving them the firſt poſts in his new kingdom. While the ſlaves are buſy in the interment, the people make a cruel ſlaughter of thoſe they think may be uſeful to the deceaſed in his preſent ſtate. Some kings who have been well beloved, have had four or five hundred perſons of both ſexes maſſacred on this occaſion. This barbarous cuſtom is practiſed, more or leſs, all along the coaſt of Guiney; as M. Marchais relates, in his voyage to theſe parts.

The negroes on the Gold coaſt are in general idolaters, notwithſtanding which, they believe in a ſupreme Being, and have ſome ideas of the immortality of the ſoul. Every one has a fetiſh or charm, to which they pay the greateſt reverence; for thinking themſelves too inſignificant to be permitted to offer their petitions to God, they addreſs themſelves to their fetiſh, ſuppoſing that to be a mediator in their behalf. Theſe fetiſhes are formed of different things, according to each perſon's fancy: ſome have the tooth of a dog, tyger, elephant, or civet-cat; others have an egg, the bone of ſome bird, the head of a fowl, ox, or goat; and others again, the bone of a fiſh, the end of a ram's horn, or a bunch of cords made of the bark of trees. Their regard to the fetiſhes is ſo great, that whatever they promiſe them, they perform in the ſtricteſt manner. Some, to ſhew their reſpect to them, abſtain from wine, others from brandy; ſome deny themſelves certain meats, or kinds of fiſh; and others, rice, maize, or fruit. In ſhort, all without exception, ſo reverence their fetiſh, that they deprive themſelves of ſome pleaſure by way of mortification, and they will ſooner die than violate their engagement. They are very punctual in bringing their fetiſh every morning a part of the beſt proviſions in the houſe, believing that if they failed in this point, their exiſtence would be but of ſhort duration. They have alſo ſeveral days in the year ſet apart in honour of their fetiſh, which they celebrate by dreſſing it, and making ſome offering or ſacrifice to it.

There are, beſides the fetiſhes of particular perſons, others common to each kingdom; theſe are generally ſome large mountain or remarkable tree, which if any perſon ſhould be ſo indiſcreet as to cut or diſfigure, they would be put to the moſt cruel death. Each village has alſo its guardian fetiſh, dreſſed at the common expence, to which they pray for general benefits; and for this patron they erect, in the moſt public place, a kind of altar made with reeds, and covered with a roof of palm-leaves. Theſe kind of altars are frequently met with in woods, and other private places; they are generally loaded with all ſorts of fetiſhes, and before them are plates or pots filled with maize, rice, and fruits. When the negroes want rain, they place pitchers before them; if they are at war, they lay ſabres and poniards to aſk victory; if they want fiſh, they offer fiſh-bones; to intreat for palm-wine, they leave the ſmall chiſſel with which they cut the tree; and ſo with reſpect to other things, being firmly perſuaded the fetiſh will grant their requeſt, and beſtow upon them what they have occaſion for. Each prieſt has his peculiar idol or fetiſh, which chiefly conſiſts of a large wooden pipe filled with earth, oil, blood, the bones of men and beaſts, feathers, hair, and other ſuch trifling articles: an oath taken before one of theſe fetiſhes is deemed of the moſt ſolemn and obligatory nature. Theſe people live in great dread of the devil, to whom they aſcribe all their misfortunes, and even tremble at his name. The notions of the prejudices they receive from this fiend, are ſuch, that they have an annual cuſtom of baniſhing him from every town and village: the ceremonies attending which are thus deſcribed by a perſon who was twice an eye-witneſs of them: "This proceſſion is attended by a feaſt of eight days, ſpent in all manner of ſinging, ſkipping, dancing, mirth, and jollity; in which time a perfect lampooning liberty is allowed, and ſcandal ſo highly indulged, that they may freely chant out all the faults, villainies, and frauds of their ſuperiors, as well as inferiors, with impunity. The only way to ſtop their mouths, is, to ply them well with drink, which immediately alters their tone, and turns their ſatires into panegyrics on the good qualities of him who has ſo nobly treated them. On the eighth day in the morning they hunt out the devil with a diſmal cry, all running one after another, throwing excrements, ſtones, wood, or any thing they can come at, as thick as hail, at ſatan's poſteriors. When they have driven him far enough out of town, they all return; and thus conclude their eight days ceremonies. To make ſure that he does not return preſently to their houſes, the women waſh and ſcour all their wooden and earthen veſſels very neat, to free them from all uncleanneſs, and the devil."

The ſame perſon adds, "Beſides theſe notions of the devil, they ſtedfaſtly believe the apparition of ſpirits and ghoſts, and that they frequently diſturb and terrify ſome people; ſo that when any, eſpecially a conſiderable perſon dies, they perplex one another with dreadful fears, from an opinion, that he appears near his late dwelling ſeveral nights ſucceſſively."

The blacks have generally two days of worſhip in the week, one of which is dedicated to their fetiſhes, and the other is called their boſſum day, being that on which they were born. On the latter day they clothe themſelves in white, and beſmear themſelves with earth of the ſame colour, as emblems of innocence. The fetiſh-day, however, is obſerved with the greateſt devotion: on theſe days, they waſh themſelves more carefully than on others; and, putting on their beſt cloaths, aſſemble at a particular place, in the middle of which is a large tree. At the foot of this tree a table is ſet, the feet of which are dreſſed with ſeveral garlands made of boughs, and on it they ſpread rice, millet, maize, fruit, meat, and fiſh, with palm-wine and oil, as offerings to their fetiſhes. In the middle of the table ſits the prieſt, called fetiſſero, who makes a long harangue to his auditors, which they hear with great attention. Near him is placed a pot of water, with a living lizard in it, and when the harangue is over, he ſprinkles or waſhes the table with ſome of this water, during which the people repeat certain words with a loud voice clapping their hands, and crying out, jom jore; which concludes the ceremony.

The prieſts are the only people that are exempt from labour; and indeed they have but little occaſion to work: for they are fed at the public expence, and gather conſiderable poſſeſſions by the ſale of their fetiſhes, the prices of which they fix in proportion to the circumſtances of the purchaſer. The negroes believe that the fetiſſeroes or prieſts converſe with the fetiſhes, whom they ſeem to conſider as intelligent beings, and that they are acquainted with their moſt diſtant and private tranſactions; for this reaſon they always approach their prieſts with the greateſt reſpect and reverence, and reſerve for them their choiceſt dainties.

There are five degrees, or diviſions, into which the natives of the Gold coaſt are diſtinguiſhed: the firſt are their kings. The ſecond are their nobility, who are men that have acquired great reputation by their wealth. The third may be called civil magiſtrates, their province being only to take care of the city or village, and to appeaſe ſuch tumults as may ariſe among the inhabitants. The fourth are the common people, employed in agriculture, fiſhing, &c. The fifth and laſt are the ſlaves, who are either taken in war, become ſo by poverty, or are ſold by their relations.

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We may conſider the different kingdoms either as monarchies or republics, whoſe kings are in general hereditary, but ſome of them are elective. The government of moſt of them conſiſts of two parts; the firſt of which is the body of the kaboſhirs, or chief men; and the other the manſores, or young men; all ordinary affairs fall under the adminiſtration of the latter; but the national concerns are determined by both parties together. Their chief juſtices, or judges, as well in kingdoms as republics, are commonly choſen from amongſt the moſt wealthy, and particularly the governors of towns and villages. Theſe take cognizance of all civil and criminal caſes; but as the parties have liberty to appeal to the king, their judgment is not abſolutely deciſive.

Offences of a criminal nature are generally puniſhed by fine. A murderer indeed is ſentenced to death; but ſuch perſons are ſeldom executed; for if he has either effects himſelf, or friends to pay the fine, he eſcapes; but if not, he ſuffers. In the latter caſe, as ſoon as ſentence is paſſed, he is delivered to the executioner, who blinds his eyes, and ties his hands behind him; after which, he leads him to ſome field without the town, where he makes him kneel down, bending his head forward, when he thruſts a ſpear through his body. This done, he cuts off his head with a hatchet, and dividing the body into four parts, leaves it expoſed in the open air, to become a prey to birds and beaſts.

The murdering of a ſlave is generally puniſhed by a fine of thirty-ſix crowns, and that of a free negro by one of five hundred; but the relations of the perſon murdered frequently mitigate the fine.

Thieving is commonly puniſhed by a reſtoration of the goods, and paying a fine, which is levied in proportion to the value of the goods, and the circumſtances of the offender.

On the coaſt, adultery is puniſhed only by fine, for which reaſon many women, by conſent of their huſbands, beſtow their favours merely to take advantage of thoſe who have been fooliſhly captivated by their charms.

But there is more ſtrictneſs obſerved by the inland negroes, in caſes of adultery, than by thoſe on the coaſt. He that debauches a negro's wife is not only intirely ruined, but his relations often ſuffer with him; and if the perſon injured be a man of property, the fine will not ſatisfy him, but he muſt alſo have the life of the offender. If the criminal be a ſlave, his death is inevitable, and that in the moſt cruel manner; beſides which, a fine is levied on his maſter. A woman caught in adultery is alſo in great danger of her life, unleſs her relations pacify the enraged huſband with a ſum of money, or ſome valuable preſent; and ſhe who is caught with her huſband's ſlave is infallibly put to death, as alſo the ſlave her paramour; beſides which, her relations are obliged to pay a conderable ſum of money to the huſband.

They puniſh the ſtealing of men with great ſeverity, and ſometimes with death; as alſo the ſtealing of hogs, ſheep, or other cattle. In thoſe parts which are independent of the Europeans, they will much ſooner put a man to death for ſtealing a ſheep, than for murder.

The negroes, in all caſes of injury, are reſponſible not only for their children, but alſo their relations, who in ſuch caſes help one another by a mutual contribution, each giving ſomething towards the fine, according to his circumſtances, otherwiſe the offender would be condemned either to ſlavery or death. In like manner every maſter is obliged to make good the injury done by his ſlave; for whatever crime he commits his maſter muſt alſo pay the fine.

An exceeding heavy fine is impoſed on a very rich man who commits an offence: they aſſign two good reaſons for the levying of it: firſt, that he was not urged to it by neceſſity; and, ſecondly, that he can better ſpare the money. On this account, many negroes, though rich, will always plead the greateſt poverty; as by that means, if either they or their relations ſhould commit any offence, the fine levied is but ſmall, compared to what it would be if the magiſtrate knew their real circumſtances.

As the ſovereigns of the different kingdoms on the Gold coaſt are naturally proud and ambitious, contentions frequently break out amongſt them; on which occaſions war is formally declared, and the kings, by their governors, appoint a day for their ſubjects to aſſemble in arms. This being done, a herald is ſent to announce it to the enemy, at the ſame time fixing the day, the place, and hour of battle. The grandees, or nobles, then repair to court, and, after complimenting the king, proceed to the war, taking with them their wives and families; and if the motives of the quarrel be great, before they ſet out, they deſtroy their houſes and towns, that the enemy, if victorious, may gain the leſs advantage of their conqueſt.

The kings have a great number of guards, who conſtantly attend their perſons either at home or in the field. Theſe are well furniſhed with arms, and have a moſt formidable appearance: they paint their faces with red, white, or yellow ſtreaks, marking their breaſts and the reſt of their bodies with various figures of the ſame colour, and acroſs their ſhoulders they hang a fetiſh ſtring of glaſs beads as a preſervative againſt danger. They carry a poniard in their girdle, and in their left hand they have a long broad ſhield that covers their whole bodies, with a dart or lance in their right hand. Round their necks they have a large collar made of the boughs of trees, to keep off the blows of their enemies weapons; and on their heads they have caps made of the ſkins of leopards.

The chief poſts in the army are occupied by the nobles, who wear their ſabres before them, with large knives hanging by their ſides. Their ſlaves march by their ſides or behind them, and are armed with bows and arrows, and cutlaſſes. The common ſoldiers have long ſabres and hatchets; their ſabres are faſtened in a belt girt round their waiſt, and they have caps or helmets made of ſkins of crocodiles, adorned behind with a tuft of horſe-hair, and on each ſide with a red ſhell.

Muſkets or carbines are their only fire-arms, with which they are furniſhed by the Dutch, and they are very expert in the uſe of them. Some of their ſabres are made with two edges, and have broad wooden handles covered with thin plates of gold. They have alſo two ſorts of aſſagayes or lances, the ſmalleſt of which are thrown like darts, but the latter are long and are very ſubſtantial, being chiefly compoſed of ſolid iron. Theſe they continually keep in their right hand, and while they are uſing it againſt their enemy, they defend themſelves with their ſhield in the left.

Their ſhields are in general made of the bark of trees interwoven, though ſome of them indeed are made of leather: they are about ſix feet long, and four broad, and ſtrengthened within by a croſs of wood plated with iron. Some of them are covered with the hides of oxen, others with gilt leather, and ſome with the ſkins of tygers. They are very expert in the uſe of this defenſive weapon, which, with their ſabres, they brandiſh in ſuch a manner, as ſecures them almoſt intirely from the ſtroke of an enemy.

They uſe their bows and arrows with ſuch nicety, that they will hit a very ſmall mark at a conſiderable diſtance. They are made of hard, tough wood, and the ſtrings are formed of the bark of trees. The arrows are feathered at the head, and pointed with iron; and their quivers, in which they carry them are made of goat ſkins.

The negroes engage their enemy in battle, without paying the leaſt regard to order: each commander has his men cloſe together in a crowd, himſelf being hid in the midſt of them, and in this manner they engage one heap of men againſt another. In caſe a few are killed, the reſt immediately run away, unleſs ſurrounded by the enemy; and ſo natural is cowardice to them, that when one officer ſees another enthralled, inſtead of advancing to aſſiſt him, he conſults only his own ſafety by a ſpeedy flight. As ſoon as they have diſcharged their guns, they immediately run back to load them, and then return, and reſume the fire. They do not ſtand upright in battle, but ſtoop, that the bullets may fly over their heads.

In caſe of the defeat of one of the parties, the victors make as many priſoners as they can, which is the chief end of all their wars. They who cannot raiſe their ranſom, are either kept or ſold as ſlaves; if a perſon of rank is taken, he is well guarded, and his ranſom is fixed very high; but if the perſon who occaſioned this war falls into their hands, they will not admit of any ranſom for him; he is ſure to be put to death, as the moſt effectual means of preventing his raiſing any diſturbances or ruptures for the future.

When the war is ended, and a treaty of peace agreed on, the contending princes conſent to meet each other on a certain day, to proclaim their determinations. The place is generally a large open plain, and each party appears as if armed for battle, bringing with them their fetiſhes. The prieſts, who are always the principal people in theſe ceremonies, make the chiefs ſwear reciprocally to ceaſe hoſtilities, to forget what has paſſed, and, as a ſecurity for their promiſes, to give mutual hoſtages. As ſoon as theſe oaths are taken, the drums and trumpets begin to ſound, the parties throw down their arms, and embrace each other with the greateſt cordiality; after which, they paſs the remainder of the day in ſinging and dancing, and commerce

is carried on between them as it was before the quarrel commenced.

We ſhall deſcribe the provinces and kingdoms that form the Gold coaſt; and the different ſettlements in each belonging to the Europeans: in treating of theſe, we ſhall begin at the moſt weſtern part, namely the kingdom of Axim, ſituated about twenty miles eaſt of cape Appollonia.

This is a very plentiful country; for the land being naturally good, and the inhabitants very attentive to cultivat on, it produces proviſions of moſt kinds in great abundance. Rice in particular is ſo plentiful here, that it is exported to all other parts of the coaſt, and the inhabitants bring millet, yams, potatoes, and palm-oil in return.

Ackombone is the chief village or town here: it is very populous, and pleaſantly ſituated. Near it is the Dutch fort of St. Anthony, which once belonged to the Portugueſe, from whom it was taken by the former in the year 1642; and having been ceded to the Dutch India company by the enſuing peace between Portugal and Holland, it has ever ſince remained in their poſſeſſion. This fort is ſituated on a rock, and, though ſmall, is yet very commodious. It has two batteries on the land ſide, and one on the ſea, with proper outworks, which, as well as the walls, are all made of black ſtone found in the country. The gate of the firſt is low, and well ſecured by a ditch eight feet deep cut in the rock, over which is a drawbridge, defended by two patteraros. The firſt mounts twenty-two large iron guns, beſides ſeveral ſmall ones, and the garriſon uſually conſiſts of twenty-five whites, and the ſame number of blacks, who are under a ſerjeant belonging to the company. The chief factor's houſe is neatly built of brick, of a triangular form, and very lofty: it has three fronts, before one of which, is a ſmall ſpot of ground planted with orange and palm trees.

The dreſs, cuſtoms, manners, religion, &c. of the natives of Axim, are the ſame as on the Gold coaſt in general, and therefore need not be repeated here. The people are for the moſt part rich, from their carrying on a conſiderable trade with the Europeans, for gold, which they chiefly diſpoſe of either to the Engliſh or Dutch. With reſpect to their laws, they are ſubject to the chief factor, as governor of the fort, who maintains a kind of ſovereign authority throughout the whole country. He determines all cauſes among the negroes, and the fines being paid into his hands, he diſtributes them to the injured perſons, firſt deducting his own fees, which are very conſiderable. If a black, for inſtance, is fined one hundred crowns, the governor's dues amount to two thirds, and the other third goes to the aſſembly of kaboſhirs, or elders among the blacks. But in caſes of murder, robbery, or debt, three fourths of the whole belong to the plaintiff, and the other fourth is for the kaboſhirs and the factor, who divide it into three parts, the former taking one, and the latter two. He alſo obtains conſiderable ſums from the fiſhermen, who are obliged to give him an eighth part of all the fiſh they catch.

There is a large beautiful fort called Frederickſburgh, about ſeven leagues ſouth-eaſt of Axim; which was built by the Brandenburghers, but now belongs to the Dutch. It has four large batteries furniſhed with ſeventy-ſix pieces of ordnance, and the gate leading to it is exceeding magnificent. The walls are thick, ſtrong, and high, and within are ſeveral ſpacious dwellings for the officers and ſoldiers, as alſo good warehouſes for the reception of their merchandize. The fort is well known by the name of Conny's caſtle, which it obtained from the following circumſtances: when the Pruſſians who were firſt poſſeſſed of it left the coaſt of Guiney, they committed the care of the fort to one John Conny, a black, with ſtrict orders not to deliver it up to any nation but the Pruſſians. Soon after their arrival in Europe, the king of Pruſſia ſold all his intereſt on the coaſt of Guiney to the Dutch India company, there being another fort belonging to him, ſituated upon cape Three Points. When the Dutch came to demand this fort, John Conny refuſed to deliver it up to them, which produced a war that continued for ſome years, and coſt the Dutch much money, and a great deal of bloodſhed. On the other hand, Conny, fluſhed with his repeated victories over the Dutch, became a mortal enemy to them, and conſidered them in the moſt obnoxious light; to ſhew his hatred to them, he had a ſmall path, that led from the outer gate to the inner apartment of his caſtle, paved with the ſkulls of Dutchmen who were ſlain in battle; and, as a farther mark of contempt, he had one ſkull tipped with ſilver, which he uſed as a punch-bowl. However, in 1724 he was completely conquered, when he fled into the country, and the Dutch took poſſeſſion of the fort, in whoſe hands it has remained ever ſince.

This fort is one of the beſt ſituated on the coaſt; and the anchorage and landing are both ſafe and convenient. The climate is tolerably wholſome, and the country rich and well-improved. The negroes here are more civilized and honeſt than in moſt other parts of the coaſt, and the government is well regulated. They carry on a great trade not only in gold, but alſo in ivory and ſlaves.

Cape Puntas, or Three Points, conſiſts of three little heads or hills that lie at a ſmall diſtance from each other (from which circumſtance it derives its name), and between them are two convenient bays. The hills are ornamented with groves of lofty trees, which are viſible a conſiderable diſtance at ſea; the whole country about the cape is exceeding woody.

A ſmall fort, called Dorothea, ſtands about three leagues eaſt of the Cape: this formerly belonged to the Pruſſians, from whom it was taken by the Dutch in the year 1683. The apartments within are very numerous, and moſt of them not only conveniently diſpoſed, but very elegantly furniſhed. The fort itſelf conſiſts only of a large houſe with a flat roof, on which are two ſmall batteries containing ten guns.

Anta, which is another country on the Gold coaſt, extends almoſt thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, and is full of hills covered with large trees, between which are ſeveral conſiderable villages. The ſoil is well watered, and produces great quantities of excellent rice, the beſt ſort of maiz, ſugar-canes, and potatoes. It alſo yields plenty of palm-wine and oil, cocoa-nuts, ananas, oranges, and ſmall lemons. In the mountainous parts are great numbers of wild beaſts, particularly elephants and tygers, the latter of which are ſo rapacious, that they frequently viſit the Engliſh and Dutch forts in the night, to the great terror of the inhabitants, who ſometimes ſuſtain conſiderable injury in the loſs of their cattle, ſheep, &c.

Dickſcove is the firſt remarkable place we meet with in the kingdom of Anta: it is ſituated about eight leagues to the north eaſt of cape Three Points. Here the Engliſh have a fort, which is a handſome and regular building, and is well defended with four good batteries, on which are mounted twenty pieces of ordnance. This and all the other Engliſh forts are ſubordinate to cape Coaſt caſtle, as no other than the St. George's flag is allowed to be hoiſted by them.

There are two villages near Dickſcove, that are commanded by one and the ſame cobocero, who always diſplays the St. George's flag at his houſe, whenever that at the fort, in honor of the Engliſh, is hoiſted.

Batenſtein is a fort belonging to the Dutch, and lies at a ſmall diſtance from the abovementioned villages. It is ſituated on a very high hill, and is built of an oblong form; it is a ſmall building, and has only two batteries, on each of which are planted four guns. At the foot of the hill is a village called Boutrou, or Boutri, the inhabitants of which are particularly diſtinguiſhed for their honeſty in all matters relative to trade. This village is watered by a river that comes down from the country, and diſembogues itſelf into the ſea by the Dutch fort. The banks of it are exceeding pleaſant, being adorned with lofty trees; and the ſides of it are lined with mangroves, whoſe boughs are plentifully ſtocked with excellent oyſters. This river affords great plenty of fiſh; but it is hazardous to catch them, owing to its being infeſted with prodigious numbers of crocodiles. It is navigable only about four miles from its mouth, for though it reaches much farther, yet it is impaſſable, owing to the violent water-falls that pour down from the rocks.

Tokorari is ſituated on the top of a high hill, which juts to the ſouth-eaſt into the ſea, and is ſurrounded with ſeveral rocks. This is a pleaſant village; and the country behind it is very agreeable, conſiſting of delightful vallies and plains, adorned with lofty trees, between which are agreeable paths covered with white ſand. There was formerly a fort here, which was at different times poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and Pruſſians; but in 1665, the Dutch blew it up as a place of no conſequence, and there are not any remains of it now to be ſeen. The natives here are famous for making the beſt and largeſt canoes on the coaſt; ſome of which are at leaſt thirty feet long, and will carry about ten tons of goods. The price of one of the largeſt is about 50l. ſterling: ſhips bound from the Whidah generally provide themſelves with theſe.

The

The village of Sakkundi, or Sacundee, is about four miles eaſt of Tokorari: the Engliſh and Dutch have each a fort here, the latter of which is called Orage, and, like the former, is ſituated on the top of a hill. That belonging to the Dutch is very ſmall, and poorly defended; but the Engliſh fort is large, and mounted with twenty pieces of cannon. The French had formerly a ſettlement here, but not finding it anſwer their expectations, they deſerted it. The country round is admirable, being diverſified with hills and dales covered with lofty trees, which grow with ſuch uniformity as to appear as if placed by art. This village is very rich in gold, and is as healthy a place as any on the coaſt.

Two ſmall villages lie between Sakkundi and Sama; the one called Anta, and the other Beari; but they are not of any note for trade, except in the article of palm oil, great quantities of which are exported to moſt of the neighbouring parts.

Sama is watered by a ſmall river called St. George, which runs into the ſea near the foot of the hill on which it is ſituated. It contains about two hundred houſes or cabins, ſo placed as to form three ſeparate villages. The place is populous, but the inhabitants are very poor, and chiefly employed in agriculture and fiſhing. The Dutch have a fort here, about the ſize of that at Boutrou, and mounted with the ſame number of guns. It is called St. Sebaſtian's, which name was given it by the Portugueſe, who were firſt maſters of it, but the Dutch afterwards took it.

Adom and Jabi are two countries very fertile in maize, and have ſeveral mines of gold; but they have no villages in them that deſerve particular notice, neither are there any European ſettlements in them.

Commenda, or Commany is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Great and Little Commany, the inhabitants of which are chiefly fiſhermen, or brokers, it being a place of conſiderable trade for gold and ſlaves. In this diſtrict are two European forts, one belonging to the Engliſh, and the other to the Dutch. The former is a large quadrangular building with three ſquare baſtions, and one round; and within the fort is a large tower built of ſtone and lime. It mounts twenty-four guns, and has a garriſon of twenty-five whites, and the ſame number of blacks. The Dutch fort is called Vredenburgh, and was built in the year 1688. It is a ſquare building, ſtrengthened by good batteries, on which might be conveniently mounted thirty-two guns within ſo many parts of the breaſt-work, though at preſent it contains only twenty that are mounted.

Fetu is a fine plentiful country, extending about one hundred and ſixty miles in length, and about the ſame number in breadth. The principal part of the inhabitants are employed in agriculture, ſowing corn, and drawing wine from the palm-tree; others in fiſhing, and boiling ſalt; and ſome trade as brokers for the inhabitants of the inland countries, or on their own account.

The town or village of El-Mina is the principal place in this kingdom: it is ſituated about nine miles from the Dutch fort of Vredenburg, and is remarkable for the caſtle of St. George, another ſtrong fort belonging to the Dutch, who took it from the Portugueſe, in the year 1638. It is a large ſquare building, with very high ſtone walls, ſo ſtrong, that they are ſaid to be cannon-proof. It has four large baſtions or batteries within, and one very ſtrong one on the outworks. Two of the baſtions within lie to the ſea, and are very lofty, the point of the peninſula on which they ſtand being a high flat rock; but the other two are low, the ground deſcending gradually from the rock. Theſe batteries are mounted with forty-eight pieces of fine braſs cannon, and that on the outworks is filled with iron pieces, which are only fixed as ſtatues, or on days of public rejoicing.

This fort, towards the land, is adorned with two canals cut in the rock, which are always furniſhed with rain or freſh water ſufficient for the garriſon and ſhips. The inſide of the fort conſiſts of a large quadrangle, ſurrounded with handſome ſtorehouſes of brick and ſtone. The general's lodgings are in the upper part of the caſtle, the aſcent to which is by a large ſtair-caſe of black and white ſtone, defended at top by two ſmall braſs guns, and four patteraros of the ſame metal, commanding the place of arms, and a corps-de-guard. Next to this is a great hall full of arms, and beyond it a large gallery wainſcotted, and ornamented at the end with large glaſs windows. This gallery leads to the general's apartments, which conſiſt of ſeveral handſome rooms and offices belonging to the ramparts. On one ſide of theſe rooms is a very neat chapel, where ſervice is not only performed on Sundays, but every day in the week, when all the officers of the garriſon are obliged to attend, under the penalty of twenty-five ſtivers, and double that ſum on Sundays and Thurſdays. An hoſpital for the ſick, large enough to contain at leaſt one hundred people, is erected on the ramparts.

Mina is ſituated juſt under the caſtle, and is a tolerably long and populous town. The houſes are in general very ſpacious and convenient, and are built with rock ſtone. Trade, huſbandry, and fiſhing, are the uſual employments of the inhabitants, who are a warlike people, and, from their long correſpondence with the Europeans, are the moſt civilized on the coaſt. This town is watered by a ſmall river called Bonja, which ſeparates the two kingdoms of Commenda and Fetu; on the north ſide of which, oppoſite to St. George's caſtle, is the fort of Conradeſburg, belonging alſo to the Dutch, and ſituated on a high hill called St. Jago; it conſiſts of a handſome quadrangle, ſtrengthened with four good batteries; the walls are twelve feet high and ſtrong, having four leſſer batteries mounted with twelve guns. Within the fort is a large tower, with convenient apartments for the garriſon, which conſiſts in general of twenty-five men, who are relieved from El Mina once in twenty-four hours. The aſcent to the fort is eaſy on the ſide of El-Mina, but on that towards Commenda it is ſteep and difficult. The bridge over the river Bonja has a drawbridge in the center as well for ſecurity, as to admit ſmall ſhips to go up the river.

At the foot of St. Jago hill are ſeveral tombs and monuments, which are ſuppoſed to have been erected by the natives to the memory of their kings, or other diſtinguiſhed perſonages. On the north ſide of the hill is a large garden belonging to the general of the fort; it is divided by ſpacious walls; and is ſtocked with rows of excellent orange trees, alſo lemon, cocoa, palm, and other ſorts of trees and uncommon plants of the country; as alſo a variety of European herbs, pulſe, and roots: in the center of the garden is a large ſummer-houſe, round and open, with a cupola roof, and the aſcent to it is by a handſome ſtair-caſe.

A place called by the Portugueſe Cabo Corſo, but cape Corſe, or Coaſt, by the Engliſh, is ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from St. Jago hill: it is formed by the ſhore jutting out a little, and making an angle whoſe ſouth and eaſt ſides are waſhed by the ſea. On this cape is ſituated cape Coaſt Caſtle, which is the moſt important fortreſs of any belonging to the Engliſh on the coaſt of Guiney; it ſtands on a large rock that projects into the ſea, and was erected by the Portugueſe, who firſt ſettled here about the year 1610. In a ſhort time after the Portugueſe had built it, they were diſpoſſeſſed of it by the Dutch, from whom it was taken by the Engliſh under admiral Holmes, in 1664. By the treaty of Buda, it was ſtipulated that the firſt ſhould remain in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and a charter being afterwards granted by king Charles II. to the African company, they immediately ſet about enlarging it, and gave it the elegant form which it now retains.

The walls of this fort are very high and thick, particularly on the land ſide; they are partly built of rock ſtone; and partly of brick; the parade is twenty feet perpendicular above the rock, and forms a kind of quadrangle, being open on the eaſt ſide towards the ſea, which renders it very pleaſant, and affords a delightful proſpect of Queen Anne's point, and the ſhips in Anamaboe road; on this ſide are thirteen pieces of heavy cannon, which command the road and paſſage leading to the fort; the other three ſides contain many ſpacious apartments and offices, particularly on the ſouth ſide, where there is a very neat chapel, the back part of which joins to the caſtle wall, having the great body of the rock called Tabora on the outſide of it. On the battlements are ten guns, and twenty-five on the flankers, which are four in number. On the rock Tabora, which is about twenty paces from the caſtle, is a round tower, containing ſix twelve pounders, and ſerves to keep in awe the blacks of the adjacent town. The entrance to the caſtle is by a large well-ſecured gate that opens into the ſquare, which is large enough for five hundred men to be drawn up and exerciſed in. The apartments for the agents and officers are very ſpacious and convenient, as are alſo the barracks for the ſoldiers. The apartment of the general communicates with the chapel, which is ſometimes uſed as well to dine in as for the performance of divine ſervice; in the front of the firſt ſtory is a ſpacious balcony that extends the whole length of the buildings, and in the center of it is a very elegant and commodious ſtair-caſe. Here are alſo ſpacious ſtorehouſes, and convenient

convenient compting houſes for the factors and other officers. Under the ſquare is a ſpacious wall cut in the rock, where thoſe ſlaves are confined that have been purchaſed for exportation; and at a ſmall diſtance from the gate of the caſtle is a priſon for the confinement of criminals.

There are very extenſive gardens belonging to the caſtle, which are near eight miles in circumference, and are without any ſort of incloſure, except on the ſouth ſide: they produce almoſt every thing natural to hot climates, particularly oranges, lemons, citrons, guavas, plantains, bananas, cocoa-nuts, cinnamon, tamarinds, pine-apples, &c. with ſeveral ſorts of European vegetables, as ſallads of various kinds, cucumbers, pumpkins, water-melons, and purſlain; they have ſometimes good turneps raiſed from Engliſh ſeed; but their beſt roots are yams and potatoes.

The town at Cape Coaſt Caſtle, which is inhabited by the negroes, is large and populous; and the inhabitants, though Pagans, are very civil and induſtrious; ſome of them are employed in getting gold, others in fiſhing, and ſome attend to agriculture, and ſupply the reſt with the neceſſaries of life by their induſtry and labour.

Two ſmall forts are erected in the neighbourhood of Cape Coaſt Caſtle: theſe alſo belong to the Engliſh, and are juſt three quarters of a mile from the caſtle: one of them is called Phipps's tower, and the other fort Royal, or Queen Anne's fort; the former is a ſmall round tower ſituated on the eminence of a ſteep hill by the ſide of Cape Coaſt gardens, and was built by General Phipps, from whom it received its name; it ſtands north-weſt from the town, and mounts ſeven guns. Fort Royal ſtands near a ſmall village called Manfrow, and is built on a hill named Daenſtein, or the Daniſh mount, becauſe the Danes had formerly a fort on the ſame ſpot; it is a ſquare brick building, and has eighteen guns, ſeven of which are mounted on the top of the fort, and eleven on the platform. The garriſon are daily relieved from Cape Coaſt Caſtle, and conſiſts of ſix whites, and twelve blacks.

Manfrow, is ſituated beneath the fort; and is almoſt inacceſſible by means of the great rocks that ſurround it; it is a very ſmall town, and the few inhabitants that live in it, are chiefly ſalt boilers, labourers, or fiſhermen.

The ſmall kingdom of Sabu, or Saboe, begins from the laſt-mentioned town: it extends two leagues along the coaſt, and four in land to the north: however, it is a plentiful ſpot, and the inhabitants of it are reckoned the moſt induſtrious on the coaſt.

Queen Anne's Point, a ſmall fort belonging to the Engliſh, is the firſt place we meet with here: it is ſituated on a hill, about a mile from fort Royal to the weſt, and two miles from a Dutch fort, called Naſſau, to the eaſt; it has a garriſon of five whites, and the ſame number of blacks, and mounts five guns.

Naſſau fort, belonging to the Dutch, ſtands on a hill, near a ſmall village called Mowri: it is almoſt ſquare, and has four batteries, mounted with eighteen pieces of cannon; the walls are higher than thoſe of any fort on the coaſt, that of El-Mina excepted: two of the batteries, which are next the ſea, are incloſed by a very ſpacious and convenient curtain; and the angles are ornamented with four beautiful ſquare towers. It was built by the Dutch, and was their chief ſettlement when El-Mina was in the poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe.

Mowri, is a ſmall village containing about two hundred houſes; the inhabitants are chiefly fiſhermen, and pay, as a tribute to the Dutch factor, a fifth part of what they catch.

The territory of Fantyn, extends about ten miles along the coaſt, and contains many villages well inhabited: it has no king, but is under the government of a braffo, or leader, whoſe power is greatly reſtrained by the old men, or counſellors, who frequently act agreeable to their own inclinations, without paying any regard to the braffo. The inland people are chiefly employed in agriculture, and ſupply the markets with fruit, corn and palm-wine; but the inhabitants of the coaſt carry on a great trade in gold, fiſh, and ſalt.

Anamaboe is the moſt important place we firſt meet with in this diviſion, and where the Engliſh have a ſmall, but very neat fort: it is ſeated on a rock about fifty yards from the ſea, and is built of ſtone and brick; next the ſea it is defended by two flankers, and on the other ſide by two turrets; it mounts twelve guns, and the garriſon conſiſts of thirty people, twelve of whom are whites, and the reſt blacks: within are ſeveral good warehouſes, and the apartments for the principal officers are very elegant and conveniently diſpoſed. The landing here is very dangerous, the ſhore being lined with rocks; ſo that the goods from the ſhips are carried aſhore in canoes to a narrow ſandy beach under the fort, incloſed with a mud wall about eight feet high, within which the blacks and other ſervants of the company, have apartments provided for them.

Anamabec town is very large and populous, containing at leaſt as many people as are in the two kingdoms of Sabu and Commenda; the inhabitants are very ſtout and warlike, but at the ſame time the greateſt cheats on the whole coaſt, and very treacherous and deſperate. The circumjacent country abounds with hills, five of which are cloſe together, and very lofty, ſo that they make an excellent land-mark, being very conſpicuous many miles at ſea: the hills are cloathed with a great variety of trees, which render the proſpect exceeding pleaſant; but the palm-trees are the moſt numerous, and the wine extracted from them is ſaid to be ſuperior to all other in this part of Africa.

Two villages, called Great and Little Cormantin are ſituated about two miles from Anamaboe; the latter of theſe is a very inconſiderable place, but the Dutch have a ſmall fort near it, called Amſterdam. It is a ſquare building of rock ſtone, ſtrengthened with three ſmall and one large battery, and is mounted with twenty pieces of cannon. In the center is a large tower, the upper part of which is formed like a cupola, and on the top of it is the flag-ſtaff; within are convenient apartments for the officers of the garriſon, which conſiſts of twenty-five whites, and the like number of blacks. The proſpect from the top of the tower is exceeding pleaſant, as it not only commands the ſea, but an extenſive view of the adjacent country. In 1665, the Dutch admiral de Ruyter took this fort from the Engliſh, to whom it once belonged.

The village of Great Cormantin is ſituated on a hill, about half a mile below the fort; it is very large and populous, containing at leaſt eight hundred people. The inhabitants about both villages are chiefly employed in agriculture and fiſhing, and the lands near them are very fertile.

Tantumquerri lies a little to the eaſt of theſe villages. It is pleaſantly ſituated near the ſea ſide, but the landing-place is inconvenient and dangerous. The Engliſh have a ſmall but regular fort here, having four flankers, on which are mounted twelve pieces of ordnance.

The territory of Acron extends from the borders of the Fantynean country to a famous place called the Devil's mount, it is divided into Great and Little Acron; the former of which, being farther inland, is a kind of republic; and the latter, a kingdom; and, notwithſtanding they are independent of each other, the inhabitants live in perfect amity. They are a very induſtrious people; and apply themſelves with ſuch diligence to agriculture, that great quantities of grain are exported from hence to other parts of the coaſt. The Dutch have a fort here, called fort Patience, and under it is the village, inhabited only by fiſhermen.

Agonna, is a very fertile and pleaſant country; and the inhabitants are diſtinguiſhed for their ingenuity in making various articles in gold and ſilver. It contains ſeveral remarkable villages, the firſt of which is called Winneba, or Wimba, and is pleaſantly ſituated, being ſurrounded with beautiful lofty trees. Here the Engliſh have a fort, of much the ſame ſize and form with that at Tantumquerri. It ſtands on a riſing ground about fourteen yards from the ſea ſide, from whence there is a handſome avenue encompaſſed by trees, that leads to the outer gate. It has alſo a large ſpur, which is of infinite ſervice, as it not only contributes to the ſtrength of the fort, but is a ſecurity to them from the ravages and incurſions of the wild beaſts by night.

It is remarkable, that the kingdom of Agonna has always been governed by a woman, who, to preſerve the ſovereignty in her own hands, lives unmarried; but that ſhe may not want a proper companion, ſhe generally purchaſes one of the handſomeſt ſlaves ſhe can meet with, who is prohibited, on pain of death, from ever intriguing with any other woman. Her eldeſt daughter is next heir to the crown, the ſons being all ſold as ſlaves, or otherwiſe diſpoſed of, ſo as not to interrupt the ſucceſſion in the female line. The daughter is taught the ſame political maxims practiſed by her mother, and, when of proper age, is allowed the ſame indulgence of having ſuch a male companion as ſhe thinks proper to make the object of her choice.

The country of Aquamboe, which is the laſt place that remains to be deſcribed on the Gold coaſt, is of conſiderable extent, and chiefly ſituated within land. The ma-

ritime part of it is called Acra, and was formerly a kingdom of itſelf; but in 1680, or 1681, it was conquered by the inhabitants of Aquamboe, to whom it has ever ſince been tributary. The country is not ſo fertile as the other parts we have mentioned, there being very little fruit, or any kinds of grain; and what cattle they have, are brought from other parts: it is, however, a good ſporting country, and abounds with hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, red and fallow deer, wild goats, pintado hens, and other fowls. The hares are ſo plentiful, that the blacks kill them with ſticks as they paſs along on their ordinary occaſions.

Among their deer, on this part of the coaſt, is one ſpecies that are exceeding beautiful, and perhaps the moſt delicate animals that are to be met with in the univerſe. It is about eight or nine inches in height, and the legs ſo ſmall, as not to exceed the circumference of a gooſe's quill. The males have two horns turning back on their head, about three inches long without branches or antlers; they are crooked and of a ſhining black colour. They are very tame and familiar, but of ſo tender a nature, that they cannot bear the ſea, for not one could ever yet be brought to Europe, though the attempt has been ſeveral times made, and every means poſſible uſed to convey them thither.

The Engliſh and Dutch have each of them a fort at Acra. That belonging to the former is called fort James, and is a ſtrong, ſpacious building. It is ſituated on the top of a ſteep rocky cliff that hangs over the ſea, and has a battery of twenty pieces of cannon juſt under the wall; beſides which, the fort has ſeveral large flankers mounted with twenty-ſeven pieces of ordnance. The walls, which are of ſtone, are very thick and lofty, and in the center of the fort is a ſquare tower, with a ſmall ſpire, on the top of which is the flag-ſtaff. The garriſon conſiſts of twenty whites, and thirty blacks. Near the fort is a ſmall village called Soko, the inhabitants of which from a peculiar attachment to the Engliſh make a point of trading only with them.

The other fort of Crevecœur belongs to the Dutch, and is ſituated on a rocky headland, about a muſket-ſhot from fort James; and though boats can come up to the ſtrand with ſafety, yet the landing may be eaſily oppoſed by the guns of the fort, and the ſmall arms of the garriſon. The building is of a ſquare form, with four batteries, which, with the curtains, are of ſtone, but they are neither ſo thick or high as thoſe of the Engliſh fort. Within is a large flat, ſquare houſe, with a platform, and the apartments are convenient both for the officers and garriſon, which conſiſts of fifteen white men, and twenty-five negroes.

Chriſtianſburgh, a fort belonging to the Danes, ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from Crevecœur, and is the only one they have on this coaſt. It is a ſquare building ſtrengthened with four batteries, planted with twenty guns. It appears very beautiful, and ſeems like one continued battery; for the cannon may be removed to any part of it, the roof being intirely flat.

We may here remark, that, conſidering the warlike diſpoſition of the blacks on this part of the coaſt, it is ſtrange they ever permitted the Europeans to build three ſuch good forts ſo cloſe together: but ſo great is the power of money even in this golden country, as well as in other parts of the world, that one of the kings of Acra being gained by conſiderable preſents which the Danes and Dutch made him, granted them that liberty; at firſt, they aſked to build each of them a ſtore-houſe to ſettle a factor in, under the obligation of ſeven marks of gold yearly for each houſe. The houſes thus built, the Dutch and Danes conſtantly inſinuated to the natives, that whereas they were continually expoſed to the aſſaults of their mortal enemies the Aquamboes, it would be for their ſafety to allow theſe houſes to be turned into forts to protect them and their families with their cannon. By theſe means they prevailed on the people to permit theſe places to be put into the condition above deſcribed.

The European forts are chiefly ſupplied with proviſions brought from cape Coaſt, Anamaboe, and Cormantin. The country round Acra is exceeding pleaſant, not being ſo woody as other parts of the coaſt; but it is much leſs fertile, owing to its being almoſt depopulated by the frequent wars with the Aquamboes.

A market is held three times a week, at a village called Abeno, about twenty miles from the coaſt, for the ſale of gold and ſlaves, of which commodities the trade chiefly conſiſts: hither the negroes reſort from the inland countries. The gold is reckoned as good in quality as that at Axim, or any other part of the whole coaſt, and the ſlaves being ſo numerous, is occaſioned by the frequent wars with the neighbouring nations, which being very populous, moſt of the priſoners taken on both ſides are ſold as ſlaves to the Europeans. The goods they take in return for the ſlaves, conſiſt of cowries, woollen cloth, Sileſia linen, chintz, powder, fire-arms, knives, red and yellow bugles, &c.

The Gold coaſt has for its eaſtern boundary, the river Volta, ſo called from its rapid flux and reflux. It diſcharges its waters with ſuch violence into the ſea, that it is ſometimes viſible ſeveral leagues from the ſhore. The extent of its courſe in land cannot be aſcertained, as it is impoſſible to penetrate it. From its amazing rapidity, numbers of whole trees are frequently brought down with it, which ſticking at the mouth of the river, occaſion violent agitations of the waves: ſo that it can only be paſſed at certain times in the year, which are generally betwixt the months of April and November, this being the dry ſeaſon and the reflux of the river not ſo rapid. At the mouth of it is a ſmall iſland, ſteep on each ſide, and covered with lofty trees. On each ſide the river, a few miles from the mouth, the country is open, and adorned with a great number of palm-trees planted at equal diſtances; but farther up it is woody, and riſes into hills, and very ſteep mountains. The ſhore is bordered all along with a large ſandy ſtrand, forming ſeveral ſmall bays, which, about a league to the ſea, are at leaſt nine fathoms deep.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the SLAVE COAST, and the ſeveral Kingdoms thereunto belonging; comprehending an Account of the different Places, the Inhabitants, their Manners, Cuſtoms, Trade, &c. and various Revolutions.

THAT part of the coaſt of Guiney, which goes under the appellation of the Slave coaſt, is very extenſive; but as it is remarkably winding, we cannot properly aſcertain its diſtance in a ſtraight line. It commences at the river Volta, from whence to the river Banais, are about one hundred and ninety-five miles; from thence to cape Formoſa, one hundred and thirty-five; and from thence eaſtward to the mountains of Ambriſes, one hundred and ſixty-five; and thence ſouthward to the river San Bonto, the utmoſt boundary of the country, one hundred and twenty; in all ſix hundred and fifteen miles. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Benin; on the weſt, by the Gold coaſt; on the north, by Biafara, with the deſart of Seth; and by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth.

The four following kingdoms are on this coaſt; namely, Coto, Popo, Whidah, and Ardrah; but the principal of them are the two laſt.

Coto (by ſome called the Land of Lampi) begins at the river Volta, and extends eaſtward to Little Popo, a diſtance of about fifty miles: it is a flat, ſandy, and barren country, and the only trees to be found in it are the palm and wild cocoa. The town or village of Coto, otherwiſe called Verbon, is about fourteen miles from the river Volta, and was formerly the reſidence of the king. The inhabitants of the kingdom are poor and illiterate; and their chief traffic conſiſts in ſlaves, whom they ſteal from the inland countries, and ſell to the Europeans. They practiſe much the ſame cuſtoms and manners as thoſe on the Gold coaſt, except being more fond of their fetiſhes, in the number of which conſiſts their principal wealth.

Popo, extends about thirty miles, and is divided into two parts, by the names of Great and Little Popo. The laſt is remarkably ſandy; and ſo barren, that the inhabitants are ſupplied with all their proviſion from Whidah; they chiefly live by plunder and ſtealing ſlaves, in both which they exceed their neighbours of Coto, being of a more courageous and warlike diſpoſition. They are alſo great cheats, and frequently take advantage of the Europeans, by deluding them on ſhore in expectation of ſlaves, at a time they have not one to diſpoſe of, when they not only fleece them, but ſometimes detain them for ſeveral months, before they can procure the number wanted, and then exact upon them, by fixing an exorbitant price on thoſe they purchaſe.

Little Popo, is ſituated on the ſhore, about ten miles from Coto. It is a poor miſerable place, and conſiſts only of a number of ſtraggling huts, inhabited by people whoſe lives are chiefly ſpent in concerting meaſures for the enſlaving and miſery of their fellow creatures, whom the dictates of humanity ſhould excite them to relieve and defend.

Great Popo, is not ſo barren as thoſe already mentioned; for in the inland parts are great plenty of various kinds of fruits, as alſo cattle and poultry. The town ſtands on an iſland formed by marſhes, and is divided into three parts, each diſtinct from the other. It is the reſidence of the king, whoſe palace is very large, conſiſting of a number of huts, incloſed by lofty trees. The paſſage to the royal apartment is through three courts, each of which is guarded by a number of ſoldiers. In the fartheſt of theſe is the king's audience room, where his nobles and principal officers occaſionally aſſemble, to conſult his majeſty on affairs relative to the government of the nation. The king has a great number of concubines, two of whom conſtantly ſtand by him with fans to cool and refreſh him. His dreſs conſiſts only of a long gown of brocade, with an oſier cap on his head, and ſandals on his feet. He is very fond of tobacco, and ſpends the principal part of his time in ſmoaking, and converſing with his concubines.

The only place in the kingdom that merits the leaſt notice is the town of Great Popo, the reſt being only ſmall hamlets of five or ſix inſignificant buildings, whoſe inhabitants immediately retire to Great Popo, on the leaſt apprehenſion of danger.

In this kingdom alſo there prevails a great addictedneſs to plunder and rapine, neither are they very difficult in the objects they pitch on; for as they are thieves by profeſſion, they will as readily ſteal from a friend as a foe. They carry on ſome trade in ſlaves, but their chief advantages ariſe from the fiſh caught in the rivers, which they not only ſell to their neighbours, but export great quantities of them to other countries.

There was formerly a ſettlement belonging to the Dutch here, but trade being greatly interrupted by the frequent wars between Popo and Whidah, they ſuddenly left it, and have not traded there for many years.

The French, ſince that time, have eſtabliſhed a ſmall factory at Popo, with two agents and ſome negroes, who are ſubordinate to the director-general at Whidah, from whom they receive goods, and to whom they remit ſlaves. This trade is carried on by land, and every precaution is uſed to prevent the property being loſt by the way: the uſual method is, to oblige the perſon who ſells the goods, to convey them to the frontiers at Whidah, where they are ſure to be ſafe; but the ſeller is ſubject to the loſs, in caſe of any accident before delivery.

SECT. V.

Contains an Account of the Kingdom of WHIDAH: its Provinces, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, Laws, Cuſtoms, &c.

THE kingdom of Whidah next demands our attention. It extends about ten leagues along the ſhore, and in the middle reaches ſix or ſeven in land, after which it divides itſelf like two arms, being in ſome places thirty or forty miles broad, and in others much more. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Ardrati; on the weſt, by the river Volta; on the north, by the country of Dahomy; and, on the ſouth, by the gulf of Guiney. It is a fine, populous, and fertile country, being watered by two excellent rivers, both of which take their riſe in the kingdom of Ardrah. The ſouthernmoſt of theſe runs within about a league and a half of the ſea, and is called the river of Jakin, from a town of that name in the kingdom of Ardrah; it is only navigable for boats, ſome parts of it not being more than three feet deep. The other river is called Euphrates; it runs about a league to the ſouth of Xavier or Sabi, the capital of Whidah, and is much deeper than the former. The water is exceeding good, and the river would be navigable, were it not for the banks and ſhoals in the channel. The road where the ſhips ride is at the mouth of this river, but in the months of April, May, and July, the landing is exceeding dangerous, on account of the prodigious ſwell of the ſea at thoſe times.

This country is acknowledged by all Europeans to be one of the moſt delightful ſpots in the univerſe, and that its fertility is greatly promoted by the above-mentioned river. The coaſt is agreeably diverſified with a variety of lofty and beautiful trees, which are planted in ſuch order as to form the moſt agreeable retreats. The country riſes from the coaſt with a fine eaſy aſcent for the ſpace of fifty miles, commanding, in moſt parts of it, a fine proſpect of the ſea. The fields are every where cultivated, and, inſtead of hedges or other fences, are divided by beautiful groves of trees: in ſhort, the beauties of this ſpot may be much more eaſily conceived than deſcribed, as the whole country appears like one continued garden.

Whidah is divided into twenty-ſix provinces or governments, which are given to the grandees of the country, and are hereditary in their families. The king is at the head of theſe, and has the government of the province of Xavier, ſo called from the capital of the kingdom: each of theſe provinces has ſeveral ſmall villages or hamlets ſubordinate to it; ſo that the whole kingdom appears to be one large and populous town divided by gardens, lawns, and groves, into different parts.

The fertility of this country is amazing, inſomuch that as ſoon as one harveſt is over, the ground is ſown with ſome other grain; ſo that they have two, and ſometimes three crops in a year. They plow their land in ridges, by which means, the dews falling in the hollows, and the ſun heating the ſides, whatever is planted, ſoon comes to perfection. The grain conſiſts of rice, millet, and maize, or Turky corn. The negroes are ſo induſtrious, that they will not ſuffer any ſpot of ground to lie uncultivated; even the incloſures of their houſes and villages are planted with melons and other fruits; and they have only ſmall paths that lead through the fields from one village to another, inſtead of highways.

Oranges, lemons, bananas, ananas, pine-apples, watermelons, citrons, and tamarinds, grow here in great plenty, as alſo prodigious numbers of palm-trees; but theſe laſt are chiefly cultivated by the natives for the ſake of the oil, as few of them take the trouble to draw the wine, which they are not very fond of. They have likewiſe cabbages, carrots, turneps, radiſhes, parſley, and various kinds of ſallads, all of them little inferior in quality to thoſe of Europe; beſides which, all the roots produced on the Gold coaſt grow here.

They have one ſpecies of pea of a very peculiar nature; producing ſmall trees like thoſe that bear the pimento or red pepper, but they have no flower, and ſeldom exceed ſix feet in height; the peas grow in a bag or membrane, almoſt as ſtrong as parchment, placed beneath the ſtem amongſt the roots, which yield nouriſhment to the plant; the bag contains in general one hundred and fifty peas; when the leaves begin to grow yellow, they pull up the plant with the roots, open the bag, and extract the peas; but if they chuſe to have them very tender, like thoſe of Europe, they pull up the plant while the leaves are green. They are as well taſted as thoſe of Europe, are eaſy of digeſtion, and make excellent ſoup. They ſow theſe peas at the end of the rainy ſeaſon, and they grow ſo faſt, that they are fit to gather in ſix weeks.

As the people in general take care to leave no part of the country about Whidah uncultivated, they are therefore ſeldom troubled with wild beaſts; but in the more inland parts there are elephants, buffaloes, and tygers. There are many deer and hares, the latter of which are much like thoſe of Europe; they have alſo a greater plenty of all ſorts of apes and monkies than in any other part of Guiney. Their tame beaſts are oxen, cows, goats, ſheep, and hogs, all of which are much larger, and the fleſh better taſted than thoſe of the Gold coaſt; the hogs in particular are exceeding large, and the fleſh as white and ſweet as thoſe of England. This indeed is little to be wondered at, for the poorer ſort of negroes pay more regard to their hogs than to themſelves, and feed them much better. Their tame poultry conſiſts of cocks and hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies.

They have great plenty of wild fowl, as partridges, pheaſants, thruſhes, pintadoes, wild ducks, teal, woodcocks, ortolans, and ring-doves. There are alſo many parrots, which are chiefly grey, with ſome red feathers on the head, and the tips of their wings and tails. The crown bird is likewiſe found here, but is not ſo beautiful as thoſe of the Gold coaſt; however, here are ſeveral other ſorts of birds, which we ſhall here give a particular deſcription of, on account of their peculiarities.

The kurbalot, or fiſher, is a ſmall bird, about the ſize of a ſparrow, and its plumage beautifully variegated; the bill, which is as long as the body, is very ſtrong and ſharp, and is furniſhed on the inſide with ſmall teeth, not unlike thoſe of a ſaw. They build in high trees by the ſides of the rivers, and their neſts are compoſed of earth mixed with feathers and moſs: they make their neſts at the extremity of the moſt ſlender branches, where they hang by a reed or ſtraw about a foot long; they are of an oval form, and are entered by a projection at the top that bends a little, ſo that the inſide is perfectly ſecure from the weather. Theſe birds are exceeding numerous, and breed ſo faſt, that ſometimes a dozen neſts are found on the ſame tree. They not only fly in the air, but ſkim on the ſurface of the water with prodigious ſwiftneſs.

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The pintado, or Guiney hen, has a round back, with a tail turned downwards like a partridge; and the feet are furniſhed with membranes or webs, like water-fowls. The head is covered with a kind of helmet, and the whole plumage is black, or dark grey, ſpeckled with white ſpots. It is the ſize of a common fowl, and the helmet on the middle of the head is of a horny ſubſtance, and a duſky red colour. Under the bill are wattles, but they do not proceed from the lower chap as in hens; they grow from the upper, and the head is bare of feathers, but on the upper eye-lids there are long black hairs that turn upwards. The bill is like that of a common fowl; but in ſome of them, at the root of it, there is a ſmall tuft conſiſting of twelve or fifteen threads, one third of an inch in length, as thick as a pin, and in ſubſtance nearly reſembling the briſtles of a hog. On each ſide of the bill there is a bluiſh ſkin, which extends towards the eye, and ſurrounds it, but becomes black in that place. This ſkin forms the eye lids, and, being lengthened, and becoming double, make the appendices or wattles of the cheeks. They are of different ſhapes, ſome being oval, ſome ſquare, and others triangular: they are of a red colour in the female, and blue in the male. The ears are placed behind the wattles, and are quite uncovered; but the apertures are very ſmall. The feet are of a greeniſh colour, and covered with large ſcales before, but behind there is only a rough ſkin, like ſhagreen leather; and the hinder toe is ſhort. They feed their chickens indiſcriminately, each attending to thoſe that come firſt in their way. They commonly go together in large flocks.

The Numidian damſel is a very delicate bird in its conſtruction: the body is long and taper, as are alſo the legs. The feathers on the upper part of the wings and back are of a light colour, but the tail, which is long and ragged, is black. The ſides of the head are white, and from the top of it behind hangs a long tuft, which reaches for ſeveral inches down the back part of the neck. This bird is very much eſteemed by the blacks: the fleſh of it is firm, and of an agreeable taſte.

The monoceros is a voracious bird, and lives chiefly on fiſh: it is alſo very ugly, and the fleſh of it harſh and diſagreeable. It is ſhort and thick, of a dark colour, except the wings and upper part of the back, which are white. The back is long and very thick, and the tips of the wings reach to the upper part of the legs. The neck is ſhort and thick, as are alſo the legs, and the claws in particular are remarkably large.

Buſtards here are about the ſize of the Guiney hen. The bill is of a whitiſh colour, and much longer than thoſe of Europe. The eyes are large, the iris hazle coloured, and the eyelids of an aſh colour. The ſides of the head, all round the eyes, are of a bright brown, but the top of the head, and the whole neck, are covered with black feathers hanging a little looſe, with narrow points. The back, rump, and tail, are of a bright brown; and the feathers of the latter have tranſverſe black bars. The quills, or greater wing feathers neareſt the back are browniſh, with white ſpots, and the middle quills white, with tranſverſe bars of black. The legs are long, and the toes ſhort in proportion, being void of feathers ſome way above the knees. They have only three toes, all of which ſtand forward, and they are covered with ſcales of a white colour, but the claws are duſky. The fleſh of this bird is exceeding good.

The bird called the aigret is of the heron kind, but is remarkable for the colour of its legs and feet, which are of a deep red: the body is about the ſize of a gooſe, and the feathers are of a darkiſh colour intermixed with white; the neck is long, but the tail is remarkably ſhort; the bill near the head, is of a bluiſh colour, but towards the point it is black. As their fleſh is dry and ill-taſted, they are little uſed by the negroes.

Swans differ greatly in the ſhape here from thoſe of Europe; their fleſh too is coarſe, and diſagreeable to the palate. They are white from the head to the ſhoulder of the wings; but from thence to the tip the colour is a dark brown, as is alſo the tail. The legs are long and taper, and the back is alſo long, and very thick, but terminates with a ſharp point.

The ſea, though it runs very high in the road of Whidah, abounds with fiſh, which the natives take with lines, they being ſtrangers to the uſe of nets. Among the fiſh caught here is a remarkable one, called by the natives the ape or monkey-fiſh. It is in general about ten feet long, and between three and four broad, from the extremity of the neck, till within a third of its length, when it diminiſhes inſenſibly, ending in a long round tail. The head is round, the eyes ſmall, and the chin ſhort; and the upper lip is furniſhed with hair like whiſkers. The neck is very diſtinct from the body, and on that part of it next the head is a round excreſcence like a crown. It has four fins which reſemble the beard or whiſkers of a whale: the two foremoſt are ſo ſituated, that they ſupply the place of hands, for he can convey any thing with them to his mouth. The hinder fins are placed beneath the middle of the belly, and are leſs than the former. It has no ſcales, but a ſkin ſpotted with ſmall pimples like that of the ſhark. It is of a black colour, and ſhines when firſt taken out of the water; but, when dead, loſes its luſtre. It is a lively fiſh, and ſwims very ſwift. When it appears firſt on the ſurface of the water, before he takes the hook, his motions are truly diverting. He comes gently near it, looks at it, takes it with the edge of his lips, and then quits it. After ſeveral evolutions, he at length ſwallows it; and, when he is entangled, he throws himſelf into ſuch poſtures, as to afford a very laughable ſcene to the ſpectators. The fleſh is tolerably good, and in its taſte greatly reſembles lean beef.

Great plenty of various kinds of fiſh are found in their rivers, particularly eels, mullets, ſoles, thornbacks, and a ſort of white fiſh, in ſhape much like our pike. They have alſo great quantities of ſhrimps, cray fiſh, lobſters, and other ſhell-fiſh. The latter are reckoned much better than thoſe caught in the ſea; they are found near the mouths of the rivers, where the water is brackiſh.

They have great numbers of ſnakes or ſerpents, but they are chiefly of two ſorts. The firſt of theſe is black and poiſonous, but the other is quite harmleſs, and worſhipped by the natives, as their greateſt fetiſh. The poiſonous ſort is about twelve feet long, and three inches in diameter. They have a flat head, with two large crooked teeth, they attack their enemies with great eagerneſs; and always creep with their head erect, and their mouth open. The fetiſh ſnake has a large round head, with beautiful eyes: the tongue is ſhort, and pointed like a dart, and their motion is exceeding ſlow: their tail is ſlender and ſharp, and the ſkin is very beautiful, the ground of it being white, with waved ſtreaks or ſpots of yellow and brown agreeably intermixed. They are ſo gentle, that they will not hurt any creature except the venomous ſerpents, to whom they have the greateſt enmity, and ſeem to take a pleaſure in deſtroying them. Both negroes and whites handle and play with them without the leaſt danger; but ſhould either a negro or a white man kill one of them, whether on purpoſe or by accident, his life would pay for it. When the Engliſh firſt ſettled at Whidah, a captain of that country having landed and houſed his cargo, his men found one night a ſnake in the lodge, which they inadvertently killed, and threw out before the door. The blacks next morning ſeeing the dead ſnake, and the Engliſh innocently owning they had killed it, the natives maſſacred all that were in the lodge, ſet fire to it, and deſtroyed all the goods. The Engliſh, deterred by this cruelty, forbore going to trade there for ſome time; but at length, ſome of them again venturing, on their arrival, the negroes ſhewed them ſome of theſe ſnakes, and deſired they would not hurt them, as they were ſacred. The Engliſh readily obeyed this requeſt, and their commerce was renewed.

The veneration of the Whidaians for theſe ſnakes is ſo great, that they will not hear any think ſpoken in deriſion of them, ſtopping their ears, and running away, if any European pretends to laugh at their ſuperſtitious reverence for them. Boſman relates, that a hog happening to devour one of theſe ſnakes, a proclamation was immediately iſſued for deſtroying all the hogs in the country, and abundance of them were ſlaughtered on the occaſion; but at the inſtance of ſome of their rich owners, and ſome preſents made to the king, the ſevere decree was revoked; but it ſeems that ſo many of them were deſtroyed for this offence, that hog's fleſh became very dear while he was there.

With reſpect to the perſons of the Whidah blacks, both ſexes are generally tall, luſty, and well proportioned, but their colour is not ſo ſhining a black as thoſe of the Gold coaſt. Their dreſs conſiſts of three or four ells of a ſtuff called paen, which is wrapped round the waiſt, and then deſcends to the middle of the leg. The ladies wear a ſilk garment, with two or three rows or fringes, the bottom of it covering the feet. Sometimes they wrap themſelves round with a piece of the abovementioned ſtuff paen, and bring part of it over the head and round the ſhoulders like a mantle. The better ſort of the men are diſtinguiſhed by their hats, which they purchaſe of the Europeans; the larger they are the better they like them, and are particularly

particularly proud of them after they are old and ruſty; others have bonnets made of deer or dog-ſkins. They wear ſtrings of pearls or coral on their necks, and on their arms and wriſts have bracelets of the ſame materials.

The negroes here are more polite and civil than any other people on this part of the coaſt, though in general they are very illiterate. When two perſons of equal condition meet, they both fall down on their knees, clap their hands, and mutually ſalute, by wiſhing each other a good day. They pay particular reſpect to their ſuperiors; for when they chance to meet them they immediately fall on their knees, and kiſs the earth thrice, clapping their hands, and addreſſing them by wiſhing them a good day or night, which the ſuperior returns, by gently clapping his hands together, but without altering his poſture; all which time the inferior continues on the ground till the other departs. The ſame kind of ceremonies are alſo uſed by the wives to their huſbands, the children to their fathers, and the younger to the elder brother.

The blacks of Whidah not only differ in good behaviour and colour from thoſe on the Gold coaſt, but alſo in point of induſtry; for as the latter are naturally ſlothful and indolent; ſo the former are cleanly and aſſiduous in buſineſs; nor will they ever leave any work they undertake till it is thoroughly completed. Beſides being employed in agriculture, the men make calabaſhes, wooden utenſils, hardware, and ſeveral other things, which they execute with great neatneſs. The women are employed in ſpinning, and in planting and ſowing their corn, yams, potatoes, &c. The Whidah cloth is of various colours, but that moſt in uſe is either white or blue: they make it about two yards long, and a quarter of a yard broad. Thoſe that are very wealthy, beſides huſbandry, in which their wives and ſlaves are employed under them, carry on a very conſiderable trade in other commodities, particularly in ſlaves.

Polite and induſtrious as theſe people are, yet, next to the Chineſe, they are the moſt artful thieves in the univerſe; and, like them, are extremely addicted to gaming. When they have loſt their money and other property, they will play for their wives and children; and when they have loſt them, ſtake their own liberty, and thus become the property of their countrymen, who ſometimes ſell them to the European traders.

Moſt of the cuſtoms here are the ſame as thoſe practiſed by the inhabitants of the Gold coaſt. One of the moſt material that differs from them, and perhaps from all other countries in the univerſe, is, the indulgence given to polygamy. It is no uncommon thing here for a poor man to have forty or fifty wives; a chief, or grandee, three or four hundred; and a king as many thouſands. Theſe wives, however, may be conſidered only as ſo many ſlaves, and indeed the principal part of thoſe belonging to the great people are probably captives that happen to pleaſe their maſters, who therefore, rather than ſell them to the Europeans, chuſe to maintain them.

With reſpect to their marriages, little ceremony is uſed. When a man fancies a young woman, he applies to her father, and deſires her for his wife, which is ſeldom refuſed. He then preſents her with a fine pagne, or garment, as alſo necklaces or bracelets; after which he provides a grand entertainment, which concludes the ceremony. If a ſlave has a mind to marry a girl who is the ſlave of another, he aſks her of her maſter, without applying to her parents. The maſter of the girl claims the boys of this marriage, as his property.

In this country, the women may be conſidered in no other light than as ſlaves. They are in general obliged to till the ground for their huſbands; and even the favourites, who are kept at home, are not exempt from work; beſides which, they are obliged conſtantly to attend on their huſbands, and behave with the greateſt ſubmiſſion to them.

We need not wonder that ſuch a prodigious number of ſlaves are to be had here; for from the multiplicity of wives each man has, a great number of children muſt reaſonably be expected. It is no uncommon thing to ſee fathers who have two hundred children living at the ſame time; and it often happens that a man has half a dozen children born in one day, for they never cohabit with their wives while pregnant, which indeed is the only reaſon that can be given for their being permitted to take ſo many. A man's principal wealth conſiſts in the number of his children, whom he can diſpoſe of at pleaſure, except his eldeſt ſon.

On the death of the father, the eldeſt ſon inherits not only all his goods and cattle, but his wives, which he retains as his own, except his mother, for whom, in caſe ſhe deſires it, he provides a ſeparate ſubſiſtance and apartment. This cuſtom prevails with the king and grandees, as well as amongſt the common people.

The people here are equally fond of dancing with thoſe on the Gold coaſt; and the methods they uſe in that exerciſe are much the ſame. Their muſical inſtruments are alſo of the like kind, but are much better made, and their ſound is not ſo harſh.

They practiſe circumciſion in Whidah as in moſt other parts of Guiney; but the time of performing the operation is uncertain, ſome doing it at the moſt infant ſtate, and others not till the children are five or ſix years of age.

The natives are liable to ſeveral kinds of diſeaſes, particularly malignant fevers, and the fleſh-worms, which latter we have already deſcribed in our laſt ſection. Their fevers are moſt prevalent in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, and diſcover themſelves by violent pains in the head and reins, an inclination to vomit, bleeding at the noſe, and ſuch a thirſt that the tongue appears quite black. However, they have excellent phyſicians; ſo that though theſe diſorders are frequent, yet they ſeldom prove fatal. The worſt and moſt difficult diſorder to cure is the dyſentery, which attacks people at all ſeaſons of the year. It commonly ariſes either from their making too free with ſpirituous liquors, or from eating the country fruit to exceſs. They are greatly alarmed at the approach of ſickneſs; and the mention of death hath ſuch an effect upon them, that it frequently accelerates their illneſs. Even to ſpeak of it before the king, or any great man, is accounted a capital crime.

There is little difference between the religion of the Whidah blacks and thoſe of the Gold coaſt, except that the number of the fetiſhes of the former is much more conſiderable. Their chief deity is a ſerpent of a particular ſpecies, whoſe bite is not mortal; and is ſo well uſed by his votaries, that he ſcarce ever attempts to hurt them. They addreſs themſelves to this animal on the moſt important occaſions; as for ſeaſonable weather, the preſervation of their ſtate, or whatever elſe concerns the public welfare. They have alſo a grand temple erected in Whidah, dedicated to this ſerpent; and a leſſer in almoſt every village, with prieſts and prieſteſſes to officiate in them. The king annually makes preſents and offerings to the great temple, conſiſting of gold, cattle, pieces of ſilk, and all manner of meat, drink, fruits, and European merchandize to obtain a plentiful harveſt, and the proſperity of his kingdom; and if they apprehend any calamity like to befal them, theſe offerings are frequently repeated.

In this temple, it is ſaid, they always keep a ſerpent of a monſtrous ſize, worſhipping the creature in perſon, and not in effigy: and formerly, the king uſed to go on pilgrimage with his whole court, annually, to adore this ſerpent; but, of late, deputes a certain number of his wives, to perform this act of devotion in his ſtead. Once every year it is pretended, that the virgins, and young women of the country, are ſeized by this ſpecies of ſerpents, and worked up to a kind of religious frenzy; whereupon they are carried to the ſerpents temples in the reſpective villages, and obliged to remain there for a certain time, till they return to their ſenſes. Theſe are uſually the wives and daughters of the principal men of the place, who thereupon make preſents to the prieſts and prieſteſſes; but our author looks upon the whole to be a pious fraud to get a little money out of the people: and, it ſeems, if any one refuſes his wife or daughter to go to this idol temple, when they pretend to be thus inſpired, he does not only incur the reputation of a prophane perſon, and an enemy to their religion, but is in danger of being ruined by the influence and ſuggeſtions of the prieſts: and that they may be ſupported by the government in their pretenſions, the king, it ſeems, is allowed to ſhare the profits which the prieſts gain by this pretended inſpiration of the females, who, when they are diſmiſſed from the ſerpent's temple, are required not to divulge what has happened to them there, under the ſevereſt penalties; but this ſeems to be needleſs, becauſe the women are fond of going to theſe temples on ſuch occaſions, being allowed to take greater liberties there, than they could at home.

The next thing the Whidahs pay divine honours to, are fine lofty trees and groves. To theſe they apply in their ſickneſs, or on any private misfortune; all the ſerpents temples are in ſome grove, or under ſome ſpreading tree.

The ſacrifices offered to the trees conſiſt of loaves, of millet, maize, or rice, placed at the foot of the tree: if the

patient

patient compliments the prieſt with a pecuniary preſent, he leaves them to be devoured by the beaſts and birds; if not he takes them home, and converts them to his own uſe.

The ſea is another of their principal gods, to whom they ſacrifice, when the winds and waves are ſo tempeſtuous, that no foreign merchant can viſit their coaſt; which uſually happens in July and Auguſt, and ſometimes in other months: then they throw in all manner of goods, meat, drink, and cloathing, and alſo a ring, to appeaſe the enraged element. But the carcaſe of the beaſt ſacrificed on this occaſion is the property of the prieſt, who diſpoſes of it in ſuch manner as he thinks proper; ſometimes he divides it among the people, but in general he appropriates it to himſelf.

Beſides theſe public objects of adoration, every man has a numerous ſet of gods, of his own chuſing, at Whidah. Every thing they meet with on going abroad, animate, or inanimate, they introduce into the number, after it has undergone the following trial: they pray to it for ſomething they ſtand in need of, and if they obtain their deſire by any means, they aſcribe their ſucceſs to the influence of this new god; but if they are diſappointed, the blame is generally laid on themſelves, and not on the deity.

Another of their public fetiſhes, called agoye, is made of black earth or clay, and in form ſomewhat reſembles a negro ſquatting. It is placed on a kind of pedeſtal ornamented with a ſlip of red cloth bordered with cowries: the head is crowned with lizards and ſerpents, intermixed with red feathers; and from the top iſſues the point of an aſſagaye that goes through a larger lizard, beneath which is a ſilver creſcent. This idol is placed on a table in the houſe of the grand ſacrificer; before it ſtand three wooden bowls, or half calabaſhes, in one of which are a number of ſmall earthen balls. The people generally conſult this idol before they commence any capital undertaking, for which reaſon he is called, the god of councils. Thoſe who adviſe with this fetiſh, addreſs themſelves to the ſacrificer, informing him of the buſineſs they are about to undertake; after which, they preſent their offerings to agoye, and give the prieſt, his interpreter, the fee. If the prieſt is ſatisfied with the preſent, he takes the bowls, and, after ſeveral grimaces, throws the balls at random out of one bowl into another. If the number in each appears to be odd, the undertaking is declared proſperous, and the perſon who applies for advice returns home perfectly ſatisfied. This oracle, however, frequently proves erroneous, in which caſe, ſuch is the preposſeſſion of the negroes, that they lay the blame intirely on themſelves, and acquit agoye.

Prieſts and prieſteſſes have an uncommon reſpect ſhewn them in the kingdom of Whidah: their perſons, and all that belong to them, are held ſacred and inviolable; and though the wives of other men are little better than ſlaves to their huſbands, the huſband of a prieſteſs is obliged to be all obedience at his peril. Both the eccleſiaſtical and civil government would reſent his aſſuming any authority over ſuch a wife, which makes the natives very cautious of marrying a prieſteſs. Nor would they ever conſent that their wives ſhould be admited into the order of the prieſthood, if they could help it. For as I apprehend it, there is a certain tribe amongſt them who are prieſts and prieſteſſes by inheritance; but then there are others admitted by that tribe into this order upon ſpecial occaſions.

The prieſts, as well as prieſteſſes, are eaſily known by the ſcars and marks on their bodies, made at the time they were initiated into the religious order. In other reſpects they differ but little more from the laity, their habit being much the ſame, though they have the privilege of dreſſing themſelves like the grandees. They trade like other people, and gather conſiderable poſſeſſions by the ſale of cattle and ſlaves; but their greateſt gain ariſes from the credulity of the people, from whom they extort offerings and preſents for the great ſerpent, which their deluded devotees imagine is religiouſly beſtowed, whereas it only contributes to the emolument of the prieſts, for they convert them to their own uſe; and in this they are ſo diligent, that they ſometimes even leave the poor ſerpent without victuals.

The Whidah blacks have imperfect and confuſed notions of heaven and a future ſtate; and ſome of them mention a local hell for the puniſhment of the wicked, but ſeem to regard it as little as Chriſtians do. Some of them believe, that both black and white men were created by the ſupreme God at the ſame time; while others aſcribe the creation to a great ſpider they call anaſie. Every thing relating to religion, they denominate fetiſh; but to the idol of their hearts, or favourite god, they give the title of boſſum; and to this god, the beloved wife is always dedicated, and alſo aſſumes that name.

Each prieſt, or fetiſher, hath a different god, to whom the people, under his care, apply on public occaſions, or common calamities. When they are debating on war and peace, they bring ſacrifices, and conſult the god by their prieſt, who ſometimes performs the ceremony alone, and returns an anſwer to thoſe who come to enquire of him; at other times he conſults the idol in their preſence; from whom, however, they expect no vocal anſwer: but the prieſt throws up ſome nuts or ſmall pieces of leather, and as they fall nearer or farther from each other, he fortells good or bad ſucceſs to the undertaking. They take every ſolemn oath alſo before an idol, drinking a draught after it, and praying their god may ſtrike them dead, or the liquor may burſt them, if they do not perform their engagements, or if the thing be not true which they atteſt: however, it ſeems, the prieſt has power to abſolve them from theſe oaths; to prevent which, upon great occaſions, they make the prieſt ſwear, that he will not abſolve the party, or diſpenſe with his oath, requiring the moſt dreadful imprecations from the prieſt to confirm it: and the negroes believe, that whoever drinks the dreadful cup with ſuch imprecations, and afterwards breaks it, will infallibly burſt or die ſoon after.

If the weather is unſeaſonable, either exceſſive wet or dry, the whole town or country conſult their prieſt how the vengeance of heaven may be appeaſed: and he generally adviſes them to offer certain ſacrifices, which is readily complied with: and every village has a ſacred grove ſet apart, where the ſacrifices are killed, and divine worſhip performed, and theſe they will not ſuffer to be profaned or cut down upon any occaſion. But beſides the idol that belongs to the prieſt, every perſon has his particular houſhold god, before which he conſtantly performs his devotions on the day of the week he was born. This they call their boſſum, as they do the day itſelf, and drink no wine or ſtrong liquor on that day before ſun-ſet: they are alſo then habited in white, or their ſkins coloured with a whitiſh earth or paint. There is another day of the week alſo ſet apart for divine worſhip; when the poor ſacrifice poultry, and the rich a ſheep to their god, without the aſſiſtance of a prieſt, which is eaten by the man and his friends, but the guts and inwards, boiled in the blood, is reckoned the moſt delicious morſel here, as well as at the cape: and there are few families in Guiney, but what are obliged by antient cuſtom (which they think themſelves religiouſly bound to perform) to abſtain from certain kinds of meat; ſome from the fleſh of goats, others from that of hogs, and a third perhaps, from tame white fowls; and their reſpective children and poſterity never deviate from the rules preſcribed by their anceſtors, among which, at Acra, on the Gold coaſt, circumciſion is one; but from whence they received it, or how long they have uſed this rite, we cannot aſcertain, as none among them could give us any ſatisfactory information concerning it.

What notion they have of the deities they worſhip is alſo uncertain, any farther than that they look upon them as beings veſted with great power, and that carefully obſerve their behaviour, and reward and puniſh them in this life according to their demerits: they have no great expectation, or dread of futurity; it is ſaid, the rewards they expect are multitudes of wives and ſlaves, health and wealth, and other proſperous circumſtances in this world; and the puniſhments they apprehend, are a deprivation of theſe. The greateſt calamity that can befal them, and what they dread moſt is death. Murder, adultery and theft, according to our author, are venial crimes, and may be atoned for with gold, &c. But their eating forbidden meats, and drinking prohibited liquors, and a neglect of their holidays, they think can never be pardoned, but will (with deliberate and wilful perjury) be puniſhed with death. Moſt of them, as has been obſerved, believe little of future rewards and puniſhments; though they ſeem generally to agree, that the ſouls of good men ſurvive after death; and ſome few of them talk of a paradiſe not unlike the elyſian fields, whither good ſpirits are ſent; that is, ſuch as have kept their holidays, inviolably abſtained from forbidden meats, and obſerved their oaths: and they that have been deficient in any of theſe particulars are drowned in a certain river, and a period put to their exiſtence; but ſcarce any of them ſeem to have any notion of a wicked man's being puniſhed eternally. Thoſe that have are ſuppoſed to have learned it from the Chriſtians, with whom they have converſed upwards of two hundred years: and there are thoſe that imagine their ſouls after death paſs into the bodies of white men, and undergo an unlimited tranſmigration.

Though all the negroes worſhip ſome creature or other, yet they have not all idols or images in their houſes; and ſome of the natives of the mountainous inland country, it is ſaid, worſhip a living man, as the Tartars near China do; of whom they relate ten thouſand miracles, and believe he dooms them to happineſs or miſery after death, according to their deſerts.

Having thus given an account of the religion of the Whidah negroes, we ſhall next proceed to deſcribe their government, with the ſeveral kinds of puniſhments inflicted on offenders.

The king of Whidah, to uſe the words of one of the Dutch factors, is feared and reverenced by his ſubjects as a demi-god, who always appear in his preſence, either kneeling, or proſtrate on the ground: when they attend him in the morning, they proſtrate themſelves before the gate of his palace, kiſs the earth three times, and clapping their hands together, uſe ſome expreſſions that look more like the adorations of ſome deity, than compliments paid to an earthly prince; and they even tremble at the ſight of him; he has his viceroys, governors, generals, and other officers, as European princes have, of whom, he conſtantly maintains four or five thouſand with meat and drink; ſome of whom frequently are permitted to eat in his preſence. But no perſon whatever is permitted to ſee his majeſty eat, or to know in what part of the palace he ſleeps, unleſs his wives, of whom the king ſeldom has leſs than one thouſand. Theſe continually ſurround him: they are his life-guards, and are frequently ſent on his embaſſies, and employed in executing ſuch commands and ſentences as ſeem much more proper for men; as to puniſh criminals, pull down their houſes, and the like. Boſman relates, that a little before he arrived at Whidah, a negro officer of his acquaintance having been unjuſtly accuſed to the king, orders were iſſued to demoliſh his houſe, and deſtroy all that he had: of which the man having received ſome notice, when a detachment of two or three hundred of the king's wives came to execute the ſentence, they found him placed near a heap of gunpowder, with a lighted match in his hand, profeſſing his innocence, but threatened to blow both them and himſelf up, if they did not give him time to repreſent his caſe to the king; which being agreed to, he had the good fortune to convince his Whidaian majeſty of his innocence, and to get the ſentence reverſed.

When the king goes abroad, five or ſix hundred of his wives run before him, or attend him; he has not, it is ſaid, a ſingle man in his train; but he ſpends the greateſt part of his time at home in his palace, adminiſtering juſtice to his ſubjects, and tranſacting affairs of ſtate, or converſing with the European factors or merchants, who find him, uſually, in a ſtately hall of audience, richly habited in gold and ſilver ſtuffs: his wives, alſo, when they attend him, are richly clothed and adorned with gold, coral, and glittering trifles, eſpecially their hair; and though the king never eats before company, it is ſaid he will drink very plentifully both with the Europeans and his own ſubjects, at certain times.

The cabeceros are the chief magiſtrates under the king, theſe he conſults in ſtate affairs, and concerning peace and war: and by theſe, he uſually adminiſters juſtice to the people. Travellers make two claſſes of nobility in every government in Guiney: 1. The cabeceros laſt mentioned, who are the grandees of every kingdom or ſtate. 2. The inferior nobility, an order of knights, who being poſſeſſed of conſiderable fortunes, either by deſcent or purchaſe, and having obtained ſome reputation in their reſpective countries, are allowed to have ſeven trumpets, or hollow elephants teeth, ſounded before them, when they go abroad. The king of Whidah has ſeveral viceroys under him, whom he appoints at pleaſure, and who, in his abſence, have an unlimited power. He has alſo grand captains, who are viceroys over certain diſtricts; beſides theſe, there are a great number of honorary captains, and another ſort that are entruſted with the care of the markets, ſlaves, priſons, &c.

Notwithſtanding there be no written laws in Guiney, yet they have particular puniſhments appropriated to certain crimes by cuſtom. Murder is uſually puniſhed with death, if the perſon killed was a free-man: but for the murder of a ſlave, a fine only is exacted. Adultery is alſo puniſhed with death, where it is committed with any of the king's wives, or the wife of a great man. But of the puniſhments for theſe crimes, we ſhall ſpeak more particularly, before we quit this ſubject.

In criminal caſes, the king aſſembles a council, when he opens the indictment, and requires every perſon to declare his opinion what puniſhment the offender deſerves; and, according to the verdict, the puniſhment is immediately inflicted.

For the murder of a free ſubject, the criminal is cut open alive, his entrails taken out and burnt, and his body fixed on a pole erected in the market place, where it continues for ſome days, and is then carried to ſome remote place, to be devoured by birds or wild beaſts.

Adultery is no leſs ſeverely puniſhed than murder, eſpecially when it is committed with one of the king's wives. If the guilty couple happen to be ſurpriſed, the king pronounces ſentence of death immediately; the manner of executing, according to the abovementioned author, is thus performed; the king's officers cauſe two graves or pits to be dug, ſix or ſeven feet long, four broad, and five deep, ſo near each other, that the criminals may ſee and ſpeak together. In the middle of one they plant a ſtake, to which they faſten the woman, tying her arms behind the poſt: her legs are alſo tied at the knees and at the ancles. At the bottom of the other pit the king's wives lay bundles of ſmall faggots, after which they retire; and two forks of wood being faſtened by the officers at the ends, the man ſtark naked, is tied to an iron bar, like a broad ſpit, with iron chains, that he cannot ſtir, and laid acroſs the two forks. They then ſet fire to the wood, ſo that the flames may juſt reach the body, which is thus roaſted by a ſlow fire. This cruel puniſhment would be very lingering, if they did not take care to turn the criminal ſo with his face downward, that the ſmoke ſuffocates him before he is quite broiled. When they no longer perceive ſigns of life, they untie the body, fling it into the pit, and fill it up with earth. When the man is dead, women iſſue from the palace, to the number of fifty or ſixty, richly dreſſed as on a feſtival day. They are guarded by the king's muſketeers, accompanied by his drums and flutes. Each carries on her head a large pot of ſcalding water, which they pour one after another on the head of the female criminal, dead or not dead, and throw the pot after it. This done, they looſen the body, take up the ſtake, and caſt them both into the pit, which they fill up with ſtones and earth.

When it happens that the wife of a grandee is taken in adultery; the huſband is at liberty to uſe his own diſcretion, either to put her to death, or ſell her as a ſlave to the Europeans. If he determines on the former, ſhe is ſtrangled or beheaded by the executioner, and the king is ſufficiently ſatisfied on being made acquainted with what has paſſed. The injured huſband, however, has not any power over the man that diſhonoured him, unleſs he happens to catch him in the fact, when he has liberty to kill him on the ſpot. If otherwiſe, he muſt apply to the king, for juſtice, who uſually ſentences the criminal to death. The Chevalier Marchais, who was preſent at one of theſe executions in the year 1725, gives us the following account of it: "A grandee complained to the king, that a private perſon had debauched his wife. His majeſty, upon hearing the witneſſes, paſſed ſentence, that the offender ſhould be beaten to death wherever he could be found, and his body expoſed for food to the beaſts and birds. The officers belonging to the governor of Sabi immediately went in ſearch of him, and found him almoſt entering his own door, where they ſoon diſpatched him with their clubs, and left the body as the king had ordered. The neighbours went to acquaint the captain of the ſeraglio, that the body would infect all that quarter, before it corrupted, and intreated he would obtain the king's orders to have it taken from thence, or thrown into the ſewer, where it could not affect any body. The officer repreſented their complaint to the king, who replied, "If I did not puniſh adultery with ſeverity, no perſon in my kingdom could be ſafe. The body ſhall lie there till it be devoured or rotten. The people ſhall ſee it; and learn, at the expence of this wretch, how they invade their neighbour's bed. All I can grant, is, that in the day-time they may throw a mat over the body, leaving the face uncovered, that the criminal may be known as long as his features can be diſtinguiſhed." Not content with this, the king gave to the grandee, whom the deceaſed had injured, all his effects, to ſell or diſpoſe of as he thought proper, and alſo his wives and ſlaves."

The puniſhment of crimes of a more trifling nature is left to the viceroys, who generally order ſome kind of penance, or a pecuniary mulct, which the king always receives.

The crown of Whidah, on the death of the king, deſcends to his eldeſt ſon, unleſs the grandees have reaſon to reject him; in which caſe they appoint the younger brother in his ſtead. Theſe ſons, however, muſt be born

after

after their father's acceſſion; thoſe born before being excluded.

As ſoon as the king's eldeſt ſon is born, he is always removed from the court, and placed in the hands of ſome private perſon, who lives remote from the palace, and with whom he remains unacquainted with his birth, or the rank he is deſigned for. The perſon in whoſe hands he is placed, is told the ſecret, which he is obliged to conceal from him on pain of death. By theſe means it often happens, that when a prince is called to the throne, he is at the very time employed in ſome of the moſt menial offices; and it is with great difficulty he can be perſuaded to give credit to thoſe who inform him of his elevated ſituation. This is a political manœuvre of the grandees, in order to preſerve the government, at leaſt for ſome time, in their own hands; for from the obſcure ſituation in which the prince has been brought up, he is obliged to conſult the grandees upon every occaſion, being himſelf deſtitute of all knowledge of government.

The new king is immediately brought to the palace on the death of the old one; but the time of his coronation is uncertain, reſting in the grandees, who fix it as beſt ſuits their reſpective intereſts: it is in general ſome months, and frequently ſeveral years; but ſeven years is the longeſt term for which it can be delayed. During this interval the government is rather in the hands of the grandees, than thoſe of the king, for they execute all public buſineſs within themſelves, and never conſult him even upon the moſt important occaſion. In every other reſpect, however, he is treated like a prince; only with this diſtinction, that he muſt leave the palace previous to the time of his coronation; which when the grandees have fixed, they give immediate intimation of it to the king, who aſſembles them in the palace; and, after the council have deliberated on the meaſures to be uſed in celebration of it, notice is given thereof by a diſcharge of cannon, and the whole kingdom is ſoon made acquainted with the news.

The grand ſacrificer goes the next morning to the palace, and demands of the king, in the name of the great ſerpent, the offerings due on the occaſion. Theſe offerings generally conſiſt of an ox, a horſe, a ſheep, and a fowl, which are ſacrificed in the palace, and afterwards carried in great ceremony to the middle of the market-place. As ſoon as they arrive there, the grand ſacrificer erects a pile nine or ten feet long, at the end of which is a piece of linen in imitation of a ſtandard or flag, and round the victims are placed ſmall loaves of millet, rubbed over with palm-oil. After ſome trifling ceremonies, the company retire, and leave the carcaſes expoſed to the birds of the air, no perſon being permitted to touch them on pain of death. As ſoon as they arrive at the palace, about twenty of the king's wives march in proceſſion from thence to the place of ſacrifice, the eldeſt or chief, carrying a large figure made of earth, repreſenting a child ſitting, which ſhe places at a ſmall diſtance from the victims. They are attended by a number of muſketeers, with a party of the king's flutes and drums; and both coming and going they keep continually ſinging, the people proſtrating themſelves as they paſs, and expreſſing their joy by the loudeſt acclamations and tokens of applauſe.

The grandees, at the concluſion of theſe ceremonies, repair to the palace, dreſſed in their richeſt apparel, and atttended by their ſlaves. When the king is not preſent, they enter it without ſtripping, and, after having proſtrated themſelves before the throne, they retire. This part of the ceremony continues for fifteen days, during which the king's women make the palace reſound with their ſhouts, and the public joy is announced by the firing of cannon, and an almoſt continual diſplay of rockets from every quarter.

When the fifteen days have elapſed, the grandees depute one of their number to go to Ardrah, with a magnificent retinue, to requeſt one of the nobles of that kingdom (in whoſe family the right has continued time immemorial) to come and crown the king. The greateſt reſpect is paid to this nobleman by all ranks of people, and the expences of his journey are defrayed by the grandees of Whidah. When he arrives at the laſt village next the capital, he and his retinue muſt continue there four days; during which he receives viſits from the principal people of the kingdom, who make him preſents, and divert him with various kinds of entertainments; the king's wives alſo, preceded in a pompous manner by a guard of fuſileers, and his majeſty's band of muſic, carry him proviſions twice a day from the royal table.

After the expiration of four days, the grandees, attended by their uſual train, and a prodigious concourſe of people, go to the village, and conduct the Ardrah nobleman in great ſtate to Sabi, where he is received by the firing of the king's cannon, and the univerſal acclamations of the people. After this, he is conducted to the apartments prepared for him near the king's palace, where he is ſplendidly entertained by the king's principal officers, and receives viſits from all the grandees. He continues here five days, on the third of which he enters the palace, with the chief of his train, without taking off any part of his dreſs or ornaments, and ſpeaks to the king ſtanding, and without proſtrating himſelf. On the evening of the fifth day nine guns are fired at the palace, to give the people notice that the king will be crowned the following day, and that he will ſhew himſelf in public, ſeated on his throne, in the court of the palace deſtined for that purpoſe; and the gates of it will be open for the admiſſion of all ranks of people. At the ſame time he ſends one of his officers to acquaint the directors of the European factories with the time and place, and to invite them to be preſent at the ceremony of his coronation.

The king ſets out from his ſeraglio, about five o'clock in the evening of the ſixth day, attended by forty of his favourite wives dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous manner, and rather loaded than ornamented with gold necklaces, pendants, and bracelets, foot chains of gold and ſilver, and the richeſt jewels. The king is dreſſed in the moſt magnificent manner, and on his head he wears a gilt helmet, decorated with red and white feathers. He is attended alſo by his guards, and proceeds from the ſeraglio to the throne, which is placed in an angle of the court to the eaſt of the palace, and is called, The Court of the Coronation. The throne conſiſts of a large gilt arm chair a little elevated, with a velvet cuſhion richly laced with gold, on which the king ſits, having another of the ſame quality at his feet. On the left hand of the king are placed his forty favourite women; on the right, his principal grandees, and in a line with them the chief Europeans of the Engliſh factories. One of the grandees holds in his hand an umbrella, which is more for ornament than uſe, as the ceremony is performed at night. It is made of the richeſt cloth of gold, the lining embroidered with gold, and the edges adorned with gold fringes and taſſels. On the top of it is the figure of a cock as large as the life, and the pole that ſupports it is about ſix feet long, and gilt. Another grandee kneels before the king, and keeps fanning him during the whole ceremony. Oppoſite to his majeſty are two of his dwarfs, who alternately repreſent to him the good qualities of his predeceſſor, extol his juſtice, liberality, and clemency, and exhort the king not only to imitate, but ſurpaſs him; and conclude their harangue with wiſhes for the king's happineſs, and that he may enjoy a long and proſperous reign.

Theſe ceremonies being ended, the grandee from Ardrah is ſent for, whoſe office is to crown the king. When he arrives at the outer gate of the palace, the cannon are diſcharged, and the muſic plays. He enters the court with his attendants, who guard him to a certain diſtance, when he leaves them, advances ſingly to the throne, and ſalutes the king by gently bowing his head, but without proſtrating himſelf. He then makes a ſhort ſpeech to the king, relative to the ceremony he is to perform; and, taking the helmet off his head, which he holds in his hands, he turns to the people. A ſignal is then made, at which the muſic immediately ceaſes, and a total ſilence enſues. The grandee of Ardrah then, with a loud voice, repeats the following words three times: "Here is your king, be loyal to him, and your prayers ſhall be heard by the king of Ardrah, my maſter;" after which, he replaces the helmet on the king's head, makes a low bow, and retreats: the cannon and ſmall arms are immediately fired, the muſic ſtrikes up, and the acclamations are renewed. The grandee of Ardrah is then conducted in great ſtate to his apartments; after which, the king, attended by his wives, his guards, and the Europeans, return to the ſeraglio, where the ladies make their compliments to him as he enters the gate. The next day the king ſends a handſome preſent to the Ardrah grandee; after which he muſt return home, not being allowed to remain three days longer in the kingdom. The rejoicings that follow the coronation continue for fifteen days, and the whole is cloſed with a grand proceſſion to the houſe or temple of the great ſerpent; the manner of which is thus related by the Chevalier Marchais, who was a ſpectator of it.

Immediately on notice being given of theſe proceſſions, the crowds are ſo great from all parts of the kingdom, that it would be impoſſible to paſs, if care was not taken to range them in order on each ſide. For this end, a great number

number of beadles, or conſtables, with large rods or ſwitches in their hands, go foremoſt to keep order, and make way. Theſe oblige the people, gathered near the temple gate, to ſit on their heels and keep ſilence. Next follow forty of the king's muſketeers, four and four, with their captain at their head: then the king's trumpet-major, with twenty trumpets; and after him the drum-major, with as many drums, beating as loud as they can; next, the chief player on the flutes, with twenty muſicians, on the ſame inſtrument. Theſe three bands are the king's chamber-muſic; and ſometimes play ſeparately, ſometimes together. Twelve of the king's wives, two and two, carrying the king's preſents to the ſerpent, which conſiſt of bujis, brandy, linen, callico, and ſilk: the king's valet-de-chambre alone, with a cane in his hand, bareheaded, and cloathed like the grandees, his pagne trailing on the ground; twenty-one trumpets, three and three; forty ſoldiers with muſkets, four and four; twenty drums, two and two; twenty flutes, two and two; twelve of the king's wives of the third claſs, with large baſkets of reeds on their heads, with victuals for the ſerpent, from the king; three of the king's dwarfs richly dreſſed, and long pagnes trailing behind them, which makes them look more diminutive; the grand maſter of the ceremonies bareheaded, his cane in his hand, dreſſed like the grandees; forty muſketeers, four and four; twenty drums; twenty trumpets; twenty flutes; twelve of the king's wives, carrying the queen-mother's preſents to the ſerpent; three valets of the queen-mother carrying her arm-chair; the foremoſt has the back of the chair faſtened to his ſhoulder, the two other carry the feet; three of the king's dwarfs, dreſſed like the former; after them comes the queen-mother, walking alone, her cane in her hand, magnificently dreſſed, her pagnes trailing behind, and on her head a reed hat, neatly wrought; three ladies of the palace rich dreſſed but bare headed; twelve women trumpets, two and two; twelve women drums; twelve women flutes; the grand ſacrificer, bareheaded, his cane in his hand, richly dreſſed, like a grandee; laſtly, a body of forty muſketeers cloſing the proceſſion, with ſome beadles or conſtables, to keep off the populace, and preſerve the peace.

When theſe ſeveral bodies arrived at the place of the ſerpent, without entering the court, they proſtrated themſelves with their faces to the earth at the gate, clapping their hands, throwing duſt on their heads, and giving extraordinary ſhouts of joy. Mean time the men and women muſicians, ranged on each ſide, made a horrible noiſe, while the ſoldiers kept continually firing with their muſkets. The king's wives, who carried his preſents and thoſe of the queen-mother, waited, ranged in a line in the outer court, till that princeſs entered, and delivered theſe preſents to the grand ſacrificer. In doing this, ſhe was aſſiſted by the king's valet-de-chambre, the maſter of the ceremonies, and the three ladies of the palace, who were the only perſons admitted into the temple. This princeſs it ſeems, was not admitted to ſee the ſerpent, for that is a favour not even allowed to the king, who is not ſuffered to enter the firſt hall, but makes his addreſſes to the ſerpent by the mouth of the grand ſacrificer, who brings back ſuch anſwers as he thinks proper. After this, the proceſſion returned to Sabi with the ſame order and attendants that it ſet out with, from the palace.

We need not wonder, that the exalted character of a monarch of this country, after the obſcure manner in which he has been brought up, ſhould dictate to him the paths of eaſe and diſſipation; and that he ſhould enjoy a peculiar reliſh for thoſe pleaſures, with which, had he been progreſſively familiar, he would in all probability, have been ſatiated. He lives almoſt in a ſtate of indolence, ſeldom going abroad, and only attending his grandees occaſionally when they are aſſembled in the hall of audience for the adminiſtration of juſtice: all the reſt of his time is ſpent in the receſſes of the ſeraglio, attended by his wives. Theſe are exceeding numerous, and divided into three claſſes; the firſt conſiſts of the moſt beautiful among them, whoſe number is not limited. She who bears the firſt ſon is the chief, and is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by the name of queen, or, as they term it, the king's great wife. She has the ſole management of all affairs belonging to the ſeraglio; nor dare any perſon controul her, except the king's mother, whoſe authority is ſuperior to that of any other ſubject whatever. She has a ſeparate apartment, with a ſettled revenue for her ſupport; but ſhe is under this reſtriction, that ſhe muſt remain a widow during the reſt of her life. The ſecond claſs of the king's wives conſiſts of thoſe that have had children by him, but, either from age or other cauſes, are rendered incapable of contributing any farther to his future amuſements; there is no limited number of theſe. The third and laſt claſs conſiſts of thoſe who ſerve as ſlaves to the king, and his other wives; and though they are employed in theſe menial offices, yet it is death for them to leave the ſeraglio, without permiſſion from the king, or to have connexions with any other men.

The king is extremely jealous of his wives; ſo that ſhould a man meet one of them in the ſtreets, and only touch her by accident, ſhe is never permitted to enter the ſeraglio again, for both ſhe and the man are immediately ſold as ſlaves. If it appears there was any premeditated deſign in their touching each other, the woman is ſold, but the man is put to death, and all his effects confiſcated to the king. For this reaſon, ſuch as have occaſion to go to the palace, call out immediately in their entrance "Ago," which ſignifies, "Make way, retire, or take care;" when the women place themſelves on a range on one ſide, and the men walk as cloſe as they can on the other. In like manner, when the king's wives go to work in the fields, whoever meets them muſt inſtantly fall on their knees, and continue in that poſition till they have paſſed. But though the people are obliged to pay ſuch deference to the king's wives, yet his majeſty has very little reſpect for them himſelf; they attend him on all occaſions like ſervants, and inſtead of ſhewing any affection, he generally treats them with the moſt haughty contempt.

As the king conſiders his wives only as ſlaves, ſo on the moſt trifling occaſions, he will ſell a number of them to the Europeans; and even ſometimes, when ſhips are waiting on the coaſt for ſlaves, he will ſupply them with whatever number they want to complete their complement. The deficiencies are ſupplied by the aſſiduity of his captains, or governors of the ſeraglio, who go about the ſtreets, and ſeize ſuch girls as they think will be pleaſing to the king; and as they are the handſomeſt they can ſelect, his majeſty is ſometimes particularly attracted by their beauties. When this happens to be the caſe, the object that moſt ſtrikes his fancy is honoured with his company for two or three nights, after which ſhe is diſcarded, and obliged to paſs the remainder of her life in a ſtate of obſcurity; for which reaſon the women are ſo little deſirous of becoming wives to the king, that they would rather prefer a life of celibacy to that honour.

The palace of this monarch is magnificently furniſhed, and abounds with all the elegancies and luxuries of life. On all public occaſions he obſerves great ſtate; at which times he is dreſſed in ſilk and gold, and is attended by his principal officers, or thoſe who hold employments under him. No ſubject is permitted to ſee him, unleſs his buſineſs be of a peculiar and urgent nature, and he has obtained the royal permiſſion; in which caſe he is uſhered in by the high prieſt, before whom he muſt proſtrate himſelf, as well as to the king. Even his grandees (except when a general council is called) find ſome difficulty in obtaining an audience; and when they do, they muſt appear before him in the moſt humiliating form: they advance creeping to a certain diſtance, till the king, by clapping his hands ſoftly, gives them leave to ſpeak, which they do in a low tone, with their face almoſt to the ground, after which, they retire in the ſame manner in which they advanced. The captain of the ſeraglio, and the grand ſacrificer or high-prieſt, are the only perſons that are allowed to enter the ſeraglio without permiſſion firſt obtained from the king; but if they want to ſpeak to him, they muſt pay the ſame homage as any other ſubject.

The Europeans reſiding here are exempted from theſe ſlaviſh ceremonials, and are granted an audience whenever they deſire it. They always ſalute the king in the ſame manner as they would do an Engliſh nobleman; and he receives them with a diſtinguiſhed familiarity. He takes them by the hand, makes them ſit down, and drinks to them: if it be the firſt viſit, and the perſons be directors, or commanders of ſhips, they are generally ſaluted with five or ſeven guns, when they leave the palace. In the audience-chamber are two benches, one of which is broader than the other, covered with a cloth, and by it is an oval ſtool, whereon the king ſits during the conferences. The other bench is covered with mats, on which the Europeans ſit bareheaded, not by order, but from a voluntary deſire of ſhewing proper reſpect to the ſovereign, who entertains them in the beſt manner he is able during their ſtay, and endeavours to make his company as agreeable to them as poſſible. If they dine or ſup with him, the table is ſet out and ſerved with great elegance. While they are feaſting, the king's grandees proſtrate themſelves before him, and ſeem readily and cheerfully to accept what proviſions are left by the Europeans to be given them.

When

With reſpect to the king's revenues, they are very conſiderable; for, beſides what ariſes from his lands, he receives a duty on all commodities ſold in the markets, or imported in this country. His lands not only furniſh him with proviſions for his houſhold, but alſo for exportation, great quantities being annually ſold to the neighbouring nations. His property in this reſpect is not confined to the borders of Sabi alone, for his lands extend into ſeveral of the provinces. Theſe are under the cognizance of the governors, who take care of their being tilled, get in the harveſt, and, without the leaſt expence to the king, lay up the produce in the royal magazines.

One moiety of all the tolls and fines in the vice-royalties, becomes alſo the property of the king; but this is inconſiderable, from the iniquity of his collectors, who make ſuch depredations on their truſt, that ſcarcely one-fourth of it comes to his majeſty; though if any of them ſhould be detected, they are ſubject to be ſold, and their family and effects confiſcated to the king's uſe.

In Whidah, ſeveral fairs or markets are kept, not only for the ſale of ſlaves, but alſo for moſt other commodities. Two of theſe are kept weekly, one at Sabi, and the other in the province of Aplogua, both of which are reſorted to by prodigious numbers of merchants. But the moſt conſiderable market is kept about a mile from Sabi, and is held twice a week, that is, on Wedneſdays and Saturdays. The king's ſecond wives have liberty to go to theſe markets to ſell their clothes, and other trading articles, in the making of which thy chiefly employ their time.

Theſe markets are ſubject to great regulations; for when they are kept, a proper place is allowed for the ſale of every different commodity. In order to prevent diſorder and confuſion among the buyers and ſellers, the king appoints a judge or magiſtrate to attend, who, with four officers well armed, inſpect the markets, hear all complaints, and in a ſummary way decide all differences, having power to ſeize and ſell as ſlaves all who ſhall violate the peace. Beſides this magiſtrate, there is another appointed to inſpect the money, which is ealled Toqua, conſiſting of ſtrings of ſhells. to the number of forty; and the whole are forfeited to the king, if one of theſe ſtrings happen to be deficient of a ſingle ſhell.

Booths are erected round the markets: ſome of them are occupied by cooks or ſutlers, who ſell proviſions ready dreſſed, as beef, pork, goats fleſh, &c. others are for the ſale of rice, millet, maiz, and bread; and in ſome are ſold palm-wine, brandy, and pito, a kind of beer.

The principal commodities ſold at Whidah, are, ſlaves, oxen, ſheep, goats, poultry, and moſt kinds of fowls; monkies, and other animals; various ſorts of European cloth; linen, and woolen, printed callicoes, ſilks, grocery goods, china, gold in duſt or bars, iron in bars or wrought. The country manufactures, of this part of the coaſt, are Whidah cloth, mats, baſkets, jars, calabaſhes of various ſorts, wooden bowls and cups, palm-oil, ſalt, red and blue pepper, &c.

We ſhall here give an account of the trade in general on the Guiney coaſt, as it ſtood about the beginning of the preſent century.

"The African company, in its flouriſhing condition, gained annually to England nine hundred thouſand pounds, whoreof in teeth, camwood, wax, and gold, only one hundred thouſand pounds, and the reſt in ſlaves, which, in the infancy of their trade, were in very great demand over all the American plantations, to ſupply their own wants, and carry on a clandeſtine commerce with the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. On computation, Barbadoes wanted annually four thouſand negroes; Jamaica ten thouſand; Leeward Iſlands ſix thouſand; and becauſe the company could not ſupply this number, having only imported forty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ninety-ſix ſlaves, between the years 1680 and 1688, interlopers crept in, and contended for a ſhare. From this time the company viſibly decayed; inſomuch, that in eight following years they only imported to the Weſt Indies ſeventeen thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty ſlaves, and the ſeparate traders, in that time, ſeventy-one thouſand two hundred and ſixty-eight.

Finding their trade under great diſadvantages, (though private traders were obliged to pay them ten per cent.) they reſolved to make the beſt ſhare they could in this money, by leſſening their expences about the forts: they accordingly withdrew all ſupplies from the garriſon, leaving them to ſubſiſt by their own management, or ſtarve; Charles fort, at the mouth of the river Gambia, haying only twelve men, was taken by a privateer of eight guns in 1709. Sierra Leona had but thirteen men; Sherbro four; and theſe were not any charge to the company, being poſſeſſed by ſuch, as having a long time reſided in that ſervice, by help of thoſe fortifications, were capable of doing ſomething for themſelves; and ſo the private traders, by degrees, got entirely quit of this duty, the reaſon in a manner ceaſing for which it was firſt impoſed.

About the year 1719, their affairs ſeemed to revive again, under the auſpices of the duke of Chandois, who became a very great proprietor in their ſtock, and promiſed, from his figure and intereſt, a renewal of their privileges: more ſhips were employed than for many years paſt; but whether it were their too large expence, or curruption of their chief officers, who too often in companies think they are ſent abroad purely for their own ſervice, they ſoon felt, that, without a ſeparate act, they were incapable of contending with private traders; they applied to parliament for relief, but inſtead of finding any, were diſſolved, and a new company erected, by act of parliament.

The favourers of companies ſuggeſt, that if that trade be allowed, it ſeems better for the public, that ſome rich and powerful ſet of men ſhould have excluſive powers to encourage and enable them to maintain forts and garriſons, to awe the natives, and preſerve the trade from being engroſſed by our dangerous rivals; for here the French and Dutch, as we relinquiſh any place, ſeize it and thereby obtain an opportunity of fixing what price they pleaſe upon any goods imported from thence.

We now proceed to our method of trade. Private trading ſhips bring two or three boats with them upon this coaſt for diſpatch; and while the mates go away them, with a proper parcel of goods and inſtructions, into the rivers and bye-places, the ſhip is making good her trade at others near hand.

The ſucceſs of a voyage depends, firſt, on the well ſorting, and on the timeing of a cargo. Secondly, in a knowledge of the places of trade, what, and how much may be expected every where. Thirdly, in dramming well with Engliſh ſpirits, and conforming to the humours of the negroes. Fourthly, in timely furniſhing proper food for the ſlaves. Fifthly, in diſpatch; and, Laſtly, in the good order and management of ſlaves when on board; of each a word or two.

Firſt on the timeing of a cargo: this depends, at ſeveral places, much upon contigencies, from the fanciful and various humours of the negroes, who make great demands one voyage for a commodity, that, perhaps, they reject next, and is in part to be remedied, either by making the things they itch after to paſs off thoſe they have not ſo much mind to, or by ſuch a continual traffic and correſpondence on the coaſt, as may furniſh the owner, from time to time, with quick intelligence, to be done only by great merchants, who can keep employed a number of ſhips: that like a thread unites them in a knowledge of their demands, and a readier ſupply for them, as well as diſpatch for their maſter's intereſts, by putting the purchaſe of two or three ſhips into one. Mr. Humphry Morrice was formerly the greateſt private trader in this way; and, unleſs providence had fixed a curſe upon it, he muſt have gained exceedingly.

Secondly, of the ſorting: this may be obſerved in general that the windward, and leeward parts of the coaſt are as oppoſite in their demands as is their diſtance. Iron-bars, which are not aſked for to leeward, are a ſubſtantial part of the windward cargoes: cryſtals, corals, and braſs-mounted cutlaſſes, are almoſt peculiar to the windward coaſt; as are braſs-pans, from Rio Seſtos to Apolionia; cowries (or bougies) at Whidah; copper and iron-bars at Calabar; but arms, gunpowder, tallow, old ſheets, cottons of all the various denominations, and Engliſh ſpirits are every where called for: ſealing wax and pipes are neceſſary in ſmall quantities; they ſerve for daſhees (preſents) and are a ready purchaſe for fiſh, a goat, a kid, or a fowl.

Many places on the African coaſt are rendered dangerous, from the tricks and panyarrs the traders have firſt practiſed upon the negroes; a mutual jealouſy now keeping each ſide very watchful againſt violence. When we trade on board the ſhip, we keep our ſailors in cloſe quarters abaft; and at night we keep a good watch, ſome negroes, attempting now and then to ſteal with their canoes athwart our hawſe, and cut the cable. They ſtranded Captain Cummins, at Whidah, in 1734. They are as often diffident of coming nigh us, and will ply for hours together, in their canoes about the ſhip, before they dare venture.

In this winding part, it has been obſerved, they have a ſuperſtitious cuſtom of dropping with their finger a drop

of ſea-water into their eye, and are pleaſed when anſwered in the ſame manner. This paſſes for an engagement of peace and ſecurity: and yet, after all this ceremony, they will ſometimes return to ſhore; if hardy enough to come on board, they appear all the time ſhy and frightened, and from the leaſt appearance of a panyarr, jump all overboard.

Downwards to Baſſam, Aſſince, Jaquela, cape le Hou, Jaque, Jaques, cape Apollonia, and Three Points, or where they have gained a knowledge of the Engliſh factories, there is a better underſtanding and ſecurity. Theſe are places that ſell off a number of ſlaves, managed, however, wholly on board the ſhips which anchor before the town, hoiſt their enſign, and fire a gun; or when the natives ſeem timorous, do it by their boats caſting along the beach, and pay at ſome of them a ſmall duty to the chief cabiccers.

When a ſhip has gathered up all this trade, ſhe makes up the deficiency of her freight at Anamaboe, three leagues below cape Corſo, where they conſtantly ſtop, and are ſometimes two or three months in finiſhing. It is a place of very conſiderable trade itſelf; and beſides, the company have a houſe and factor, keeping always a number of ſlaves againſt thoſe demands of the interlopers, who they are ſenſible want diſpatch, and therefore make them pay a higher price than any where on the whole coaſt, ſelling at ſix ounces and half a ſlave (in exchange for goods) though the poor creatures look as meagre and thin as their writers.

Thirdly, giving way to the ridiculous humours and geſtures of the trading negro, is no ſmall artifice for ſucceſs. If you look ſtrange and are niggardly of your drams, you frighten him; Sambo is gone, he never cares to treat with dry lips; and as the expence is in Engliſh ſpirits, of two ſhillings a gallon, brought partly for that purpoſe, the good humour it brings them into, is found diſcounted in the ſale of the goods.

Another article is, the wholeſome victualling and management of ſlaves on board. The common, cheapeſt, and moſt commodious diet is vegetables, horſe-beans, rice, Indian corn, and farine, or flour; the former, ſhips bring with them out of England; rice they meet to windward about Seſtos; Indian corn at Montford, Anamaboe, &c. and further ſupplies of them, or farine, at the iſlands of St. Thomas and Princes, maſters governing themſelves in purchaſing, according to the courſe they deſign to ſteer. This food is accounted more ſalutary to ſlaves, and nearer to their accuſtomed way of feeding than ſalt fiſh. One or other is boiled on board at conſtant times twice a day into a dab-a-dab (ſometimes with meat in it) and have an overſeer, with a cat-of-nine-tails, to force it upon thoſe that are ſullen and refuſe to eat it.

When there was that great trade for ſlaves at Whidah, the commanders, with their ſurgeons, always attended on ſhore, where they purchaſed them, in what they called a fair and open market. The mates kept on board, receiving from time to time their maſter's directions, as to the goods wanted, and to prepare the ſhip for the reception and ſecurity of the ſlaves ſent him: where this is a rule always obſerved, to keep the males always a-part from the women and children, to handcuff the former (Briſtol ſhips triple ſuch as are ſturdy with chains round their necks); and to keep your own men ſober, and on a barricaded quarter-deck; though the natural cowardice of theſe creatures, and no other proſpect upon riſing, but falling into the hands of the ſame ſort of rogues that ſold them, very much leſſens the danger: nevertheleſs it is adviſeable, at all times to have a diligent watch on their actions, yet (bating their fetters) to treat them with all gentleneſs and civility.

The bulk of them are country people, ſtupid in proportion to their diſtance from the converſe of the coaſt negroes; eat all day, if victuals is before them, or if not, let it alone without complaint; part without tears with their wives, children, and country, and are more affected with pain than death: yet in this indocile ſtate the women retain a modeſty; for though ſtripped of that poor clout which covers their privities (as we know the Whidahs generally do) they will keep ſquatted all day long on board, to hide them.

Whidah ſlaves are more ſubject to the ſmall pox and ſore eyes; other parts to a ſleepy diſtemper; and to windward exomphalos's. There are few inſtances of deformity any where; even their nobles know nothing of chronical diſtempers, nor their ladies of the vapours. Their flattiſh noſes are owing to a continual grubbing in their infancy againſt their mother's backs, being tied within the tomee, whether upon travel, or buſineſs, for a year or two, the time of their ſucking.

When we are ſlaved, ſays our author; and out at ſea, it is commonly imagined the negroes ignorance of navigation, will always be a ſafeguard; yet, as many of them think themſelves bought to eat; and more, that death will ſend them into their own country, there has not been wanting examples of riſing and killing a ſhip's company diſtant from land, though not ſo often as on the coaſt; but once or twice is enough to ſhew, a maſter's care and diligence ſhould never be over till the delivery of them. Some negroes know well enough, that their preſerving one white man may anſwer their purpoſe in an exchange: however, generally ſpeaking, we allow greater liberty in our paſſage; as conducive to their health, we let them go at large on the ſhip's deck, from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet; give ſuch as like it pipes and tobacco, and clean and air their dormitories every day.

Slaves differ in their goodneſs: thoſe from the Gold coaſt are accounted beſt, being cleaneſt limbed, and more docile by our ſettlements than others: but then they are for that very reaſon more prompt to revenge, and murder the inſtruments of their ſlavery, and alſo apter in the means to compaſs it.

To windward, they approach in goodneſs, as is the diſtance from the Gold coaſt; ſo as at Gambia, or Sierra Leona, to be much better than at any of the interjacent places.

To leeward from thence, they alter gradually for the worſe: an Angolan negro is a proverb for worthleſſneſs, and they mend (if we may ſo call it) in that way, till you come to the Hottentots, that is to the ſouthernmoſt extremity of Africa.

We have obſerved how our trading is managed by ſlaves, when obliged to be carried on aboard the ſhip. Where there are factories (as at Gambia, Sierra Leona, the Gold coaſt, Whidah, Calabar, Cabenda, and Angola) we are more at large; they are ſold in open market on ſhore, and are examined by us in like manner as our brother trade do beaſts in Smithfield; the countenance and ſtature, a good ſet of teeth, pliancy in their limbs and joints, and being free of venereal taint, are the things inſpected, and governs our choice in buying."

Before we conclude this account of the ſlave-trade, we ſhall give ſome further particulars relative to the unhappy ſituation of theſe wretches while on board the veſſels, which is truly deplorable: they are all put in irons two by two, ſhackled together, to prevent their mutinying or ſwimming aſhore. Such is the horror of their minds at the thoughts of leaving their own country, that they frequently leap out of the canoe, boat, or ſhip, into the ſea, and keep under water till they are drowned, to avoid being taken up and ſaved by their purſuers. Captain Philips, who was commander of a Liverpool ſlave ſhip to the coaſt of Guiney, after narrating the ſhocking ſufferings of a great number of negroes, who were chained and confined on board a ſmall ſhip, and the horrid barbarities exerciſed on ſome of them for a conſpiracy to murder the crew, and recover their liberty; makes this reflection: "Will not Chriſtianity bluſh at this impious ſacrilege! May the relation of it ſerve to call back the ſtruggling remains of humanity in the hearts of thoſe, who, from a love of wealth, partake in any degree of this oppreſſive gain; and have ſuch an effect on the minds of the ſincere, as may be productive of peace, the happy effect of true repentance for paſt tranſgreſſions, and a reſolution to renounce all connection with it for the time to come!"

Among other of the dreadful conſequences ariſing from this diabolical traffic, we ſhall only take notice of the following memorable, but tragical event, which happened a few years ago on board a ſhip from Liverpool, then lying at anchor about three miles from ſhore, near Acra fort. They had purchaſed between four and five hundred negroes, and were ready to ſail for the Weſt-Indies. The men were ſhackled two and two, each by one leg, to a ſmall iron bar; theſe were every day brought on the deck for the benefit of the air, and leſt they ſhould attempt to recover their freedom, they were made faſt to two common chains, which were extended on each ſide the main deck; the women and children were looſe. Such was the ſituation of the ſlaves on board this veſſel when it took fire from the careleſſneſs of a perſon who was drawing ſpirits by the light of a lamp; the caſk burſting, the fire ſpread with ſuch violence, that in about ten minutes the ſailors apprehending it impoſſible to extinguiſh it before it would reach a large quantity of powder they had on board, concluded it neceſſary to throw themſelves into the ſea, as the only means

means of ſaving their lives. However, they firſt endeavoured to looſe the chains by which the negromen were faſtened to the deck, but in the confuſion, the key being miſſing, they had but juſt time to looſe one of the chains by wrenching the ſtaple, when the vehemence of the fire ſo increaſed, that they all but one man jumped overboard when immediately the fire having gained the powder, the veſſel blew up with all the ſlaves who remained faſtened to the one chain, and ſuch others as had not followed the ſailors examples. There happened to be three Portugueſe veſſels in ſight, who, with others from the ſhore, putting out their boats, took up about two hundred and fifty of thoſe poor ſouls who remained alive, of which number about fifty died on ſhore, being moſtly of thoſe who were fettered together by iron ſhackles, which as they jumped into the ſea, had broke their legs; and theſe fractures, being inflamed by the violence of their ſtruggling, mortified, and occaſioned their deaths. Thoſe who remained alive were ſoon diſpoſed of to other purchaſers, for the benefit of the owners.

The Europeans pay for the ſlaves in gold duſt, but the payments for other commodities are in ſtrings of cowries, which, as we obſerved above, contain each forty in number. Five of theſe ſtrings make what the natives call a fore; and fifty fores make an alkove, which weighs about ſixty pounds.

As the negro traders bring their gold from diſtant places, ſo they do the ſlaves they furniſh us with, many of which are captives taken in war by the negro kings; and having agreed with the European merchants for the price of the goods they are to take in exchange, a ſhip is ſoon diſpatched, if they deal fairly; but if a merchant delivers his goods before he has his ſlaves, they will ſometimes make him wait a great while, and, perhaps, put hard conditions upon him. It is computed, by travellers, that about forty years ago there were annually exported from the whole coaſt of Guiney, ſeventy thouſand ſlaves and upwards, by the Engliſh, Dutch and Portugueſe; but the country where the greateſt number of ſlaves were purchaſed, till of late years, was the kingdom of Whidah, or Fida, for that reaſon uſually called the Slave coaſt.

The revenues ariſing from the ſlave trade are very conſiderable, the king receiving three rix-dollars for every ſlave ſold in his dominions. Every European veſſel alſo pays him a pecuniary duty, excluſive of preſents, which they make to the king for the liberty of trading, and his protection.

SECT. VI.

Treating of the Revolution in the Kingdom of WHIDAH, by the Conqueſt of it, and that of ARDRAH, by the King of DAHOME.

WE ſhall now give a relation of the conqueſt of the kingdom of Whidah by the king of Dahome, and the revolution that happened there in the year 1726.

Sabi, the chief town in the kingdom of Whidah, is ſituated about ſeven miles from the ſea-ſide. In this town the king allowed the Europeans convenient houſes for their factories, and by him we were protected in our perſons and goods, and when our buſineſs was finiſhed, were permitted to go away in ſafety. The road where ſhips anchored, was a free port for all European nations trading to thoſe parts for negroes. And this trade was ſo very conſiderable, that it is computed, while it was in a flouriſhing ſtate, there were above twenty thouſand negroes yearly exported.

The land was well ſtocked with people, the whole country appeared full of towns and villages; and being a very rich ſoil, and well cultivated by the inhabitants, it looked like a garden. Trade having flouriſhed for a long time, had greatly enriched the people, which, with the fertility of their country, had unhappily made them ſo proud, effeminate, and luxurious, that though they could have brought at leaſt one hundred thouſand men into the field, yet ſo great were their fears, that they were driven out of their principal city by two hundred of their enemies, and at laſt loſt their whole country to a nation they formerly contemned.

The king of Dahome, a far inland prince, who for ſome years paſt had rendered himſelf famous by many victories gained over his neighbours, ſent an ambaſſador to the king of Whidah, requeſting to have an open traffic to the ſea-ſide, and offering to pay his uſual cuſtoms on negroes exported, which being refuſed, he reſented the affront, and invaded Ardrah, the moſt northern province of the kingdom of Whidah, of which a great lord, named Appragah, was hereditary governor, who forthwith ſent to the king for his aſſiſtance: but through the intereſt of his enemies at court, who wiſhed his deſtruction, he was refuſed; ſo having made a little reſiſtance, he ſubmitted to the king of Dahome, who received him with every demonſtration of kindneſs.

The conqueſt of Ardrah gave the king an eaſy entrance into the heart of the country, but he was obliged to halt there by a river, which was about half a mile to the northward of the principal town of the Whidahs, called Sabi, the reſidence of their king. Here the king of Dahome encamped for ſome time, not imagining he could have found ſo eaſy a paſſage and conqueſt as he met with afterwards. For the paſs of the river was of that nature, it might have been defended againſt his whole army by five hundred reſolute men; but inſtead of guarding it, theſe cowardly luxurious people, thinking the fame of their numbers ſufficient to deter the Dahomes from attempting it, kept no ſet guard. They only went every morning and evening to the river ſide to make ſetiſh, as they call it; that is, to offer ſacrifice to their principal god, which was a particular harmleſs ſnake they adored, and prayed to on this occaſion, to keep their enemies from croſſing the river.

In the mean time the king of Dahome, ſent to the Europeans, then reſiding at Whidah, to aſſure them, if they ſtood neuter, and were not found in arms, they ſhould receive no damage in their perſons or goods, in caſe he proved conqueror; and he would eaſe their trade, and remove divers impoſitions laid on it by the king of Whidah: on the contrary, if they appeared againſt him, they muſt expect his reſentment. They would gladly have retired from Sabi to two mud-walled forts, belonging to the Engliſh and French African companies, which are within three miles of the ſea ſide; but finding it would have been reſented by the king of Whidah, as a diſcouragement to his people, they were obliged to remain in the town, never ſuſpecting the inhabitants would have run away in that cowardly manner they did, or that they ſhould ſhare the fate of war with them.

The paſs of the river being left wholly to the care of the ſnakes, whom the enemy little feared, and they having obſerved for ſeveral days, that the Whidahs kept no ſet guard there, it encouraged the king of Dahome's general to ſend two hundred of his ſolders to ford the river; which having done without oppoſition, and being bold fellows, they marched towards the town of Sabi, ſounding their muſical inſtruments. This was about three o'clock in the afternoon, and the out-guards of the town were almoſt all aſleep; but being rouſed by the noiſe of the enemies muſic, and ſhouts, they fled into the town, reporting that all the Dahome army was got over the river, which ſoon reaching the king's ear, he immediately fled with all his people, making no reſiſtance. The white people, then in the Engliſh and French forts, affirmed that about five o'clock the ſame afternoon, they ſaw ſuch numbers of people flying from all parts of the country, towards the ſea-ſide, that it was very ſurprizing: for the fields were covered with them many miles round, and their black colour made them the more conſpicuous in a clear ſun ſhining day, on a fine, flat, champaign country. The king, with a great number of his ſubjects, fled to an iſland on the ſea-coaſt, which was parted from the main land by a river, having ferried over in canoes; but a great many that could not have the ſame benefit, being hurried on by their fears, were drowned in the rivers, in attempting to ſwim to the iſland lying near Popo, which was the next country to their own on the ſea coaſt to the weſtward, and where they might have been ſecure from their enemies. Many thouſands of theſe poor people, that ſheltered themſelves up and down the country, among the buſhes, periſhed afterwards by ſword and famine.

But to return to the Dahome ſoldiers: when they firſt came to Sabi, it ſeems they marched directly to the king's court, where, not finding him they ſet it on fire, and then ſent their general word what had happened, who brought the whole army over the river that evening. He was in ſuch ſurprize at his good fortune, that he could hardly believe what he ſaw; and the white gentlemen were as much amazed to ſee the great cowardice of theſe people, who had vapoured ſo highly, and as ignominiouſly quitted the town, without oppoſing their enemies in the leaſt, leaving them entirely in the power of the conquerors, with all their riches. The day after the taking the town of Sabi, the white men taken priſoners were ſent into the country to the king of Dahome, who then lay encamped with another

their army, about forty miles off in the kingdom of Ardrah; ſome hammocks being provided for the principal white people, which is the uſual way of travelling in this country for gentlemen, either white or black.

Some few days after their arrival in the king of Dahome's camp, the Europeans were ſet at liberty, and ſuffered to return to the Engliſh and French forts, the principal gentlemen being preſented with ſlaves; and the king aſſured them, as ſoon as his affairs were ſettled, he ſhould encourage trade, and have a particular regard to their intereſts.

Captain Snelgrave relates, that he arrived at Whidah in the latter end of March 1726-7, about three weeks after this conqueſt, and found that fine country, lately exceeding populous now deſtroyed by fire and ſword; that the ſlaughter of the inhabitants was a moſt moving ſpectacle, the fields being in a manner covered with their carcaſſes.

From the road of Whidah, the captain ſailed to Jaqueen, a port about ſeven leagues to the eaſtward of it; this people having ſubmitted to the king of Dahome, and were then under his protection.

The king of Dahome, hearing of captain Snelgrave's arrival on the coaſt, with an intent to trade, invited him to his camp, which then lay about forty miles up the country, whither the captain went, being furniſhed with horſes, hammocks, ſervants, and all manner of accommodations for his journey. The day after his arrival at the camp, he had an audience of his negro majeſty, of which the captain gives the following account, (viz.) "The king was in a large court, paliſadoed round, ſitting (contrary to the cuſtom of the country) on a fine gilt chair, which he had taken from the king of Whidah. There were held over his head, by women, three large umbrellas, to ſhade him from the ſun, and four other women ſtood behind the chair of ſtate with fuſees on their ſhoulders. It was obſerved that the women were finely dreſſed from the middle downward (the cuſtom of the country being, not to cover the body upwards of either ſex). Moreover, they had on their arms many large manelloes or rings of gold, of great value, and round their necks, and in their hair, abundance of their country jewels, which are a ſort of beads of divers colours, brought from a large inland country, where they are dug out of the earth, and are held in the ſame eſteem by the negroes, as diamonds among the Europeans.

"The king had a gown on, flowered with gold, which reached as low as his ancles, an European embroidered hat on his head, with ſandals on his feet. We being brought within ten yards of the chiar of ſtate, we paid his majeſty the reſpect of our hats, bowing our heads at the ſame time very low, as the interpreter directed us. Then I ordered the linguiſt to acquaint the king, 'That on his majeſty's ſending to deſire me to come up the his camp, I forthwith reſolved on the journey, that I might have the pleaſure of ſeeing ſo great and good a king as I heard he was, relying entirely on the promiſes his meſſenger had made me in his majeſty's name.' The king ſeemed well pleaſed with what I ſaid, and aſſured us of his protection and kind uſage. Then chairs being brought, we were deſired to ſit down, and the king drank our healths, and then liquor being brought us by his order, we drank his majeſty's. After this, the interpreter told us, "It was the king's deſire we ſhould ſtay ſome time with him, to ſee the method of paying the ſoldiers for captives taken in war, and the heads of the ſlain.

"It ſo happened, that in the evening of the day we came into the camp, there were brought above eighteen hundred captives, from a country called Tuffo, at the diſtance of ſix days journey.

"The king, at the time we were preſent, ordered the captives of Tuffo to be brought into the court; which being accordingly done, he choſe himſelf a great number out of them to be ſacrificed to his fetiſh, or guardian angel; the others being kept for ſlaves for his own uſe, or to be ſold to the Europeans. There were proper officers who received the captives from the ſoldiers hands, and paid them the value of twenty ſhillings ſterling for every man, in cowries (which is a ſhell brought from the Eaſt Indies, and carried in large quantities to Whidah by the Europeans, being the current money of all the neighbouring countries far and near) and ten ſhillings for a woman, boy, or girl. There were likewiſe brought by the ſoldiers ſome thouſands of dead people's heads into the court; every ſoldier, as he has ſucceſs, bringing in his hand one, two, three, or more heads hanging in a ſtring; and as the proper officers received them, they paid the ſoldiers five ſhillings for each head: then ſeveral people carried them away in order to be thrown on a great heap of other heads that lay near the camp, the linguiſt telling us, his majeſty deſigns to build a monument with them, and the heads of other enemies formerly conquered and killed."

The captain afterwards went to ſee the manner of ſacrificing their enemies. "Our guard, ſays he, made way for us through the crowd, till we came near four ſmall ſtages, which were erected five feet from the ground: we ſtood cloſe to them, and obſerved the ceremony, which was performed in the following manner:

"The firſt victim we ſaw was brought to the ſide of the ſtage: it was a comely old man, between fifty and ſixty years of age; his hands were tied behind him, and in his behaviour he ſhewed a brave and undaunted mind, nothing like fear appearing in him. As he ſtood upright by the ſtage, a fetiſher, or prieſt, laid his hand on his head, ſaying ſome words of conſecration, which laſted about two minutes: then he gave the ſign of execution to a man that ſtood behind the victim, who, with a broad ſword, immediately ſtruck him on the neck with ſuch force, that the head was ſevered at one blow from the body: whereupon the rabble gave a great ſhout. The head was caſt on the ſtage, and the body, after having lain a little while on the ground, that the blood might drain from it, was carried away by ſlaves, and thrown into a place adjoining to the camp. The linguiſt told us, the head of the victim was for the king, the blood for the fetiſh, or god, and the body for the common people. We ſaw many other perſons ſacrificed in this lamentable manner, and obſerved, that the men went to the ſide of the ſtages bold and unconcerned; but the cries of the poor women and children were very moving. 'I told an officer,' I wondered they ſhould ſacrifice ſo many people, of whom they might otherwiſe make good advantage by ſelling them.' He replied, 'It had ever been the cuſtom of their nation, after any conqueſt, to offer to their god a certain number of captives, which were always choſe out from among the priſoners by the king himſelf; for they firmly believed, ſhould this be omitted, no more ſucceſs would attend them: and he argued for the neceſſity and uſefulneſs of their doing it, from the large conqueſts they had made within a few years, without any defeat.' Then I aſked him, 'Why ſo many old men were ſacrificed in particular?' He anſwered, 'It was beſt to put them to death; for being grown wiſe by their age and long experience, if they were preſerved, they would be ever plotting againſt their maſters, and ſo diſturb their country; for they never would be eaſy under ſlavery, having been the chief men in their own land: moreover, if they ſhould be ſpared, no European would buy them on account of their age.' I then obſerved to him, 'That I had ſeen ſeveral handſome young people ſacrificed, who I was ſure the Europeans would gladly have bought.' He replied, 'They were deſigned to attend, in the other world the king's wives, whom the Tuffoes, their countrymen, had ſlain.' In the evening (ſays our author,) we paſſed by the place where the ſacrificed bodies were thrown; there were two heaps of them, conſiſting of four hundred perſons, who had been choſen out by the king that very morning." But to proceed:

Whidah being thus completely conquered by the king of Dahome, he has preſerved the authority he then attained, ever ſince. It is at this time conſidered only as a province, and its king as a tributary prince, though the inhabitants are under the ſame laws and government as before it was conquered, and alſo poſſeſs the ſame indulgences in religious matters.

Sabi, the capital of Whidah, is very ſmall in compariſon to what it was before its being reduced to aſhes by the king of Dahome. At that time it was at leaſt four miles in circumference. The houſes were neatly built, and the ſtreets were long, ſpacious, and uniformly diſpoſed. The houſes belonging to the factors were built in the European taſte, and contained many neat and commodious apartments: on the firſt floor of each was a ſpacious hall, with an elegant balcony in front; and beneath on the ground-floor, were warehouſes for the ſtowing and preſervation of their goods. The town was ſo exceeding populous, that notwithſtanding the breadth of the ſtreets, it was ſometimes a difficulty to paſs them. Markets were daily held in different parts of the city, where various ſorts of European as well as African commodities were expoſed to public ſale, as alſo abundance of all kinds of proviſions. Near the European factories was a ſpacious place ornamented with lofty and beautiful trees, under which the merchants and governors of the forts every day aſſembled to tranſact buſineſs. But there is not now a ſingle rem-

nant left of the magnificence and ſplendor that once graced this populous city, ſince all theſe fine places were deſtroyed by the king of Dahome's army.

There is a ſmall town called Whidah, ſituated about four miles to the ſouth of Sabi; the Europeans generally land at this place when they come to trade on the Slave coaſt. Here the Engliſh have a large fort, called fort William, conſiſting of four ſtrong batteries, on which are mounted ſeventeen pieces of cannon. At a ſmall diſtance from this is another belonging to the French, which is encompaſſed by a thick mud wall, as is alſo that belonging to the Engliſh. It would be a difficult matter for an enemy to ſurprize theſe two forts without alarming the garriſon, as there is a deep and broad ditch to each of them, at ſome diſtance from the wall.

SECT. VII.

Of the Boundaries and Extent, Produce, Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, Religion, Laws, &c. of the Kingdom of ARDRAH; alſo an Account of the Kingdom of DAHOME, its Climate, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

THE kingdom of Ardrah, or Arder, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Benin; on the weſt, by that of Whidah; and on the ſouth, by the gulf of Guiney; but how far it extends northward, and what country it borders upon that way, is not known. It is very narrow towards the ſea, but widens conſiderably, and is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Great and Little Ardrah. It lies in three degrees five minutes eaſt longitude, and five degrees north latitude.

This kingdom is not ſo conſiderable as that of Whidah, but is very populous and contains many good towns and villages. The country in general is very flat, and being well watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers in different parts of it, the ſoil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of Indian wheat, millet, yams, potatoes, as alſo ſeveral kinds of fruits; particularly pine-apples, bananas, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and lemons.

The manners, cuſtoms, religion, &c. of the inhabitants of this kingdom differ little from thoſe of Whidah. The dreſs of themen conſiſts of ſeveral cloths, the manufacture of the country, wound round the waiſt, and faſtened with a girdle: but the better ſort wear two ſhort petticoats, made of taffety, or other ſilk, and have ſilk ſcarfs in the form of ſhoulder-belts. They moſtly go with their heads and feet bare, though they are permitted to wear ſandals, and hats or bonnets, except in the king's preſence. The women of rank alſo wear petticoats and ſcarfs, but, like the men, they have not any covering either to their heads or feet. The poorer ſort have only ſhort cloths tied about their waiſt, the other parts of their body being intirely naked. Both ſexes are exceeding cleanly in their perſons, waſhing their bodies every morning and evening in pure water, and anointing themſelves with civet, or ſome perfume of an aromatic flavour.

Rice, pulſe, herbs, and roots, with beef, mutton, and dog's fleſh is their common food: their ordinary drink is the beer called pito, which they generally mix with water: palm-wine is the drink of the better ſort.

Fiſhing, boiling of ſalt, and trading, are the employment of thoſe who live near the ſea-ſide; but the inland inhabitants dedicate their time to the breeding of cattle, and the cultivation of their lands.

Theſe people are in general exceeding illiterate; few of them can either read or write; for which reaſon, in buying and ſelling of goods, they make uſe of cords tied in knots, each of which has a particular ſignification known only to themſelves, and thoſe who are accuſtomed to deal with them. Some few of the richer ſort underſtand the Portugueſe tongue, which they not only ſpeak fluently, but alſo read and write with great accuracy and propriety.

They allow polygamy here as at Whidah, every man being allowed to take as many wives as he thinks proper. As no difference is paid to birth or fortune, the pooreſt man has liberty to pay his addreſſes to a woman of the greateſt quality; but if ſhe rejects him on the firſt viſit, he is not allowed to make a ſecond. Little ceremony is uſed in their marriages, the chief thing conſiſting in the mutual conſent of the parties, and their reſpective parents: when this is obtained, the bridegroom preſents his bride with a callico paan, and invites all her relations, and his own, to an entertainment: when he declares to the company, that he takes the woman for his wife, and this public acknowledgment conſtitutes the marriage.

Men of condition marry girls at ten or twelve years of age, but they do not conſummate the marriage till they have kept them ſeveral years in the character of ſervants: when the time is fixed for cohabiting, they preſent their brides with a piece of cloth, or a ſhort frock, and the relations of both parties are invited to an elegent entertainment.

In burying their dead, they uſe nearly the ſame ceremonies as thoſe practiſed at Whidah, except in this particular, that they generally bury the deceaſed in a vault under the houſe he inhabited in his life-time; the king is the chief perſon exempted from this cuſtom; he is buried in ſome place remote from the palace; and many unhappy ſlaves are ſacrificed at his interment.

The religion of the people pretty much reſembles that of their neighbours in Whidah, only they do not worſhip the ſerpent; on the contrary, they not only kill them, but are exceedingly fond of their fleſh. Though they are ſuch groſs idolaters, they acknowledge one ſupreme Being, who, they believe, appoints the time when every perſon ſhall come into, or go out of the world; notwithſtanding which, they tremble at the very mention of death, and are greatly alarmed at ſickneſs.

If a perſon is taken ill, he ſends for a prieſt, who immediately goes to him, and ſacrifices ſome animal for the recovery of his health. The prieſt rubs the patient's fetiſh with the blood, but throws away the fleſh of the animal.

The high-prieſt appoints the fetiſhes belonging to the king and court: theſe are birds of a black hue, not unlike the crows in England; prodigious numbers of them are kept in the gardens of the palace, and it is equally criminal to pay diſreſpect to them here, as it is to the grand ſerpent at Whidah. The common people's fetiſhes conſiſt of a particular ſtone, a piece of wood, or ſome other inanimate ſubſtance, which they always keep hid in their houſe under an earthen pot: once in every ſix months they make an offering to the prieſt in honour of their fetiſh, at the ſame time aſking the idol ſeveral queſtions relative to their future welfare. If the prieſt thinks the offering too inſignificant, he tells the people that the fetiſh does not like it, and will not anſwer his queſtions till he has one to pleaſe him. On this the perſon enlarges his offering, and then the anſwers are delivered by the prieſt in a low voice, which the ſuperſtitious blacks imagine to be effected by ſome ſecret impulſe of the fetiſh. The oracle thus delivered, the prieſt covers the idol with the pot, and ſprinkles it either with beer or meal. The like is done to every perſon preſent on this occaſion.

The people conſider the prieſts in general in the moſt reſpectable light; but the great marabout, or high-prieſt, is perfectly adored by them. They imagine him to be an infallible diviner, and that he can foretel things by converſing with an awkward image, which he keeps in his hall of audience, where he receives viſits from his credulous devotees. This image is painted white, and repreſents a child, which the marabout tells them can communicate to him ſuch circumſtances as ſhall ariſe from their future conduct. When they go to conſult the marabout, they preſent him with the beſt offering their circumſtances will afford; and the intelligence of their future ſucceſs or misfortunes is principally directed in proportion to it.

As to their laws, whoever diſobeys the king's commands is beheaded, and his wives and children become the king's ſlaves. Inſolvent debtors are left to the mercy of their creditors, who have liberty to pay themſelves by ſelling them for ſlaves. The ſame puniſhment is alſo inflicted on him who has debauched another man's wife. The ſame puniſhments as at Whidah are inflicted on women convicted of adultery, and other crimes.

Aſſem is the moſt diſtinguiſhed place in Ardrah; but the Europeans call it Great Ardrah. It is the capital of the kingdom, and is ſituated about ſixteen leagues inland to the north-weſt from Little Ardrah, a ſpacious road leading from the one to the other. It is encompaſſed with four walls of earth, which are very lofty and ſubſtantial: each wall has a large and deep ditch, but they are all within, and over them are wooden bridges. The houſes are in general well built, and the ſtreets regularly formed. The king's palace is a ſpacious edifice, though greatly inferior to the original building, which the king of Dahome deſtroyed in the year 1726. At that time the palace conſiſted of many large courts intirely ſurrounded with porticoes, above which were apartments that had ſmall windows. Some of the floors of theſe apartments were covered with mats, and others with large Turky carpets, and the furniture conſiſted of eaſy chairs, cabinets, and porcelain brought from China. There was not any glaſs

in the windows, but only frames of white linen, and taffety curtains. The gardens belonging to it were very extenſive, and laid out in long viſtas of thick and lofty trees, which afforded a cool and ſhady retreat when the ſun was intenſely hot. The preſent palace, however, is far from being contemptible.

The king's court is kept with great ſplendor, though his majeſty, like the ſovereign of Whidah, is dependent on the king of Dahome. He ſeldom goes abroad, and when he does, it is in ſo private a manner, that few of his ſubjects ſee him. He keeps a great number of women, with whom his time is chiefly employed; the principal of theſe has the title of queen; with this prerogative, that ſhe has the liberty to ſell ſome of his other wives to ſupply her wants, in caſe his majeſty denies her any thing ſhe has occaſion for.

No perſon whatever eats in company with the king; and when he drinks, an officer makes a ſignal, by ſtriking two ſmall rods of iron together, in order that all who are within ſight may turn away, and not look at his majeſty; for it is a capital offence for any one to ſee him drink, and is puniſhed with death. An inſtance of this was once ſeen in an infant, who being aſleep by the king, was awakened by the noiſe of the rods; and his majeſty obſerving that the child caſt its eyes at him while the cup was at his mouth, ordered it to be put to death immediately.

When a perſon preſents any thing to the king, it is offered kneeling; and the like reſpect is ſhewn even to the proviſions ſet on the table. They who happen to be in the way of the officers who carry them, proſtrate themſelves with their faces to the earth, and dare not riſe till the diſhes are carried out of their ſight to the king's table.

The king of Ardrah treats the Europeans with a very diſtinguiſhed reſpect. When any one goes to Aſſem, to obtain an audience of his majeſty for liberty to trade (which muſt be done by every one that comes for that purpoſe,) he is lodged in the palace, and a genteel proviſion is daily made for him at the king's expence. On the day fixed for the audience, he is introduced to his majeſty by the captain of commerce: when he enters the hall where the king is ſeated, his majeſty immediately riſes, and advances ſome ſteps to meet him; he then takes him by the hand, preſſes it in his own, and three times ſucceſſively touches his fore-finger, which is the greateſt token that can be given of amity and friendſhip. After this, he deſires him to ſit down by his ſide on neat mats ſpread on the floor; which being complied with, he then lays his preſents before the king, and, by an interpreter, communicates his buſineſs; the anſwers to which, the king returns through the ſame channel. As ſoon as the audience is over, the European goes, with his attendants, to the houſe of the high-prieſt, who, in reſpect to the king, provides an elegant dinner on the occaſion; after which, he ſends for his wives, and entertains his gueſts with dancing, muſic, and ſuch other diverſions as are uſually practiſed in this part of the country. The following day a licence is granted to the European for liberty to trade, and the ſame is made known by the public crier, who receives forty braſs rings, a goat, and a piece of cloth, for his trouble.

Slaves are the chief commodity the Europeans purchaſe here; and the articles they ſell the natives conſiſt of cowries (which are the current coin of the kingdom,) flat iron bars, gilt leather, white and red damaſk, red cloth, copper bowls or cups, braſs rings, beads or bugles of ſeveral colours, looking-glaſſes, gunpowder, muſkets, firelocks, &c.

The town which is called by the Europeans Little Ardrah, and by the natives Offra, is large and populous, and, like the capital, is incloſed with mud walls. The Dutch had once a fort here; but their factor being killed and the land laid waſte by the inhabitants of Popo, they fled, and for ſome time deſerted it; however, they have now a factor there, as have alſo the Engliſh, each of which has a very large and elegant houſe; and they both, but particularly the Dutch, carry on a conſiderable trade in ſlaves.

The town of Jacken, or Jackin, ſituate between Great and Little Ardrah, is of conſiderable extent, and incloſed with a thick and lofty mud wall. Here the Engliſh have a factory; and the governor's houſe is a ſpacious building, and very neat.

Grand Foro, a large village, lies a little to the north of Jacken, and is remarkable for having a kind of inn for the accommodation of travellers; as there is not, in any other part of Guiney, a convenience of that ſort to be met with.

Dahome, whoſe powerful king ſubdued Ardrah and Whidah, as related above, is ſituated to the north of the Slave coaſt, and extends a conſiderable way in land. Its boundaries on the weſt, north, and eaſt, are uncertain. This is a very wholeſome country, as it lies high, and is daily refreſhed by fine cooling breezes; and the kingdom of Great Popo, though at a conſiderable diſtance, may be ſeen from it.

Abomay, is ſituated two hundred miles up in the inland country: the king has his palace in this town. He is a very powerful prince, and always keeps a conſiderable ſtanding army; but it conſiſts only of foot ſoldiers. He has for his enemies a nation called Joes, who live a great way to the north towards Nubia, and all fight on horſeback. Theſe two powers have been frequently at variance with each other; but they have been upon good terms, ſince the treaty, which was unanimouſly agreed to, was formed between them ſome few years ago.

Adjoining to Ardrah is the kingdom of Benin, which extends about ſix hundred miles from eaſt to weſt; but its extent from north to ſouth cannot be aſcertained. It is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdoms of Mujac and Makoko; on the weſt by Ardrah, and part of the gulf of Guiney; on the ſouth, by Congo; and on the north, by part of Gago and Biafara.

This is in general a very low and woody country, but well watered with rivers, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which is that called by the Engliſh and French the river Benin; but by the Portugueſe Rio Formoſa, or the Beautiful River. Its length and ſource are not known, but its branches are ſuppoſed to extend through moſt parts of the neighbouring countries. Its banks are exceeding pleaſant, being ornamented with lofty trees, and many ſmall but neat villages.

The noxious vapours exhaled from the low grounds by the heat of the ſun render the climate of this kingdom rather unwholeſome, but the ſoil is tolerably fertile, and well adapted for the produce of millet and rice; but as the inhabitants are not fond of thoſe grains, little of them are cultivated. Their principal attention is directed to the produce of yams, which they uſe inſtead of bread; and they have alſo great plenty of potatoes and other roots. The chief fruits here are oranges, lemons, and bananas; and they have ſome cotton and pepper-trees; the latter of which produce a tolerable commodity; but not in ſuch quantities, neither are the corns ſo large, as thoſe of the Eaſt-Indies.

In this country, the wild beaſts are, tygers, leopards, bears, and monkies. The tame ones conſiſt of horſes, cows, ſheep, dogs, and cats: the two latter of which the natives prefer to any kind of fleſh whatever. They have alſo great plenty of poultry, and the woods abound with game, as harts, hares, turtle-doves, pheaſants, partridges, &c.

The people inhabiting this kingdom have each their particular king; all of whom, except the king of Overri, are ſlaves or vaſſals to the king of Great Benin. The natives in general are good-natured and obliging, particularly to Europeans; and if the latter compliment them with preſents, their liberality is ſure to be doubly returned. When any favour is aſked of them, they will uſe their utmoſt endeavours to grant it, even though it may in ſome degree be prejudicial to themſelves. To uſe gentle meaſures, is the only way to ſucceed in whatever is wanted; and in that caſe it is their greateſt pleaſure to oblige the perſon that applies to them: on the contrary, if they are treated with violence, no people in the world can be more refractory; and then they will take as much pains to injure, as they would at other times to ſerve you. Among themſelves, they carry the appearance of civility and complaiſance, but in reality they are very cloſe and reſerved, eſpecially in their dealings, not caring to truſt each other. The traders are very attentive to buſineſs, and remarkably tenacious of their old cuſtoms; and a foreigner may eaſily deal with them, if he complies in this particular.

There are four claſſes of inhabitants in this kingdom; the firſt of which is compoſed only of three perſons, called great lords, or great men, who are always near the king's perſon; and whoever wants to obtain any favour from his majeſty, muſt apply to theſe people, who acquaint the king with their deſires, and return his anſwer. As there is no intermediate perſon between theſe, the king, and he who ſolicits favours, they act on theſe occaſions in ſuch manner as beſt ſuits their own intereſts; ſo that in reality the whole government is intirely in their hands. How contradictory ſoever their conduct may be to the intentions of the king, yet it can never be known, as no other perſons are admitted into his preſence, except thoſe in a public capacity.

The ores de roes, or road chiefs, who are of four ſorts, are the ſecond rank or claſs of people here: the

meaneſt preſide over ſlaves; thoſe a degree higher over the low rabble; the third inſpect the conduct of thoſe concerned in huſbandry and agriculture; and the fourth, or ſuperior order, ſuperintend the military. Theſe people are very numerous, and from them are choſen the viceroys and governors of thoſe countries ſubject to the king. They are all under the command of the three great men, and are reſponſible to them on all occaſions. They obtain their poſts by the recommendation of theſe three lords; and the king; as an enſign of their honour, preſents each of them with a ſtring of coral, which they are obliged continually to wear about their necks. They are made of a ſort of pale earth or ſtone well glazed, and greatly reſemble variegated marble. The poſſeſſors muſt be very careful of them; for if any one ſhould loſe this badge of honour, whether by accident or otherwiſe, the conſequence would not only be degradation, but he would be put to death for it.

The fiadors, or brokers, are the third claſs: they are appointed by government to ſee that all matters of commerce are fairly tranſacted between the reſpective parties; and their buſineſs is to treat with the Europeans on behalf of the traders of Benin.

The commonality form the laſt claſs. The generality of theſe are very indolent, nor will they go to work but when neceſſity obliges them: the laborious part of their buſineſs is executed by the wives, ſuch as tilling the ground, ſpinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, and other handicrafts. Smiths, carpenters, and leather-dreſſers, are the principal artificers amongſt them.

The negroes here (particularly the better ſort) dreſs in a white callico or cotton cloth, which is faſtened round the waiſt, and neatly plaited in the middle, but the lower and upper parts of the body are intirely naked. The dreſs of the meaner ſort is of the ſame form, and only differs in the quality of the ſtuff it is made with.

Callico paans are worn by the wives of the grandees: thoſe wove in this country, are very fine, and beautifully variegated with different colours: they are faſtened round the waiſt, and the upper part of the body is covered with a piece of cloth about a yard long, which ſerves inſtead of a vail. Their arms, legs, wriſts, and fingers, are ornamented with copper or iron rings; and they wear necklaces of coral agreeably diſpoſed.

The men let their hair grow in its natural form, and take but little pains with it, except buckling it in two or three places, in order to hang a great coral to it: but the women's hair is artificially formed into large and ſmall buckles, and divided on the crown of the head, ſo that the latter are placed with great uniformity. Some of them oil their hair, by which means it loſes its black colour, and in time turns to a ſort of green or yellow, which they are very fond of, but to a ſtranger it has a diſagreeable appearance.

In this country, when a great man goes abroad, he is attended by a number of ſervants, all of whom are armed, ſome with ſpears, others with long darts, and ſome with bows and arrows. He uſually rides on horſeback, and ſits on the beaſt ſideways, as the women do in England. One of his attendants holds an umbrella over his head, to ſhelter him from rain, or the violent heat of the ſun; and another goes before leading the horſe. The only ſecurity of the rider conſiſts in his reſting the left hand on the ſhoulder of one of his attendants, for they uſe neither bridles nor ſaddles.

There are very ſpacious and lofty buildings in moſt of the towns in this kingdom, but they are differently conſtructed, ſome of them being ſquare, and others of an oblong form. The doors are made high but narrow, and the windows are few in number and exceeding ſmall. They are all made with a flat roof, on the top of which is a covering raiſed ſeveral feet, to keep off the heat of the ſun; and when they pay a viſit to each other, they frequently regale themſelves here.

Perſons of condition live well, but not luxuriouſly: their principal diet conſiſts of beef, mutton, or chickens, and for bread they uſe yams, which, after being boiled, are beat fine, and made into cakes. Their common drink is water, but ſometimes they mix brandy with it. The poorer ſort live on dried fiſh, yams, bananas, and pulſe; and their drink is water, or a kind of beer, ſomewhat reſembling that drank on the Slave coaſt, called pito.

They allow polygamy here, with the ſame latitude as on the coaſt of Guiney; and their marriage ceremonies conſiſt only in the conſent of the parties, and an entertainment for the gueſts on both ſides. The great men are exceeding jealous, for which reaſon the wives of the poor people enjoy a pleaſure to which thoſe of the better ſort are intire ſtrangers, for while the wives of theſe latter are cloſe confined, to obviate all opportunities of tranſgreſſion, the former have the full enjoyment of their liberty.

All the boys born in this country are preſented to the king as his property, for which reaſon all the males are called the king's ſlaves; but the females are the property of the father, who has liberty to diſpoſe of them as he pleaſes. If a woman happens to be delivered of two children at a birth, immediate information of it is given to the king, who orders public rejoicings to be made on the occaſion. Such circumſtances are conſidered as happy omens in all the territories of Benin, except at a place called Arebo where they are productive of the moſt horrid cruelties: for the people there generally ſacrifice both the woman and children to a certain dæmon, which they ſay inhabits a wood near the town. Sometimes, indeed, they will ſpare the wife, by the huſband's offering a female ſlave in her ſtead, but the children are condemned without redemption.

It is affirmed by Boſman, that while he was at this town in 1699, he knew a merchant's wife thus redeemed, but her children were deſtroyed, whoſe ſad fate ſhe often deplored with tears. The following year, ſays the ſame writer, the like happened to the wife of a prieſt: ſhe was delivered of two children, whom, with a ſlave in his wife's room, the father was, by virtue of his office, himſelf obliged to ſacrifice with his own hands. This ſhocking cuſtom ſtill prevails in that town; but of late years, they that are enabled to defray the expence, avoid the conſequences, by ſending their wives to a more humane part of the country, when they draw near the time of their delivery.

Circumciſion is practiſed on both ſexes, which is performed when the children are about a fortnight old; but they can give no reaſon for this cuſtom, only ſaying, that it was handed down to them by their anceſtors. They alſo inflict another puniſhment on the children by pinking their bodies; that is, making inciſions in different parts, in a ſort of regular order, and leaving the marks of birds, beaſts, and other figures. The girls undergo the greateſt puniſhment in this particular, being much more marked than the boys; for their parents are very liberal in beſtowing theſe marks, which are conſidered as the greateſt ornaments they can have.

The thoughts of death are not ſo terrifying to the negroes of Benin as to their neighbours on the coaſt of Guiney. When a perſon falls ſick, he immediately applies to the prieſt, who alſo acts in the capacity of phyſician, and furniſhes him with medicines; but if theſe prove ineffectual, he has recourſe to ſacrifices. If the patient recovers, the prieſt is rewarded for his aſſiſtance; but no farther regard is paid to him: ſo that the prieſts here are generally poor, having little other dependence than what ariſes from their abilities as phyſicians; for without applying to the prieſt, each man offers his own ſacrifices to his idols, and think they ſufficiently acquit themſelves of their religious duties.

On the death of a perſon, the corpſe is kept only one day before interment, except he happens to die at a diſtance from his general place of reſidence; in which caſe, in order to preſerve it for conveyance, it is dried over a gentle fire till all the moiſture is extracted, when it is put into a coffin, and publicly expoſed; after which, it is carried on men's ſhoulders to the place of interment. When the funeral is over, the neareſt relations go into mourning, and bewail their loſs by cries and lamentations. The ſhew of mourning conſiſts only in ſhaving their heads, ſome half-way, and others half-over; and the men ſhave off their beards on this occaſion.

Many ſlaves are ſacrificed at the burial of a grandee; but the greateſt number fall victims on the death of a king. The ceremonies attending a royal funeral in this country are very ſingular, and thus deſcribed by Barbot, who was once an eye-witneſs of them: "As ſoon, ſays he, as the king of Benin expires, they dig a large pit in the gound at the palace, ſo deep, that the workmen are ſometimes in danger of being drowned by the quantity of water that ſprings from the earth. This pit they make wide at the bottom and very narrow at the top. They firſt let down the royal corps into it, and then ſuch of his domeſtics, of both ſexes, as are ſelected for that honour, for which there is great intereſt made. Theſe being let down into the pit, they ſhut up the mouth with a large ſtone, in the preſence of a crowd of people who wait day and night at the place. The ſtone is removed the next morning and ſome proper officers aſk the perſons encloſed, If they found out the king? If they anſwer, the pit is ſhut up again, and the following

following day opened with the like ceremony, which continues 'till the perſons are dead, and no antwer returned. After this, the chief miniſters inform the ſucceſſor, who immediately repairs to the pit; and cauſing the ſtone to be removed, orders all ſorts of proviſions to be laid on it for the entertainment of the populace. After they have regaled themſelves, they run about the city in the night, committing the greateſt outrages, and killing all the men, women, and children they find. They chop off their heads, and leave them in the ſtreets, but they bring their bodies, and throw them into the pit, with their garments, houſhold goods, &c. as preſents to the deceaſed king." This ſtrange cuſtom, we are told, is ſtill preſerved in the ſtricteſt manner; and they who are allotted to fall victims on the occaſion are ſo far from lamenting their fate, that they reckon it the higheſt mark of honor they can be favoured with.

Theſe people worſhip various kinds of idols, ſome of which are made of elephants teeth, claws, dead mens heads, ſkeletons, &c. Each is his own prieſt, and addreſſes himſelf to ſuch of his idols as he likes beſt. Many, however, have a tolerable idea of the ſupreme Being; for they aſcribe to God the divine attributes, and believe that he governs all things by his Providence. As he is inviſible, they ſay it would be abſurd to attempt to make any corporeal repreſentation of him, for that could not be effected, as it would be impoſſible to make any image of what was never ſeen. The images of their idol gods they conſider as ſubordinate deities, and believe that they are mediators between them and God. They believe alſo in the devil, and think themſelves obliged to reverence him, leſt he ſhould hurt them. They make their offerings to him by the ſame idols as to the higher power; ſo that one image ſerves them in two capacities. Such are the ſtrange abſurdities and inconſiſtencies of their religion!

It is generally believed by theſe negroes, that the apparitions of their anceſtors viſit them, but it is only when they are aſleep. They call the ſhadow of a man paſſadoor or conductor, which they believe really to exiſt, and that it will ſome time or other give teſtimony whether they have lived well or ill. If the former, they are to be raiſed to great dignity; but if the latter, they are to periſh with hunger and penury.

Daily offerings are made by the poorer ſort to their idols, which conſiſt only of a few yams mixed with oil; ſometimes they offer a fowl, but they only ſprinkle the blood of it on the idol, for the fleſh they convert to their own uſe. The great men make annual ſacrifices, which are very expenſive, and they provide an elegant entertainment for their friends, that laſts ſeveral days; beſides which, the poor have always handſome preſents made them on theſe occaſions.

The time is divided by them into years, months, weeks, and days, each of which is diſtinguiſhed by a particular name; but in their diviſion they make fourteen months to the year. They keep their ſabbath every fifth day: which is ſolemnly obſerved, particularly by the better ſort, who on the occaſion ſacrifice cows, ſheep, and goats; while the poorer ſort kill dogs, cats, chickens, or whatever they are able to purchaſe. In order that the feſtival may be univerſally kept, thoſe who are ſo diſtreſſed as not to be able to obtain any of theſe, are aſſiſted by the others.

They keep two other annual feſtivals, beſides thoſe held on the ſabbaths. The firſt of theſe is in commemoration of their anceſtors, when they not only ſacrifice a great number of beaſts, but alſo human beings; but the latter are generally malefactors ſentenced to death, and reſerved for theſe ſolemnities. If it happens that there are not ſo many criminals as are requiſite on theſe occaſions (the number of which is twenty-five,) the king orders his officers to parade the ſtreets, and ſeize indifferently ſuch perſons as they meet not carrying lights. If the perſons ſo ſeized are wealthy, they are permitted to purchaſe their redemption; but if poor, they are ſacrificed on the day appointed. The ſlaves of great men ſo ſeized may be alſo ranſomed, on condition that the maſters find others to ſupply their place. This cuſtom contributes greatly to the emolument of the prieſts, it being their province to redeem the perſons ſo taken, from whom they are ſure to receive a very handſome compliment

But the moſt conſiderable is their ſecond annual feſtival, which is called the coral feaſt. It is celebrated in the month of May; and the king appears in public the day on which it is held. A perſon who was preſent at this feſtival, gives the following account of the ſingular ceremonies attending it: "On the day appointed, the king came magnificently dreſſed into the ſecond court of the palace, where, under a rich canopy, a ſeat was placed for him, as alſo others for his wives and a great number of his principal officers. Soon after the king was ſeated, the proceſſion began, which being ended, the king removed from his throne in order to ſacrifice to the gods in the open air, and thereby begin the feaſt. This action was accompanied with the univerſal and loud acclamations of the people. After paſſing a quarter of an hour in this manner, he returned to the former place, where he ſat two hours, in order to give the remainder of the people time to perform their devotions. This done he returned into the palace. The reſt of the day was ſpent in coſtly treating and feaſting, the king cauſing all kinds of proviſions to be liberally diſtributed to the populace, and the grandees following his example, ſo that nothing but joy was to be ſeen throughout the city. The reaſon why this is called the coral feaſt, is, becauſe at this time the king beſtows the ſtrings of coral on thoſe whom he advances to any preferment, which he never does but on this feſtival, unleſs a very extraordinary occaſion urges the contrary.

The kingdom of Benin, which lies contiguous to Ardrah, is ſubject to an arbitrary monarch, and his will is an abſolute law; but the chief direction of government is veſted in the three great lords. Their laws are in general very mild, and not attended with thoſe diſtinguiſhed impoſitions to which the inhabitants of ſome other countries are ſubject. When a perſon of property dies, the right of inheritance devolves to his eldeſt ſon, but he is obliged to preſent a ſlave to the king, and another to the three great lords, with a petition that he may ſucceed his father in the ſame quality, which the king accordingly grants, and he is declared the lawful heir to all the poſſeſſions left by his father. He is not compelled to make any allowance to his younger brother, that being wholly left to his own diſcretion: but if his mother be alive, he muſt allow her a maintenance ſuitable to her rank. He takes his father's other wives home, eſpecially thoſe that have not had children, and if he thinks proper he makes them his own; thoſe he diſapproves of are obliged to work for their maintenance under his inſpection, but he never cohabits with them. If the deceaſed leaves no children, the brother inherits the effects; and in caſe of failure of ſuch heir, the next of kin; but the whole becomes the property of the king if no lawful heir appears.

Criminals are puniſhed in proportion to the nature of their offence. From the particular reſpect they pay to foreigners, the injuring of any European is conſidered as a capital crime, and the puniſhment for ſuch offence is thus executed: they take the offender, tie his hands behind his back, and blindfold him. After this, the judge raiſes him up, ſo that his head hangs towards the ground, which the executioner cuts off with a hatchet, and ſeparating the body into four quarters, leaves it for the wild beaſts and birds to devour.

When a perſon is found guilty of theft, he is obliged to reſtore the goods and pay a fine; and if he is unable to pay the latter, he ſuffers corporally. If the robbery is committed on a grandee, the puniſhment is death. But theft is ſeldom committed here, the natives not being of ſo pilfering a diſpoſition as thoſe of the neighbouring nations.

They puniſh murder with death, except the crime be committed by the king's ſon, or a grandee, in which caſe the offender is baniſhed to the moſt diſtant part of the kingdom, and never permitted to return. But murders ſeldom happen here. If a perſon kills another by accident, he may purchaſe his life, by firſt burying the deceaſed, and afterwards producing a ſlave to ſuffer in his ſtead. When the ſlave is ſacrificed, the offender muſt bend his body, and touch the ſlave's knees with his forehead; after which he muſt pay a fine to the three great lords, when he obtains his freedom, and the relations of the deceaſed think the offence has been ſufficiently atoned for.

They have various ways of puniſhing adultery, in proportion to the circumſtances of the parties. If a common perſon ſurprizes his wife in the fact, he is entitled to all the effects of the perſon that has injured him; and the woman, after being ſeverely drubbed by her huſband, is totally diſcarded, being left to ſhift for herſelf the remainder of her life. In theſe caſes, the better ſort avenge themſelves much in the ſame way; but the relations of the offending party, in order to avail themſelves of the ſcandal that might accrue to their family, frequently bring about a reconciliation, by paying a large pecuniary compliment to the injured huſband, who after this ſatisfaction,

tion, huſhes up the matter, and the unreaſonable liberality of his inconſtant ſpouſe is apparently forgot.

Crimes of an inferior nature are puniſhed by fine, which is proportioned to the nature of the offence; and the criminal is ſubject to corporal puniſhment, if he is not able to pay the fine levied. The fines on theſe occaſions are thus diſpoſed of: the perſon injured is firſt ſatisfied; after which, the governor has his ſhare, and the three great lords have the remainder of the fine.

We ſhall now point out the moſt remarkable places in this kingdom, the principal of which is the town or city of Benin, the uſual reſidence of the king. It is a large town, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river, about forty miles from its mouth. It contains a great number of ſtreets, moſt of which are very ſpacious, and the houſes uniformly built. The principal ſtreet is exceeding broad, and at leaſt three miles in length; it is interſected by many croſs ſtreets and lanes, all of which are ſtraight, and of conſiderable extent; and the whole city is at leaſt nine miles in circumference. The houſes of the grandees are much higher than thoſe of the commonalty, and are aſcended by ſteps. At the entrance of each is a veſtibule, or porch, which is every morning cleaned by the ſlaves, and ſpread with ſtraw mats. The inner chamber is ſquare, with an opening in the center for the admiſſion of light; and in theſe apartments they both ſleep and eat, though they dreſs their victuals in other places ſeparate, having many offices under the ſame roof. All their buildings are made of red earth tempered with water, which being dried by the ſun, forms a ſolid wall, and they are covered with reed, ſtraw, or the leaves of trees. The houſes of the common people are entered by a ſmall door, which is in the center, and level with the ground; and light is admitted from an opening in the roof, inſtead of windows.

A market is kept every day, in the principal ſtreet of the city, for the ſale of proviſions and merchandize. The former conſiſts of dogs, of which they are very fond, roaſted baboons and monkies, bats and large rats, parrots, hens, lizards dried in the ſun, fruits and palm-wine. Their merchandize conſiſts of cotton, elephants teeth, wooden platters, cups, and other houſhold ſtuff; cotton cloth, iron inſtruments for fiſhing and tilling the ground, lances, darts and other weapons. The merchandize is all diſpoſed with great uniformity, and a place is allotted for each ſort.

The royal palace is very extenſive, and conſiſts of ſeveral large ſquares ſurrounded with galleries, each of which has a portico or gate, guarded by ſoldiers. The firſt gallery, on entering the palace, is very long, and ſupported on each ſide by lofty pillars. At the end of this gallery is a large mud wall, with three gates, the center one of which is ornamented with a turret about ſeventy feet high, terminated with the figure of a large ſnake, caſt in copper, and very ingeniouſly carved. Theſe gates open to a large plain about a quarter of a mile ſquare, incloſed by a mud wall. At the end of this plain is another gallery much like the former; this is terminated by a gate that opens to a third, the pillars of which are carved with human figures, and in one part of it, behind a cotton curtain, are eleven mens heads caſt in copper, on each of which is an elephant's tooth. Leaving this you enter a large plain, where there is a fourth gallery, beyond which are the king's apartments. The firſt of theſe is the king's audience-chamber, where he receives the nobility, foreign ambaſſadors, &c. The ſides of it are hung with tapeſtry, and the floor is covered with carpets of European manufacture. At one end of the room is the king's throne, which is made of ivory, it is aſcended by three ſteps, and over it is a canopy made of the richeſt ſilk. All the other apartments are very ſpacious, and the furniture of them exceeding elegant and coſtly.

This city is intirely inhabited by the natives, no foreigner being permitted to reſide in it. Some of them are very wealthy, and ſpend their whole time at court, leaving trade and agriculture to be executed by their wives and ſervants. Theſe go to the circumjacent villages, and either trade in merchandize, or ſerve for wages, and are obliged to bring home the greateſt part of what they get, otherwiſe they would be ſold for ſlaves by their maſters.

Some years ago the city of Benin was much more populous then it is at preſent. Its decay was owing to the avaricious diſpoſition of the then king, who, in order to increaſe his coffers, cauſed two of his road chiefs to be put to death, under pretence of their having conſpired againſt his life. The wealth he accumulated by theſe two, prompted him to make the like attempt upon a third; but this man was ſo univerſally beloved, that he had timely notice of the king's reſolutions, and accordingly betook himſelf to flight, attended by the principal part of the inhabitants. As ſoon as the king heard of this, he diſpatched an army to purſue them, and oblige them to return, but the army met with ſuch a repulſe, that they were obliged to return without having effected the buſineſs on which they were ſent. The king, irritated at this, made a ſecond attempt; by ſending a much more conſiderable army: but here he alſo failed, for many of them being killed, the reſt took ſhelter in the city.

Elated with this ſucceſs, the road chief determined to be revenged of his ſovereign, and marched with all his men to the city, which he plundered, ſparing no place except the king's palace. After this he retired, but continued for ſeveral years to rob thoſe inhabitants of Benin that happened to fall in his way; till at length, at the interceſſion of ſome Europeans, a peace was concluded between him and the king, by which he was pardoned, and intreated to return to his former habitation. Fearful, however, of the integrity of his majeſty, whom he ſtill conſidered as his moſt inveterate enemy, he did not think proper to comply, but ſettled at a place about three days journey from Benin, where he kept a court, was highly reſpected by the people that adhered to him, and lived with as much ſplendor and dignity as the king himſelf. Some few of the citizens returned to the capital, and were not only received by the king with great friendſhip, but were preferred to honourable offices, in order to reduce the reſt to follow their example: the multitude, however, were not then to be deluded; they preferred a life of eaſe and freedom to that of tyranny and oppreſſion; nor could the moſt preſſing intreaties made uſe of by the king prevail on them to return. Such were the circumſtances that occaſioned the reduction of the inhabitants of this city, whoſe number is now at leaſt one third leſs than before this conteſt broke out.

Moſt of the other towns in this kingdom are ſituated on the river Benin, and are chiefly remarkable for trade. The principal of theſe is called Awerri, or Ouwerree, and belongs to a king, who is the only one that is independent of the king of Benin. The Portugueſe have a church and factory in this town, which ſtands about ſix miles from the mouth of the river.

Boedodoe, is a trading village, at a ſmall diſtance from Awerri: it contains about fifty houſes, built with reeds and mud, and covered with the leaves of trees. It is governed by a viceroy and ſome grandees, whoſe authority extends only to trifling matters, as civil cauſes, and the raiſing of taxes for the king; but they muſt ſtate the matter to the court, and wait their determination, in caſe any thing conſiderable happens.

The village of Ogatton, near the mouth of the river, is pleaſantly ſituated on a high iſland in the center of it, and ſurrounded with moſt kinds of fruit trees. This was once a conſiderable place, but it ſuffered ſo much in the wars, that it was almoſt laid waſte; however, from its delightful ſituation, the buildings of late years have conſiderably increaſed, and it ſeems as if its original ſplendor would in time be reſtored.

Arebo, is the greateſt place of trade on the river Benin, and is ſituated about fifty miles from its mouth. It is a large populous town, and the inhabitants of it are remarkably honeſt in their dealings. The Dutch and Engliſh have both factories here; but the latter having neglected their trade, the lodge fell down, and has never ſince been rebuilt; ſo that the only European ſettlement in this part of the country now belongs to the Dutch.

The town of Meiberg, is a ſmall but very neat place, and the houſes are built with great uniformity. The Dutch had once a factory here, and were greatly reſpected by the natives; but during their ſtay a melancholy circumſtance happened, occaſioned by the indiſcretion of the principal factor, that intirely ruined their affairs; which was this: N. Beeldſnyder, their laſt factor, having caſt a wanton eye on one of the negro governor's wives, raviſhed her; which ſo enraged the injured huſband, that he came with a body of armed men, and reſolved to kill the adulterer, who narrowly eſcaped on board a ſhip; but in the flight was ſo wounded, that, through the ſurgeon's unſkilfulneſs, he died. The company's director-general on the coaſt, not being rightly informed of the caſe, ſent a veſſel from El Mina, well manned to Benin, with ſtrict orders to revenge the murder. Theſe ſoldiers ſo exceeded their commiſſion, that they killed or took priſoners every perſon in the town, who could not eſcape. The king being informed of this, and the occaſion of the maſſacre, commanded the negro-governor to be brought before him; and though he had done nothing but what might be juſtified, in defending

the honour of his family, yet the king cauſed him and his whole race to be put to death in the moſt cruel manner. The dead bodies of theſe miſerable wretches were expoſed to be devoured by the beaſts, and their houſes were razed to the ground, with ſtrict orders that they ſhould never be rebuilt. The Dutch, however, from theſe circumſtances, made no farther attempt, and ever ſince that time there has not been any European factory in this town.

There are, in this kingdom, ſeveral other conſiderable rivers, beſides Benin; particularly the river Rio del Rey, which is very ſpacious and extenſive, but the ſhore on each ſide is low and marſhy. It takes its ſource from the north, and is very wide for a conſiderable way up the country. On its banks are a great number of villages inhabited by people divided into two nations, one of which dwell along the upper part of the river, and the other towards the mouth; but they are always at enmity with each other. They are a ſtrong, robuſt people, but poor, diſhoneſt, and treacherous; and are very filthy both in their houſes and perſons. They go quite naked, ſmearing their bodies with oil intermixed with a red colour: they plait their hair in various forms, file their teeth, and adorn their foreheads with ſtrange marks made with hot irons or pincers. In ſhort, they are mere ſavages, and their only employment is fiſhing; for the mechanical arts or agriculture they are total ſtrangers to.

Another large river is called the Kamarones; its inhabitants are governed by a chief of their own, called Moneba. His ſeat, or palace, is ſituated on a delightful ſpot that commands the adjacent country, which is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of yams, bananas, palm, and other fruits. The people here carry on a conſiderable trade with the Europeans, having plenty of elephants teeth and ſlaves, which they ſell at very reaſonable rates. The goods ſold by the Europeans, in exchange, conſiſt chiefly of iron and copper bars, braſs pots and kettles, bugles or beads, ox horns, and ſteel files. The natives here have a remarkable ſmooth ſkin, and are luſty, tall, and well-ſhaped.

About fifteen leagues from cape de Lopo Gonſalvo, or the utmoſt point of the gulf of Benin, is ſituated the river Gabon, which is very large, and the mouth of it is at leaſt ſix miles acroſs. About nine miles up the river are two iſlands, one of which takes its name from the king, and the other from the prince of this river, two great lords of Benin. But theſe iſlands have now but few inhabitants, the king having left one, and the prince the other, each of them living on particular parts of the river. The river is navigable for ſmall ſhips ſeveral leagues up, but its ſpring and courſe cannot be aſcertained. There are many villages on its banks; and the trade carried on here conſiſts in elephants teeth, honey and wax.

The people who dwell near this river, are with reſpect to their perſons, very large, robuſt, and well-ſhaped, but they are fierce and cruel in their diſpoſitions. The men are greatly addicted to thieving; and the women are ſo abandoned, that they care not on whom, or in what manner, they beſtow their favours. They are divided into three claſſes: the firſt of which are under the government of the king; the ſecond under that of the prince; and the third are totally independent. The two former are always at variance; and though they will not engage in a war, yet they make depredations on each others property as opportunity preſents itſelf.

The dreſs of the men conſiſts of mats faſtened round the waiſt, made of the bark of trees, and painted red; beſides which, they are ornamented with the ſkins of monkies, or other wild beaſts. Moſt of them go bareheaded, having their hair ſtrangely cut, or tied up: ſome have ſmall caps made of twigs, or the bark of the cocoa; and others have feathers faſtened on their heads with iron wire, or plates of iron. They dye their bodies red, and have great quantities of rings in their noſes and ears. The women wear mats of reed round their waiſts, and have bracelets of copper or pewter on their necks and arms. Some of them ſleep on mats made of ſtraw, but the generality lie on the bare ground. Their food conſiſts of yams, potatoes, and bananas, with fiſh and fleſh dried in the ſun. Their houſes are very ingeniouſly made of reeds and canes, covered with leaves of the banana-tree.

The dreſs of the king differs greatly from that worn by his ſubjects. It conſiſts chiefly in beads of bone, and ſhells dyed red, and ſtrung together like a chaplet round his arms, legs, and neck. The royal palace is larger than the other buildings. Before the gate of it is planted a braſs cannon, with ſeveral ſmall guns, the appearance of which ſtrikes an awe into his ſubjects, who are very obedient, either from fear, or other motives.

Cape Lopo Gonſalco is ſituated about eighteen leagues from the river Gabon, and is the utmoſt boundary of the gulf of Guiney. It appears like a low flat iſland, but it is a long, narrow peninſula, ſtretching from the continent ſeveral leagues to ſea. It has a good harbour either for anchoring or careening ſhips, eſpecially for thoſe, homeward-bound, proviſions being not only plentiful, but alſo very cheap. On the ſhore are ſeveral huts, where the natives occaſionally reſide, as the European veſſels ſtop for the above purpoſes; but the town they belong to is called Olibati, and is ſituated about ſix miles from the cape. It is the reſidence of a king; and the town contains about three hundred houſes, which are made with bulruſhes interwoven, and covered wih palm-leaves. The natives are much more civilized than thoſe at the river Gabor, but they differ little in their dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms. The country abounds with wild beaſts, as elephants, buffaloes, wild boars, apes, monkies, &c.

As ſoon as a veſſel arrives at the cape, it fires off four guns, to alarm the country, and give notice of their arrival; when the people immediately repair from Olibato, and other inland places, to the cape, and carry with them ſuch articles as they have to diſpoſe of, the principal of which are water, wood for fuel, and proviſions. They always keep a ſtock of wood by them, that they may be ready to ſupply ſuch veſſels as ſtop at the cape: they cut it into billets about two feet long, a boat load of which they generally ſell for a bar of iron. They get their water out of a large pond near the cape: it is allowed by moſt ſeamen to be exceeding wholeſome, and preſerves its good quality at ſea.

The Europeans alſo purchaſe here elephants teeth, wax, honey, and cam wood; and the articles ſold to the natives, are, firelocks, powder, ball, and ſhot, knives, iron bars, beads, old ſheets, axes, and braſs baſons.

CHAP. IV.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

CONGO.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Deſcription of the Kingdom of CONGO, or LOWER GUINEY; alſo an account of that Diviſion of it called BENGUELA.

THE kingdom of Congo is ſituated between the equinoctial line, and eighteen degrees of ſouth latitude. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Benin; by the inland parts of Africa, on the eaſt; by Mataman, on the ſouth; and by the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt. It extends upwards of one thouſand ſeven hundred miles from north to ſouth.

In order to give a more clear and diſtinct deſcription of this extenſive country, we ſhall divide it into four parts; namely, 1. Benguela; 2. Angola; 3. Congo Proper; and, 4. Loango; and ſhall treat of them ſeparately, as there is in each of theſe kingdoms ſeveral things worthy of notice, and which are peculiar to itſelf.

Benguela,

Benguela, is bounded on the weſt, by the Ethiopic ocean; on the north, by Angola; on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Mataman; and, on the eaſt, by that of the Jaggas, from whence it is ſeparated by the river Kuneni. It is about four hundred and thirty miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and one hundred and eighty from north to ſouth. The coaſt part begins near the mouth of the river Coanza, and extends to cape Negro. About the center of it is the bay of Cows, which, though not very large, is nevertheleſs a good harbour, and capable of receiving moſt ſhips of burden. It receives its name from the many herds of that ſort of cattle which are bred within its environs. The country is plain, and produces moſt kinds of proviſions. Different ſorts of metals, particularly ſilver and lead, are found in ſome parts of it.

With reſpect to the climate, it is ſo exceeding unwholeſome, and prejudicial to ſtrangers, that few chuſe to land there. Even the proviſions are affected by the quality of the air, ſo that they who eat of them at their firſt coming, run the hazard of their lives, and, if they eſcape, generally contract ſome diſagreeable and laſting diſtemper. The Europeans that reſide here look more like companions of the dead than the living, the unhealthineſs of the place rendering them mere ſpectacles.

Among the few places in this kingdom that merit any particular notice, the moſt material is Old Benguela from whence the kingdom receives its name, and is ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from New Benguela, a ſmall town built by the Portugueſe, on the north ſide of the bay of Cows. Old Benguela is ſituated in ten degrees thirty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and thirteen degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude. Beſides the kingdom, it gives name alſo to a province, which extends about ten leagues along the coaſt, from cape St. Bias, to the bay of Pullets and Fowls, ſo called from the great numbers of poultry found there. The land here is very low, but the ſoil is fertile, and produces abundance of cattle, as alſo ſeveral kinds of grain and roots. Here the Portugueſe have built a ſtrong fortreſs, called fort Benguela, in which they maintain a garriſon to keep the ſavage Jaggas in awe, who would otherwiſe ruin the whole country. The fort is ſhaded with orange, lemon, banana, and other fruit trees, and is ſurrounded with houſes.

There are ſeven villages in the neighbourhood of Old Benguela, the moſt conſiderable of which is called Mani-Kaſomba, and is ſo large and populous, that the inhabitants can raiſe three thouſand men at a very ſhort notice in caſes of emergency.

The bay is ſituated to the ſouth of the town of Benguela, is about two leagues broad at the entrance, and ſo deep, that ſhips of burden may find good anchorage in it.

A village called Manikicongo lies about twenty miles from the mouth of the bay: at this place the Portugueſe have a warehouſe for the reeeption of various commodities. The village ſtands at the foot of a hill, and is very large and populous. The chief articles ſold here by the Portugueſe to the natives, are guns, gunpowder, fine linens, and cotton cloths.

The mouth of the river called Caton-belle (which is formed by two or three ſmall rivers united together) is to the ſouth of the above village. The water here is extremely brackiſh, ſo that the natives convey it into ditches, where they let it evaporate, till it becomes ſalt. Though this ſalt is of a very inferior quality, yet it is in ſuch eſteem, that the merchants load their veſſels with it for exportation. The mouth of the river is ſheltered from the wind; and it being at leaſt fifteen feet deep, and quite clear of rocks, ſhips anchor in it with the greateſt ſecurity.

A bay, called by the Dutch the Good Bay, on account of its ſafe anchorage, is a little to the north of the river Caton-belle. The coaſt here is low and fertile; and the inhabitants breed great plenty of hogs and black cattle.

The face of the interior part of the country is covered with foreſts, which are inhabited by prodigious numbers of wild beaſts, particularly lions, tygers, elephants, rhinoceroſſes, and wild mules.

But the moſt remarkable animal found here, and which is peculiar only to this country, is called by the natives abada. It is of the wild kind, very ſhy, ſwift-footed, and of the ſize of a half grown colt: but what renders it more ſingular, is, its having two horns, one of which grows on the forehead, and the other on the nape of the neck: the former is about three feet in length, and ſharp at the point, but near the root it is about the thickneſs of a man's leg, and bends downwards; that on the nape of the neck is flatter and ſhorter, of a blackiſh or dark brown hue. The head is not ſo long in proportion as that of a horſe: it is ſhort and flat, like that of an ox, only more hairy, and the hair much ſtronger. Its tail is alſo like that of an ox, though not quite ſo long, and the hair more like that of the horſe: the feet are cloven like thoſe of a ſtag, but they are much larger: when this creature is young, the front horn is ſtraight, but as it advances in age, the horn bends gradually up like the tuſk of an elephant. The natives hunt it for the ſake of the front horn, which they eſteem as an excellent antidote againſt poiſon. They look on the virtue of it to be greater or leſs, according to the age of the animal when killed; and the Portugueſe, in order to know the goodneſs of it, make uſe of the following expedient: they ſet the horn upright on the ground, and ſuſpend a naked ſword over it point to point; if the horn be good and hard, the point of the ſword will not penetrate it, whereas when the horn is ſoft and young, the ſword immediately ſinks into it, which ſhews that it is not arrived at its full perfection, and of courſe greatly leſſens its value. They alſo make a poultice of the pulverized bones of this creature mixed with water, which they ſay is a ſovereign remedy againſt all achs and pains of the body, by drawing away the peccant humours from the whole maſs of blood, as well as from the part affected.

Glaſs beads about an inch long, and of various colours, are the current coin of this kingdom: theſe they alſo uſe as ornaments about their arms, legs, and other parts of the body.

As the manners, cuſtoms, religion, &c. of the inhabitants of Benguela are much the ſame with thoſe of Congo, we ſhall omit the mention of them till we come to treat of that kingdom, and in the mean time proceed to a deſcription of thoſe countries and nations that border on Congo and Angola, beginning with the kingdom of Anſiko.

SECT. II.

Deſcribing the Kingdom of ANSIKO, its ſavage Inhabitants, &c. and the Country of the Jaggas, their Incurſions, Ravages, Horrid Cruelties, and barbarous Cuſtoms.

ANSIKO, is bounded on the eaſt, by the river Umbre, which runs into the Zaire; on the weſt, by the borders of Loango; on the north by ſome of the deſarts of Nubia; and on the ſouth, by the province of Songo. It is one hundred and eighty miles in breadth, from north to ſouth; and two hundred and eighty-five miles in length, from eaſt to weſt.

There are many copper-mines in this kingdom, of which the Portugueſe make conſiderable advantages. It is in general a very barren country, and the inhabitants of it mere ſavages. They have no lands or inheritance, but wander like Arabs, from one place to another, regardleſs of life, and intrepid in their undertakings. They pay no attention to agriculture, nor do they uſe any endeavours to preſerve their exiſtence, but by plundering all who happen to fall in their way, ſome of whom they kill, and others they keep as ſlaves. They are dreaded for their extreme brutality; and are ſo irrational, that few Europeans can trade with them. Their language is barbarous; and ſo unintelligible, that even the inhabitants of Congo cannot underſtand it.

In order to preſerve their health, they all anoint their bodies with a compoſition made of white ſandal-wood pounded, and palm-oil. Both ſexes go naked from the waiſt upwards; but the better ſort diſtinguiſhed themſelves by wearing red and black caps made of Portugueſe velvet.

The Anſikans are perfect cannibals, their chief food being human fleſh; and there are public markets where bodies are hung up and expoſed for ſale. They believe themſelves poſſeſſed of an abſolute right to diſpoſe of their ſlaves; and thoſe taken in war are fattened, killed, and either uſed by their conquerors, or ſold to the butchers. However ſhocking theſe relations may appear, yet they are indiſputable facts; for the people of this country feed on each other with as much indifference as thoſe of other countries do on the reſpective animals appropriated by Providence for the ſuſtenance of mankind. Here diſcontented ſlaves offer themſelves for food to their maſters: fathers and ſons, brothers and ſiſters, reciprocally feed upon each other without the leaſt remorſe; and infants juſt born, are eat by their unnatural and inhuman parents. Here are no graves for the dead, except the bellies of the living, who eat the deceaſed ſoon after their departure.

Their weapons are battle-axes, and ſmall but very ſtrong bows, ſtrengthened and adorned with the ſkins of ſerpents; the ſtrings are made of ſupple and tender ſhoots of trees, and the arrows of a hard but very light wood, pointed at the ends with iron. They ſhoot with the

the moſt ſurprizing agility, inſomuch that they will diſcharge near a dozen arrows from the bow, before the firſt falls to the ground. They manage the battle-ax with equal dexterity: one end of this inſtrument is very ſharp, and the other flat like a mallet, with a handle between about half the length of the iron, rounded at the end and covered with the ſkin of a ſerpent, with the flat end they ſcreen their bodies, and ward off the darts of their enemies. They have daggers alſo in ſcabbards made of the ſkins of ſerpents which they carry in leathern girdles faſtened by their ſides.

It may be reaſonably ſuppoſed that their religion is groſs idolatry. They worſhip the ſun as their chief deity, whom they repreſent in the figure of a man, and the moon under that of a woman. They have alſo an infinite number of inferior deities, each keeping one peculiar idol, to whom he offers ſacrifices, and conſtantly invokes before he engages in any enterprize of importance.

Zimbis, or ſmall ſhells, are the current coin of theſe people: theſe they gather on the coaſt of Angola, in exchange for which, as alſo ſalt, ſilk, glaſs, knives, and other merchandize, they give ſlaves.

The Jaggas, are a ſavage and cannibal people, inhabiting a ſmall kingdom called Matamba, to the ſouthward of Anſiko, and have alſo conſiderable territories to the ſouth-eaſt of it. It is uncertain from whence theſe people originated, but they are ſuppoſed to have firſt ſettled about the kingdom of Anſiko, and from thence ſpread themſelves along thoſe ſpacious waters that lie between Anſiko and Loango. From thence it is imagined they ſpread by degrees along the eaſtern frontiers of Loango, Congo and Angola, and from thence eaſtward to the kingdom of Matamba, of the latter of which, with the territory adjoining, they made themſelves complete maſters, and to the great injury of their more rational and peaceful neighbours, have ever ſince preſerved.

Theſe people poſſeſs territories which extend from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, along Matamba and Benguela, about nine hundred miles; but they are very narrow in proportion, being in ſome parts one hundred and fifty, and others not above one hundred miles broad. They are incloſed between the kingdoms of Matamba and Benguela, from whence they are ſeparated by the great river Kunerio, on one ſide, and by the empire of Moni-Muji on the other. The only town throughout all theſe dominions is called Kaſſarii, and is ſituated on the north part of them, near the frontiers of Matamba, where the great jagga, or king, occaſionally reſides. Having neither towns nor houſes beſides, they roam from place to place with tents, removing as inclination directs, or neceſſity obliges them to ſhift their quarters.

They live entirely by plundering their neighbours, and ſeize every thing that comes in their way; conſequently they neither ſow nor plant: in their perſons, they are tall, luſty, and ſtrong, yet nimble and ſwift of foot, climbing up the ſteep mountains and craggy rocks with the moſt aſtoniſhing agility. Their women are ſtout, well-ſhaped, fertile, warlike, and active; and both ſexes are ſo intrepid, that no enterprize is thought too hard or dangerous for them to venture upon; and whenever they meet with an opportunity of plundering, they ruſh on their adverſaries at all hazards, and with a fearleſs unconcern for their own lives. They conſider it as the greateſt mark of bravery to attack the fierceſt and ſtrongeſt creatures, and a ſtill greater one to be more fierce and inhuman; and this ſavage diſpoſition not only extends to the people of the nations they invade, but to thoſe of their own, and even to their relations and children, whom, when they are in want of other food, they make no ſcruple to butcher and eat.

They build their kilombos, or camps, of ſuch materials, and on ſuch a conſtruction, that they are eaſily removed on the ſhorteſt notice. When they go on any capital expedition, they are always accompanied by the great jagga, and his court; at which times their camp is formed in the following manner: the officers, who are the chief directors of them, having pitched upon a proper ſpot, divide it into ſeven diſtinct quarters, each of them under the government of its own particular commander; in the center one is the royal pavillion, ſurrounded by thoſe of the miniſters, officers, and ſervants belonging to the court, the whole of which compoſes a ſpacious ſquare, and is encompaſſed by a ſtrong hedge, ſo diſpoſed as to appear more like a labyrinth than a circular fence.

The kalambo, or general of the army, inhabits the next quarter in rank: this officer is ſtiled muta-aita, or chief of the war, and on theſe occaſions is the next in authority to the king; he orders and directs all military expeditions, encampments, engagements, and retreats; and muſt therefore be an experienced and intrepid warrior, cruel, and deſtitute of the leaſt ſenſation of humanity.

The third quarter is occupied by an officer called tendela; he commands the ecoona, or rear-guard, and is the chief of all the electors, as well as ſupreme officer during an interregnum; for which reaſon, next to the king, he is held in the higheſt eſteem.

The fourth quarter is commanded by an officer called mani-lumbo: he is the chief engineer of all the fences and hedges with which the camp is fortified, and particularly that part of it belonging to the royal family: he is the only perſon who is permitted to come into the royal preſence whenever he thinks proper; and is particularly reſpected at court on account of this diſtinguiſhed privilege.

The officer who commands the fifth quarter is intruſted with all private commiſſions, and charged with the execution of them: in caſe of any failure, he is immediately put to death, and another appointed to ſucceed him.

The ſixth quarter is commanded by an officer called illunda, or the captain of the baggage, whoſe buſineſs it is to take care that every thing is in proper order for the uſe of the army. In times of peace, which ſeldom happen, he is intruſted with the care of filling the magazines with arms, and is to keep them in proper order to be delivered to the ſoldiers, on any ſudden and emergent call for them.

Another illunda, or keeper of the royal wardrobe and baggage, commands the ſeventh or laſt quarter. As this place is conſidered of great truſt, it is generally given to one of the king's relations, who has particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf for his courage and loyalty in the ſervice of his ſovereign.

There is alſo another great officer belonging to the camp, called the manicurio, or ſuperintendant of the proviſions, who is uſually choſen for his ſingular dexterity in the art of plundering; he hath a great number of officers and ſlaves under him, who are all equally qualified for that buſineſs. It is to be obſerved, however, that this officer is only purveyor to the court; for as to the ſoldiers, they are obliged to provide for themſelves. They generally do this by force; but ſometimes they purchaſe proviſions from the Europeans in exchange for ſlaves, who often give their new maſters the ſlip, before they can be properly ſecured.

The piumbis, or fore-runners, are the laſt officers belonging to the camp. Theſe are a ſort of ſpies whoſe buſineſs it is to be in continual motion, and to endeavour to diſcover the ſituation, ſtrength, and number of the enemy; to ſkirmiſh, oppoſe, or even attack them, as occaſion offers, and to ſupport the van on the firſt onſet. They fight with the moſt determined reſolution, being uſually choſen out of the moſt intrepid of the whole army.

The ſoldiers belonging to the Jaggas are neither well diſciplined, armed, or cloathed. Their offenſive weapons are bows and arrows, ſpears, darts, daggers, and clubs; but they are taught rather to uſe their defenſive weapons than their miſſive ones, being particularly inſtructed to cover their bodies, which are almoſt naked, with their large oval ſhields made of thick hides; and this method is ſingularly ſerviceable in a retreat, as it preſerves them from being wounded by the arrows and lances of their purſuing enemy. Their chief excellency conſiſts in ſtrength and activity of body, in the artfully covering themſelves, and the throwing their miſſive weapons, by which they generally annoy the enemy, and make them ſpend their ſhot againſt their ſhields: after this they renew the onſet with ſuch vigour, as ſeldom fails of putting the enemy to flight, which is always followed by a general ſlaughter; for they pay no reſpect either to perſons or ſex when victory declares in their favour.

If they happen to invade a country where any conſiderable oppoſition is expected, they intrench themſelves very quietly for ſome time, and only alarm the inhabitants with frequent ſkirmiſhes, till they think they have ſufficiently harraſſed them; or, if theſe aſſault them, they ſtand on the defenſive for two or three days, till the others have ſpent their ſtrength and fury; when the commanding officer ſends out a large detachment in the night, to lie in ambuſh at ſome diſtance from the enemy's camp. On the following morning they begin the attack, when the poor natives, being ſuddenly ſurprized, are eaſily put to the rout, and leave their country to the mercileſs invaders, to plunder and ravage at their pleaſure.

The ſovereign of the Jaggas, who though a man of

great courage and reſolution, never undertakes any thing in war without previous enchantments, and conſulting his mokiſſo, or devil, by ſacrifices, from whence he pretends to foreknow the event of his enterprize. On theſe occaſions he riſes before day-break, and ſets himſelf on a ſtool, attended by two of his conjurors, one on each ſide, and about fifty women ſtanding in a circle round him, waving the tails of beaſts, and ſinging. In the center is kindled a great fire, over which is placed an earthern pot containing ſome white powder or paint, wherewith his conjurors beſmear his forehead, temples, breaſt, and belly, uſing at the ſame time many enchanting terms, and continuing their ridiculous ceremonies till ſun-ſet; at which time they bring his caſengala, or hatchet, and put it into his hands, bidding him be ſtrong againſt his enemies, for the mokiſſo is with him. A male child is then brought to him, which he immediately kills; after which four men are brought to him, two of whom he ſlays, and orders the other two to be killed without the camp. He alſo orders ten cows to be killed, five within, and five without the camp, with the ſame number of goats and dogs: the blood of theſe animals is ſprinkled on the fire, but the fleſh is eaten with great feſtivity and triumph. The ſame ceremonies are likewiſe uſed by the inferior officers of the army on the like account: but as they pretend that the mokiſſo frequently appears and ſpeaks to them, ſo neither they nor their chief make uſe of idols on theſe or any other occaſions.

An extraordinary degree of reſpect is paid to the great jagga, or king, no perſon being permitted to ſit before him, except the kalambo, or head general, who is ſupreme judge in all caſes, whether civil or criminal. This officer is allowed to ſit in a chair with a back to it; but the tendela, who likewiſe ſits as judge, is only allowed a ſmall ſtool about a foot high. Thoſe of a certain rank are permitted to ſit in the king's preſence on a carpet, but they muſt ſpread it with their own hands. They who obtain audience of the king, muſt ſpeak to him with their bodies bent almoſt double; and, if of an inferior rank, muſt proſtrate themſelves on the ground. If the king happens to ſneeze, cough, or break wind, the whole aſſembly muſt wiſh him health and long life; and they who are neareſt to his perſon, muſt give notice to thoſe at at diſtance to do the ſame; on which they all expreſs their good wiſhes, by bending their bodies and clapping their hands.

That our readers may have a proper idea not only of their dreſs, but alſo the importance of the moſt dignified among theſe people, we ſhall preſent them with the following account, as extracted from Battel, of the dreſs, &c. of the kalambo, or head-general, under whom he ſerved for ſeveral months. "He wore (ſays this writer,) long hair, ſet off with many knots of bamba ſhells. His neck was adorned with a collar of maſos, which are another kind of ſhells found along the Ethiopic coaſt, and ſold among them for about the value of twenty ſhillings. His middle was incircled with a girdle of larders, or beads made of oſtrich eggs, and under it a palm-cloth, as fine as ſilk. His body was painted with various figures, and anointed every day with human fat. He wore acroſs his noſe a piece of copper about two inches long, and two others of the ſame ſort in his ears. He had about thirty wives, who followed him when he went abroad, one of whom carried his bow and arrows; and four others his cups and drinking veſſels; and whenever he drank, they all kneeled down, clapped their hands and ſang. He kept his men under the ſtricteſt diſcipline; and if any of them turned his back to the enemy, he was condemned to death, and his body eaten, and the more effectually to deter them from cowardice, he uſed to make an oration from a kind of ſcaffold every night, in diſpraiſe of it, and in commendation of courage and valour."

We have alſo, from the ſame writer, a deſcription of the method in which they bring up their young ſoldiery. "Theſe (ſays he) are not their own offspring, but the children of ſuch captives as they make in their excurſions; for though they allow themſelves many women, and theſe are no leſs fruitful than thoſe of other African nations, yet they ſuffer few of them to rear up their children, but order them to be buried alive as ſoon as born; and, in lieu of them, make choice of ſuch as are the moſt promiſing from among thoſe of their priſoners, to be trained up to arms, and to the plundering trade. Theſe they commonly chuſe at about the age of twelve or thirteen years, the females for procreation, and the males for war. The latter are no ſooner enrolled, than they have a collar hung about their necks, in token of ſlavery, which is to be worn by them till they bring home the head of an enemy, when it is publickly taken off, and they declared freemen of the cannibal commonwealth. The remainder of the captive train of both ſexes are inhumanly reſerved to be killed and eaten, not in time of ſcarcity of cattle and other proviſions, but out of cruel wantonneſs, and in preference to all other fleſh. This privilege of being accounted men, and freed from their badge of ſlavery, ſeldom fails of inſpiring the youths ſo choſen with an uncommon ambition to attain it at all hazards, and to face the greateſt dangers with an intrepid boldneſs for the ſake of it. By this method they keep up their number complete, and the fierce ſavage nature of the Jagga republic from recoiling into compaſſion and humanity."

In this country the common people of both ſexes go almoſt naked, having only a piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt, which is ſo ſmall, that it barely covers half their thighs. Perſons of rank indeed dreſs themſelves in gaudy apparel, adorning their hair, neck, arms, and legs, with ſhells and beads of various ſorts; but their additional dreſs ariſes more from pride than any affectation of modeſty. They have a ſtrange cuſtom of pulling out four of their teeth, two above and two below; and they who refuſe or neglect to do this are ſo deſpiſed by the reſt, as to be deemed worthy to be excluded their ſociety.

Theſe people have no ceremonies of marriage among them, intermixing with each other according to their inclination. But they have ſome particular cuſtoms in the interment of their dead, eſpecially thoſe of the male kind, and which evince farther tokens of their ſavage cruelty. The deceaſed is not only waſhed, anointed, and bedecked with all his moſt valuable finery, but accompanied by two of his moſt beloved women, who are conveyed with him to his grave, with their arms broken. The body is carried to the grave in a chair, between two men, and placed in it as if ſtill alive, and the two women, one on each ſide of it. As ſoon as they are thus depoſited, the grave, which is commonly very deep, is covered on the top with earth; and the relations, who are there preſent, ſprinkle it with the blood of ſlain goats and palm-wine; after which they make a funeral lamentation over it for ſeveral ſucceeding days. Thoſe of high rank are interred with more pomp; and the ceremonies and libations, according to the rank of the deceaſed, are reiterated a longer or ſhorter number of days, weeks, &c.

We ſhall next proceed to give ſome account of the country of the Jaggas, a nation of cannibals and ſavages; previous to which we muſt remark, that though what is handed down to us of the hiſtory of this people is but of recent date, yet the circumſtances are ſo ſurpriſing, and the events ſo intereſting, that it would be unpardonable not to record them; as they will at once gratify the curioſity of the reader, and fully evince what we have already advanced concerning the ferocious diſpoſition of this nation of ſavages.

Hiſtorians relate, that about the middle of the fifteenth century, one Zimbo, who was at that time a principal leader among them, formed a deſign of invading the vaſt empire of China. The people, in hopes of enriching themſelves by the plunder of thoſe nations, readily approved of his propoſal, and elated at the proſpect, flocked to him in ſuch numbers, that he readily found himſelf at the head of a numerous army, who all promiſed to obey him in every thing, and to follow him wherever he thought proper to lead them. He took with him a favourite woman named Tem-ban-dumba, who ſerved him at once as a concubine and a counſellor; and with theſe he penetrated without any conſiderable oppoſition, to the very center of the Congoeſe empire, committing the moſt dreadful ravages and ſlaughter wherever he came, leaving nothing behind him but deſolation and deſtruction. What added to the inhumanity of their proceedings, was, being accuſtomed to feed on human fleſh, they made no leſs havock among the unhappy people that fell into their hands, and, in order to give a higher reliſh to the fleſh, they wantonly put them to moſt excruciating deaths.

This monſter, by his ſucceſs, gained a daily increaſe to his army, the wretched Congoeſe flocking to him, in hopes of preſerving themſelves from the famine and deſtruction with which they were threatened. Zimbo accordingly grew more powerful, till having one day muſtered up all his forces, and finding them too numerous to continue longer in one body, he thought proper to divide them into ſeveral parts; and, having ſet ſome of his moſt enterprizing officers over them, diſperſed them into various parts of Ethiopia, enjoining them to ſpread deſolation wherever they went. One of thoſe officers, named Quizzuva, a

man no leſs brutiſh than martial, had the inſolence to go and attack the Portugueſe at one of their fortreſſes named Teto in the kingdom of Monoemugi: but he there met with the fate he juſtly merited, being totally defeated and killed, with a great number of his men; the reſt being either taken priſoners, or put to flight by the victors.

Zimbo, who had heard of the defeat of his officer and men, being determined to revenge the inſult, marched in all haſte to the fort with a freſh ſupply of forces, engaged the Portugueſe commander, and, after an obſtinate ſtruggle on both ſides, defeated and killed him, making alſo a moſt dreadful ſlaughter among the reſt of his forces. Thoſe whom he took priſoners underwent a more cruel fate, being put to the moſt horrid deaths, particularly their chaplain, whom he had obſerved to be ſingularly active during the engagement. He ordered all their heads to be ſtuck on lances, and carried away as trophies, together with all their church veſtments, and, dreſſing himſelf in a prieſtly habit, in deriſion of their religion, he marched at the head of the proceſſion.

Elated with this ſucceſs, Zimbo made a deſcent upon the iſland of Quiloa, where, after plundering the place, he put three thouſand of the inhabitants to the ſword: the reſt he took priſoners, ſome of whom he ordered to be ſacrificed to his idols, and made ſlaves of the reſt.

The kingdom of Melinda, was the next object of this ferocious adventurer; the inhabitants of which at the firſt news of his approach, determined to ſave their lives and properties, by betaking themſelves to the woods. They were prevented, however, from carrying their deſign into execution, by their noble-ſpirited monarch, who repreſented to them, in the ſtrongeſt terms, the impropriety of abandoning their country to a ſet of robbers, who had neither religion, honour, nor humanity; proteſting at the ſame time, that whatever they might reſolve on with regard to their own ſafety, he was determined to meet and engage them, and to defend his country and ſubjects to the laſt drop of his blood.

This declaration ſo animated the people, that they determined, one and all, to ſtand by him to the laſt man; and the king, having made every neceſſary preparation, ſet out with them to engage the enemy. Having accordingly advanced ſome diſtance from the capital, he met Zimbo at the head of his victorious cannibals, who immediately engaged the king's troops with his uſual fierceneſs and aſſurance of ſucceſs. The engagement laſted ſeveral hours, during which it was ſo obſtinate and bloody, that prodigious numbers were killed on both ſides. At length, however, the ſavages, deſpairing of ſucceſs, betook themſelves to flight; when the king thinking it moſt expedient, if poſſible, to extirpate ſo diabolical a race, ordered his men to purſue, and kill all that fell into their hands; which orders they ſo readily obeyed, that very few, except ſome of the moſt active, eſcaped their fury.

Zimbo the general, who was among the fugitives, retired with the ſcattered remains of his army into the woods, where he continued ſome time, in expectation of recruiting his army; and during his ſtay here, he formed a reſolution of making a tour round the coaſts of Africa, in which there was a proſpect of daily increaſing his army from amongſt the ſavages, and enriching himſelf with ſuch ſpoils as might fall in his way. Accordingly he ſet out, and ſteered his courſe ſouthward to the cape of Good Hope, without meeting with any oppoſition or diſaſter: and, as he found his army conſiderably augmented, he divided them into ſeveral columns, for the better convenience of ravaging; but charged them not to ſeparate further, than that they might, in caſe of an emergency, be immediately aſſembled together for action.

Leaving the cape, after a ſhort ſtay there, he proceeded northward as far as the river Cuneva, on the banks of which he formed a camp, diſtributing his men into ſeveral bodies under proper commanders, and reſerving to himſelf the ſupreme command over the whole. In a ſhort time he greatly increaſed his army; which ſo animated him, that he made all neceſſary preparations for ſome grand expedition, when death put an end to all his projects, and likewiſe ſoon carried off the faithful companion of all his travels, his favourite concubine Tem-ban-dumba.

The ſurviving commanders, on the death of Zimbo, not chuſing to ſubmit, or become dependent on any other chief, readily agreed to diſſolve the community, and each of them accordingly took upon him the command of his own troops. Some of them went in queſt of new ſettlements, while others continued in their former ſtations.

One of the chiefs that ſeparated from the reſt, was named Dongis: he was principally remarkably for being the father of the moſt infernal virago that ever lived. She was born at the camp which Zimbo choſe for his laſt retreat, and was named Tem-ban-dumba, in compliment to the late general's favourite concubine. Dongis, her father, removed with his ſmall army to the province of Ganghella, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the kingdom of Matamba, where dying ſoon after, his wife Muſſaza, a bold and enterpriſing woman, took the command into her own hands; and having been brought up in the plundering trade from her youth, gave them ſuch manifeſt proofs of her intrepidity, that they readily ſubmitted themſelves to her conduct, and followed her in the moſt dangerous expeditions. She always appeared armed and dreſſed like a male warrior; and perceiving her daughter to be poſſeſſed of natural courage, ſhe dreſſed her in the ſame manner, and took the young virago with her in all her excurſions, hoping thereby the more effectually to train her up in the infernal buſineſs ſhe was then proſecuting, and had been ſo well practiſed in.

Tem-ban-dumba, though at this time very young, diſcovered ſuch prudence and preſence of mind on the greateſt emergencies and difficulties, that Muſſaza, her mother, made no heſitation to entruſt her with the command of ſome of her forces, while ſhe herſelf led the reſt on to ſome important exploits. The young virago was ſo elated at this, that ſhe began to think herſelf of too much conſequence to be under any kind of ſubjection to her mother. She therefore ſoon found an opportunity to diſplay that infernal diſpoſition, which afterwards diſtinguiſhed her as the moſt inhuman and abandoned of her ſex, and claimed an independent power.

This heroine, being of no leſs amorous than warlike temper, had indulged herſelf in the embraces of ſeveral gallant youths of her army, of whom, through her natural fickleneſs, ſhe no ſooner became tired, then ſhe cauſed them to be privately put to death, to make way for new ones. For this imprudent, as well as inhuman conduct, ſhe had been often ſeverely reprimanded by her mother; till at length, being no longer able to bear ſuch conſtraint, ſhe broke out into an open rebellion againſt her. This reſolute ſtep, added to the intrepid bravery ſhe had ſhewed on many occaſions, made her the more admired, as well as dreaded, by the whole ſavage army, who began to think her ſomething more than human, and expreſſed the utmoſt eagerneſs to come and fight under her banner; ſo that the greateſt part of her mother's forces came gradually over to her, and ſhe ſoon found herſelf at the head of a numerous army, who, as they imagined her to excel all others in prudence and magnanimity, obeyed her more punctually that they would have done any general of the other ſex.

The more effectually to inſpire her men with veneration and dread for her, ſhe ordered her whole army to be drawn up in arms before her, and appearing in her maſculine dreſs, ſhe harangued them in a long ſpeech, in which ſhe acquainted them with her ſanguinary views of making them victorious and happy under her conduct, and by their valour and aſſiſtance, to lay the foundation of a powerful and glorious kingdom. The better to accompliſh her future projects, ſhe told them, ſhe muſt and would inſtruct them in the laws and rights of the antient Jaggas, their anceſtors, as the moſt infallible means to make them no leſs ſucceſsful than their late leader Zimbo, without the danger of expoſing them to the ſame misfortunes. To convince them how much ſhe was in earneſt, and expected to be obeyed, ſhe told them, ſhe would immediately ſet them an example worthy of their attention, unleſs they were greatly degenerated from the natural courage and intrepidity of their celebrated race; and that if they were it would infallibly revive it in them.

Having thus far raiſed their expectations, while they fixed their attentive eyes and ears on her, ſhe ordered an only ſon, whom ſhe had by one of her paramours, to be brought to her, together with a large peſtle and mortar; in which, inſtead of beſtowing on it the careſſes of a young and tender mother, as might naturally have been expected, ſhe, to their great ſurprize, and without the leaſt ſhew of remorſe, pounded the innocent babe alive, till ſhe had reduced the bones, fleſh, &c. into a pulp, among which ſhe mixed ſeveral kinds of powders, herbs, roots, oil, and other ingredients; and thus, having formed the whole into a kind of ointment, ſhe ſtripped herſelf, and ordered ſome of her maids to anoint her with it from head to foot, before all her men. After this was done, ſhe reſumed her martial dreſs; and told them, that was the ſovereign balſam that would render them not only ſtrong, and fit for martial

martial exploits, but invincible, and conſequently a terror to other kingdoms. This inſtance of diabolical heroiſm was univerſally approved by her barbarian ſubjects, who immediately followed her example, by murdering many thouſands of male infants in the ſame horrid manner.

Tem-ban-dumba, after this, made ſeveral laws, which ſhe ſtrictly enjoined her ſubjects to obſerve; among theſe, one of the moſt deteſtable was, that none of her ſubjects ſhould undertake any thing of conſequence, or even conſult about any enterprize, till they had previouſly anointed themſelves with the ſhocking compoſition above deſcribed, which ſhe ſaid would inſpire them with wiſdom to chuſe, and courage and reſolution to execute, all their projects with undoubted ſucceſs: and that there might never be wanting a ſupply of it, ſhe enacted ſome other edicts, by which ſeveral ſorts of male children were excluded from being admitted into the camp, or even from being brought up; ſome of which, that were either deformed or defective, ſhe ordered to be thrown to the dogs, and others to be pounded or boiled for the uſe abovementioned.

Fearing, however, that ſuch barbarity might at length terminate in a general diſcontent, or perhaps in open rebellion, ſhe found herſelf, in the courſe of time, under the neceſſity of reducing the force of ſuch of her laws as were either detrimental to the increaſe of the male kind, or too ſhocking to natural affection of parents; and, inſtead thereof, ſhe introduced others more agreeable to the natural cruelty of the people, among which was that of feeding on human fleſh, and preferring it to every other kind of diet. In this law, however, ſhe made an exception againſt the killing or eating any of her own ſex.

She made, beſides theſe, ſeveral other laws, all of which were of the ſame inhuman nature, and calculated to encourage and enure her ſubjects to all manner of rapine, bloodſhed, and remorſeleſs cruelty. In ſhort, ſhe had at length ſo hardened all her ſubjects in their deſtructive trade, that they ſpread fire and ſlaughter all over the weſtern parts of Ethiopia, without mercy, or almoſt any oppoſition: and if at any time ſhe met with a repulſe, or even defeat, from her warlike neighbours, inſtead of being diſcouraged, ſhe only grew more fierce and deſperate, reinforced her army with all poſſible ſpeed, and fell upon her enemies with ſuch eagerneſs and fury, that every thing was forced to give way to her, or flee from her victorious arms. What effectually animated her troops to follow her through the moſt arduous and dangerous enterprizes, was, the applauſe and recompence they were ſure to meet with on their return to the camp, eſpecially with reſpect to the diſtribution of the plunder and ſlaves, which ſhe divided amongſt them, without reſerving to herſelf any of the moſt valuable part thereof.

This deſperate and blood-thirſty monſter, after having filled the greateſt part of Ethiopia, with terror, blood and ſlaughter, at length fell a victim to luſt and inconſtancy. After ſhe had murdered great numbers of her paramours in order to prevent the diſcovery of her private debaucheries, ſhe at length grew enamoured of a freſh one, in whom, though then only a private ſoldier, ſhe diſcovered ſuch excellencies, as made her overlook the great diſparity between herſelf and him. His name was Kulambo; he was in perſon, tall, ſtrong, and well-ſhaped; in his diſpoſition bold and fearleſs, and no way inferior to his miſtreſs in craftineſs and cruelty. As he was not ignorant of the fate that had attended ſo many of his predeceſſors, ſo neither did he accept of her condeſcending offers, but with a fixed reſolution to retaliate it upon her, as ſoon as he found her affection for him in the leaſt to decreaſe. In the mean time, however, he uſed every means he could project to pleaſe her, and in a ſhort time ſo worked up her paſſions, that he prevailed on her to marry him. The nuptials were accordingly celebrated with great pomp, after their manner, that is, with the death of a great number of human and other victims, for the entertainment of their numerous gueſts; yet neither could this, nor the many other favours ſhe heaped upon him, prevent his keeping ſo watchful an eye over her, that he became more and more apprized of her fickle, lewd, treacherous, and tyrannic diſpoſition; inſomuch that he at length perceived he was become at leaſt indifferent, if not wholly diſagreeable to her, in ſpite of all her female art and addreſs.

Kulambo now thought it high time to ward off the blow that threatened him, by renewing and redoubling his careſſes to her, by ſumptuous banquets, and ſuch other entertainments and diverſions as he knew were moſt likely to ſuſpend her treacherous intentions againſt him. He ſupplied her in particular with a variety of European wines, and with moſt delightful cordial water, till he found an opportunity of conveying a ſtrong doſe of poiſon into one of them, of which ſhe had no ſooner drank, than ſhe expired in his arms, according to his expectation.

He appeared, after this event, ſo highly afflicted, and conducted himſelf with ſuch artful ſucceſs, that he paſſed altogether unſuſpected of having had any hand in the death of a ſpouſe, whoſe loſs he ſeemed ſo deeply to lament, that he affected to attempt, in order to diſſemble the better with thoſe who might ſuſpect him, more than once to ſheath the ſword in his own breaſt. This counterfeited exceſs of grief, joined to his well-known courage, made ſo deep an impreſſion on the minds of the Jaggas, that he was declared her ſucceſſor, and ſoon after raiſed, by proclamation, to the ſovereign authority over them.

That Kulambo's new ſubjects might have a freſh proof of his pretended affection for his late ſpouſe, he buried her with the moſt diſtinguiſhed magnificence. The place which he choſe for her interment was on a diſtant eminence, where he cauſed a ſpacious cave to be dug, and divided it into ſeveral large apartments, all of which were hung with ſome of the richeſt cloths of Europe, and the floors covered with the fineſt furs, and moſt curious mattings. That deſigned for the corpſe was well ſtored with the choiceſt meats and liquors. She was bedecked with all her coſtly ornaments, and ſeated on a throne in a commanding attitude. The throne was carried by the firſt miniſters of ſtate, guarded by the ſoldiery, and followed by the king and his whole court, who accompanied it with their moſt dreadful outcries, heightened by the ſound of all their martial muſic. The proceſſion was cloſed by the unhappy human victims, which were either to be butchered over her grave, or buried alive in it with her corpſe.

On their arrival at the cave, the body of the deceaſed queen was depoſited in the apartment prepared for it, amidſt the moſt hideous cries of the court and ſoldiers, and the horrid ſound of the martial inſtruments, after which, the victims were ſlain, and their blood ſprinkled plentifully on the corpſe. Thoſe victims that were deſigned to ſerve her in the other world, then went down into the grave, the bodies of the ſlain were thrown in, and the whole place immediately filled up with earth. As ſoon as the ceremony was over, the new monarch aſſumed the reigns of government, and the company retired to the camp.

The beginning of Kulambo's reign was remarkable for his frequent excurſions and ravages; but he was ſoon ſtopped in his career. He became captivated with a beautiful ſlave, who ſoon perſuaded him to change the martial trade for the pleaſures of the matrimonial life. He ſent his officers and forces upon new exploits, while he enjoyed himſelf at eaſe with his queen, till he at length ſuddenly expired in her embraces, and was afterwards honoured as an inferior deity by her and all his ſubjects.

Chingarii was appointed the ſucceſſor of Kulambo: he was not only equal in valour to his predeceſſor, but of a more ſavage diſpoſition. The ravages he committed were attended with much greater cruelty than had been exerciſed by any of the former princes; and ſuch was the thirſt after this ſhocking buſineſs, that he did not heſitate to engage in the moſt hazardous enterprizes, till at length, venturing to try his bravery againſt the Portugueſe at Angola, he was defeated and ſlain, and a great part of his army made captives.

Caluximbo ſucceeded Chingarii. This prince was a man of great courage and conduct, but of ſo gentle and humane a diſpoſition, that he could never be prevailed upon to eat any human fleſh either before or after his election. His barbarian ſubjects, from this circumſtance only, conceived an invincible averſion againſt him; and under pretence that their late queen Tem-ban-dumba reſented his open violation of her laws (a notion which the prieſts induſtriouſly propagated) he was aſſaſſinated to appeaſe her anger, and at his funeral obſequies three hundred victims of each ſex were ordered to be butchered.

The ſeveral ſucceſſors of Caluximbo committed in general, in a greater or leſs degree, the uſual ravages of their predeceſſors, leaving nothing behind them, where ever they went, but the melancholy marks of ſlaughter and deſolation. Of theſe Calanga was the moſt diſtinguiſhed: he was a man of no leſs prudence than courage. This chief having entered into an alliance with the Portugueſe governor of Angola againſt queen Zingha, who then headed another party of deſperate Jaggas in the kingdom of Matamba, was prevailed upon by that governor to aboliſh ſome of the laws made by queen Tem-ban-dumba, particularly ſuch as related to the deſtroying their own children,

dren, and bringing up in their ſtead thoſe which they brought away captives in their excurſions. This depredation was ſo ill approved of by the ſavage Jaggas, that it coſt Calanga his life; for he was ſoon after aſſaſſinated by one of his ſons, and interred with the uſual ceremonies. The parricide, however, did not long enjoy the high dignity he had ſo infamouſly acquired; the Jaggas, according to their laws, claimed their right of election, and ſet up another ſon of the deceaſed in his ſtead.

This prince was named Caſſange-Canguin-Gurii; and entertained ſo high an opinion of the Portugueſe, that, in order to obtain their friendſhip, he cauſed himſelf to be inſtructed in the principles of the Roman-Catholic religion, and was baptized by the name of Don Paſcale. But, whether through fear of being dethroned, or from a natural predilection for the Jagga cuſtoms, he ſoon after relinquiſhed his new perſuaſion, became more cruel and blood-thirſty, and committed greater ravages than any of his predeceſſors, his footſteps being every where marked with death and deſolation.

We have no particular account of any king of the Jaggas, after this: all we know farther is, that different tribes of theſe people under their reſpective chiefs, ſtill infeſt thoſe parts of Africa already deſcribed, and, that they ſtrictly preſerve their antient and infernal maxims.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of the Kingdom of ANGOLA; its Boundaries, Situation, Nature of the Country, Rivers, Provinces, Towns, Inhabitants, Trade, Government, &c.

THE natives originally called this kingdom Dongo, but the Portugueſe afterwards called it Angola, in compliment to the prince of that name, who firſt uſurped it from the king of Congo; this name it hath ever ſince retained. It is bounded by the kingdom of Matamba, on the eaſt; by the Ethiopic ocean, on the weſt; on the north, by Congo, from which it is ſeparated by the river Danda; and, on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Benguela. It lies between ſeven degrees thirty minutes, and ten degrees forty minutes of ſouth latitude, and between thirty-two and forty-one degrees of eaſt longitude, being about two hundred and fifty miles broad from north to ſouth, and about three hundred and ſixty in length, from eaſt to weſt.

This is in general a very mountainous country, there being but few plains to be met with, except on the maritime ſide, and between the ridges of the mountains. It is however well watered with rivers, the moſt conſpicuous among which are the Danda and Coanza. The former of theſe is very large, and capable of receiving veſſels of one hundred tons. It is well ſtored with moſt kinds of fiſh, but it is dangerous to catch them on account of the river being greatly peſtered with crocodiles. The Coanza is alſo large, deep and rapid, and empties itſelf into the ſame ocean with the Danda, about nine degrees twenty minutes ſouth latitude, and about twelve leagues ſouth of Loanda San Paullo, the capital of the kingdom. It is navigable as far as a place called Cambamba, which is about one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, where the Portugueſe have a fortreſs, or ſettlement, under the direction of a governor ſtiled by them captain. It hath a good depth of water all the way to the above place, but afterwards it is full of rocks and dreadful caſcades, which render its courſe ſo rapid, that it is impoſſible for any veſſel to advance much farther. It receives many rivers in its courſe, the chief of which are the Mocos, the Luente, and the Calucala. It forms alſo ſeveral iſlands that are pleaſantly ſituated, and very fertile. The principal of theſe are the Meſſander and Motchiama, the former of which is about nine miles long, and two broad. The ſoil of it is ſo fertile, that they have generally three crops a year of maize, millet, and other grain. It produces alſo great quantities of the manioc root, which the inhabitants uſe inſtead of bread; as alſo numbers of palm and other fruit trees. The other iſland is five miles in length, and one in breadth, it is moſtly level; there is on it great plenty of cattle, and a variety of roots and herbs. But the natural produce of this kingdom in general, as well as the perſons, manners, cuſtoms, religion, government, &c. of its inhabitants, being nearly the ſame with thoſe of Congo Proper, which we ſhall treat of, the reader is therefore referred, for an account of them, to that diviſion, in order to avoid unneceſſary repetition.

Angola, is diviſed into ſixteen provinces; namely, 1. Chiſſama; 2. Sumbi; 3. Rimba; 4. Scetta; 5. Bembea; 6. Temba; 7. Oacco; 8. Cabezzo; 9. Lubolo; 10. Loanda; 11. Benga, or Bengo; 12. Danda; 13. Moſeche; 14. Illamba; 15. Oarii; 16. Embacca.

The province of Chiſſama is ſituated in eleven degrees ſouth latitude, near the mouth of the river Coanza, and has a ſettlement belonging to the Portugueſe. It is divided into three parts, each of which is governed by a perſon appointed by the king; and theſe exerciſe ſo deſpotic a power, that they behave more like tyrants than inferior officers over the natives. From this cauſe it is, in all probability, that the country, which is very mountainous, is ſo poorly cultivated, the principal part of it being entirely barren. However, it is famous for producing a peculiar ſalt made by the natives from a briny kind of water, which they dig for, and which, being congealed, they form into oblong ſquare cakes like bricks, about ſix inches in length; and theſe they exchange with the Portugueſe for meal, oil, and other commodities. The merchants make conſiderable advantages by exporting this ſalt to moſt parts of Ethiopia, as it is not only excellent to be uſed with food, but alſo in phyſic, it being a very pleaſant diuretic. This province alſo abounds with fine honey and wax; but it labours under conſiderable diſadvantages from the want of freſh water, as they have ſeldom any rain from May to October, and their mountains are without ſprings or rivers. They who live near the Coanza, fetch it from that river, but it is very dangerous, as that part of the country is infeſted by great numbers of wild beaſts.

Sumbi, is for the moſt part flat, and well watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, particularly thoſe called Rice, Caiba, and Calacombola. The natives are tall and ſtrong; but ſo lazy and indolent, that they will not be at the trouble of cultivating the lands, though the ſoil is naturally ſo well calculated not only for breeding cattle, but alſo producing various kinds of grain. The moſt induſtrious part of them are thoſe towards the mouth of the river Calacambola, the ſoil of which is remarkably fertile, and the country freer from wild beaſts than any other part of the province. The inhabitants breed vaſt quantities of cattle, with which, and other proviſions, they ſupply their more indolent neighbours: their lands alſo are well cultivated, and produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent grain.

Rimba, is divided into twenty-eight lordſhips or diſtricts, whoſe governors always keep a great number of militia. This province is bounded on the eaſt, by Temba; on the north, by Lubolo; and on the ſouth, by Scetta. The land is fertile, and produces great quantities of grain, with plenty of cattle; and the rivers abound with moſt kinds of fiſh. The inhabitants are induſtrious, very tractable, and not addicted to any particular vice, but are chiefly idolaters.

The province of Scetta is one of the moſt rocky and mountainous in all the kingdom, particularly on one ſide of it, where a ridge of perpendicular rocks covers a ſpace of thirty miles in length without interruption: the ſurface of theſe rocks, however, is well inhabited and cultivated, enjoys a ſerene and wholeſome air, and is plentifully ſupplied with freſh water. The low lands are alſo well watered, and produce excellent paſture for cattle, great numbers of which are bred by the inhabitants; but they often ſuſtain conſiderable loſs from the number of wild beaſts that infeſt this part of the country. The torrents that flow from the hills bring with them great quantities of iron ore, which the inhabitants carefully gather, by laying ſtraw and other ſuch materials acroſs the ſtreams to receive it; and, afterwards, by means of fire, convert it into excellent iron. Great quantities of a kind of tranſparent ore, which the natives call tarc, are alſo found in this country, and which, when wrought, is in appearance much ſuperior to iron. The governor of this province is one of the moſt powerful in the whole kingdom; he has twenty-two inferior officers under him: his reſidence is on the declivity of a high mountain called Lombo, on the frontiers between this and the province of Rimba.

Bembea, extends itſelf on one ſide along the ſea, and on the other divides the kingdom of Angola from other nations on the ſouth. The great river Sucano, or San Franciſca, waters moſt part of this province; but it is of little other uſe, for though it abounds with fiſh, yet the inhabitants dare not venture to catch them, owing to its being infeſted with great numbers of crocodiles, ſea-horſes, and monſtrous ſerpents, which not only deſtroy great quantities of fiſh, but alſo do conſiderable miſchief to the adjacent grounds. The country is very large and populous, and abounds with ſmall cattle, the hides of which the inhabitants convert into garments, and anoint their heads

and bodies with the fat. Theſe people are much more ſavage than their neighbours, are almoſt all idolaters, and have a language peculiar to themſelves. They are very artful, and uſe a ſingular ſtratagem in war, which is, to drive great numbers of cattle towards that ſide on which the enemy is expected, whilſt they ſecrete themſelves at a ſmall diſtance, either by lying flat on their bellies in the high graſs, or among the heath or copſes: the cattle ſeldom fail of exciting the enemy to advance in order to make a capture, when they ſuddenly riſe, and furiouſly fall on them with their armed clubs: this ſcheme is generally attended with ſucceſs, the enemy ſoon ſurrendering; after which, they are ſold for ſlaves to the Europeans by their conquerors.

The province of Temba, is in general flat and low, and is well watered by a number of ſmall rivers. The Rio Longo, or Long River, is the moſt remarkable; it ſprings out of a rock, on the top of which the Portugueſe have a fortreſs that defends the whole diſtrict. This province is divided into twelve lordſhips, whoſe chiefs, though under the protection of the Portugueſe, live free and independent, being only obliged to furniſh them with a certain number of ſoldiers in caſes of emergency. The whole country abounds with wild cows and mules, which the inhabitants hunt and kill for food; it alſo produces ſeveral excellent roots, among which one in particular reſembles parſneps, but is much finer in taſte, and is ſaid not only to attenuate phlegm, but to be an admirable purifier of the blood. Some of the inhabitants have been converted to the Roman Catholic religion, which they ſtrictly adhere to; but moſt of them are idolaters.

Oacco, is bounded on the ſouth-weſt, by Lubolo; and, on the north-eaſt, by the river Coanza. It is beautifully diverſified with hills and plains; and is ſo well watered with rivers and ſprings, that it is one of the moſt delightful provinces in the kingdom. Theſe advantages, however, are of little uſe to the natives, who are reſtrained by the lords from cultivating any more of the land than what is abſolutely neceſſary to furniſh proviſions for their own families. This is one of the moſt formidable provinces in the whole kingdom, as the chief governor of it has twenty others under him, whoſe principal buſineſs is, to diſcipline and exerciſe the military.

There is a diſtemper which the natives of this province are ſubject to, and which is peculiar to the climate of this part of the country. It generally begins with a violent headach, and vertigo, and is followed by convulſions, which ſoon reduce the patient to a mere ſkeleton. The medicine for this diſeaſe is made from a plant ſomething like our hyſſop, which they pulverize, and drink the infuſion: they alſo extract an oil from it, with which they anoint the parts convulſed. They are likewiſe ſubject to a kind of ſwelling, that begins at the mouth, and ſpreads all over the neck, which often ſwells to the bigneſs of the head, and is frequently attended with ſuffocation. It is generally cured by anointing the parts affected with ſome of the abovementioned oil.

A very ſingular inſect is found in this province; it ſomewhat reſembles our dragon fly; its ſting is ſo dangerous, that if a quantity of blood be not immediately drawn from the affected part, the perſon is thrown into a violent fever, attended with exceſſive tortures, that commonly end in a total delirium, and, if not ſpeedily relieved, in convulſive death. The moſt remarkable circumſtance attending this is, that when a perſon is cured, he ſeldom fails of a relapſe, owing merely to the remembrance of what he felt during the time he was affected; and ſome of them undergo ſuch excruciating torture, that they cloſe their miſeries, by putting an end to their exiſtence. But we rather think that this relapſe is owing to the unſkilful manner in which they extract the poiſon by bleeding, which being imperfectly done, may occaſion the return of the diſorder.

The poor idolaters, when ſtung by theſe poiſonous inſects, have recourſe to their prieſts, who ſeek out for any inſect of the ſame kind; which having found, they dig a hole in the earth, and put it in, adding ſundry fumigations, exorciſms, and ſuperſtitions, known only to themſelves; after which, they fill the hole with water, and repleniſh it as the liquor ſinks, ſtirring it, and letting the earth ſettle again ſeveral times; at length, without ſtaying till it is quite clear, and diveſted of its diſagreeable earthy taſte, they give the patient plenty of it to drink. This occaſions a violent fit of vomiting, by which ſo great a part of the poiſon is thrown out, that the natural ſtrength of the patient enables him to get rid of what is left behind. Many, however, who are cured by this ſtrange method, are ſome time after ſeized with pains and convulſions in their nerves, which ſometimes terminate in a dead palſy, but more frequently in a ſettled lameneſs. The Europeans themſelves will in ſpite of the expreſs prohibition of the church, have recourſe to the above method of cure, however ſuperſtitious, from its being ſometimes ſucceſsful.

The province of Cabezzo is very populous and fertile, producing not only abundance of cattle, but alſo moſt kinds of proviſions. In one part of it is a hill, called The Iron Mountain, from the yielding great quantities of that metal, which the Portugueſe have taught the natives to puriſy, and work into various kinds of inſtruments. In this province are many large and lofty trees, particularly palm and cocoa-trees: there is alſo one ſort that greatly reſembles our apple-trees, the bark of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous juice of the colour and conſiſtency of honey: it is very uſeful in medicine; but muſt be firſt qualified by ſome cooling drug, being in itſelf of a very hot nature.

Great pains have been taken by the Portugueſe to propagate the Roman Catholic religion in this province; and not without ſucceſs, for there are more idolaters in moſt other parts of Angola, than are to be found here.

Lubolo, is ſituated on the ſouthern banks of the river Coanza, between the provinces of Cabezzo and Quiſſama. Its climate is very wholeſome, and the ſoil remarkably fertile, producing great plenty of moſt ſorts of proviſions. It is chiefly noted for its excellent palm-trees, which produce better wine, oil, and timber, than are to be met with in all the other parts of the kingdom. This province is tributary to the Portugueſe, and the greater part of the people are of the Romiſh religion.

The province of Loanda, which is ſituated in eight degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and thirteen degrees ſix minutes eaſt longitude, is one of the moſt conſiderable places belonging to the Portugueſe ſettlements on this ſide of Africa, and is remarkable for having in it the capital of the whole kingdom of Angola. It is a large city, pleaſantly ſituated on the declivity of a hill, near the ſea coaſt. It is ſtrongly defended by a ſpacious fortreſs, in which is a church dedicated to St. Amaro, and a convent of Ciſterlians, beſides ſeveral bulwarks that ſerve to guard the entrance of the port. This city is called by the Portugueſe San Paulo de Loanda, and was built by them in the year 1578, under the direction of Paulo dias de Novais, the firſt governor of this part of Angola. It is very populous, and greatly reſorted to; not only on account of its being the reſidence of the Portugueſe governor, but alſo for its containing the chief courts of judicature for the whole kingdom.

The churches and other public buildings are ſumptuous, as are alſo thoſe of the merchants and officers, both ſpiritual and temporal. The ſtreets are ſtraight, wide, and regular, and always kept exceeding clean. The houſes belonging to the Portugueſe are built of ſtone, and moſt of them very elegantly furniſhed; but thoſe of the natives are very mean, being built only of earth, and thatched with ſtraw. In the center of the city is a large convent belonging to the jeſuits, who are here held in the higheſt eſteem. It is a ſtately edifice, and endowed with a conſiderable revenue. On one ſide of it is an hoſpital called the Miſericordia, which hath twenty-four wards or rooms for patients, beſides convenient apartments for the directors, phyſician, ſurgeon, apothecary, and other attendants. On the other ſide of the convent is a church belonging to the fraternity of St. John the Baptiſt. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe three buildings is the cathedral, which is a large ſtately ſtructure dedicated to Our Lady of the Conception, under which is another dedicated to the Holy Sacrament. Here are alſo many monaſteries and chapels belonging to the capuchins, carmelites, and friars, which, with other parochial churches ſo ſurround the city, as to ſerve inſtead of fortifications and walls to defend it.

Prodigious numbers of ſlaves are kept in this city, who are employed in tilling the ground, carrying burdens, and fetching water from ſprings in an adjacent iſland called Loanda; the city not having the convenience of being watered by any other kind of means. On the north ſide of the city, at a ſmall diſtance from it, is a lofty hill, on which the original city ſtood. It ſtill bears the name of San Paulo, and upon it are ſome fine houſes, together with the ruins of a monaſtery which formerly belonged to the jeſuits. The preſent city ſuffered much by the Dutch, who took it from the Portugueſe in the year 1641; but the latter ſoon after retaking it, reſtored it to its primitive grandeur. Notwithſtanding the want of water, the country round is very fertile, well cultivated, and beautifully diverſified with a variety of fruit-trees, gardens, and villas.

About half a mile from the city is ſituated the iſland of Loanda, or Loando, which is very diſproportionate in its form, being fifteen miles long, and only one broad. The Portugueſe have many houſes on it, as alſo a great number of gardens, which they keep well-ſtocked with moſt ſorts of fruit-trees, and vegetables. They have alſo on this iſland ſeveral handſome churches; beſides which, there is a ſpacious convent belonging to the Jeſuits, who have at leaſt two thouſand ſlaves in this place. In the neighbourhood of the capital (which is called by the name of the iſland) are many elegant ſeats and villas belonging to the Portugueſe, moſt of which are richly furniſhed, and adorned with gardens, orchards, and other embelliſhments: in ſome of them are alſo very handſome chapels in which ſervice is performed by prieſts, who are allowed a ſufficient ſalary for that purpoſe. The city, which contains about three thouſand houſes, built of ſtone and covered with tiles, is well ſupplied with moſt kinds of proviſions, particularly mutton and pork, the latter of which is greatly eſteemed by the Europeans.

Here are plenty of fiſh, which they take on the coaſts of the iſland of Loanda. The bread uſed by the Europeans is made of millet and Indian wheat; but that uſed by the natives is made from the meal of the manioc root. The latter alſo prefer dog's fleſh to any other, for which reaſon numbers of thoſe animals are fattened up, ſlaughtered, and expoſed to ſale in the public markets.

In this place ſmall payments are made either in zimbis (the ſhells of a ſmall fiſh) or elſe beads, the latter of which are of various ſizes, colours, and faſhions, and are worn by ſome of the natives as ornaments to their arms, necks, and wriſts. Larger payments are made with pieces of cloth of their own manufacture, of a ſtated length and breadth; and goods are uſually paid for in ſlaves, where the ſum is conſiderable.

Benga, or Bengo, is divided into many diſtricts, the chiefs of which are natives, though tributary to the Portugueſe. It is ſituated on a river of the ſame name; and is bounded, on the weſt, by the ſea; and, on the eaſt, by the province of Moſeche. Here are eight churches, three of which are called parochial; and one of them belongs to the jeſuits, who celebrate their feſtivals in it with the greateſt pomp and magnificence. The country is fertile, and produces great plenty of maize and millet, as alſo a prodigious number of banana and bacova trees.

The province of Danda is ſituated to the north of Bengo, on the ſouth ſide of the river of that name, which ſeparates the kingdom of Angola from that of Congo. As this country is well watered, it is very fertile, and produces plenty of grain, with various kinds of fruits; but it is greatly infeſted with crocodiles and large ſerpents, which harbour in the river Bengo. The jeſuits take great pains to bring over the unconverted to a ſenſe of Chriſtianity; and as the inhabitants are for the moſt part Chriſtians, here are ſeveral churches regularly ſerved by ſecular prieſts. The chief of theſe is ſituated at the mouth of the Danda: and at ſome diſtance from it is another, as alſo ſeveral churches and chapels, all which belong to the jeſuits.

Moſeche is ſituated on the northern banks of the river Coanza. In this province are two conſiderable fortreſſes, called Maſſanguno and Cambamba, each of which is under its particular commander. The two have twelve ſovas, or native chiefs, under them, who are obliged to maintain a numerous ſoldiery, not, as is generally ſuppoſed, for the defence of the kingdom, but for the ſervice of their Portugueſe maſters. The ſoil is very fertile, and, beſides grain, is remarkable for producing the manioc root, which is ſo plentiful, that large quantities of it are annually ſent to the city of Loanda.

Mines of various kinds of metal are found in this province, particularly in the government of Cambamba. What is very remarkable, each mine tinges the complexion of the inhabitants who live in that territory; for though they are all naturally black, yet thoſe near the ſilver mines differ in their complexion from thoſe who live near the mines of gold and lead; which cannot be otherwiſe accounted for, than from the effluvia which exhale from the different metals found in them.

Here are a great number of churches, the moſt conſiderable of which are thoſe at Maſſanguno and Cambamba. Theſe bear the title of royal chapels, and the prieſts that belong to them are endowed with many diſtinguiſhed privileges. The inhabitants are chiefly Chriſtians.

Illamba, is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Higher and Lower. The former is ſituated between the rivers Bengo and Calucata; and the latter between the Danda, on the north, and the Bengo on the ſouth. They both pay a tribute to the Portugueſe, are very fertile, and the natives chiefly Chriſtians. The Higher Illambo hath mines of excellent iron, and is almoſt covered with ſmall hills. In the center of it is a large mountain, from the ſummit and ſides of which flow a prodigious number of ſprings and rivulets of clear and wholſome water, which is not only exceeding good to drink, but of infinite ſervice in contributing to fertilize that part of the country. This province pays a conſiderable tribute to the king of Portugal, and the governor is obliged to maintain a numerous militia for the ſervice of that prince.

The province of Oarii, is ſituated on the northern banks of the river Coanza, and adjoins to the province of Moſeche. It is watered by a great number of ſmall rivers that fall into the Coanza, but which, in the time of the great rains, become large, rapid, and dangerous. The Portugueſe have two fortreſſes in this province, at each of which they keep a ſtrong garriſon. One of theſe is built at Quitongo, an iſland of great importance on the river Coanza, and the other at a place called Maopongo.

This laſt-mentioned fortreſs is ſituated on the top of a number of large rocks, and appears, at a diſtance, like a conſiderable city ſurrounded with high walls, and diverſified with ſteeples, turrets, pyramids, obeliſks, triumphal arches, and other eminent ſtructures: on a nearer approach, however, it ſhews itſelf to be no more than a heap of gigantic rocks, parted from each other by intervals of a vaſt depth, and ſeveral fathoms wide; and the ſummit of it, excluſive of a ſmall part round the fortreſs, is a large, barren, and uncultivated plain.

Though this place is near one hundred leagues from the ſea, yet it abounds with a variety of ſprings of brackiſh water, very proper for making ſalt, and which, riſing and falling with the tide, mount up at high water in large ſtreams above the level of the plain. A circumſtance ſtill more ſingular than this, is, that theſe ſprings are intermixed with an equal number of freſh ones, the waters from which are both clear and well-taſted. The ſepulchres of the antient monarchs of Angola, called by the Portugueſe Las Pubuillas de Cobazzo, are ſtill to be ſeen about ſix miles from this place.

The province of Embacca, or Membacca, which is the laſt we have to mention, is ſituated on the north ſide of the river Lucala, and between that and the Higher Illamba. It is wholly ſubject to the Portugueſe; for though the lord who governs it, aſſumes a claim to a kind of independence, yet it is granted him only on condition that he ſhall maintain at his own expence, a numerous body of ſoldiers for their ſervice. Theſe troops, though idolaters, are ſtout, warlike, and well-diſciplined, never betraying any fear of death when they engage an enemy, for which reaſon they are highly valued by the Portugueſe.

The reader will eaſily perceive, from what we have obſerved in deſcribing the above provinces, that form the kingdom of Angola, that the Portugueſe are maſters of the chief part of it: we ſay, the chief part, becauſe ſome of them neither pay tribute to, nor acknowledge any dependence on them, except when they want their aſſiſtance in caſes of emergency. The following, namely, Danda, Moſeche, Bengo, Higher and Lower Illamba, Oarii, Embacca, Scetta, Cabezzo, Lubolo, and Oacco, acknowledge a real ſubjection to the king of Portugal.

The purchaſing of ſlaves conſtitutes the chief trade carried on in this kingdom by the Portugueſe and other Europeans; and indeed this inhuman commerce firſt invited the Portugueſe to this part of Africa. The commodities brought in exchange, are, broad cloths, crimſon and other ſilks, velvets, cambricks, and hollands of all ſorts, gold and ſilver lace, broad and narrow ſtriped tickings, black ſerges, Turkey carpets, threads and ſilks of all ſorts and colours, Canary and other wines, brandy and other ſpirituous liquors, oil, ſpices of all ſorts, loaf-ſugar, knives, fiſhing-hooks, pins and needles, fire-arms, ſwords, cutlaſſes and other weapons, ſmall bells, variety of other trinkets and baubles, glaſs beads of all ſizes and colours, rings of the ſame or other materials, &c.

It is uſual here, to divide the inhabitants of every province (called by the natives Mirindo) into four different claſſes. The firſt is that of Macotas, who are a kind of noblemen. The ſecond conſiſts of thoſe ſtiled the children of Mirindo, who are the original natives of the country, of either ſex, whether merchants, artificers, or huſbandmen. The third is that of the Quiſicos, or ſlaves, who are the property and inheritance of the lords of that province, which devolves, like all other real eſtates, to their heirs and ſucceſſors. And the laſt is the Mabicas, who

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are the ſlaves either taken in war, purchaſed, or condemned to forfeit their freedom for ſome miſdemeanor or crime they have committed.

The kingdom of Angola was formerly ſubject to Congo, but it does not at preſent acknowledge any ſuch dependence; and the king, from the protection he receives from the Portugueſe, preſerves an abſolute authority. He obliges all the lords under his dominion to maintain a certain number of troops for the common ſervice of the realm; but they are very indifferent either with reſpect to their diſcipline or bravery, their arms or accoutrements. They are only a kind of national militia, in which every man that is able to bear arms is obliged to be enrolled; and they ſeldom appear before their commanders, except when they are ſummoned on any particular expedition, at which time the agreeableneſs of their appearance ariſes chiefly from their number. When they are about to engage an enemy, they divide themſeves into three bodies, at certain diſtances from each other. In the center one is the general, who directs all their motions by the ſound of ſeveral warlike inſtruments. They then move forwards, retire, or wheel about as thoſe direct, and fall on the enemy with great fury; making at the ſame time a moſt hideous noiſe. If they find themſelves like to be worſted, they betake themſelves to flight (for they are arrant cowards,) nor is it poſſible for their general to rally them: ſo that the firſt onſet determines the ſucceſs of the battle.

They have ſeveral kinds and ſizes of muſical inſtruments which they uſe in war. One of the loudeſt of them reſembles the drums in Congo; it is covered at one end with the ſkin of a wild beaſt, and is beaten with ivory ſticks, with which it gives a greater and more warlike ſound. They have another inſtrument that reſembles an inverted pyramid, with the point fixed on the ground, and conſiſts of a certain quantity of pieces of metal, thin and round, like bells turned upſide down. This inſtrument is of ſuch importance in an engagement, that the perſons who touch it with wooden ſticks frequently crack the metal by endeavouring to give a loud and more dreadful ſound. The third ſort is made of elephants teeth: they are of various ſizes, and in their form ſomewhat reſemble our German flutes. This inſtrument is much more muſical than either of the former two; it gives a ſound like that of the cornet, but has a greater variety of notes, and when played on by a ſkilful hand, affords very agreeable muſic. This inſtrument is ſuppoſed either to have been firſt introduced, or elſe greatly improved by the Portugueſe, who have alſo introduced the uſe of kettle-drums, trumpets, hautboys, and other inſtruments; but thoſe principally uſed in war are the three firſt mentioned.

The largeſt of their inſtruments are appropriated to the head general, whoſe orders, by means of theſe, are heard by the whole army. The next in ſize are uſed by thoſe who command the ſeveral bodies into which it is divided, and the leſſer ſizes are for the uſe of the captains and other inferior officers; ſo that the ſound of the larger inſtrument is no ſooner heard, than all the others anſwer in concert, and by this method the whole army is made acquainted with the orders of the general.

The military officers are dreſſed in a very grand manner; and they appear much taller than they really are, as well as more terrible, by the length and variety of oſtrich, peacock, and other feathers, with which they adorn their caps. They wear about their necks ſeveral links of iron chain, to which are faſtened great numbers of rings that make a loud jingle at every motion; for the ſame purpoſe alſo, they hang a number of bells about their middle, the noiſe of which they ſuppoſe animates the ſoldiers to fight with more ardour, and at the ſame time give themſelves a greater air of pomp and grandeur. They wear buſkins on their legs, after the manner of the Portugueſe. Their weapons are the bow, ſword, target, and dagger; thoſe, however, who carry the bow, are allowed only to wear the ſword and dagger, but not the target.

Some of the common ſoldiers uſe broad ſwords, muſkets, and piſtols, which they purchaſe of the Portugueſe; but thoſe who go naked from the waiſt upwards, fight only with bow and dagger, and wear large crooked knives in their girdles.

With reſpect to the language of the people of Angola, it is radically the ſame with thoſe of Congo; but the dialects of the different provinces vary ſo eſſentially in pronunciation, that it is difficult for thoſe born in places remote from each other to converſe together. This, however, is not to be wondered at, in a country where there is no regular grammar, ſince England and France, which abound in poliſhed writers, labour under the ſame inconveniencies, as the jargon ſpoken in many of the countries of the former: and the ſeveral provincial dialects of the latter, render it impoſſible for the natives of the ſame country to be underſtood by a pure ſpeaker of either.

We ſhall conclude our account of the particulars relative to this kingdom, with the deſcription of a remarkable ridge of mountains which extends itſelf north-eaſt from cape Negro. Some of theſe, on account of their prodigious height and coldneſs, are called by the Portugueſe Monti Freddi; and ſome others, which are ſtill higher, they call Monti Nevoſi, on account of their ſnowy tops, the water of which, falling in great plenty during the ſummer ſeaſon, form a conſiderable lake below. But the moſt conſiderable one of all is that called Cambambo, on which there is a mine that produces excellent ſilver. The Portugueſe have long ſince made themſelves maſters of this place; and, in order to ſecure it, have built a very ſtrong fortreſs. This place, which, by reaſon of its vicinity to the great river Coanza, is very conveniently ſituated for the great trade carried on in ſlaves, is under the direction of a governor appointed by the Portugueſe.

SECT. IV.

Deſcribing CONGO PROPER, its Situation, Boundaries, Rivers Provinces, Natural Hiſtory of the Country, Natives, Government, Laws, Trade, &c.

CONGO Proper, is ſituated between the ſecond and eleventh degrees of ſouth latitude, and between the thirty-ſecond and forty-firſt degrees of eaſt longitude, extending in length, from north to ſouth, five hundred and forty miles, and in breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about four hundred and twenty. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by the kingdoms of Makoko and Matamba; on the north, by the river Zaire; on the ſouth, by Angola, from which it is ſeparated by the river Danda; and, on the weſt, by the ocean.

The moſt conſiderable of its rivers is the Zaire abovementioned, called by the natives the great river of Congo. This river is ſituated in five degrees forty minutes ſouth latitude, it is three miles broad at the mouth, and runs with a very ſtrong current into the ſea. It is navigable for large veſſels about ſeventy miles up the country; but beyond that it cannot be paſſed, owing to a prodigious number of rocks that lie in the centre of it. From this river run ſeveral ſmall brooks, which not only water the country, but are alſo very convenient for the merchants and other inhabitants, who can go in canoes from one village to another. In the courſe of this river are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, the inhabitants of which are under the government of lords appointed by the king of Congo. Thoſe called Bommo and Quintella, are the two principal, and are ſituated near the mouth of the river, the firſt of which is remarkable for having many mines of iron.

Though the iſlands above-mentioned are all inhabited, yet there is not a houſe to be ſeen, the ground being ſo low and marſhy, that it is conſtantly under water; for which reaſon the negroes live chiefly in their canoes, or under trees, round which they build their huts, raiſed ſeveral feet above the ground. Theſe iſlanders are a ſtrong and reſolute people, but they are very unpoliſhed in their manners. They have no marriage or betrothing, but from their youth form ſuch alliances as their inclinations direct, without any ceremony. They are governed by particular chiefs and officers, who are choſen by a majority of voices in the aſſembly.

The other of theſe iſlands, namely, Quintella, is remarkable for having an idol, which no one dare approach but the perſons appointed to attend, and who ſecure it from being diſcovered. To effect this, they are themſelves obliged, as often as they go thither, to take ſuch a path as they think no other perſon can find out. Many perſons, particularly in caſes of ſickneſs, make rich offerings to this idol, all which are totally deſtroyed; for as ſoon as they are dedicated, the perſon attending conveys them to the idol, which is placed on a large plain, ſurrounded with a wall made of elephants teeth, where they are hung on poles, and there left till they are entirely deſtroyed by time.

Three lakes communicate water to the river Zaire; the firſt of which is the Zambre, the ſecond the Zaire, and the third a great lake, from whence the Nile is ſuppoſed to have its ſource. The Zambre, however, is the moſt conſiderable, being, as it were, the center from whence all the rivers in this part of Africa proceed.

The Umbre or Vambre, Brancare or Bancare, Barbele

bele or Varbele, Lelunda, Ambrifi, Encocoquematari, Onza, Libongo, or Lemba, and Danda, are the other rivers in this kingdom, but they are all too inconfiderable to merit particular notice.

Congo is divided into fix provinces, the fituations, names, and titles of which, are as follow; viz. the county or earldom of Songo, and the great duchy of Bemba, along the coaft; the duchy of Sundi, and the marquifate of Pango, to the north eaft; the duchy of Bala, eaftward; and the marquifate of Pemba, in the middle. We may add to thefe provinces, the territories or lordfhips of Amalaca, Dambi Ambuila, Dembo Quingengo, Dembo Angona, the little duchy of Ovando, and the territory of Sova Cavanga; but thefe diftricts are fo trifling, as not to require any particular defcription.

The province or county of Songo, is bounded, on the eaft, by Pango and Sundi; on the weft, by the Ethiopic fea; on the north, by the river Zaire; and, on the fouth, by the Lelunda. The foil is dry and fandy, and were it not for the great quantities of falt which are gathered on the fea-coaft, the governor or count's income would be very trifling. The chief produce of the inland parts are palm-trees, the fruit of which is the principal fubfiftence of the inhabitants.

Banza, or Banza-Songo, the capital of this province, is fituated about nine miles from cape Padrono, on the fouth fide of the mouth of the Zaire. It contains about 400 houfes, which are built fo irregular and ftraggling, that they take up a large compafs of ground. They are generally thatched, and the fides of them are fenced with palm-branches, or leaves neatly interwoven. The infides are hung with mats of various colours, and the ceilings are made of ruthes. The count of Songo's palace, which is made of wood, is very fpacious, and diftinguifhed from the reft, not only for its fize, but is always painted with a mahogany colour, or nearly refembling it.

There is a church in this town, which is remarkable for its antiquity, it being fuppofed to have been built ever fince the Portugueſe firft came into the provinces, which was about the year 1482. If this fuppofition is juftly founded, it is an extraordinary circumftance, the edifice conſiſting only of timber, plaiſtered on both fides with clay. But befides the above, there are three other churches in this town, the firft of which ftands within the inclofure of the count's palace, and is dedicated to the Virgin Mary; the fecond is fituated at fome diftance from it, and is the burial place of thofe governors; and the third, which is dedicated to St. Anthony, adjoins to a monaftery belonging to the capuchins, and ferves them not only as a chapel, but alfo as a parifh church. Here are feveral other inferior chapels, as well as in other parts of the province; every fova, or inferior governor, being obliged to maintain one in the place of his refidence.

The count maintains, in his court, a dignity and fplendor little inferior to thofe of the king: he has many petty lords under him, who were formerly independent, but are now fubject to his government; and he might be ftyled an abſolute monarch, were he not tributary to the king of Congo. His dreſs differs according to the various feaſt days, as alſo on other particular occaſions, which we ſhall here particularize.

His uſual habit is a garment of ſtraw cloth, girt cloſe about him, but of ſuch workmanſhip, that no other perſon dare preſume to wear the like, without firſt having obtained his permiſſion. This garment reaches from the ſhoulders to the ancles, over which is a long baize cloak, that hangs trailing on the ground. On the feaſt days he changes this cloak for a ſhort ſcarlet one, fringed all round with the ſame cloth, pinked. On the moſt ſolemn days he puts on a ſhirt of the fineſt linen, as likewiſe yellow or crimſon ſilk ſtockings, and a cloak of flowered ſilk. When he goes to communicate at the altar, he has a cloak all white, which is ſo long, that it trails on the ground as he walks. In going to church, which is at leaſt three times a week, he has a velvet chair and cuſhion carried before him, being brought himſelf in a net, on the ſhoulders of two men, each with a ſtaff in his hand, one all ſilver, and the other ebony tipped. The hat he then wears, is covered firſt with taffety, and above that a ſort of very fine feathers, under which he has a ſmall white cap, neatly ſtitched with ſilk. On his breaſt is a large brafſy croſs; and from his neck hang ſeveral ſtrings of coral, with a large chain of pure gold. Before him march a number of muſicians, one of whom is diſtinguiſhed above the reſt, by having ſeveral ſmall round bells fixed to an iron about a yard long, which he keeps continually jingling as he walks. On each ſide of him is a man holding an umbrella fixed on the top of long poles, to ſhelter him from the heat of the ſun. After maſs, his guards, who always attend him, fire a volley, which is followed by the ſound of drums, and other inſtruments of war.

Nine or ten of the principal men in the province elect the count to the earldom; theſe generally attend his perſon. The choice is always made between the death of the former count and his interment; but the government is in the hands of the electors during the vacancy.

On the death of the count, it ſometimes happens that his ſon, or ſome other perſon in the family, will raiſe a faction in the province, in order to obtain poſſeſſion of the throne, and exclude the electors from their accuſtomed privilege; for which reaſon, the euchariſt has been ſometimes omitted to be adminiſtered to him, for fear of diſcovering his ſituation by the prieſt's going to court; and his death is always concealed as much as poſſible from the public.

All the count's ſubjects, on the feaſt of St. James, ſhew their allegiance by complimenting him with ſome preſent, in proportion to their circumſtances. On the ſame day the civil offices are diſpoſed of to thoſe who are thought worthy of holding them; and ſuch as have miſbehaved in their employments are diſcarded.

The duchy of Bemba is the ſecond province of Congo Proper; it is ſituated between the rivers of Ambriſi and Loza, the latter of which ſeparates it from the marquiſate of Pemba on the eaſt, and the former from the county of Songo on the north. Along the ſea-coaſt it extends itſelf much farther; viz. on the ſouth, to the river Danda, which parts it from the kingdom of Angola, and northward to the river Lelunda.

Bamba is one of the largeſt and richeſt provinces in the whole kingdom: its ſoil is naturally fertile, and would produce abundance of all the neceſſaries of life, were the natives induſtrious in cultivating and improving it. The ſea coaſts produce likewiſe a prodigious quantity of ſalt, inſomuch that they have not only a ſufficiency for their own conſumption, but they alſo export it to foreign countries, which makes the article yield an extraordinary revenue to the crown. The inhabitants in general profeſs the Romiſh religion, and keep ſeveral jeſuits, and other prieſts, for religious purpoſes.

Banga, or Panga, the capital of this country, is ſituated about thirty miles from the ſea-coaſt. It is a large town, but the houſes, like thoſe in Songo, are built in a very ſtraggling and irregular manner. It ſtands in a hilly country, and is watered by two rivulets. Here are ſeveral churches, but they are all very mean buildings, the tops being covered with thatch, and the walls made of clay.

The greateſt reſpect is paid at court to the lord of Bamba, who is alſo captain general of his majeſty's forces, and the moſt powerful of all his vaſſals.

The duchy or province of Sundi begins about forty miles north-eaſt of St. Salvador. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the province of Pemba; on the weſt, by that of Pango; on the north, by the river Zaire; and, on the ſouth by the duchy of Batta. Its capital is called Banza Sundi, which name was given it to diſtinguiſh it from Banza (now called St. Salvador) the capital of the whole kingdom.

There are ſeveral diſtinct governments in this province, moſt of which being far diſtant from the capital, and in places ſurrounded with mountains almoſt inacceſſible, the people pay obedience to the governor according to their own diſcretion. They are always armed, and keep the whole province in a conſtant ſtate of trouble and agitation; for, as the Portugueſe have not been able to propagate their religion amongſt them, they are more refractory than any other people in the whole kingdom of Congo.

If this province was well cultivated, it would be one of the moſt fertile ſpots in the univerſe, it being watered with ſeveral rivers; but the inhabitants are ſo indolent, that they rather chuſe to live almoſt in want, than apply themſelves to labour: and therefore they purchaſe from the adjoining provinces what proviſions they have occaſion for.

The moſt precious metals abound in the mountains here; but, by reaſon of the turbulent ſpirit of the inhabitants, they are not ſuffered to be dug for. They work only the iron mines, and one mine of copper which is found in the mountains on the north ſide of the Zaire. This laſt is of a beautiful yellow, and the inhabitants of Loango purchaſe great quantities of it.

Pango, was formerly called Panga Logos, at which time it had the title and prerogative dignity of kingdom; but it hath loſt both ever ſince the kings of Congo ſubdued and reduced it to the rank of a province. This marquiſate

ſate is bounded on the eaſt, by the mountains of the ſun; on the weſt, by Pemba; on the north, by Sundi; and, on the ſouth, by Batta. Its capital is called Banza Pango, and is ſituated on the banks of the river Barbela, which runs through the center of the province. The nature of the inhabitants, as alſo their diſpoſitions, cuſtoms, and manners, are the ſame in general as thoſe of Congo, nor has the town, or the province itſelf, any thing remarkable in them.

The province or duchy of Bata, or Batta, is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt of Pango, and hath the ſalt petre mountains on the eaſt; on the ſouth, it is bounded by the Montes Quemados, or Burning Mountains; and, on the weſt, by the province of Pemba. It is of conſiderable extent, and was formerly a kingdom of itſelf, till it voluntarily ſubmitted to the kings of Congo, for which reaſon it enjoys more privileges than any other province in the kingdom, and a perſon deſcended from the antient kings of that country is always appointed governor of it.

This province has a very fertile ſoil, which produces ſeveral ſorts of excellent grain; the inhabitants are more civilized and affable than their neighbours; and were more eaſily converted to chriſtianity, the principles of which they have ever ſince ſtrictly retained and adhered to.

Batta, is the capital city of this province: but it is not conſiderable for any thing except its being the reſidence of the governors of the province, who are allowed to have a number of muſketeers in pay to defend it from the incurſions of the wild Jaggas, who inhabit near its eaſtern frontiers beyond the mountains of the Sun and Salt Petre, living chiefly by ravaging their neighbours on all ſides, and would do the ſame by this, were they not over-awed by thoſe troops. The road between this capital and that of the whole kingdom hath a great number of houſes and hamlets on both ſides, a circumſtance very uncommon in theſe countries. The boundaries of this capital are extremely fertile.

The governor of this province, who is ſtiled manibarta, is conſidered as the ſecond perſon in the kingdom. Whatever he ſays, muſt not be controverted by any of the reſt; and on the failure of the royal line, the ſucceſſion devolves upon him. His court and attendants are little inferior to thoſe of the king, for when he goes abroad on any public occaſion, he is preceded by trumpets, drums, and other martial inſtruments. He ſometimes alſo eats at the king's table, which is a privilege not granted even to the king's ſons.

The marquiſate of Pemba is the laſt province that remains to be mentioned in this kingdom, which, though ſmaller in extent than any of the reſt, hath always had this ſingular advantage, that its capital hath always been the native reſidence and burial place of all the kings of Congo, whether idolaters or Chriſtians. This province is well watered, not only by the Lelunda, which runs quite through it from eaſt to weſt, but alſo by the river Ambriſi and ſome others, which equally contribute to its fertility, and the riches and happineſs of its inhabitants. The conſtant reſidence of the king and his court, which is very numerous, emulates the people to induſtry, whilſt the great conſumption of proviſions, and other merchandizes, improves their commerce, encourages their diligence, and increaſes their wealth; the fruit of which they quietly enjoy, without being expoſed to the extortions of foreign viceroys, or (being ſo happily ſituated in the heart of the country) to the incurſions of barbarous neighbours.

We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of the city of St. Salvader, the capital of the kingdom of Congo, which is ſituated almoſt in the center of this province of Pemba. It was (as we before obſerved,) formerly called Banza, which in the language of the country, ſignifies, court, from its being the uſual reſidence of the kings. It received its preſent name from the Portugueſe, by which it has for many years been known to all other Europeans. It ſtands about one hundred and fifty miles from the ſea, on a large and high mountain, which is almoſt all rock: on the top is a plain about ten miles in circumference, which commands a moſt extenſive and delightful proſpect, and is beautifully ſhaded with a great variety of fruit trees, as palm, tamarind, plantain, kola, lemon, and orange-trees. The air is alſo exceeding wholeſome, which was one of the motives that induced the kings to fix their ſeats here; another reaſon was, its lying in the center of the kingdom, by which means, if particular circumſtances required it, relief might be quickly ſent to any other part: a third reaſon was, the great elevation of the land, which renders it almoſt inacceſſible to an enemy, and conſequently neither eaſy to be ſurpriſed or attacked. The mountain hath alſo ſome iron mines, which are of ſingular uſe to the inhabitants, who fabricate it into weapons and inſtruments of agriculture. It is therefore little to be wondered at, that the Congo monarchs ſhould have choſen for their uſual place of reſidence, a ſpot which is rendered valuable by ſo many conveniencies. The city is very populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at forty thouſand.

On an angle of the hill towards the ſouth-eaſt, ſtands the town, which is ſo ſtrongly ſituated by nature, that it hath not any walls, except on the ſouth-ſide. The ſurface of the hill is covered with houſes, moſt of which belong to perſons of quality, who have ſuch a number of apartments and out-buildings belonging to them, that each houſe appears, as it were, a town of itſelf. Thoſe belonging to the inferior people run in a ſtraight line, and form very handſome ſtreets: moſt of them are ſpacious, though they appear mean from their conſtruction, being built only of clay and ſtraw: but thoſe belonging to the Portugueſe, which are covered with thatch, are built of brick.

The royal palace is large and ſpacious, ſurrounded with four walls, one of which is made of ſtone, but all the reſt of ſtraw: the walls of the inner apartments are made of the ſame materials, but covered with hangings or mats curiouſly wrought. Adjoining to the inner court (where the king ſpends moſt of his time) are large gardens and orchards, adorned with arbours and pavilions, which are very commodious.

Excluſive of the palace, the moſt conſiderable buildings in the city, are, twelve churches, of which one is the cathedral, a college belonging to the Jeſuits, where four of them are conſtantly employed in teaching the Latin and Portugueſe, and in catechiſing the people; and laſtly, the Portugueſe fort, which is a ſtrong and ſpacious edifice. The churches, and other public buildings, except the Jeſuit's college, have ſtone foundations, but the roofs are very mean, being covered only with ſtraw; and they are indifferently provided with utenſils for the celebration of divine offices in public worſhip.

Two excellent fountains afford a plentiful ſupply of freſh water to the city: the one is in a place called St. James's ſtreet, and the other within the walls of the court; beſides which, there is, on the eaſt ſide, near the foot of the hill, a ſpring of excellent water called the veſe, which falls into the river Lebemda, and is extremely ſerviceable to the adjacent country and environs of the city.

There is a ſpacious ſquare before the great church, on one ſide of which a large market is kept every day for the ſale of proviſions. The reſt of the ſquare is ſurrounded with elegant houſes, chiefly inhabited by noblemen.

In the vallies below the city, as alſo in the adjacent plain, are produced ſeveral ſorts of grain, the chief of which is an exotic brought thither from the banks of the Nile, called leuco, in ſhape and ſize like the millet; the meal of which, when ground, makes excellent bread, and is preferred by the natives to that of wheat, which laſt they uſe only at the performance of maſs. Here alſo grow quantities of maize, called by them mazza congo, or corn of Congo; but they only uſe this article as food for their hogs. A greater number of cattle are fed here than in any other part of the kingdom, as their paſture-grounds yield excellent graſs for them.

Conſidering the equatorial ſituation of the kingdom of Congo, its climate is much leſs ſultry than might naturally have been expected. Their winter months are April, May, June, July, and Auguſt, during which they have almoſt continual rains, whereby the rivers are ſo ſwelled as to overflow the principal part of the country.

The winds, in winter, blow from north to weſt, and from north to north-eaſt. Theſe winds drive the clouds towards the mountains, where being gathered and compreſſed, they at length condenſe into water. In the ſummer, the winds blow from the ſouth to the ſouth-eaſt; and as they clear the ſouthern ſkies, ſo they drive the rain into the northern regions. Theſe winds are of infinite ſervice in cooling the air, which otherwiſe would be ſo hot as to be almoſt inſupportable; for even as it is, they are obliged, in order to keep off the violent heat, to hang coverings over their houſes.

The ſoil is exceeding fertile, and produces ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly rice and maize, and the whole country is well watered with rivers. They have alſo a great plenty of a grain called luko, which in its form reſembles muſtard-ſeed, but when ground produces flour little inferior to that from wheat. The manioc-root is likewiſe cultivated here, and much admired by the Portugueſe, who, inſtead of making it into bread, bruiſe it very ſmall,

and either eat it raw, or else boil it in broth. They have likewise great plenty of various sorts of vegetables, most of which are cultivated with very little labour. Among these are turnips, cabbages, potatoes, radishes, cauliflowers, carrots, and spinach, besides others not known in Europe. They have also several useful herbs, as balm, sage, mint, hyssop, thyme, sweet-majoram, and divers others.

Among the trees most distinguished for medicinal qualities, is one called Angaria, the root of which, boiled in water, is an infallible remedy for violent pains in the side. Another tree of medicinal virtue is the khiseka, any part of which being reduced to powder, and mixed with water, is good against fevers; and in case of fainting, if applied either to the forehead or temple, is equally efficacious as hartshorn. The Jakassa-tree, which grows very tall, and is of a red colour, has the virtue of curing the tooth-ach and sore gums; but it is very pernicious to birds; for they soon fall dead to the ground, after having settled on its branches.

A tree which bears a fruit resembling a lemon, likewise grows here. This very singular production of nature, called mignamigna, possesses two opposite occult qualities in the most eminent degree, being at once a deadly poison and powerful antidote. If a person is infected by the fruit, the leaves are a certain cure; if by the leaves, the fruit has the same effect; and the wood is deemed both as pernicious and salutary as either the leaves or the fruit.

Among the wild animals of this country, are elephants, lions, tygers, leopards, buffaloes, bears, wolves, large wild cats, cameleons, apes, and monkies; besides which, they have great numbers of stags, fallow-deer, roebucks, hares, and rabbets. Their tame animals, are, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs.

This country abounds with poultry, particularly fowls, geese, and ducks. They have also abundance of wild fowl, as partridges, pheasants, woodcocks, pigeons, doves, hens, &c. The wild hens are much more beautiful, and the flesh better tasted than the tame ones, but they are not esteemed by the natives. The birds of prey, are eagles, falcons, and sparrowhawks. In some parts of the kingdom are ostriches; and on the borders of Angola is a wood encompassed with walls, where peacocks are bred for the use of the king. The feathers of these birds, mixed together, and made in the form of an umbrella, are used instead of banners and ensigns in war.

There are great numbers of parrots in the woods, most of which are very large, and either of a grey or green colour; but there is one species exceeding small, not being larger than sparrows, and their feathers are beautifully variegated: the most admired among the small birds are those called birds of music; they are about the size of a canary-bird, but differ greatly in the colour of their feathers: some are all red, and others green, with their feet and bill only black; some again are all white, grey, dun, or black. These last are kept in cages by the better sort of people, merely for the sake of their song, as they have the most agreeable note.

They have several kinds of reptiles here, as scorpions, millepedes, vipers, snakes, serpents, &c. Among the snakes, there is one species so amazingly large, that we are told it will swallow a whole sheep. It is called the great water-adder, from its being chiefly found in the rivers. It goes, however, on land in search of prey, and climbs the trees, where it lies in wait for the cattle that come to pasture. As soon as a sheep or hog arrives near the place, the snake immediately descends, and winding its tail round the hinder parts of the animal, secures it from moving, when he kills and devours it. When he has gorged his prey, he becomes for some time stupid; but as soon as he recovers, he immediately makes for the water, where he continues till hunger prompts him to seek for a fresh supply of food.

A great variety of fish is found in the seas and rivers: among others, in the former, are prodigious quantities of sardimas and anchovies; and in the latter are plenty of sturgeons, soles, barbel, trout, tench, and other excellent fish. They have also, particularly at the mouths of the rivers, several kinds of shell-fish, as oysters, muscles, cockles, and large crabs.

There are mines of several sorts of metal in this kingdom, especially iron and copper; and in the mountainous parts are large quarries, that produce not only excellent stone, but marble of various colours, also porphyry and jasper.

With respect to the natives of Congo, they differ in their persons, according to the respective provinces in which they are born: some of them are very tall and robust, but the generality are of a middling stature; some again are of an olive complexion, while others are quite black. They have all black curling hair, but their noses are not so flat, neither are their lips so thick, as those of the negroes in general. In their dispositions, they are proud and haughty among themselves, but to strangers they are very affable and courteous. They have a natural propensity to theft; and whatever they get, either by stealing or otherwise, they spend in liquors, of which they are very fond, and frequently drink to the greatest excess. They have naturally a ready turn of wit, and, when sober, will converse with great circumspection. They are, however, very revengeful; and whenever they think themselves offended, nothing will satisfy them but destroying the object of their resentment, which they generally effect by poison.

The dress of the common people consists only of a loose garment made of cloth, which is fastened round the waist, from whence it reaches to the middle of the leg, and some have the bottom ornamented with a fringe. The upper part of the body is intirely naked, nor do they wear any sort of covering on their heads. The richer sort have long and broad cloaks made of cloth or serge, and in form much like those worn by the Portuguese, under which they have a white shirt, or a kind of damask or sattin petticoat, which reaches from the waist to the ancles: they have also gold or silver sashes, with necklaces of red coral, and on their heads they wear caps made of white cotton. Some of the ladies have a veil over their heads, and a velvet cap richly ornamented with jewels under it.

The great men, when they travel, are carried in hammocks made either of net-work, or strong sluns; the manner of which is thus described: the hammock is fastened to a long pole about a foot from each end; and when a person has got into the hammock, two men, one before and the other behind, take up the pole, and lay it on the shoulders, carrying the person in this manner a considerable way without resting. When they go long journies, they have four men who relieve each other, in the doing of which they are so expert, that they never stop, but shift as they walk, at the same time keeping their usual pace. This is a very easy method of travelling, the person sitting or lying in the hammock as he thinks proper; and in order to shelter themselves from the heat of the sun, they have sometimes a piece of callico thrown over the pole.

They have likewise another method of travelling, which is, that instead of a hammock, they fasten two ropes to the pole, one of which is much shorter than the other: they are each tied in two parts, and hang like swings; in the former the person sits, and at the bottom of the latter is a square piece of board, on which he rests his feet. The person carried generally holds an umbrella in his hand, to shelter him from the heat of the sun, or the inclemency of the weather. The reason of their travelling in this manner, is from the want of horses, there not being in the whole kingdom any of those useful animals.

Their buildings here pretty much resemble those in the other parts of the western coasts of Africa: they form little towns or villages, by erecting several houses together in the midst of an inclosure. These buildings are made of wood, and covered with the branches of trees: each house is divided into several apartments, the innermost of which is adapted for the women: they are all on the ground floor, and are without windows; the only light they have being admitted at the door, which is so small, that they are obliged to stoop when they pass it. The inclosure of the houses is formed by trees, which grow so close together, that they keep off the violent heat of the sun, at the same time that they serve for a fence.

Their houses are very thinly stocked with furniture, the whole of which consists only of a few necessary utensils, as pots, kettles, calabashes to hold their provisions, a mill to grind their corn, a hatchet to fell timber, and some instruments of agriculture. Some of them have beds made of coarse cloth stuffed with straw, or the leaves of trees, but loose straw spread on the ground serves the generality of them to lie on.

The common people live chiefly on rice, fish, potatoes, and other roots; but persons of higher rank have also flesh and fowl. They sometimes regale themselves with palm-wine, or brandy mixed with water; but their common drink is water only.

The natives who reside near towns, live chiefly by trade; but in the country they are principally employed in agriculture, and the keeping of cattle. About the river

Zaire



Various BEASTS *of* DIFFERENT PARTS *of the* WORLD.

1 The Saoveiio.....2 Elephant.....3. A kind of Monkey.....4 The Lucks.....5. A Jackall.....6 Camel
7 A particular kind of Indian Oxen.....8 The Saraqose. Monkey & Young one.....9 The. Macassar Fox.
10 Indian He-Goat.....11 An Animal called the Aunt-Bear.....12 A Japanese Animal named Doots-Hoost.
13. A kind of Monkey called the Beard. Man.

Morris sculp.



Different ways of Carriage & Travelling in CONGO.

Zaire ſome of them ſubſiſt by fiſhing, ſome by drawing palm-wine, and others by weaving. Towards the eaſtern borders of the kingdom are ſome excellent artiſts, who get conſiderable wealth by making various ſorts of cloths, as cloths of tiſſue, ſattins, taffata, damaſks, ſarſenets, velvet cut and uncut, &c. The yarn is made of the leaves of palm-trees, which trees they always keep ſhort, every year cutting and watering them, that they may grow ſmall and tender againſt the next ſpring. The threads drawn from theſe leaves, are very fine and even, and with thoſe that are longeſt they weave the largeſt pieces. Theſe ſtuffs are woven in ſeveral forms; ſome like velvet on both ſides; others, called damaſks, are made like leaves, or the figures of birds and animals. Their brocades are by far the beſt; but leave muſt be firſt obtained from the king, before any perſon is permitted to wear them.

The Congoeſe are extremely fond of diverſion and feſtivity. In moſt villages the people aſſemble every evening at ſome open place, where they form a ring, in the corner of which is placed a large wooden platter full of proviſions. The eldeſt of the company who is called Makaluntu, gives to each his portion, which he divides with ſuch exactneſs, that no perſon has the leaſt reaſon to complain. They do not make uſe either of cups or glaſſes, but only a large flaſk, which, when any one wants to drink, the makaluntu holds to the perſon's mouth; and when he thinks he has drank enough, he takes the flaſk away. It is remarkable, that if any ſtrangers happen to come by at the time of theſe feſtivities, they are equally welcome to participate with the reſt of the gueſts, and always take their place in the ring, without being aſked who they are, or from whence they came.

On ſeveral particular occaſions they have alſo feaſts, ſuch as gaining a law-ſuit, a marriage, the birth of a child, or any ſingular advancement in life. At theſe feaſts they dance, and ſing love-ſongs, which are attended with a variety of muſical inſtruments, conſiſting of flutes, pipes, ivory trumpets, and drums, the latter of which are made of this wood, and covered with the ſkin of a beaſt. One of their moſt ingenious inſtruments, and the moſt common in uſe, is called the marimba. It conſiſts of ſixteen calabaſhes of ſeveral ſizes, placed uniformly between two boards joined together on a long frame, which is hung about a man's neck with a thong. Over the mouths of the calabaſhes are thin ſlips of red wood, which being ſtruck with two ſmall ſticks, produce a ſound, ſomewhat reſembling that of an organ, and which is very agreeable.

Another favourite amuſement is the kaſſubo. It conſiſts of a hollow piece of wood about a yard long, covered with a board cut like a ladder, or with croſs ſlits at proper diſtances; on theſe they gently draw a ſtick, which produces a harſh ſound, and is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of the muſic as tenor. This inſtrument is always uſed in concert.

They have alſo an inſtrument called the Congo, which is made with two iron bells, joined with a piece of iron archways, and is ſounded by ſtriking it with a ſmall ſtick. This inſtrument is always carried before princes when they make public proclamations to the people, in the ſame manner as the trumpet is among us.

Their marriages are celebrated according to the rites of the Romiſh church, ſome of the natives of Congo having embraced that religion; but moſt of them preſerve their antient idolatrous maxims, are married by their own prieſts, have a number of wives, each taking as many as he thinks he is able to maintain. Their contracts of marriage are thus performed: when two parties approve of each other, the parents of the young man ſend a preſent to thoſe of the girl, at the ſame time requeſting that they will let his ſon have her for a wife. If the parents of the young woman retain the preſent, it is a token of compliance; in which caſe the young man with his relations and friends, goes immediately to the houſe of his miſtreſs's father, and conducts her to his own, when a prieſt is ſent for, the marriage ceremonies are performed, and the evening is concluded with joy and feſtivity. When the father of the girl receives the marriage preſent he muſt not complain be it ever ſo trifling, as that would be conſidered in the light of ſelling his daughter; for which reaſon, and to prevent ſuch a crime, a tax is ſettled, what every man ſhall give according to his circumſtances in life.

If the huſband afterwards diſcovers any material imprudence in his wife, or has reaſon to be diſguſted with her, he ſends her back to her parents, and has the preſents reſtored: but if the fault appears to be on his own ſide, he cannot recover any thing. A man who is detected in having a criminal converſation with another's wife, is obliged, as a compenſation for the injury, to give the value of a ſlave to the huſband; but the woman receives no other puniſhment than aſking pardon of her huſband for the offence ſhe has committed. Thoſe who are detected in cohabiting together without the ceremonies of marriage, are puniſhed with a fine, which is levied in proportion to the offender's circumſtances.

The pagan prieſts here, the ſame as in Loango, lay certain injunctions on young people, ſuch as obliging them to abſtain from eating ſome ſorts of poultry, the fleſh of certain beaſts, fruits of different kinds, roots either raw or boiled after this or that manner, with the like ridiculous obligations, which they call kejilla. Theſe rules are as inviolably kept as they are ſtrictly enjoined; they would ſooner faſt till they periſhed, than taſte the leaſt bit of what has been forbidden; for they think, if they commit the leaſt treſpaſs againſt the kejilla, they ſhall certainly die in a very ſhort time. The prepoſſeſſion of their minds on this head will be evident from the following ſtory mentioned by Merolla, in his voyage to Congo: "A young black, ſays he, upon his journey (who had received the kejilla), coming to a friend's houſe at night, his hoſt next morning had for breakfaſt a wild fowl, which is much better than a tame one. The gueſt hereupon demanded if it was a wild hen? and being anſwered in the negative, he ſat down and ate very heartily. Four years after, theſe two meeting together again, the country black aſked his friend, who was not yet married, if he would eat a wild hen? The young man anſwered that he had received the kejilla, and therefore could not; the other laughed, and aſked, What made him refuſe it now, when he had eaten it at his table ſo many years before? At hearing this, the other began to tremble, and in leſs than twenty-four hours died, by the mere effects of imagination."

The method they take to cure the head-ach, is, by bleeding the patient in the temples; in doing of which, they firſt cut the ſkin with the edge of a ſhell ſharpened, and then applying a ſmall horn to the part, ſuck out the blood. For complaints in other parts of the body, they perform the ſame operation.

On the death of any perſon, a number of hens is immediately killed by the relations, who ſprinkle the houſe both within and without, with the blood, from a ſuppoſition that it will prevent the apparition of the deceaſed from viſiting any of the future inhabitants. As ſoon as this part of the ceremony is over, they ſhew their lamentation by howling over the corpſe for ſome time; after which they regale themſelves; and the corpſe, being wrapped up in a piece of cotton cloth, is carried on men's ſhoulders to the grave, which is made in ſome remote ſpot at a conſiderable diſtance from the village in which the deceaſed lived. A kind of memorial, according to the quality of the perſon interred, is placed over the grave: ſome have a large heap of earth raiſed on them; others a long and ſtrait horn of ſome ſtrange beaſt, an earthen platter, bowl, or any other veſſel; and no other perſon is ſuffered to touch theſe things, which are held in a ſacred light.

Previous to the interment of any perſon of conſequence, they ſtrew the way with leaves and branches of trees: he muſt likewiſe be carried in a ſtraight line to the grave, ſo that if any houſe or wall happens to interrupt the paſſage, it muſt be immediately pulled down. On theſe occaſions ſeveral ſlaves were formerly ſacrificed to ſerve their maſter in the other world; but ſince the Portugueſe have worked a reformation among the moſt diſtinguiſhed part of theſe deluded people, that practice has been intirely laid aſide; and it is only preſerved by thoſe who ſtrictly adhere to their original Pagan maxims. Theſe, however, are obliged to do it by ſtealth; for, ſhould it be known, they would not only be rebuked, but ſeverely puniſhed by thoſe of ſuperior power, who are ſtrenuous maintainers of the Roman Catholic religion.

The king of Congo is an abſolute monarch, the lives and property of his ſubjects being intirely at his diſpoſal. They approach him on all occaſions, in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner; and whoſoever neglects paying proper reſpect and obedience to him, is puniſhed with perpetual ſlavery. He has a council, conſiſting of twelve perſons, who are his favourites, and with whom he adviſes in all matters relative to the affairs of ſtate. All orders of a public nature are alſo made known by them, to which the people are obliged to pay the ſame obedience as if they were iſſued by a royal proclamation.

A ſtrong guard is always kept by the king, which is intended not only for the dignity of his court, but for the ſecurity of his perſon, and he is always attended by a number of the nobility, who dwell in and about the palace, beſides his domeſtics, and other officers of his houſhold.

He

He gives public audience twice a week, but no one is permitted to ſpeak to him except his favourite nobles.

The king's dreſs is very rich, being for the moſt part cloth of gold or ſilver, with a long velvet mantle. He generally wears a white cap on his head, as do alſo his favourites; but if any of the latter come under the diſpleaſure of the king, he orders the cap to be taken off, which is the higheſt mark of indignity they can receive; this white cap being conſidered here as a badge of diſtinction or knighthood, and no eſs honourable than the ſtar and garter among the nobility in England..

His Majeſty is attended, when he goes abroad, by a numerous retinue; for not only his nobles accompany him, but likewiſe all the principal men in the city; ſome of whom go before, and others behind. The king is preceded by muſicians, and a numerous guard, ſome of whom are armed with muſkets, and others with lances, or bows and arrows. When he goes to the cathedral, the Portugueſe, both temporal and ſpiritual, as well as the grandees, muſt wait on him; and return with him to the palace; but the Portugueſe are not obliged to attend him on any other occaſion. At theſe times the king is dreſſed in his richeſt robes, which conſiſt of a long mantle, or cloak of ſilk, ornamented in the moſt elegant manner. He wears a bordered cap on his head, and round his neck are chains of gold intermixed with the fineſt coral: his arms and wriſts are decorated with bracelets of gold, and he has a ſort of half boots on his legs.

The pomp and grandeur of the king are alſo particularly diſplayed at other times; and theſe are, when he gives a public treat to ſuch of his nobles as have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in his ſervice. On theſe days he cauſes all the noblemen, then in the bounds of the palace, to be numbered, and a proviſion is made accordingly. The entertainment is prepared in the largeſt apartments of the palace; and the proviſions are brought in pots, ſome of which contain boiled beans, others fleſh and fiſh, and ſome are filled with millet, ſeaſoned only with ſalt and palm-oil. When every thing is ready, the king ſends to the greateſt lords each his meſs in a wooden platter, with a ſmall flaſk of palm-wine; but the others are called up by their names, ſix or ſeven together, and ſuch proviſions are given to them as the king thinks proper to direct; with which they retire to an adjoining apartment. As ſoon as they have done eating, they come all into the king's preſence, and, falling upon their knees, clap their hands, and bow their heads, in token of thanks and ſubmiſſion; after which, they depart home, except the king's favourites, who during the remainder of the day, ſmoke tobacco and drink wine with him.

This monarch has but one lawful wife, who is called mani-membada, that is, queen; beſides whom, he keeps a great number of concubines, in violation of the principles of that religion he ſeems otherwiſe ſo ſeriouſly to profeſs. The queen is maintained at the expence of the public, there being an annual tax, called pinteſſo, gathered for that purpoſe from every houſe in the kingdom. This tax is collected on the king's wedding-day, when the proper officers of each province go to the reſpective houſes, and meaſure the length and breadth of every bed, the owners of which are taxed according to its breadth, viz. for every ſpan, he gives either a ſlave, or the value of one; for which reaſon, they who uſe beds have them exceeding ſmall, but moſt of the common people lie on the ground.

A great number of ladies attend alternately both day and night upon the queen, and the king's concubines are obliged to pay her the greateſt homage; for ſhould they behave to her in the leaſt diſreſpectfully, they would be puniſhed with perpetual ſlavery. She lives with great ſplendor, having apartments in the palace peculiarly appropriated to her uſe.

With reſpect to the royal revenue, it conſiſts chiefly in the tribute that is paid to him by ſeveral vaſſal princes, as thoſe of Angola, Loango, and ſome other inferior ones, and which the main, or governors of the ſix provinces, are obliged to gather for him. Others make him a kind of free-will offerings, ſome of cattle, others of grain, wine, palm-oil, and the like, as acknowledgements for the lands they hold under him. He is alſo proprietor of all the zimbis, or cockle-ſhells (the current coin of this and other neighbouring kingdoms), which bring him, in exchange, ſlaves, elephants teeth, ſanders, ſtuffs, cattle, millet, and other commodities. Fines and confiſcations, likewiſe bring him a conſiderable income; to which may be added his power in levying taxes on his ſubjects as often as he pleaſes; but this he ſeldom does, except in caſes of neceſſity, the poverty of his ſubjects being ſo great, that it might prompt them to revolt, and conſequently produce ſome diſagreeable conſequences, were he often to repeat ſuch oppreſſions.

The military of this kingdom are not very numerous, nor are they either well cloathed or diſciplined. The beſt of them are the muſketeers, who, having been taught by the Portugueſe the uſe of fire-arms, ſtill retain the art of handling them with ſurpriſing dexterity. All the king's ſubjects may be ſaid to be ſoldiers; for, whenever there is occaſion, and he thinks proper to command, they muſt all attend. Sometimes he orders a general review of them, when he attends himſelf; but their figure and variety of arms make them appear more uncouth than can be conceived. Some of them are armed with bows and arrows of different makes and ſizes, others with broad ſwords, daggers, and cutlaſſes; ſome without any other cloaths or arms than their long targets; others with their bodies covered with ſkins of different kinds of beaſts, from the girdle to the knee; ſome have their face and body painted with figures of animals, birds, &c. In ſhort, all of them are armed and accoutered according to their fancy or ability, and they who cannot obtain a broad ſword of metal, will get one made of heavy wood. What contributes towards making them look ſtill more deſpicable, is, that their colours are generally little better than dirty rags torn and mangled, their ſteel and iron weapons eaten up with ruſt, and their wooden ones very indifferently ſhaped. Their heads are dreſſed with feathers of various colours, and in almoſt as many different faſhions as there are men; and all of them have ſome emblem of the buſineſs they follow, beſides their particular weapon.

When they engage, the ſoldiers are taught to fall on the foe with a dreadleſs kind of fury, which they accordingly do on all occaſions; but as their arms are of little uſe in ſuch violent and irregular onſets, for want of better diſcipline, they are ſometimes put to the rout; and when that happens, they are ſeldom able to rally; ſo that the breaking of the very firſt body is moſtly attended with the loſs of the battle. The flight of one army generally animates the other to an eager purſuit, the conſequences attending which are dreadful, the carnage being always great. When the conquerors think proper to give over the purſuit, they return and plunder the enemy's camp, ſeize all the men, women, and children, they meet with, and ſell them to the Europeans for ſlaves. They look upon this as the moſt conſiderable part of the ſpoil, and therefore haſten them as ſoon as poſſible to the ſea ſide, or to ſome inland market. Few of thoſe wounded in the battle ſurvive, their arrows and darts being infected with ſo deadly a poiſon, that if they draw blood, it is ſure to cauſe a ſpeedy and unavoidable death, if the perſon is not provided with ſome powerful antidote.

Terms of peace are propoſed by the victor after a conqueſt; and theſe, though favorable on his own part, are generally accepted by the vanquiſhed; but they are no longer attended to by the latter, than while he becomes ſufficiently formidable to recommence hoſtilities.

No order is obſerved reſpecting the ſucceſſion to the crown of Congo, neither legitimation nor ſeniority taking place farther than the ruling nobles think proper, who eſteem all honourable alike, and chuſe him from among the king's ſons for whom they have the greateſt reſpect, or think the moſt proper to govern. Sometimes they give the crown to a brother, nephew, or ſome diſtant relation, ſetting aſide all the children.

As ſoon as a ſucceſſor is pitched upon, and the day appointed for the coronation, all the grandees are ſummoned to appear on a plain near the metropolis; from whence, with the male children and relations of the deceaſed king, they proceed with great pomp to the cathedral, which, on theſe occaſions, is richly ornamented. At one end of it is erected an altar, by the ſide of which is a ſtately throne for the biſhop or prieſt, and at the other end is a chair of ſtate for the principal officer, who is ſurrounded by the reſpective candidates for the kingly office; but the perſon to be elected is concealed from the officer and people.

Before the perſon is named by the principal officer, the latter riſes from his chair, and proceeds to the altar, where he kneels down, and makes a ſhort prayer; after which he reſumes his ſeat, and makes a long harangue to the people on the duties of a monarch, and the neceſſary care that is required to diſcharge ſo important a truſt. He then declares to the aſſembly, that he and the other electors, having maturely weighed the merits of each reſpective candidate, think ſuch a one the moſt proper to be elected to the ſovereign dignity. After this, the officer takes the new monarch by the hand, and leads him up to the altar, where they

The KING of CONGO

Surrounded by his Attendants, giving Audience

they both proſtrate themſelves before the prieſt, who gives the king a ſhort but pathetic admonition, in which, among other duties, he exhorts him to be a protector of his people, obedient to the Catholic church, and a ſtrenuous promoter of Chriſtianity. The king then receives the uſual oaths, after which he is conducted to the throne by the prieſt, who puts the royal ſtandard into his hand, and the crown upon his head. This done, the whole aſſembly proſtrate themſelves on the ground, and acknowledge him for their king, which is teſtified by the clapping of hands, and the ſound of martial inſtruments. And when the whole ceremony is over, the king, preceded by his principal nobles, and followed by all that attended the coronation, proceed to the place, where his chief nobles throw earth and ſand upon him, not only as a token of joy, but alſo as an admonition, intimating, that he muſt in time become duſt and aſhes, though he is now raiſed to ſo elevated a character.

After the coronation of the king, he does not ſtir from his palace for eight days; in which time all the nobility, and the Portugueſe, come to pay their reſpects, and wiſh him ſucceſs. The blacks do him homage on both knees, by clapping their hands, and kiſſing the king's right hand: the Portugueſe and clergy do it only on one knee.

When the eight days are expired, the king appears in the market attended by his nobles, where he makes a ſpeech to the people, declaring his reſolution to perform what was propounded to him at his coronation; and aſſuring them, that it ſhall be his conſtant ſtudy to promote the welfare of his kingdoms, and alſo to propagate the Romiſh religion, of which he is a member.

That juſtice may be properly adminiſtered throughout his dominions, the king appoints a judge in every particular province, who is to hear and determine all cauſes, whether of a civil or criminal nature. Theſe are called royal judges; from whom, however, an appeal may be made to the king, who preſides twice a week at the ſupreme court for that purpoſe.

Twelve aſſiſtants are allowed to each of the royal judges, and they are conſidered in the ſame light as the juries in England. In civil caſes, the plaintiff and defendant are the only pleaders, each of whom repreſents the ſtate of the diſpute in the beſt manner he is able to the judge, who alſo examines the evidences, on both ſides, with great deliberation. When all parties have been fully examined, the judge addreſſes himſelf to his aſſiſtants, and, after recapitulating the whole of the evidence on both ſides, aſks their opinion, from whoſe anſwer ſentence is generally pronounced, and the parties diſmiſſed. The perſon in whoſe favour judgment is given, pays a fee to the judge, and then, in token of gratitude, proſtrates himſelf with his face to the ground.

How plauſible ſoever the appearance of equity may be in the determination of all affairs in theſe courts, yet in reality it is all a deception, for the principal matter reſts in pecuniary compliments paid to the judge previous to trial, who, if any diſputes ariſe among his aſſiſtants, can readily bring them over to his ſide. Thus are the poor ſacrificed to the ſuperior wealth of their opponents, while real juſtice is ſuppreſſed!

Treaſon and murder are the only two offences that are deemed capital here: in both which caſes, the puniſhment is ſolely veſted in the king, who generally condemns them to loſe their heads and eſtates, the latter of which are confiſcated.

Sorcery, or the ſuppoſed art ſo called, is very prevalent among the lower ſorts of people in the unconverted parts of the kingdom; and when any one is convicted of that pretended crime, he is ſeverely puniſhed by the Chriſtians, being burned alive immediately after condemnation.

Offenders in trifling matters are puniſhed various ways: if they are poor, they are either baſtinadoed or whipped; but if rich, as in moſt other arbitrary governments, they are puniſhed by fines, which are levied at the diſcretion of the judge, who is always a conſiderable ſharer of the money paid by the guilty perſon.

In this kingdom, the poorer ſort are ſubject to many inſtances of cruelty and oppreſſion from their ſuperiors, owing to the great defect of their laws: among theſe are the following: if a poor man happens to contract a debt with a rich one, he is not only liable to be ſtripped of all he hath (not excepting his wife and family, who, in ſuch caſes, are often ſold for ſlaves,) but alſo to be baſtinadoed, dragged to a goal, and there inhumanly treated, in order to induce his friends to procure his liberty at an exorbitant rate.

If an inſolvent debtor ſecretes himſelf from his tyrannic creditor, or flies into ſome other country, either to avoid a goal, or being ſold for a ſlave, it is looked upon as a flagrant crime; in which caſe the creditor makes no heſitation to ſeize on ſome wealthy relation of his, and impriſon him in his ſtead, till he hath extorted, by the moſt cruel uſage, a ſufficient ſum from his other friends to ſatisfy him for the debt. Which is a circumſtance no leſs unjuſt than the former.

The ſame arbitrary power extends even to debts contracted by gaming, a vice to which the people of Congo are greatly addicted; for ſhould one of the lower rank happen to loſe two or three piſtoles with a ſuperior, and not be able to pay him, he would be expoſed to the ſame hardſhips and ill-treatment as if he had given his bond for ſo much money borrowed.

Very diſtinguiſhed privileges are enjoyed by the Portugueſe here, and ſuch as are not granted to any other Europeans. They are allowed a judge of their own nation, who not only determines all controverſies among themſelves, according to the laws of Portugal, but alſo between them and the native inhabitants.

The principal reſidence of the Portugueſe is at St. Salvador, where they carry on a conſiderable traffic with moſt other parts of the kingdom. The goods they ſell to the natives are, various ſorts of grain, fruits, plants, and other proviſions, which they bring from Brazil. The articles from Europe, are, Engliſh cloth, and ſeveral kinds of ſtuffs; copper and braſs veſſels, divers ſorts of earthen ware, and other ornaments; tobacco, wine, brandy, and other ſpirituous liquors; light ſtuffs made of cotton, linen, and woollen; with a great variety of utenſils and working tools.

In return for the above, the Portugueſe obtain from the natives, elephants teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country; but the chief article is ſlaves, prodigious numbers of which they annually export to the plantations in America. The beſt and moſt ſerviceable of theſe are brought from Angola, the country of the Jaggas, and other adjacent parts, where they are naturally very robuſt and ſtrong; whereas thoſe in the provinces of Congo, being for the moſt part brought up in ſloth and indolence, either die in the paſſage, through miſery and ſickneſs, or ſoon after their arrival, through the change of climate, or the ſevere treatment they receive from thoſe to whom they are ſold, which we have already given ſome account of.

We ſhall now proceed to take notice of the manner in which the reformation effected by the Portugueſe in this country originated; which was as follows: Don John IV. king of Portugal, being deſirous of diſcovering the coaſt of Africa, and finding out the way to the Eaſt Indies, fitted out a fleet for that purpoſe, the command of which was given to Don Diego Cam, a gentleman of the moſt enterpriſing genius, and one of the ableſt ſeamen in his ſervice. Cam, after many difficulties, at length arrived in the mouth of the river Zaire, where he caſt anchor, not doubting, from the appearance of the country, but there muſt be inhabitants on both ſides of it. Theſe conjectures he ſoon found to be juſt; for going with ſeveral of his people ſome way up the river, he met with a number of natives, who, ſo far from being alarmed, were highly pleaſed with the ſight of theſe ſtrangers, and not only teſtifying their ſatisfaction by their methods of addreſs, but alſo by preſenting them with fruits and other refreſhments.

Cam was for a conſiderable time at a loſs how to underſtand them, but at length, however, by ſigns and motions, he diſcovered that there was ſome powerful king in the country, to whom they were ſubject. Pleaſed with this information, and deſirous of knowing who this powerful prince was, he prevailed on five of the natives to accompany the ſame number of his men to the king, with whom he ſent conſiderable preſents, and limited a certain time for their return. The men, however, not returning as expected, Cam, after waiting double the time allotted took four of the natives, whom he found to be men of ſome rank and abilities, aboard his ſhip, and, promiſing to bring them back within fifteen moons, ſailed for Portugal, without ſtaying for the return of his men.

Theſe blacks, from the care Cam took of them during the voyage, and their quick conceptions, became tolerably well acquainted with the Portugueſe tongue; ſo that when they arrived at the court of Portugal, they were able to anſwer ſeveral important queſtions put to them by the king. This ſo pleaſed John, that after making them ſeveral conſiderable preſents, he ordered Cam to take them back to their own country; and at the ſame time told him to uſe his

utmoſt endeavours in exhorting the African king to become a convert to the Romiſh church, and to prohibit idolatrous worſhip throughout his dominions.

While Cam was abſent from Congo, the men he had left behind were treated with no leſs reſpect by that king, than the natives were by the king of Portugal. And on his arrival the ſecond time at Congo, he firſt ſent a formal meſſage to the king, while the natives he had brought back related, in every place they came to, the ſplendor of the Portugueſe nation.

Cam, a few days after, paid a formal viſit to the king, by whom he was treated with great cordiality, and entertained with all the ſplendor and magnificence of an African court. The king aſked him many queſtions relative to the grandeur of the Portugueſe dominions, all which Cam anſwered in the moſt ample manner; and particularly informed him of the nature of their religion, which he ſaid the king his maſter earneſtly intreated he would not only profeſs himſelf, but alſo propagate it amongſt all his ſubjects.

Such was the iſſue of this conference, that the African king conceived the higheſt eſteem for the Portugueſe, and intimated a deſire of becoming a proſelyte to the Romiſh religion. An alliance was immediately formed between the two crowns, which was continued from that time to the preſent, though often ſuſpended by intervening wars.

On Cam's departure from Congo, the king appointed one of the young nobles, who had been with him before to Portugal, to go now as an ambaſſador from his court to his Portugueſe majeſty, requeſting that he would immediately ſend proper perſons to inſtruct him and his ſubjects in the principles of the Chriſtian faith. The African ambaſſador was accompanied by ſeveral other nobles, who went in order to be properly educated; and with them the king ſent to his Portugueſe majeſty ſome valuable articles as a preſent.

On their arrival at Liſbon, Cam preſented the ambaſſador and his companions to the king, who received them in ſuch a manner as fully evinced the ſatisfaction he felt at the ſucceſs of the expedition. They continued for ſome time in Portugal, during which they were educated in a manner ſuitable to their rank, and particularly inſtructed in the princi- of the church of Rome. The ambaſſador, at the requeſt of the king, was baptized at Baja, the ceremony of which was performed with great magnificence; and the king himſelf vouchſafing to ſtand godfather, the ambaſſador was chriſtened in his name.

A ſhort time after this, the king ſent the Africans to their own country, in a ſhip which he ordered to be fitted out for that purpoſe under the command of one Gonzalez de Souza, a man of no leſs rank and abilities than Cam; and with them he alſo ſent ſeveral prieſts, together with fonts, mitres, chalices, and other neceſſaries proper for diſcharging the ceremonies of the Romiſh perſuaſion. An accident, however, happened on their paſſage; for the plague having for ſome time raged violently at Liſbon, the contagion was carried on board the ſhip by ſome of thoſe who had embarked, when ſeveral of them died, among whom was the commander; but this loſs was ſoon remedied, for Gonzalez de Souza, a near relation of the deceaſed, was appointed in his ſtead, by conſent of all the officers.

Arriving at the river Zaire, they landed at Songo, where they were received with great joy by the governor of the province, who was uncle to the king, and had his fixed reſidence in that capital for the ſake of carrying on a commerce with the Portugueſe, and had been ſo well inſtructed by them in the principles of the Romiſh church, that he was baptized ſoon after their landing, by the name of Emanuel, which was that of the brother of his Portugueſe majeſty.

Gonzalez, ſoon after this ceremony was performed, went to the king's court, where he informed his majeſty of the converſion and baptiſm of his uncle; at which he was ſo highly pleaſed, that he gave him abſolute power to deſtroy every thing that tended to paganiſm throughout his dominions. The Portugueſe commander then informed the king of his commiſſion, and of the holy veſſels and ornaments he had brought with him. The king appeared greatly pleaſed at this information, but much more ſo, when, at his requeſt, they were brought to him, and expoſed to the view of the whole court, amidſt crowds of his ſubjects, who all beheld them with the greateſt veneration, particularly the croſs, before which the Portugueſe falling on their knees, the king and nobility followed their example by proſtrating themſelves before it. His majeſty was very particular in examining every veſſel and veſtment, and paid the moſt ſerious attention to the explication the prieſt gave of every article; the reſult of which was, that he immediately reſolved on building a magnificent church in his capital for the reception of the prieſts and utenſils; and though he was obliged to get the chief materials for it from ſome of the remoteſt parts of the kingdom, yet his zeal for the execution of it was ſo great, that by the number of hands employed, the edifice was completed, in three months, and the name of the holy croſs was given to it at its conſecration.

Another ſolemnity no leſs important ſucceeded this laſt, namely the public baptiſm of the king and queen, with ſeveral of the nobility, which was performed in the new erected church, with great magnificence. The king was chriſtened by the name of John, and the queen by that of Eleonora, in compliment to their Portugueſe majeſties.

A great number of the king's ſubjects of both ſexes followed the example of their ſovereign; and the king the more ſtrongly urged the people in general to become converts, on account of his being then at variance with a neighbouring prince. The king being determined to engage his enemy in perſon, Souza, the Portugueſe ambaſſador, gave him a royal ſtandard, on which was the figure of a croſs, and at the ſame time exhorted him to place his confidence in the protector of that religion he had ſo lately embraced, and to rely ſolely on his aſſiſtance for the ſucceſs of the expedition. He alſo engaged to accompany him with an hundred of his men, and would endeavour to facilitate a conqueſt over his enemies, by contributing every thing in his power towards it.

The ſpirited behaviour of Souza highly pleaſed the king, who marched at the head of his troops to attack the enemy, who had planted themſelves on a large plain in his territories. The engagement was but of ſhort continuance; for, as ſoon as it began, the king's troops made ſuch havock in the front of the enemy, that thoſe in the rear precipitately fled, leaving all their ammunition in the field. Thus did the king obtain a complete victory over his enemies, and had the ſatisfaction to ſee his newly converted troops behave with an intrepidity they had never before ſhewn. After the battle was over, the king began to march with his troops to the enemies territories, in order, as is the cuſtom of the country, to puniſh them with the greateſt ſeverity; but from this he was diverted by Souza, who informed him, that ſuch conduct would be inconſiſtent with the principles of that religion he now profeſſed. The king readily taking the advice of Souza, the enemies territories were preſerved from deſtruction through his mediation.

Souza departed in a ſhort time after from Congo, leaving behind him a number of miſſionaries to propagate the new religion: and the Portugueſe have ever ſince laboured with the utmoſt care to baniſh idolatry from the country. To effect this they have eſtabliſhed ſeveral perſons as ſchoolmaſters, by whom the inhabitants are taught to read and write, and are inſtructed in the principles of the Romiſh religion. Several Portugueſe and Mulatto prieſts, who officiate according to the rites of the church of Rome, are alſo maintained here.

We muſt however obſerve, that though the inhabitants of the chief places in this kingdom appear outwardly to profeſs the Romiſh religion, yet the principal part of them are ſtill idolaters in their hearts, and ſecretly purſue their antient ſuperſtitious notions. To ſpeak more plainly, they are mere hypocrites, appearing only to be Chriſtians when they are in the preſence of the Europeans; they openly carry their beads and croſſes, and ſecretly their heatheniſh charms and amulets. Such of them as live near churches, and in the ſight of the Portugueſe, are married according to the ceremonies of the church of Rome; but they will not fulfil their engagements, ſince every one takes as many concubines as he can maintain, as we have already intimated. Nevertheleſs the inhabitants of Congo are reckoned rather better Chriſtians, than thoſe of any other part in the whole kingdom; they have a greater number of churches, where ſervice is every day performed: their clergy are alſo more numerous; and the people are apparently ſuch zealous Catholics, that they never appear abroad without being loaded with beads, croſſes, medals, and other religious utenſils. However, even theſe are not without preſerving the remembrance of their idolatrous cuſtoms; for they ſeldom fail of addreſſing themſelves to their heatheniſh deities, if the ſaints to whom they apply, do not grant their petitions.

Upon the whole, we may conclude, that notwithſtanding the great pains taken by the Portugueſe to eſtabliſh their religion in this country, yet few of the people ſe-

rioufly profefs it, and even thefe appear to do it more from policy, than being affected by religious fentiments. The chief of thofe who feem really attached to it are the king and thofe belonging to his court, as alfo the governors and principal officers of the refpective provinces; but as for the lower clafs, more efpecially thofe in the eaftern parts of the kingdom, they ftill retain their old maxims; nor can the Portugueſe prevail on them to renounce their idolatrous principles, notwithſtanding they employ their utmoſt artifices and endeavours for that purpoſe.

SECT. V.

Giving an Account of the preſent State of the Kingdom of LOANGO, its Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Produce, principal Provinces, Animals, Inhabitants, their Religion, &c. alſo a particular Deſcription of the City of LOANGO, and the King's Palace there; and the State and Dignity of the King, his Government, Laws, Revenues, &c.

THE kingdom of Loango, is the moſt northern diviſion of Congo in general: it is bounded, on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Makoko; on the weſt, by the Atlantic ocean; on the north, by the kingdom of Benin; and on the ſouth, by Congo Proper; it is upwards of four hundred miles long, and three hundred in breadth. The principal provinces it contains, are, Loangiri, Loango-Mongo, Chilongo, and Piri. Beſides theſe, there are others much ſmaller that chiefly lie on the coaſt, and are frequented by the Europeans.

This kingdom is ſituated near the center of the torrid zone; notwithſtanding which, the climate is far from being unwholeſome, and as it is watered by a number of ſmall rivers, the ſoil is tolerably fertile; but it might be turned to much greater advantage than it is, were it not for the natural indolence of its inhabitants. However, it produces ſeveral ſorts of grain, of which they have three crops annually; alſo peas and beans not inferior to thoſe of Europe; with great plenty of yams and potatoes. Oranges, lemons, bananas, pompions, cocoa-nuts, the kola fruit, &c. are likewiſe produced here.

The province of Loangiri is large and populous, and well watered by ſeveral brooks and rivers, which render the ſoil exceeding fertile. The inhabitants live chiefly on fiſh, and employ themſelves in making cloth and linen. They are more addicted to war than their neighbours, being in general a more courageous people.

The province of Loango-Mongo, is a large mountainous country, and particularly abounds with palm-trees. The inhabitants are merchants, and, like thoſe of Loangiri, employ themſelves chiefly in making cloth and linen. The city of Loango, which is the uſual reſidence of the ſovereign of the kingdom, is in this province.

Chilongo is a more extenſive province than either of the other three. Some parts of it are very mountainous, but in others there are large and extenſive plains, which are very fertile, and produce good grain, as alſo abundance of palm-trees; it is a very populous part of the country; and though the inhabitants are not ſo well poliſhed as their neighbours, yet they carry on a conſiderable trade, particularly in elephants teeth and cloth. The governor of this province is abſolute, and the people have the liberty, at his deceaſe, of chuſing a fit perſon to ſucceed him.

The province of Piri, is a very flat country, but it is well peopled, and produces great plenty of moſt ſorts of proviſions, particularly cattle and poultry. The woods are well ſtocked with timber; beſides which there are fruit trees in abundance. Some of the inhabitants are great traders, and they are all diſtinguiſhed for being very quiet and affable in their diſpoſitions. They live chiefly on milk, and beaſts which they kill in the woods.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed of the other provinces, which are much ſmaller than thoſe already mentioned, are Majumba, Sette, Kilongo, Cagongo, and Angoy. They are all maritime places; and their coaſts being frequented by European ſhips, makes them better known than the larger ones.

The firſt of theſe provinces, called Majumba, is ſituated to the weſt of Piri, between the third and fourth degrees of ſouth latitude, and extends weſtward to the ſea coaſt, where there is a high promontory called cape St. Catherine. The bay or port of Majumba lies two leagues to the ſouth of cape Negro; and the great river Banne, on which are ſeveral ſmall iſlands inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen, runs into this bay.

The principal part of the country conſiſts of woods and groves, the former of which abounds in various kinds of wild animals, particularly baboons, apes, and ſeveral ſorts of monkies. The ſoil of the province is in general very barren, not producing any kind of corn or grain, ſo that the natives live on plantains, roots, nuts, and fiſh; and ſometimes they catch elephants, whoſe fleſh they greatly admire.

There is only one long ſtreet in the town or village of Majumba; and this is built ſo near the ſea, that the waves often oblige the inhabitants to deſert their houſes. On the north ſide of it is a river that is remarkable for producing great quantities of oyſters. This river is very narrow at the mouth, and not above ſix feet deep; but higher up it is both broader and deeper, and is navigable for large canoes. It is very convenient for thoſe who trade with the inhabitants of Sette, as it extends at leaſt fifty miles up the country. In this town is a mokiſſo called maramba, which is kept in a large houſe, or temple. It reſembles the figure of a man, and ſtands upright in a high baſket made like a bee-hive. When the lord or governor of the province goes abroad on any particular occaſion, the image is always carried before him; and the firſt cup is poured at the feet of the idol when the governor drinks palm-wine.

The province of Sette is ſituated about ſixteen miles north of Majumba, and is watered by a river of the ſame name. It abounds with millet, palm-trees, and a kind of red wood, called by the inhabitants takuel. This wood is of two ſorts, the beſt of which is very hard, and of a bright red colour. Great quantities of it are annually purchaſed by the inhabitants of Majumba, as the chief trade of the natives conſiſts in this article.

A territory called Gobbi, lies between the river Sette, and cape Lopo Gonſalvo: it is full of lakes and rivers, all navigable for canoes. The land of this province is very barren, but the rivers abound with various kinds of fiſh. The chief town in it lies about twenty miles from the coaſt, but it is a ſmall place, and poorly inhabited.

Kilongo, which is ſituated to the ſouth of Majumba, is a large province. It is a level open country, and the ſoil is very fertile, producing great quantities of millet and other grain. Here are two ſmall villages, that appear at ſea like hills, and are the marks by which the ſailors are directed to the port of Loango. This province was formerly an independent kingdom, but being conquered by the king of Loango, it became a part of his dominions. However, the inhabitants ſtill enjoy their antient cuſtoms and privileges, and only make acknowledgement of ſubjection by paying the king an annual tribute.

Cacongo lies to the ſouthward of Loangiri: this kingdom or province is bounded, on the weſt, by the ſea; and, on the north, by the river Loango. Towards the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, it borders on the kingdom of Angoy; and eaſtward it extends from the coaſt upwards of fifty miles. The town of Cacongo, the capital of the province, is very agreeably ſituated, tolerably large, and well inhabited. The ſoil of the country is in general very fertile, and produces moſt kinds of proviſions with which the natives frequently aſſiſt their diſtreſſed neighbours who live in theſe parts where the ſoil is leſs bountiful.

The river Cacongo runs quite acroſs the kingdom, and, after a courſe of twenty-five or thirty-leagues, falls into the ſea in the fifth degree of ſouth latitude. To the ſouth of this river, about four miles from the coaſt, is a village called Malemba, where the ſea making a gulf, affords a ſafe road for ſhipping. All the reſt of the coaſt, from the river Cacongo to the river Zaire, is very dangerous, being full of rocks and flats.

The principal part of the trade of this province is carried on at Malemba, where the Dutch and Portugueſe ſell ſeveral ſorts of cloth, iron ware, and other commodities, to the natives, who diſpoſe of them farther up the country, and ſell elephants teeth and ſlaves to the Portugueſe in exchange.

The ſmalleſt of all the provinces is Angoy, but the ſoil of it is much better, and would produce great quantities of grain, were it not for the natural indolence of the inhabitants, who ſometimes, from this cauſe only, are obliged to apply for relief to their neighbours. This province is bounded, on the north and eaſt, by Cacongo; on the weſt, by the ſea; and, on the ſouth, by the river Zaire. The capital town is called Bomangoy, and is ſituated on the north ſide of the above river, not far from its mouth. It is tolerably large and populous, but the houſes are very mean buildings, being irregular in their form, and conſtructed only of reeds and mud, covered roughly with branches of trees. The bay is a very commodious place,

and

and here moſt ſhips ſupply themſelves with wood and water. At the point of the bay is the village of Kabenda, which is ſo poor and mean a place, as not to merit any other notice than the bare mention of it. The chief port here is alſo called Kabenda, and is ſituated to the north of the river Zaire.

There are great numbers of wild beaſts, in the more remote parts of the kingdom of Loango, ſuch as elephants, tygers, leopards, civet cats, and various ſorts of monkies. They have only two ſorts of game animals, namely, hogs and goats; but this deficiency is ſupplied by the poultry, which is ſo plentiful, that a good fowl may be purchaſed at the value of an Engliſh farthing. They have alſo a great plenty of wild fowl, and ſeveral uncommon birds peculiar to the country; among the latter, the moſt remarkable is that called the pelican, which being a bird little known to Europeans, we ſhall take this opportunity of deſcribing.

The pelican, from the top of the bill to the end of the tail, is about five feet in length, and weighs in general not leſs than twenty pounds. The bill, which is hooked, is about fourteen inches long, from the tip to the corners of the mouth. The feathers of the body are of a greyiſh colour, and thoſe on the top of the head ſtand erect, and are much longer than the reſt. The tail and covert feathers of the wing are of a duſky aſh colour; but the ends of the quill feathers are black, of which there are twenty-eight in each wing. The upper chap is flat and broad, and the bill near the head is of a lead colour, but yellowiſh towards the end. The lower chap is like two long ribs united at the extremity; and between them there is a thick yellow membrane, or ſkin, which it can draw ſo cloſe up to the bill, as hardly to be perceived; but notwithſtanding this, it may be ſo dilated as to contain a prodigious quantity of water; which is often of infinite uſe to the bird when it travels over ſandy tracts, where that article is not to be obtained for many miles. The legs are bare above the knees, and the feet are webbed, having four toes. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance belonging to this bird is the bones, which appear to be tranſparent, with many fibres and viens running up and down them throughout their whole length. Another ſingularity, which is not to be met with in any other bird whatever, is, that near the middle of the ſtomach the windpipe is divided into two branches.

With reſpect to the inhabitants of Loango, who are called Bramas, they are tall, well-ſhaped, and of a ſhining black colour. They are free and generous to each other, but very eager to attain riches, and greatly addicted to drinking; however they are tolerably civil; and though libidinous themſelves, are exceeding jealous of their wives.

The men wear long garments, that reach from the middle to the ancles, at the bottom of which is a handſome border of fringe. They are faſtened at the waiſt with a ſtring made of the leaves of the matombe tree; beſides which, they have two girdles, each three or four inches broad: one of theſe is made either of red or black cloth ſlightly embroidered, and the other of yarn wrought with flowers, and faſtened before with double ſtrings. Some uſe girdles made of bulruſhes, or palm-leaves, which they weave and plait together: and all of them are obliged to have on the outſide of their garments a piece of the ſkin of a leopard, or ſome other wild beaſt. They wear ſtrings of beads about their necks, and their arms and legs are ornamented with braſs, copper, or iron rings. They have a cap on their heads, which is made to ſit cloſe; and in their hands they always carry either a great knife, a ſword, or a bow and arrows.

The women wear ſhort petticoats reaching only from the waſt to the knee, and over them they wear a piece of European ſtuff or linen. The upper part of the body is quite bare; but their arms, legs, and necks, are adorned with rings, beads, and other trinkets.

Both ſexes anoint themſelves with palm-oil, and ſtain their bodies with a liquid made from a wood called takoel, the colour ariſing from which is a dingy red. Their food conſiſts chiefly of dried fiſh, which they boil with herbs, and then ſeaſon with Braſilian pepper. They make their bread with the flower of millet, and water is their common drink.

Little ceremony is uſed in their marriages, the chief thing being to obtain the conſent of the parents; if that is obtained, they aſſemble together; and the parties agreeing to take each other, an entertainment is provided for the gueſts, and the whole ceremony is ended. The common people have in general only two or three wives; but ſome perſons have ten or twelve.

It is the practice here, as in other parts of Africa, for the women to do all the ſlaviſh work. They are kept under great ſubjection, and not only perform their domeſtic duties, but are obliged to cultivate the land, while their huſbands live in a mere ſtate of indolence. They muſt never ſpeak to their huſbands in any other poſture than on their bended knees: nor ever eat till their huſbands have done, and then chearfully take the leavings.

The colour of infants here, when firſt born, is nearly the ſame as of thoſe in Europe; but in two days it turns to a perfect black. This circumſtance greatly deceived the Portugueſe for ſome time after they ſettled in theſe parts; for, having commerce with the negro women, they took it for granted, that, when a child was born, it muſt be theirs; but when they came to be undeceived, and convinced that it was the offspring of a negro, they loſt that ſatisfaction they had before imbibed: however, when a child is produced between both, that is, a mulatto, they have not only a great reſpect for the infant, but a high veneration for the object that produced it. But it is not a little remarkable, that though both parties are negroes, yet it ſometimes happens that the child is very different in colour from that of its parents. Theſe, at a diſtance, greatly reſemble Europeans: they have grey eyes, and red or yellow hair; but when you are cloſe to them, their colour is like the corpſe of an European, and their eyes appear as it were fixed in their heads. Their ſight is very imperfect in the day; but at night they ſee clear, eſpecially if it be moon-light. Theſe extraordinary births are ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by the effects of imagination in the woman on ſeeing a white man, in the ſame manner as hiſtory informs us, that a white woman brought forth a black child, by viewing the picture of a negro.

The natives call children of this kind dondoes, which are always preſented to the king a few days after they are born. They are brought up in the court, and always attend his perſon; they are held in ſuch high eſteem by the king, that no perſon whatever dare offend them, and if they go to markets, they have free liberty allowed them of taking ſuch articles as they think proper.

On the death of any perſon, the relations immediately publiſh the melancholy tidings by running about the town or village, and ſhrieking in the moſt hideous manner; after which, they bring the corpſe into the ſtreet, and waſh and clean it; they then interrogate it, Why he died? and ſuch like queſtions, which they continue to aſk for ſeveral hours. After this, the grave is dug, when they carry ſeveral of their houſhold goods, and lay by the ſide of the body, as alſo the moſt valuable things uſed by the deceaſed perſon while living. They then haſtily take up the corpſe, and carry it with all expedition to the grave, in which it is immediately depoſited: ſome of the goods are thrown into the grave; and after they have expreſſed their lamentations by howling, and the moſt ſtrange geſticulations, it is filled up with earth. The remaining goods are ſet over the grave on poles, being firſt cut to prevent their being ſtolen. The relations bewail the loſs of the deceaſed by attending the grave for ſix ſucceſſive weeks, morning and evening.

They will not ſuffer any foreigner to be buried in their country; when it happens that an European dies here, his body is carried in a boat two miles from the ſhore, and thrown into the ſea. This cuſtom took its riſe from a Portugueſe gentleman being buried here ſome years ago, ſoon after which the whole country was afflicted with a famine. The prieſts thought proper to attribute the cauſe of the general calamity to the interment of the foreigner, whoſe body, in conſequence of their opinion, was taken up, and thrown into the ſea; and they have never ſince permitted a ſtranger to be interred in their country, merely from this circumſtance.

Theſe people are all idolaters, though an attempt was once made to bring them to a knowledge of Chriſtianity: for in the year 1663, a famous miſſionary, named father Bernardin, an Hungarian, being at Loango, had ſome conferences with the then king, acquainted him with the doctrines of the Chriſtian religion, and baptized him, together with his queen, his children, and ſome perſons of his court. The people, however, would not be perſuaded to follow the king's example, nor could the moſt forcible arguments induce them to relinquiſh the leaſt particle of their ſuperſtitious maxims. They paid no reſpect to the mandates of the king, who in order to eſtabliſh the new religion, commanded them not to work on Sundays, which they abſolutely refuſed to comply with; nor would they pay the leaſt attention to ſuch matters as were derogatory from their idolatrous notions.

This refractorineſs of the people produced a national commotion: one of the king's couſins, a man particularly zealous for idolatry, put himſelf at the head of the people, ſeduced ſome of the new-converted Chriſtians, both by promiſes and preſents, and became at length ſo powerful as to dare to offer battle to his ſovereign. The king who was naturally courageous, went with his army to attack the rebels, and a deſperate engagement enſued; but the rebels, having found means to bring over the principal part of the royal army during the engagement, the king was obliged to retire with the few that had remained faithful to him. The conquerors offered to lay down their arms, and to pay obedience to him as formerly, if he would renounce the new religion he had embraced, and put things again upon their antient footing. The king, who appeared convinced in his mind of the truth of the Chriſtian religion, made anſwer, that he would never renounce the worſhip of the true God, and would ſpill the very laſt drop of his blood in the defence of it.

In conſequence of this reſolution, ſeveral other battles were fought between the king and the rebels, in the laſt of which the king's troops were entirely cut to pieces, and himſelf ſlain. On this the conqueror was acknowledged king, who uſed all his endeavours to extirpate the Chriſtian religion, and re-eſtabliſh paganiſm; but his triumph and reign were of ſhort duration; for one of the late king's children, who had eſcaped from the laſt battle, raiſed a new army, proteſting moſt ſolemnly, that he took up arms with no other view but for the ſake of the Chriſtian religion; and that, after his father's example, he would defend it to his laſt breath. Accordingly he engaged the rebels; and the event of the battle was ſuch that the new tyrant was defeated and killed, with almoſt all his troops; after which, the young conqueror aſcended the throne, and eſtabliſhed the Chriſtian religion for ſome time throughout his dominions. After his death, however, it was finally rooted out by his ſucceſſor, and from that time to the preſent idolatry has prevailed in this country; which we ſhall now proceed to give an account of.

They have ſome notion of a Supreme Being, whom they call Sambian pogo, but their ideas are extremely imperfect; nor have they any belief in the reſurrection of the dead. Their idols, which they call mokiſſoes, are of various forms, ſome of them are made to reſemble the human ſpecies; others conſiſt of a piece of wood about a yard long, with ſmall bits of iron on the top, or elſe the figure of ſome animal carved at the end of it. The heads of their greater idols are ornamented with the feathers of hens or pheaſants, and their bodies are decorated with various kinds of trinkets. All acts of devotion are performed to theſe idols, of which they have great numbers. Each has a peculiar name, according to its office or juriſdiction. To ſome they aſcribe the power over lightning and the wind, and ſuppoſe that by praying to them it will preſerve their corn from vermin and birds of prey. To others they give the command over fiſhes of the ſea and rivers, their cattle, &c. ſome they make protectors of their health and ſafety; others they conſider as being able to ſecure them from evils and misfortunes. Thus every idol has his peculiar province, and his power is limited to a particular place. They have a notion that theſe idols are jealous of one another; for which reaſon they make their addreſſes to them all indifferently, as their protectors and guardians. They generally keep them in a pot of earth, with the figure half in and the other part out; they are made by their prieſts, who obtain conſiderable wealth by the ſale of them, as their value is fixed in proportion to the circumſtances of the perſon who buys them.

Their notions relative to the diſpoſal of the ſoul after death are very extraordinary. Thoſe of the royal family believe, that when any one dies, his ſoul is regenerated in ſome of the family; while others think that the ſoul and body have one determinate end. Some, like the Greeks and Romans, place the ſoul among the heroes, or elſe bring it into the number of their titular houſhold gods; others give them a common place of reſort under the earth; whilſt a fifth ſort make for them little receptacles under the roofs of their houſes: before which places they make ſome offerings for the benefit of the ſoul of their departed friend, when they eat or drink.

Theſe idolaters are led into the practice of the moſt abſurd ceremonies, being prompted thereto by the craftineſs of their prieſts, who work upon their ſuperſtitious notions. When a child is born they call a fetiſher, or prieſt, to enjoin to keep ſome particular thing as a law. The prieſt aſks the parents what was their injunction, and that of their anceſtors? when being anſwered, he tells them, that the oracle, by the mokiſſo, has ordered, that the child ſhall be enjoined not to do ſuch things during the courſe of its life; which the mother takes care to inculcate in the mind of the infant as it grows. Theſe injunctions are of various kinds; as, that they muſt abſtain from ſuch particular fleſh, herbs, or fruit; or that, if they eat ſuch fleſh, they muſt eat it alone, leave none, and bury the bones deep; that they may not be ſcraped up again, and eaten by any beaſt.

Some are forbidden by the prieſts to ſhave either their heads or beards, and others are commanded to abſtain from all kinds of fruits. Some are forbid to go over any water; others to croſs a river in a canoe, though at the ſame time they are permitted to walk, ſwim, or ride through. If an unmarried man has got a fooliſh child, he muſt not eat of the breaſt or udder of a buffalo; but if he gets another more ſenſible, he then becomes freed from that reſtraint.

Theſe, and ſuch like idle maxims, they obſerve with the greateſt exactneſs, firmly believing, that if the command enjoined by the mokiſſo, or the promiſe made to him, are not fully performed, he hath power to kill, or otherwiſe puniſh them; ſince all circumſtances that happen to them, whether good or evil, they ſuppoſe to ariſe from the power of the mokiſſo.

If a man preſerve a good conſtitution, by living in a chaſte and temperate way, he aſcribes his health to the mokiſſo, and not to thoſe virtues themſelves. If a ſick man recovers, they never impute it either to the force of nature, or the application of medicines, but the mokiſſo gets the credit of the cure which they performed; and if the patient happens to die of old age, or by any misfortune, they believe he was killed by ſorcery for having violated the mokiſſo's injunctions.

They have, beſides their private mokiſſoes, many public ones, that are kept in temples or huts, to which they daily repair to pay their devotions. One of theſe is at a village called Thiriko, and in figure reſembles a man. The ganga, or high-prieſt, who is lord of the village, performs the ſervice every morning, in this manner: as ſoon as the people are aſſembled, he ſits down upon a mat, and with a leathern bag ſtrikes his knee ſeveral times, having ſmall iron bells faſtened to his fingers. After this, he ſtrikes the bag ſeveral times on his breaſt, and then uſes many ſtrange motions and poſtures of his body, hands, head and eyes; ſometimes he raiſes his voice, and then depreſſes it, frequently repeating the word mariomena; to which the aſſembly anſwer, ka. When this has continued for ſome time, the ganga appears as if diſtracted, and his rage becomes ſo violent, that he is obliged to be held; but by virtue of a ſour liquor drawn from cane, with which they ſprinkle him, he recovers, and then declares what he has received from the mokiſſo, and what muſt be done in caſe of ſickneſs, and the like. After this he recommends to the mokiſſo the health of the king, the welfare of the country, flouriſhing of the ſeed, ſucceſs to the merchants, and full nets for fiſhermen. The whole company clap their hands, in token of affection, at the mention of the king's name; which concludes the ceremony.

Kikokoo is another remarkable mokiſſo. This is a black image cut in the ſhape of a man ſitting. They believe that this mokiſſo preſerves them from death, and that he keeps them from being hurt by ſorcerers. It is kept in a hut, which is always guarded, on account of its having been once ſtolen by ſome Portugueſe ſailors, who took it out of the houſe, and carried it on board their ſhip; but in the way the head and one of the arms broke off. When the Portugueſe came again to Loango, they were afraid to venture on ſhore without reſtoring kikokoo; ſo nailing on the broken limbs, they conveyed him at night to his old habitation. The next day a report was ſpread among the blacks, that kikokoo had been in Portugal, and that a trading ſhip had carried him away thither. Some time after this, a Portugueſe ſhip happening to ſtrike upon the rocks of Loango, the blacks ſaid that kikokoo had broken the ſhip, becauſe the Portugueſe had driven a nail into his head.

But the mokiſſo, called malemba, is the moſt reverenced by them, and is particularly eſteemed on account of its being viſited by the king. It is a mat about a foot and a half ſquare, on the top of which hang ſeveral ſmall baſkets. with ſcollops, feathers, iron bells, rattles, bones, and other trifles. The ceremonies belonging to this are performed with little drums or tabors, on which boys ſtrike with their

hands. After this, a ſong is chanted by the company, and a perſon appointed for that purpoſe dips a bruſh into ſome water that has been coloured with takoel, which he ſprinkles on the king and the ganga, or high-prieſt. The nobility that attend receive a ſtreak on their bodies out of the ſame pot; after which, they have the honour to carry away malemba, with his pots, bruſhes, &c. which they replace as before.

Another of their mokiſſoes is called kofrie, which conſiſts of a ſack with ſome horns full of whiting. The ſervice to this image is performed with rattles, long ſticks, ſinging ſongs in the night, creeping on their knees, waſhing, ſpitting, ſhouting, tying rings and bands about their bodies, and the like. They ſay this mokiſſo ſecures them againſt the dreadful conſequence of thunder and lightning, and alſo preſerves them from ſickneſs.

Beſides the abovementioned, they have many other images, which have different names, and are ſuppoſed to be ſerviceable to them on various occaſions; but they are all equally ridiculous, with thoſe we have already deſcribed, and only tend farther to evince the folly and ſuperſtition of their deluded votaries, who ſacrifice every particle of reaſon to defend the honour of their contemptible idols.

Before we deſcribe the city of Loango, &c. we ſhall give ſome further particulars relative to the trade, inhabitants, method of travelling, houſes, coin, produce, &c. of the Loangoeſe, as extracted from the account given by Captain Uring, who ſailed to this part of Africa.

"The chief of their trade, according to this writer, is in ſlaves, though they have ſome elephants teeth, and bees-wax, and have very rich copper mines in the country. I have ſeen, ſays he, quantities of copper-drops, which were pieces of about a pound weight, run from the ore, and is for the moſt part bought by the Dutch. I was informed, that the greateſt part of their ſlaves were brought eight or nine hundred miles out of the country, which they call Poamboe; I take this to be Ethiopia. They uſed to make excurſions nearer home, in ſtrong parties, and where they found any people ſettled by themſelves, and not under the protection of any government, they ſeized them, and drove them before them, as other people do cattle, till they brought them to a trading town, where they were ſold for ſlaves; and this is as much a trade among them, as ſelling horſes, cows, and ſheep, or the like, in other countries. Thoſe ſlaves which are brought ſo far out of the country, are generally very ignorant, and dull of apprehenſion; but thoſe taken nearer the ſea coaſt are more quick, eſpecially the people of Loango, who are a crafty cunning people, and tolerably ingenious; they are moſt of them tall, ſtrong, and well limbed: and all of them are great lovers of brandy and tobacco: they do not make ſo good ſlaves as thoſe of the Gold coaſt, or Whidah; the reaſon which is given for it is, that the people on the Gold coaſt fare hard for want of proviſions, and are capable of going through more labour, with leſs victuals, than the natives of other countries, where they have plenty, as they have in the kingdom of Angola, Congo, and thoſe countries from whence theſe ſlaves are brought. It ſeldom happens that any of the town's-people are ſold for ſlaves, except in caſes of adultery, or when their great men ſell ſome of their ſervants for diſobedience.

"The women do all the drudgery; as planting, reaping, dreſſing their proviſions, carrying burdens, combing their huſband's hair, twiſting it into ſeveral forms, and painting their bodies: they alſo make mats. Moſt of the bread eaten amongſt them they call cankey, which is made with Indian corn, beat ſmall, which they mix with ſome roots, and boil in dumplings, and when they take it out of the pot, then they wrap it up in leaves, and it will keep five or ſix days.

"The great men and Europeans travel in the ſame manner as in Congo.

"The houſes of the inhabitants are low, the ſides of them made with cane, wattled together with twigs, and covered with leaves or branches of trees, of which they have many convenient for that purpoſe, and conſiſt moſtly of two or three rooms, the innermoſt of which is particularly for their women. Moſt of them have ſmall yards, incloſed in the ſame manner as the walls of their houſes, where are generally growing plantain, banana, and other trees, the fruits of which ſerve them for food, and the branches are convenient to ſhade them from the ſun, when they have a mind to take the freſh air, which makes the town look very agreeable. Some of their great men, and the chief of their merchants, have cane-walls of about ten or twelve feet high, which form a walk about eight feet wide, reaching near forty yards from the houſes, but with ſo many windings and turnings, that you go five times that diſtance before you come to their habitations; which is all the grandeur I obſerved in their buildings. I have been entertained with palm-wine and fruit at many of their houſes.

"The chief of their common people's food is cankey, potatoes, and other roots; the better ſort eat fowls and ſtewed fiſh. Their fiſh is dreſſed thus; they take five or ſix freſh maſounge, and put them into an earthen pot, with a little water and palm-oil, and a great deal of bird-pepper, and ſome ſalt; over the fiſh they lay three or four pieces of ſmall ſticks acroſs, and then fill the pot with green plantains, and cover it cloſe; the fume of the pot ſtews the plaintains: this is eſteemed an excellent ſavoury diſh. I was prevailed on to taſte it, but it was ſo hot of the pepper, that I could not get the taſte of it out of my mouth for ſeveral hours.

"Their money they call mucates, being certain pieces of cloth made of ſilk-graſs by the women, about the bigneſs of a ſheet of paper, and paſſes as current coin; they ſew ſeveral of them together, which make a fathom, and was what they cloathed themſelves with, before the Europeans traded with them. They value our goods by an imaginary coin, ſomething in the nature of the Portugueſe manner of counting by rees, of whom I ſuppoſe they learned it. A piece of blue baſts is valued at one thouſand, a piece of painted callico at ſix hundred, a piece of neconnes ſix hundred, a Guinea ſtuff three hundred, of paper-braul three hundred, a ſmall keg of powder three hundred, and ſo of the reſt. Annabaſes and braſs pans, pewter-baſons, guns and powder, are much eſteemed with them: they are very fond of ſmall black beads, and coral, to make bracelets: we had alſo knives, tapſeels, and chareolees, with a ſmall quantity of ſcarlet, and blue broad-cloth, which the natives wear in ſmall rings tied round their waiſt for ornament. We bought men-ſlaves from three thouſand ſix hundred to four thouſand, and women, boys, and girls, in proportion. We reckoned a man ſlave at fifty ſhillings prime-coſt of the goods in England. There was in the town a large Portugueſe factory, and in the road a large Dutch ſhip and two Engliſh ſhips beſides ourſelves, or we ſhould have purchaſed ſlaves much cheaper.

They have a market every day, where proviſions and goods are ſold; it begins very early in the morning, and laſts about three hours; they have plenty of Indian corn, kidney-beans, calavances, pindas and guba-gubs; which laſt are in ſhape and taſte like our white peaſe, with this difference, one grain being as big as four or five; they grow upon a vine which runs upon the ground, and every ſingle grain is covered with a diſtinct ſhell. They have great numbers of plantain and banana trees, as they have of palm-trees of ſeveral ſorts, from whence they draw great quantities of palm-wine, and extract a great deal of oil from the fruit, which they both eat and anoint themſelves with, and ſell to the Europeans. They have alſo large cotton trees of a prodigious ſize: pine-apples are ſo plentiful here, that I have bought ten for a knife, which coſt in England about two-pence. They have ſome limes: but I ſaw no lemons, and but very few oranges, and thoſe bitter, ſour, and ill taſted. They have plenty of dunghill-fowls; but I ſaw neither turkey nor duck in the country, no black cattle, nor hogs, (except wild ones) and but one ſheep. The men have their drinking-bouts of palm-wine, which is the only liquor the country affords beſides water: they let it ſtand two days after it is taken from the tree, in which it ferments, and grows ſour, and has ſome ſpirit in it, which exhilirates them, and makes them merry: they ſit at theſe drinking bouts twelve hours together, till they get drunk. I have taſted it, but found it very diſagreeable; but when it is firſt taken from the tree it has a very pleaſant taſte." Thus far this author.

We ſhall now, as we propoſed, give a particular deſcription of the city of Loango, and particularly the king's palace; with an account of the ſtate and dignity of the king, his government, laws, puniſhments, revenues, &c.

Loango, the capital city of the kingdom of the ſame name, ſtands about four miles from the ſea coaſt, and is ſituated in four degrees and a half of ſouth latitude. It is a very large and populous city; the ſtreets are long and ſpacious, and on the ſides of them are planted rows of palmetto and banana-trees. The houſes are built of an oblong form, with two gable ends, and a ſloping roof, which reſts on long thick poſts ſupported by ſtays. They are all built nearly of the ſame ſize, ſtand at equal diſtances, and appear with great uniformity. The inſide contains three

three or four apartments, which are all on the ground floor, and only ſeparated by a ſlight partition made of wicker or reeds. Their houſhold furniture conſiſts chiefly of pots, wooden trays, mats, ſmall and great baſkets for their cloaths, &c.

There is a ſpacious ſquare, ſurrounded with lofty trees, near the center of the city: here, (as is obſerved above) a daily market is held for the ſale of all kinds of proviſions, as meat, poultry, fiſh, wine, corn, and oil; alſo palm cloths of various ſorts, and great quantities of elephants teeth. On the weſt ſide of this ſquare is the royal palace, which conſiſts of a number of detached buildings. The king's apartments are in front, and behind are thoſe belonging to his women. The whole is ſurrounded with lofty palm-trees, and is at leaſt a mile and a half in circumference.

At a ſmall diſtance from the front of the palace is the place where the king holds public audience, and tranſacts all buſineſs relative to the ſtate. Adjoining to the entrance of the palace, on the eaſt ſide, is the banqueting-houſe, where the king every day retires to drink palm-wine. It is a noble building, and the place where all difficult caſes are adjuſted in the preſence of the king. The front of it is open for the benefit of the air, and about twenty feet backwards is a ſcreen or partition quite acroſs, to prevent the palm-wine being ſeen by the people. The room is hung with rich tapeſtry; and in the center of it, juſt without the ſcreen, is the throne, which is ſupported by ſmall pillars made of palmetto-branches curiouſly wrought in imitation of baſket-work. The throne is raiſed from the ground about a foot and a half, and on each ſide of it are two large wicker-baſkets that contain ſeveral weapons kept there by the king for the ſecurity of his perſon. The king's gardens are on the eaſt ſide behind the palace; and thoſe belonging to the queen are on the weſt ſide.

There are two mokiſſoes at a ſmall diſtance from the city, one of which is called mokiſſo a Loango, and is highly eſteemed. It is kept in a ſmall hut, and reſembles a man in a ſitting poſture. The natives perform their ſervices to this idol by dancing round it with rattles in their hands, and throwing themſelves into the moſt ridiculous poſtures and geſticulations.

A place called the Broad-way, is ſituated from the eaſt end of the city, whither ſuch as have been found guilty of any crime by the imbonda drink, are dragged and executed. The ceremony reſpecting the trial of innocence by means of this drink, we ſhall take notice of in treating of their puniſhments.

The monarch of this country hath a great number of wives, all of whom, except the principal one, are obliged to be very obſequious to him. The latter, however, who is diſtinguiſhed by the title of makenda, has not only the ſuperiority over the reſt, but indeed over the king her huſband; for he is obliged to conſult her on all affairs of importance, nor can he act contrary to her will. Such too is her power, that ſhe has the liberty of chuſing any other male companion her inclinations may ſuggeſt; and whatever children ſhe has by ſuch connection are reputed of the royal race. But though the king is thus ſubject to his principl wife, he otherwiſe preſerves a kingly dignity.

This prince is very powerful; and ſo circumſtanced, as to be able to bring into the field a conſiderable army; for all his ſubjects are obliged to equip themſelves with arms, and immediately attend at his command. His dreſs conſiſts of a garment made of cloth or ſtuff, and both he and his nobles wear, on their left arm, the ſkin of a wild cat ſewed together with one end ſtuffed. He makes two meals a day, the firſt of which is about ten o'clock in the morning. His proviſions are brought to his apartment in covered baſkets; and with the people that bring them there is a man with a large bell in his hand, which he rings, to give notice, that the king's diſhes are arrived.

The king on hearing the ſound of the bell, leaves his company; and as ſoon as he enters the apartment, the ſervitors retire and leave him, when he ſhuts the door, and continues by himſelf during the whole time he is at dinner; for (as is the caſe in other parts of Africa) ſhould any perſon happen to ſee him either eat or drink, he would immediately be put to death. And ſo punctually is this law obſerved, that even animals are ſubject to the ſame fate, which happened to a fine dog preſented to the king by the Portugueſe. This creature, not being well fed by thoſe who had the care of him, ſmelling the victuals one day when the king went to dinner, followed the ſcent, and his majeſty not faſtening the door properly, the dog, while he was at dinner, thruſt it open with his feet, and entered the room, when the king immediately quitted the apartment, and ordered the creature to be killed, as a fit puniſhment for his bold intruſion.

After dinner, the king goes every day in ſtate, accompanied by his nobles, and a great croud of people, to the banqueting-houſe, in order to refreſh himſelf, by drinking palm-wine. As ſoon as he arrives there, he ſeats himſelf on the throne, and on each ſide of him is a cup bearer. He on the right-hand reaches him the cup when he is inclined to drink, but at the ſame time turns his head; out of which is given to the company by him on the left, who ſtrikes two iron rods, pointed at the ends, againſt one another. At this ſignal the people turn their backs to the king, and bend their faces to the ground, in which poſture they remain ſo long as the irons continue ringing; after which they riſe, turn their faces to the king, and with him health, by clapping their hands.

His majeſty goes a ſecond time after ſun-ſet, to the apartment adapted for eating, where his proviſions are prepared for him as before, after which, he again viſits the banqueting-houſe, where he remains till nine or ten o'clock, when he returns and retires ſoon after to his chamber.

It is very uncommon for the king to appear abroad, except on the above occaſions; or when an ambaſſador arrives, or ſome extraordinary accident hath happened, ſuch as when a leopard is taken in the country, or elſe lodged about the city ready for the chaſe (for he is very fond of that diverſion); or, laſtly, when his land is to be tilled, and his chief nobility bring him tribute. The place appointed for his appearance on theſe occaſions is a large plain in the center of the city, oppoſite to the palace. The ſtool, or chair, on which he ſits, is raiſed about a foot from the ground, and adorned with black and white wickers, very artificially woven. Behind his back, on a pole, hangs a ſhield, covered with European ſtuffs of various colours. Near him are placed ſix or eight fans fixed at the ends of long ſticks run through the middle of them, which being moved with great force, produce very refreſhing breezes. Before the king, a great cloth is ſpread on the ground, made of leaves very curiouſly woven; and on this no perſon dare tread, except the king and his children. The nobility ſit in ranks, ſome on the bare ground, and others on cloth made of the ſame ſtuff with the king's, each of whom holds a buffalo's tail in his hand, which he keeps continually waving to and fro. All the great officers ſtand behind the king, and the nobles are incloſed by the multitude. As ſoon as the king is ſeated, the muſic immediately plays, and continues during the whole time his majeſty is on the throne.

The muſical inſtruments are of three ſorts, the firſt of which is made of ivory, and is like a hunting horn. The ſecond ſort are drums made of a hollow piece of timber, covered at one end with leather, or the ſkins of wild beaſts; and the laſt ſort ſomewhat reſemble tabors, having little bells faſtened all round. When the muſic has been ſome time playing, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the nobility riſe from their ſeats, and compliment the king by leaping backwards and forwards before him two or three times; after which they clap their hands together, and then, in token of ſubjection, proſtrate themſelves on the ground, rolling their bodies ſeveral times over.

Three or four criers ſtand on one ſide of the king's ſeat, with iron inſtruments in their hands, upon which they ſtrike with a ſtick, to give notice when the king demands ſilence. Theſe criers are likewiſe officers of the city, and not only proclaim the king's orders, but alſo, like the bellmen in England, go about the ſtreets, ſtriking their iron inſtruments, to give notice to the people when any thing is loſt or found.

The king likewiſe appears in a public manner at the commencement of the ſeed-time, which is always on the firſt of January. He takes his ſeat at three o'clock, when the women who till the ground appear before him with their inſtruments of huſbandry; and the men walk backwards and forwards, armed in their military habits. The king generally ſtays about an hour, when he returns to his palace amidſt the acclamations of the people, who devote themſelves to feſtivity for the remainder of the day.

Hunting the wild beaſts is a favourite diverſion here; therefore when any of the inhabitants have diſcovered a leopard in the woods adjoining to the capital, intimation of it is given to the king, who repairs to his public place of appearance; and a trumpet is ſounded, to give notice to the people to attend his majeſty at the ſport. If the

place where the leopard lies be too far for the king to walk, he is carried on men's ſhoulders on a kind of chair made of wicker, and richly ornamented. As ſoon as they arrive at the ſpot where the leopard is ſecreted, the people ſurround it, armed with bows and arrows, lances and darts, leaving only a ſmall place open, that the king may have a convenient opportunity of ſeeing the ſport. They ſpread nets before this opening, ſo that if the leopard ſhould happen to take his courſe that way, he may be taken alive. When every thing is ready, the beaſt is rouſed by the people making an univerſal ſhouting, together with the blowing of horns, and beating of drums. As ſoon as the creature finds himſelf ſurrounded, he endeavours to make his eſcape, but is prevented by the vollies of darts and arrows that are diſcharged at him by the multitude, who follow him cloſe; and if he happens not to take to the net, overpower and diſpatch him. When the leopard is killed, the king retires to his palace, before which the hunters bring the carcaſe, and triumph over it by dancing, ſinging, and exhibiting various kinds of antic poſtures and diverſions.

The higheſt reſpect is not only ſhewn by the common people of the city of Loango, to the king, but alſo the greateſt ſubmiſſion to the nobility; for when they happen to meet any one of them in the ſtreets, they immediately fall on their knees, and turn their heads the other way, intimating that they are not worthy to look at him; and in this poſture they continue till the nobleman has paſſed.

The laws in this country are not complex, but ſome of the puniſhments are as ſevere as thoſe of the neighbouring kingdoms. Theft is never puniſhed with death, unleſs it be committed on the king: in common caſes, when a thief is detected, either he or his friends muſt reſtore the goods ſtolen, or atone for the want of them by an adequate compenſation; beſides which, the thief is tied to a poſt in the middle of the ſtreet, where he continues an hour as an object of ridicule and contempt to the ſpectators. If he is unable either to reſtore the goods, or pay the value of them, his relations muſt work for the party robbed till he thinks himſelf ſufficiently ſatisfied.

They puniſh adultery only by a fine, which is levied in proportion to the circumſtances of the offender; except it be committed on any of the king's wives, when the man is buried alive, and the woman burnt.

When any perſon is ſuſpected of a crime, and it cannot be clearly proved againſt him, he is ſworn by drinking a certain quantity of a liquor called imbonda. It is made from the root of a ſmall tree or ſhrub ſo called, which is about ſix inches long, and much reſembles a carrot. The root is ſcraped into water, which is boiled in gourds. The liquor is as bitter as gall; and ſo ſtrong, that one root would ſerve to try an hundred people. When the perſon drinks the liquor, if it be too much infuſed, it occaſions a ſuppreſſion of urine, and ſtrikes up into the head, inebriating to ſuch a degree, that he falls down as if dead, in which caſe he is pronounced guilty, and is accordingly dragged to the Broad way and executed; but if he can ſtand upright, and make water, he is deemed innocent. The determination of this matter reſts intirely in the imbonda giver, or perſon appointed to adminiſter the potion, for however innocent he may be that is ſuſpected, yet if the imbonda man has any diſlike to him, or his accuſer is a perſon of importance, he is ſure to give him the liquor ſo ſtrongly infuſed, that its operation proves fatal, though he does it ſo artfully, that it cannot be diſcovered. This ceremony is performed at Loango almoſt every week, ſo that many people are deſtroyed by it in the courſe of a year.

On the death of the king, the ſucceſſion of the crown does not devolve to his children, but to his eldeſt brother; but, for want of ſuch kindred, it falls to his ſiſter's children. Thoſe who have pretenſions to the crown are five in number, and reſide in towns or villages at ſome diſtance from the court; they preſerve their titles agreeable to the names of the reſpective villages in which they live.

The next heir to the crown is called Mani-kay, who reſides at a large town of that name about fifty miles from Loango. The ſecond is called Many-Bokke, and lives at a town called Bokke, ſituated about fourteen miles up the country. The third, called Mani-Salloga, lives at Salloga, a large town ſituated about thirty-five miles north of Loango. Mani-Kat, the fourth, lives at the village of Kat, about fifty miles from Loango. And Many-Inyami, the fifth and laſt, reſides at the hamlet of Inyami, which is ſituated on the borders of the kingdom. When, on the king's death, Mani-Kay ſucceeds, Mani-Bokke removes to the reſidence of Many-Kay, and the reſt all follow, a proper perſon being appointed to ſupply the place of the laſt. And then they ſucceed to each others villages, and afterwards to the crown by a regular rotation.

Mani-Kay, after the deceaſe of the king, immediately enters upon the government; but he does not go to court till the funeral of the late king is over, the ceremonies attending which are theſe: they firſt make two vaults under-ground, adjoining to each other, in one of which they lay the corpſe, richly dreſſed, on a ſtool, and by it all manner of houſhold ſtuff, as pots, kettles, pans, cloths, and garments. They then place round it little images made of wood and red earth, repreſenting the houſhold ſervants of the deceaſed. After this, they leave the royal corpſe, and go to the other vault, where they place the bodies of ſeveral ſlaves, who have been ſacrificed to ſerve the king in the other world, and to make atteſtation in what manner he behaved during his life. The two vaults are then cloſed; and in order to preſerve it from the inclemency of the weather, a covering is erected over each of them.

The revenues of the king of Loango principally ariſe from elephants teeth, copper, and ſlaves. The greateſt part of the copper is brought by ſtealth from an inland country, becauſe the inhabitants of it and the king of Loango are always at variance.

Beſides the branches of trade mentioned above in captain Uring's account, the natives alſo deal in tin, lead, copper, iron, red-wood, and ſeveral ſorts of cloths, the manufacture of the country; in exchange for which, they purchace of the Europeans, ſalt, Sileſia ticking, beads, looking-glaſſes, cutlaſſes, and other commodities.

CHAP. V.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

CAFFRARIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account of CAFFRARIA, and the Countries thereunto belonging; a Deſcription of the Interior Country of the CAFFRES; that part of CAFFRARIA called the Country of the HOTTENTOTS; and of the Kingdom of MATAMAN or CLIMBEDE.

CAFFRARIA, or Caffreria, is excellently well ſituated for navigation and commerce, both which advantages are almoſt intirely neglected. The country is fertile, but wants the benefit of civilization. The inhabitants are naturally ſagacious, but their faculties are abſorbed in indolence; thus both the lands and minds of the people require improvement; but leſt cultivation in the firſt ſhould introduce luxury, and information in the laſt produce diſobedience, neither of theſe are encouraged by the politic Dutch, who poſſeſs the greateſt part of the coaſt.

This country extends about ſeven hundred and eighty miles from north to ſouth; that is, from cape Negro to

the cape of Good Hope; from the laſt mentioned cape turning north-eaſt, to the mouth of the river Spiritu Santo, it runs about ſix hundred and ſixty miles; and from thence proceeding up the country almoſt to the equinoctial line, it is about one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty miles farther. In ſome places it is nine hundred, and in others not above ſix hundred broad. Cape Negro is in fifteen degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and the river Del Spiritu Santo in twenty-five degrees ſouth latitude. Caffraria is ſo named from the Caffres, its inhabitants; though ſome authors affirm, that this name is merely an opprobrious term given by the Arabs to all who have but confuſed notions of the Deity, and which the Portugueſe have by miſtake applied to theſe people.

Geographers uſually divide this extenſive region into five parts; namely, 1. The kingdom of Mataman, or Climbede; 2. The inland countries between Mataman and Monomotapa; the country of the Hottentots; 4. Terra de Natal; and 5. Terra dos Fumos. But it is neceſſary firſt to take notice of the diſcovery of this country, before we enter upon a local deſcription of it.

The cape of Good Hope, which is the moſt ſouthern part of Africa, till ſo late as the year 1493, when it was firſt diſcovered by Bartholomew Diaz, the admiral of a Portugueſe fleet, who, on account of the boiſterous weather he met with when near it, diſtinguiſhed it by the name of Cabo dos totos Tormentos, or the Cape of all Plagues; ſince which, no place in the univerſe has been more ſpoken of, though little of the country, except the coaſt, has been penetrated or known. The reaſon why it has ſo much attracted the attention of mariners of all nations, is, their being under a neceſſity of frequently calling there for water or other refreſhments, and alſo of doubling it, in their voyages to the Eaſt Indies. But John, king of Portugal, not liking the name which his admiral had beſtowed on this large promontory, changed it to that of the cape of Good Hope, which appellation it hath ever ſince retained.

Neither Diaz, or his ſucceſſor Vaſco de Gama, though they ſaw the cape, thought proper to land at it. But in 1498 the Portugueſe admiral, Rio del Infante, was the firſt who ventured on ſhore; and from his report, Emanuel, king of Portugal, on account of the eligibility of the ſituation, determined to eſtabliſh a colony there: but the Portugueſe, who are naturally puſillanimous, having taken it into their heads that the inhabitants of the cape were cannibals, were too much afraid of being devoured, to obey their ſovereign in making the ſettlement he intended.

Some time after, theſe timid people landed here, under the conduct of a viceroy of Braſil, named Francis d'Almeyda, where the Portugueſe were ſhamefully defeated by the ſcarce armed and unwarlike natives; the viceroy and ſeventy-five of his men being killed in the engagement, and the reſt obliged to retire with precipitation to their ſhips. The Portugueſe were much chagrined at this diſaſter, and greatly abaſhed at the idea of ſuch martial ſuperiority in a people by them deemed at once ſavage and deſpicable. They determined to be revenged; but not having magnanimity enough to ſhew a becoming reſentment, they contrived a moſt inhuman and cowardly expedient.

Touching at the cape about two years after, they landed with all the appearance of amity, and brought on ſhore with them a large cannon loaded with grape ſhot. Knowing the fondneſs of the unſuſpecting natives for braſs, they pretended to make a preſent of this engine of deſtruction, which was of that metal. The poor people, overjoyed by the gift of ſo great a treaſure, began to drag it away by the help of two long ropes which had been previouſly faſtened to the muzzle. Great numbers laid hold of the ropes, and many others went before by way of triumph, when the treacherous Portugueſe firing off the cannon, a prodigious ſlaughter enſued, as moſt of the people ſtood within the range of the ſhot. Many were killed, ſeveral wounded; and the few who eſcaped, abandoned with the moſt precipitate terror the fatal preſent.

The Dutch, about the year 1600, began to touch at the cape, in their way to and from the Eaſt Indies; and becoming annually more ſenſible of the importance of the place, they effected a ſettlement here in 1650, which ſince that time hath riſen to great power and opulence, and been of eſſential ſervice to that nation in general.

With reſpect to the inland parts of the country of the Caffres, the Europeans are but little acquainted with them; however, it is agreed that the country called Mozumbo Acalongo, is bounded on the eaſt, by the empire of Monomotapa; on the weſt, by Mataman, or Climbede; on the north, by the province of Ohila; and, on the ſouth, by the country of the Hottentots.

Ohila and Abutea have been little known, and leſs deſcribed by the European travellers; however, the latter is ſaid to abound in gold mines.

The province of Toraca contains many iron mines, and in the midſt of them is a ſurprizing fabric, being a capacious ſquare caſtle, built of poliſhed free-ſtone; the ſtones are very large, and placed upon each other without any kind of cement. The walls are near nine feet thick, and contain ſeveral inſcriptions, which no perſon has yet been able to explain, or even gueſs to what language the characters belong. As the inhabitants are unacquainted with the founder of this extraordinary pile, they compliment the devil with the honour of being the architect. The neareſt ſtone building to this is a Portugueſe fort, which, however is two hundred leagues from it.

The town of Fatuca, near this place, is rich in gold and precious ſtones.

Boro and Quitici, abound in gold mines; and Chicovee contains many ſilver mines; this laſt place lies more to the north-eaſt.

That part of Caffraria, called the country of the Hottentots extends towards the north, to the tropic of Cancer, and is bounded on all the other parts by the ſouthern ocean. It is divided into twenty parts, or provinces; which, being independent of each other, are termed nations. We ſhall deſcribe theſe Hottentot ſtates in the following order.

The firſt is the country of the Heykams. This territory abounds in cattle, though there is no fodder but flags and reeds, nor any water but what is brackiſh. The few vallies are fertile, but the mountains are many and barren. Game and wild beaſts are numerous, but freſh water is a ſcarce article.

The next is the diſtrict of the Chantours, which contains the fineſt and the moſt lofty trees of any in the Hottentots country: the land in general is flat, the ſoil rich, and the water excellent. Here are abundance of cattle, great quantities of game, a variety of wild beaſts, and plenty of ſea and river fiſh.

The third is the land of the Houteniquas, which contains many fine ſhady woods, and fair, fertile meadows: theſe laſt are beautifully enamelled with a great variety of fragrant flowers; and the former are ſtocked with abundance of medicinal herbs.

The fourth country is that of the Gauriques, or Gauros: it is a ſmall, but plentiful territory; and abounds more in wild beaſts than any other place near the borders of the coaſt.

The fifth is the country of the Damaquas, who inhabit a diſtrict which is flat and fertile. It abounds particularly in cattle, game, hemp, and water-melons. Wood is very ſcarce, and ſalt-pits are at once numerous and uſeleſs, for the Hottentots never eat any ſalt, and the pits are too far from the coaſt to be of any ſervice to the Europeans. Thoſe who travel through this territory are much obſtructed in the way by the ſerpentine river Palamites, which meanders through the whole country: and as the people have not the leaſt idea of building a bridge, they paſs it upon floats, or in canoes.

The land of Dunquas, being the ſixth country, is the leaſt even, and moſt fertile place in this part of Africa. Here is a profuſion of cattle, game, fiſh, herbs, and flowers. It is watered by ſeveral fine ſtreams, which diſembogue themſelves into the river Palamites.

The ſeventh is the country of the Sonquas, who are few in number, and inhabit a very barren rocky country; but their poverty renders them more induſtrious than the reſt of the Hottentots, and their natural wants make them excellent huſbandmen. They are active and intrepid; and when they find it impoſſible to ſubſiſt in their own country, they let themſelves out to hire as ſoldiers, to fight the battles of ſome of their more lazy and leſs warlike neighbours: ſo that they may not improperly be termed the ſwiſs of the cape. Cattle is ſo ſcarce among them, that they never kill any but upon certain ſolemn occaſions: their food being either the game they provide themſelves with in hunting, or ſuch roots, plants, and herbs as their poor country furniſhes. Many employ themſelves in ſearching hollow trees for honey, which they barter with the Dutch for brandy, tobacco, and hardware. Though unimproved by art; they are the philoſophers of nature: deeming this life a ſhadow, they never ſhun any danger, as they imagine it may haſten and facilitate their journey to a ſtate which they ardently expect in a better world.

The eighth is the country of the Heſſaquas, or Gaſſaquas, which is one of the richeſt and moſt poliſhed of all the Hottentot nations; that is, they have the greateſt quan-

tities of cattle, the only criterion of riches, and are the moſt luxurious in their living, the ſole mark of refinement which is obſervable in this country. But their wealth and luxury, on the other hand, are their greateſt misfortunes; for the former by raiſing the envy of their neighbours, encourages them to commit depredations in their territories; and the latter by having enervated, has rendered them incapable of defending themſelves. Hence they are obliged frequently to ſolicit the aſſiſtance of the Dutch, and to pay part of their wealth in ſupport of their effeminacy. Their kraals, or villages, are larger, and better built; their bakkeleys, or oxen for carriage, ſtronger and handſomer, and their country better inhabited than any other about the cape. They have plenty of game, and indeed every thing that is neceſſary for convenience or pleaſure in that tropical ſituation. Some of theſe people article themſelves to the Dutch for a certain number of years, and act with the utmoſt integrity during the ſtipulated ſpace.

The ninth country is inhabited by the Koopmans, who poſſeſs a large and fertile territory, well ſupplied with wood and water, and which contains many European ſettlements.

The tenth is inhabited by the Chainouquas, whoſe territories are ſmall, but fertile: the people conſiſt only of about four hundred perſons: they are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and very rich in cattle.

The eleventh is the country of the Cabonas, ſituated near the tropic of Capricorn, and are reported to be anthropophagi, or men-eaters. But as theſe people are very little known, it is probable that the ſuppoſition is not founded in truth, and that what is ſaid to their diſadvantage may be owing to the total ignorance of their real characters.

The twelfth country is that of the Hancumquas, which adjoins to the former, lies about the twenty-ſixth degree of ſouth latitude, and is likewiſe very little known: as we mean not, therefore, to adopt any circumſtances but ſuch as are well authenticated, we deem it more eligible to omit any farther particulars of this place, than to inſert them from the mere conjectures of others.

The thirteenth is that of the Henſaquas, who differ from the other Hottentots, in applying themſelves to agriculture, as well as the breeding of cattle. They cultivate a ſingular root called dakka, the juice of which is ſharp and ſpirituous. The ſubſtantial part ſerves them for food: and the fluid is an intoxicating liquor, of which they are very fond. Theſe people catch lions by traps, and have the peculiar art of taming them, ſo as to render them ſociable and domeſtic. Some of the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt they breed for the purpoſes of war, and ſo perfectly well diſcipline them, that they are obedient to command, and attack furiouſly when order'd by their maſters: ſo that the Henſaquas are exceeding formidable to their neighbours by the aſſiſtance of thoſe tremendous light troops.

The fourteenth country is inhabited by the Attaquas, who are poor, having but few cattle, which is owing to the barrenneſs of the country, and the want of water. This poverty of ſoil, is, however, their grand ſecurity againſt invaſion; as few care to riſque their lives with a certain proſpect of being loſers, or to ſteal that which is not worth the having.

The country of the Chirigriquas, being the fifteenth, borders on the bay of St. Helen's; the people are ſtrong, active, and bold. The territory is watered by an excellent ſtream called the Elephants river, on account of the great number of elephants which frequent its banks. This diſtrict abounds with mountains which are flat at the top, and the ſummits of ſome of them have all the verdure of the fineſt meadows. The vallies are admirably enamelled with the moſt beautiful flowers; but it is dangerous to acquire their fragrance, by reaſon of the prodigious number of ſnakes with which they abound: that called ceraſtus is particularly venomous. Theſe people are very numerous, and are celebrated for being the moſt dexterous of any of the Hottentots in throwing the aſſagaye or half-pike, which they do with the moſt critical exactneſs: they always keep the blade of it bright and clean, and, when uſed in war, it is dipt in poiſon. This weapon is made of a taper ſtick, about four feet long, armed at one end with an iron plate, ſharp at the edge, and tapering to a point.

The ſixteenth of theſe countries is inhabited by the Namaquas, who are divided into two nations; the greater Namaquas inhabit the coaſt, and the leſſer Namaquas extend more to the eaſtward. Though the government of theſe two nations differ, the characters of the people are much the ſame; they are more poliſhed, and poſſeſs a greater degree of reputation, than any other of the Hottentots. Their ſtrength, valour, fidelity, and diſcretion, are much admired even by the Europeans. It is computed that the two nations can, together, bring twenty thouſand men into the field. They always deliberate before they ſpeak; uſe very few words, and give a laconic but pertinent anſwer to all queſtions. The women are the fondeſt of finery, and the moſt artful in their behaviour, of any of the natives about the cape. The country through which the Elephants river winds, is mountainous, ſtony, and barren. Wild beaſts are numerous, though there are but few woods. A beautiful deer is found in this part: it is ſmall, exceeding ſwift, and affords delicious veniſon; it is of a handſome make, and the hide is admirably marked with white and yellow ſpots. Theſe animals are never known to go ſingly; but herds of ſeveral hundreds of them are frequently ſeen together.

The ſeventeenth country lies to the north of Saldana bay, and is peopled by the Odiquas. They are continually at war with the Chirigriquas; therefore they are in perpetual alliance with the Saniquas, for their mutual defence againſt the common enemy.

Adjoining to the laſt-mentioned nation is that of the Saſſiquas: the country is mountainous, but at the ſame time covered with verdure, and the vallies are finely enamelled with flowers. It was once a very populous country, but is now thinly inhabited; for the great ſcarcity of water has induced many of the natives to quit it, and others have been driven away by the Dutch freebooters.

The country inhabited by the Cochaquas, which is the nineteenth, is particularly fertile in paſturage, on which account a great extent of it is occupied by the Dutch farmers, who have the care of furniſhing the Dutch Eaſt India ſhips with proviſions, which they are enabled to do, by means of the abundance of cattle, and excellent ſalt-pits found in the territory. A Dutch guard is placed in this country for the ſecurity of the ſalt-pits and cattle, and to ſend notice to Cape Town, when any ſhip comes within view of the coaſt. Theſe people, and indeed moſt of the other Hottentots, move from place to place in their reſpective diſtricts, for the benefit of freſh paſturage. When the graſs in any meadow is rank, they ſet fire to it; and the aſhes meliorate the ſoil, and improve the next crop. Hence the country is frequently ſeen in a blaze for the ſpace of ſeveral miles round; and if the flames, in their progreſs, enter into any other territory, it infallibly occaſions a war between the two nations. The Dutch at the cape burn the graſs for the ſame reaſon, but ſtop the progreſs of the flames with much more diſcretion. In order to impede the fury of the fire, they cut trenches round the place, which limits it to the ſpot deſigned to be manured; but the indolent Hottentots, rather than give themſelves ſo much trouble, would rather cauſe an univerſal conflagration, and alſo kindle the flames of war.

The twentieth and laſt of theſe countries is that of the Gorenghaiconas, or Gunjemans, who dwell promiſcuouſly with the Dutch, as they ſold their country to thoſe people, only reſerving to each family a ſmall portion of land juſt ſufficient for the maintenance of their cattle, and retaining the privilege of hunting in thoſe grounds which the Europeans poſſeſſed.

It is neceſſary to obſerve here, that the Hottentots and Caffres have been often confounded together by writers, but they are a different people, having a conſiderable diſſimilarity even in perſon and features, as the Caffres are totally black, and the Hottentots of a dark olive colour; but we ſhall give a more particular deſcription of them hereafter. And we muſt not omit to mention, that the above names of the ſeveral Hottentot nations were not given to theſe people by the Europeans, but are rendered agreeable to the ſound of thoſe appellations, by which they diſtinguiſh each other: nor is the term Hottentot a word of deriſion, as ſome ſuppoſe, but the name by which theſe people have called themſelves time immemorial.

The kingdom of Mataman, or Climbede, extends from ſixteen degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, to the river Bravaghul, in twenty-four degrees ſouth latitude, croſſing the tropic of Capricorn, and being in length four hundred and fifty miles from north to ſouth; and two hundred and ſixty miles broad from eaſt to weſt. The river Bravaghul bounds it on the eaſt and weſt; Benguela, on the north; and the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth.

The firſt place worthy of obſervation in this kingdom, is cape Negro, or Black cape, which receives its appellation from its ſable appearance to mariners when at a conſiderable diſtance at ſea. At the extremity of the northern angle is a bay about ſix miles broad; and on the ſummit of

of the mountain is a pillar of alabaſter, with the arms of Portugal upon it. Gulfo Frio, and the cape of the ſame name, lie in eighteen degrees thirty-five minutes; and the bay of St. Ambroſe in twenty-one degrees ſouth latitude; and beneath the eighteenth degree of ſouthern latitude, lies cape Ruy-Piz, which extends about ten leagues north-weſt.

The climate is tolerably mild, conſidering the tropical ſituation of the country. The inland parts are fruitful, and there is a great variety of trees towards the north. The coaſt here is very ſandy. The Dutch judge of their approach to this coaſt by the flight of the birds called mews, as they never fly above twenty leagues from land. There is likewiſe another token by which ſailors know when they are near the ſhore, which is, by the floating of the weed called ſargoſſa upon the ſurface of the waters.

Climbede, is very little known; but, according to the few writers who have mentioned it, the government is deſpotic, and the whole country ſubject to one ſovereign, to whom a few petty lords, who ſtile themſelves princes, are ſubordinate, though a ſmall number of towns towards the ſea-coaſt conſtitute the whole of their dominions.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Poſſeſſions belonging to the DUTCH, with their Method of Government, at the Cape of GOOD HOPE.

THE Dutch did not enter into the ſcheme of ſettling a colony at the cape, till the year 1650, when M. Van Ricbeeck, a ſurgeon, in his return from India, obſerved the conveniency of the place for a ſettlement, and, laying before the Dutch Eaſt India company, a plan of its eligibility, the ſcheme was approved, and the propoſer appointed governor. This gentleman, ſailing with four ſhips to the cape, entered into a negotiation with the people, who, in conſideration of fifty thouſand guilders, or four thouſand three hundred and ſeventy-five pounds ſterling, agreed to yield up to the Dutch a conſiderable tract of country about the cape.

Van Ricbeeck, in order to ſecure his new purchaſe, immediately erected a ſtrong ſquare fort; and laid out a large garden, and planted it with a great variety of the productions of Europe, that he might render the place as commodious and agreeable as poſſible.

The Dutch company, having thus ſucceſsfully begun the ſettlement, propoſed, in order the more effectually to eſtabliſh it, that every man, who would ſettle three years at the cape, ſhould have an inheritance of ſixty acres of land, provided that during that ſpace he would ſo improve the eſtate, as to render it ſufficient to maintain himſelf, and contribute ſomething towards the maintenance of the garriſon; and at the expiration of the time, he might either keep poſſeſſion of it, or ſell it, and return home. Induced by theſe propoſals, many went to ſeek their fortunes at the Cape, and were furniſhed on credit with cattle, grain, plants, utenſils, &c. The planters, however, at length grew weary of their habitations, for want of conjugal ſociety; therefore the governors of the company, to prevent their leaving the place, provided them with wives from the orphan-houſes, and other charitable foundations. In proceſs of time they greatly increaſed, and ſpread themſelves farther up the country, and along the coaſt, till they occupied all the lands from Saldanna bay, round the ſouthern point of Africa, to Noſſel bay, on the eaſt; and afterwards purchaſed Terra de Natal, in order to extend their limits ſtill farther.

The Dutch poſſeſſions, then, may be conſidered under four different heads or colonies, viz. 1. Cape; 2. Stellenboſh; 3. Drakenſtein; and, 4. Waveren; and of theſe, after having premiſed a few particulars concerning the Dutch ſettlements at the cape, we ſhall ſeverally treat.

In this celebrated African ſettlement, there are eight eſtabliſhments for the public adminiſtration of affairs; namely, 1. A grand council: 2. A court or college of juſtice for capital matters; 3. An inferior court for the diſcuſſion of petty affairs; 4. A matrimonial court; 5. An orphan court; 6. An eccleſiaſtical council; 7. A common council; and 8. A board of militia.

The great council has the governor for its preſident, who has a double vote, and is aſſiſted by eight of the company's officers who reſide at the cape.

The members of the grand council, in conjunction with the three chief burgomaſters of the cape town, compoſe the ſecond court, or college of juſtice.

The court for the diſcuſſion of petty affairs, or the inferior court, conſiſts of a preſident, who muſt be a member of the great council, of three cape burghers, one of whom acts as vice-preſident; of the company's clerk, and three other of their immediate ſervants and attendants.

Different matters come under the cogniſance of the matrimonial court, which conſiſts of the ſame members as the foregoing.

Seven members compoſe the orphan court, viz. the vice-preſident of the great council, three of the company's ſervants, and three burghers of the cape.

Three paſtors of the three reformed churches here, ſix elders or churchwardens, and twelve overſeers of the poor, conſtitute the eccleſiaſtical council.

In every cape colony a court of common-council is eſtabliſhed; each of theſe is compoſed of burghers choſen out of the liſts prepared by the burgeſſes of each colony.

Here are two boards of militia; namely, the Cape Town board, which conſiſts of a member of the great council, and nine of the principal military officers of the cape colony; and the board for Stellenboſh and Drakenſtein colonies, in which the land-droſt of Stellenboſh colony preſides, and nine military officers of both colonies are appointed to aſſiſt him.

The power of theſe ſeveral courts is as follows: the firſt takes cogniſance of every thing which concerns commerce; inſtitutes and repeals laws; and likewiſe hath authority to declare war or make peace with the nations in the vicinity of the ſettlement. The ſecond tries all capital caſes in civil and criminal cauſes; but an appeal lies from this court to Batavia and Holland. The third is inſtituted for the determination of actions for ſmall debts, and for treſpaſſes; ſo that no action can be entered here which exceeds one hundred crowns. The fourth inſpects the validity of the marriages of the Europeans at the cape, or grants permiſſion for their celebration. The fifth takes care of orphans, and prevents thoſe who have fortunes from marrying before the age of twenty-five. The ſixth diſtributes money to, and takes care of, the poor. The ſeventh collects taxes, and puniſhes criminals, particularly ſlaves, within its own juriſdiction. The eighth cloaths the militia once a year, and ſends out horſemen in purſuit of ſlaves that have run away from their maſters.

The expences of the government are eſtimated at thirty thouſand pounds annually, out of which ſix hundred ſervants, and ſix hundred ſlaves are maintained, and the governor's income is valued at four hundred and fifty pounds a year. A tithe of the produce of all lands is paid towards ſuſtaining the government. The duties on brandy, wine, tobacco, and beer, are farmed at five thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds per annum; and the profits of other merchandizes amount to ſeventy-five per cent.

Great indulgence is ſhewn by the Dutch to thoſe who ſettle here, and the cape Europeans meet with much encouragement upon all occaſions; nor are they leſs ſolicitous to cultivate the friendſhip and conciliate the affections of the different Hottentot nations. They generally live in amity with them: and are ſo much reſpected as to be choſen arbiters in moſt of their quarrels. Deputies from the principal of theſe nations frequently wait on the Dutch governor with preſents of cattle, &c. when they are hoſpitably entertained, and, in return, are ſent back again with what is equally agreeable to themſelves.

It appears, however, that on the firſt ſettlement of the Dutch at the cape, all the Hottentot nations did not acquieſce in the ſale of the country to foreigners; for the Gunyemains diſſented from the agreement of the others, and, in 1659, diſputed the poſſeſſion of the purchaſed territories with the Dutch. They always made their attack in ſtormy and boiſterous weather, as thinking the fire-arms then of leſs uſe and efficacy; and upon theſe occaſions they would murder indiſcriminately all the Europeans they could meet, burn down their houſes, and drive away their cattle.

A Hottentot, named by the Dutch Doman, who had reſided for ſome time at Batavia, and afterwards lived at cape town, at length retired to his countrymen, perſuaded them that it was the intent of the Europeans to enſlave them, and ſtirred them up to this war. They accordingly took up arms, and, being headed by this Doman, and another chief called Garabinga, committed great depredations. But the Hottentots themſelves at length growing tired of the war, one hundred of them, belonging to one nation, came unarmed to the Dutch fort, with a preſent of thirteen head of excellent fine cattle, in order to ſue for peace. This, it may be imagined, was readily granted by the Dutch, who were heartily ſick of a conteſt, in which themſelves were ſuch great loſers, without reaping any advantages from it.

Not

Not long after this, a chief of another nation, with a conſiderable number of attendants, came in a friendly manner to the cape, when, according to the Dutch writers, the governor, for their entertainment, ordered a tub full of brandy, with a wooden diſh in it, to be placed among them: when the men began to be intoxicated, two or three hundred little pieces of tobacco were thrown amongſt them, in ſcrambling for which, they made a horrible noiſe. The noiſe and hurly-burly over, they began to leap and dance with ſeveral ſtrange geſtures; the women in the mean while clapping their hands, and continually ſinging, or rather roaring out, Ho, ho, ho, ho! Having ſlept till they were ſober, they were diſmiſſed with preſents of coral, copper, braſs, tobacco, and other things. But we ſhall now proceed to a more particular deſcription of each of the Dutch poſſeſſions at the cape.

Cape colony extends from the cape itſelf to Falſo Bay, and is ſeparated from Stellenboſh colony by a deſart of conſiderable extent, which reaches from the cape to a plantation called Saxenburgh.

This diſtrict contains in it the hills called the Tyger-hills, Cow-hill, Lion-hill, Table-hill, Wind-hill, Blue-hill, or Blue-mountain, the Norwegen-hills, and Buſh-hill.

The firſt of theſe, namely, the Tyger-hills, receive their name from the ſingular appearance they make, as they ſeem ſpotted and coloured exactly like the ſkin of the animal after whom they are named. Theſe hills are very fertile, are near twenty-five miles in circumference, and the fartheſt is about four miles diſtant from the cape: upon theſe eminences are twenty two eſtates, the poſſeſſions of which are not only a good manſion-houſe to each, but great quantities of cattle; ſome having above one thouſand ſheep, and three or four hundred head of large cattle.

Near twenty miles from the cape ſtands Cow-hill; but it is not ſo well ſettled as the former, the land and water being very indifferent.

The next, denominated Lion-hill, extends northward from Table-Valley to the ocean. Its name is deduced by ſome from the reſemblance it bears to a lion, when viewed from the ſea; but others affirm it was ſo called from having formerly abounded with lions. In a declivity between this and Table-hill are two centinels continually upon duty, a cottage being erected there for their reſidence. Their buſineſs is, daily to aſcend to the ſummit of this hill, which they do alternately, by means of rope ladders. The perſon at the top is able to deſcry a ſail at the diſtance of thirteen or fourteen leagues at ſea. As ſoon as he perceives a ſail, he gives a ſignal to his comrade below, who goes to the fortreſs to give notice to the governor, while the remaining centinel hoiſts the Dutch flag, and diſcharges a two-pounder. At the foot of this hill a little fort mounted with four guns, was erected by the governor, Simon Vander Stel, at the head of a ſmall creek, but ſcarce any remains of it are now to be ſeen.

Table-hill, is the higheſt of any, being near two thouſand feet in height. It is very fertile, being covered with vineyards, plantations, cattle, &c. The governor, among others, has a charming ſeat at this place; and two gardens, the one named Round-buſh-garden, and the other New-land, which are extremely pleaſant. The former receives its name from the fine lofty trees which agreeably ſhade it, and render it a good retreat in the ſummer months. The latter hath its appellation from having been more recently made than the other. The ſcene is romantically charming, from its woody appearance; ſo that a ſtranger might fancy that the genius of the woods had his reſidence here. This hill is finely watered, and is very profitable to the company. In the center there is a prodigious chaſm, where a number of trees grow in a very romantic manner; and the torrents ruſhing down here have a very romantic appearance during the rainy ſeaſon.

We are told by Kolben, that a ſhort time before his arrival at the cape, the people had obſerved, for near a month together, upon this hill, ſomething very ſhining and reſplendent, which they fancied reſembled a ſerpent with a crown like a carbuncle upon his head. It frightened many; and none, it ſeems, had the courage ſufficient to attempt the diſcovery of what it was. But this abſurd whim of imagining that a luminous vapour on the top of a mountain reſembles a ſerpent with a carbuncle on his head, is not peculiar to the conjurors at the cape, for an ingenious writer (Mr. Haynes) informs us of a recent inſtance of ſimilar folly; "On the cape of Samos, he ſays, a very bright light is ſeen, which much reſembles a ſtar. The captain's mate ſaid, he had ſeen this light ſeveral times in his voyages by this iſland, and it was ſaid to be a large ſerpent, with a diamond on his head. Some of the Turkiſh paſſengers ſaid it was univerſally believed to be ſo, and that the Grand Signor had cauſed ſeveral attempts to be made in order to diſcover what it was; but that every one of them proved ineffectual, on account of the ſteepneſs of the cape, till in the year 1763, ſome men contrived ſomething like rope-ladders, fixed iron hooks at the ends, and, by means of very long poles, hung them as high as they deſired, then climbed up them, and diſcovered a monſtrous ſerpent with young ones about it; but did not perceive any diamond on the head of it."

There was ſome years ago a ſilver mine diſcovered upon the top of this hill, between the two groves, known by the reſpective names of Hell and Paradiſe; but as the profit was not found adequate to the expences, the Dutch have left off working it.

Near the Lion-hill ſtands the Wind-hill, or Devil's-hill, as it is termed by the ſailors; it is ſeparated from the former by a chaſm or valley. It receives theſe appellations from the boiſterous winds which break from the white cloud that often hovers over it; for when theſe hurricanes ſweep down its ſides, and iſſue through the cleft or chaſm, they do great miſchief to corn, fruit, houſes, ſhipping, and whatever lies in their way. This extends to the ſea ſide, and, together with Table-hill and Lion-hill, encompaſſes a plain called Table-Valley, which is tolerably fertile, as well as the eminences.

About twenty-five miles from the cape ſtands Blue-hill, which is ſo called from the colour of its ſoil when ſeen at a diſtance. It abounds with wild beaſts, but has only a few plantations about it, not being well ſupplied with water.

Thoſe called the Norwegen-hills are very craggy, and many in number; but as they are at a conſiderable diſtance from the cape, four only are ſettled, and on theſe great quantities of cattle are reared: but the governor Vander Stel built a handſome country-houſe, a fiſh-houſe, a capacious ſtable, &c. on a fertile ſpot here.

The laſt of theſe called Buſh-hill, is ſo named from the trees and ſhrubs with which it abounds, and runs down to a place called Wood's bay, on the coaſt.

The Salt river, is the principal that waters this colony: this is ſo called, becauſe the waters, towards its mouth, at Table-bay, are brackiſh, but at its ſource in Table-hill it is ſweet, ſalubrious, and clear. Simon Vander Stel attempted to cut a canal of communication between this river and Falſo Bay; but on being convinced that it would neither anſwer the deſign, nor reimburſe the expence, he deſiſted.

The river Muſhel or Muſſel, is only a temporary one, which is formed in the rainy-ſeaſon, and falls from the mountains into the Salt river. Another ſtream called Kerſey's river (from a German of that name drowned therein) is always ſtopped up in the dry ſeaſon by the ſand-banks which are raiſed by the violent ſouth-eaſt wind; and this, by throwing the water out of its channel, forms a conſiderable lake till the wet ſeaſon cauſes it to flow again in a regular manner, by demoliſhing its ſand-banks.

Many parts of the country abound with ſmaller ſtreams, ſprings, fountains, caſcades, natural and artificial canals, ponds, and other reſervoirs.

Stellenboſh colony was originally a wild country, overrun with ſhrubs, brambles, and bruſh-wood, and called at firſt, by the Dutch, Wild Foreſt. At length, the governor, Simon Vander Stel, cleared and ſettled it, when it received from him the name of Stel's-buſh colony, which was afterwards corrupted to Stellenboſh. This colony which is ſeparated from Cape colony by a ſandy deſart, is divided into four diſtricts; namely, Stellenboſh, Hottentot Holland, Mottergate, and Bottelary.

The diſtrict of Stellenboſh is ſurrounded by hills, has a wholeſome air, fertile ſoil, and abounds with wood, paſturage, herbs, flowers, &c. The plantations are ſubdivided into vineyards, cornfields, orchards and gardens. The banks of Stellenboſh river, which falls from the mountains, are adorned with many commodious houſes and pleaſant eſtates, the ſtream itſelf yields various kinds of ſmall fiſh; near Table bay into which it diſcharges itſelf, many of a larger ſort are taken. A fine bridge is laid over the river, which was erected by a public ſpirited gentleman at his own expence, in the room of one of a very narrow and inconvenient conſtruction. Adiram Vander Stel erected another bridge over a different part of this river, which has been ſince ſuffered to run to decay, and is now in a ruinous ſtate.

The village of Stellenboſh was accidentally burnt to the

ground in 1710, but has ſince been rebuilt with redoubled luſtre, and is in a flouriſhing ſituation at preſent.

The ſecond of theſe diſtricts, called Hottentot Holland, is the moſt fertile part of Stellenboſh colony, on which account great quantities of cattle are bred here for the company's uſe; there are many houſes, vineyards, and gardens, belonging to the plantations, beſides the paſtures.

Though this country was formerly inhabited by ſcarce any thing but wild beaſts, it is now in general cultivated, and thoſe voracious animals have been either driven to more remote and ſequeſtered places, or totally deſtroyed.

In the hilly part of the country are three rivers, which diſembogue themſelves into Falzo bay, and water the diſtrict; the one, called Lawrence river, frequently overflowed, till a reſervoir was made to receive its rapid waters, by which the miſchief was prevented, and plenty of water retained againſt the dry ſeaſon: a ſtream from this baſon turns a corn mill, and a fort was formerly built upon the banks of the river, but the latter hath been ſuffered to run to decay. The other two rivers are leſs conſiderable; and have not as yet obtained any name; but it is very extraordinary, that though the waters themſelves are ſweet, yet freſh water fiſh will not live in either of the three.

Two roads lead from the cape to Hottentot Holland, the one over the ſandy downs in Tyger valley, and the other over a mountain which has not yet been diſtinguiſhed by any peculiar appellation: the latter is the moſt pleaſant, on account of the fine proſpect it affords, though the former is the moſt commodious.

Several circumjacent mountains, namely, the Hottentot Holland mountains, the Norwegen mountains, the Stone hills, &c. from Falzo bay, which is about thirty miles in circumference, and has in the center a large rock riſing conſiderably above the water, upon which a great number of ſea-birds breed, and have their habitations. The bay abounds with fiſh, and had once an eſtabliſhed fiſhery here, which the company, for cogent reaſons, thought proper afterwards to drop. Stellenboſh and Hottentot Holland rivers empty themſelves into this bay; and the rock which terminates it to the eaſt, from the reſemblance it bears to a lip hanging over a chin, is called Hang-lip rock.

Near the end of the year 1710, a dreadful hurricane, which blew from the ſouth-eaſt, put the waters of this bay into a terrible commotion, and occaſioned a flood which ſpread far into the country, where having done incredible damage, on its return to the bay great numbers of fiſh were left upon the ſhore.

On one ſide of the bay is Sea-cow valley, which received its denomination from the number of ſea-cows that formerly frequented it; ſo many, however, were continually killed here, that the reſt grew ſhy of the place, and have found out much more ſecure retreats. In one part of this valley is a lake of about three miles in circuit, the waters of which, in their natural ſtate, are ſweet; but at certain times the waves of the bay overflow the valley, and, mixing with the waters of the lake, impregnate them with ſalt, beſides leaving a quantity of fiſh behind; theſe, on the return of the ſea, live while the ſaltneſs continues, but as ſoon as the lake water recovers its natural ſweetneſs, they die for want of ſaline nouriſhment. A great number of wild ducks, with various birds, breed among the flags of this lake, which is prodigious reedy.

The diſtrict of Mottergate, lies to the north of Hottentot Holland, and was ſo called on account of the mellowneſs of the ſoil, occaſioned by the frequent floods which intirely overflow it, and render it muddy; for the word "motter" implies muddy. The waters, however, at the ſame time that they make the roads bad, give an uncommon degree of fertility to the ſoil; ſo that this diſtrict is not inferior to any of the others with reſpect to houſes, inhabitants, produce, &c. The advantages of theſe inundations are many; and the few inconveniences might be eaſily remedied, or at leaſt palliated, by the erecting of bridges, and cutting dykes; which improvements we have reaſon to believe will take place, as neceſſity muſt point out their utility, and the inhabitants have both timber and induſtry.

The diſtrict of Bottelary, which is the moſt northern part of the colony, receives its name from the quantity of hay made in it, which exceeds all that is made at the cape beſides. On an elevated ground, called Joſſen-hill, are ſeveral plantations, conſiſting of vineyards, orchards, paſtures, farms, cattle, and nurſeries. Fuel and water are very ſcarce here; of the latter they have little but what the rain affords them, and this the hot weather turns brackiſh in the dykes where it is preſerved. To remedy the inconveniences ariſing from the want of wood, the company have planted ſeveral acres of this diſtrict with trees, and enacted a law, that every perſon ſhall be publicly and ſeverely whipped by the common hangman, who ſhall preſume to cut a ſingle twig.

Drakenſtein colony was ſettled in 1675, principally with French refugees, and under the direction of the governor, Simon Vander Stel, who gave it its preſent name, in compliment to his great friend and patron the baron Van Rheeden, lord of Drakenſtein, in Guelderland, in Holland.

This colony is very large, extending northward to Saldanna bay, ſouthward to the Turnagain mountains, eaſtward to the Drakenſtein mountains, and weſtward to Horſe mountain. The Drakenſtein mountains are high, ſteep, and ragged; hence travelling over them is tedious, fatiguing, and dangerous, on which account they are called the Vexatious mountains by ſome.

The only public buildings in this very extenſive country are a church and a water-mill: there is not a ſingle village, though it contains ſeveral ſcattered farms in the ſeveral ſettlements.

The Mountain river is the principal one: it is ſo named from having its ſource in the mountains. There are many good plantations on both ſides of this river, but it has no bridge over, to facilitate its communication. The waters of it empty themſelves into the bay of St. Helena, after meandering through ſeveral diſtricts.

The air is ſerene, conſidering the ſituation, the water remarkably ſalubrious; and the ſoil, though mountainous, is fertile.

From Turnagain mountain to the church, the road is deep, narrow, and dangerous, being full of precipices, and infeſted by wild beaſts; ſo that many have leaped down the former to avoid the latter, and periſhed by one death in ſhunning another. Near this road a ſilver mine has been diſcovered, but no permiſſion hath been yet given to work it; and a noble manſion, ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt ſeats in Africa, hath been erected here.

Here is a noble eſtate called Simon's valley, conſiſting of a ſtately dwelling-houſe, commodious wine-houſe, mill, gardens, orchards, vineyards, corn-fields, &c. And near this place is a mountain called, from its height, the Babylonian tower; and there are many good plantations on it.

The church of Drakenſtein is one of the meaneſt buildings imaginable; the walls are exceeding low, and the roof is only made of reeds; nor are the decorations within ſuperior to the appearance without. Near this plain fabric is a market for the ſale of groceries, ſmall wares, &c. In the vicinity is the Pearl mountain, ſo called from the vulgar notion of its ſummit reſembling a pearl; it produces excellent mill-ſtones. The mountain named Riebeeck's-caſtle is high, ſteep, and deficient in water; once barracks were built, and troops poſted here, as an advanced check upon the Hottentots; but recent treaties, and the amicable behaviour of thoſe people, have rendered ſuch precautions unneceſſary, the former have been ſuffered to run to decay, and the latter withdrawn.

A diſtrict called Twenty-four Rivers, is ſituated at about a day's journey north of Riebeeck's-caſtle: it received its name from the variety of ſtreams which water it, and render the paſturage excellent. The land is not entailed, but granted by licence, yet it is well inhabited, fertile, and abounds with cattle; the people here grind their corn in little hand-mills, as they are not accommodated with either wind or water-mills.

The Honey mountains are at the diſtance of a day's journey from Twenty-four Rivers: they derive their name from the great quantities of wax and honey found in the clefts, which the Hottentots obtain with imminent danger of their lives, and ſell to the Europeans. The white people here are greatly infeſted with the Hottentot frailty, idleneſs: they ſeldom cultivate any land, depending chiefly on their cattle; and, what is ſingular, inſtead of eating bread with meat, they eat meat with meat, that is, a piece of dried veniſon with a piece of freſh mutton, or beef. Their drink is water, milk, or honey-beer; which are ſo ſalubrious, that they are ſeldom viſited by diſeaſes. About a day's journey from hence a few cattle feeders inhabit ſome high hills called the Piquet mountains, from the firſt ſettlers having been immoderately given to gaming and, in particular, to playing at piquet. The greateſt harmony ſubſiſts between theſe people and the Hottentots, who intermix with each other.

Waveren colony was ſettled in 1701, by the governor, William Vander Stel: it was named after the illuſtrious Waveren family to which the governor claimed relationſhip: it is the moſt eaſtward colony from the cape. Being the youngeſt ſettlement, the bounds are uncertain: the mountains, which ſurround the greateſt part, are not named; the lands are only licenſed, the habitations are but huts, and the people in general but ſervants, as they have no cattle of their own, but take care of the cattle of perſons belonging to the colonies adjacent.

A high ſteep mountain, called the Red-ſand mountain, is ſituated between this colony and the cape, it was ſo denominated from the colour of the ſoil: there is ſuch difficulty in travelling over it, that the waggons are taken to pieces on one ſide, packed up, and carried on the backs of the teams, and put together on the other ſide: there is a fertile place called Blackland, near this mountain.

The inhabitants of this colony, having neither church or council-houſe, are obliged, for worſhip, to go to Drakenſtein church; for marriages or chriſtenings to the cape; and to Stellenboſh on account of legiſlative concerns.

Here are two hot baths; but it is dangerous to go to either, on account of the wild beaſts which ſwarm in theſe parts. The waters of this colony are in general very good.

Terra de Natal, was likewiſe purchaſed by the Dutch, and is inhabited principally by the Caffres, who are very different in many reſpects from the Hottentots, not greaſing their bodies, or ſtammering in their ſpeech. They, unlike the Hottentots alſo, ſow corn, brew a kind of beer, and build ſquare houſes with a kind of plaiſter. Theſe people trade with the Arabians and rovers of the Red ſea, for ſilk, elephants teeth, coffee, &c. which they barter with the Europeans for cordage, anchors, tar, and other maritime ſtores, and exchange with the former for various articles.

This diſtrict hath been but little penetrated by intelligent travellers; and from the moſt copious and ample deſcription we have been able to obtain concerning it, we learn, that ſuch part of the country as lies towards the ſea is plain, champaign, and woody; but within land it appears more uneven, by reaſon of many hills which riſe in unequal heights above each other: yet it is intermixed with pleaſant vallies and large plains, and is chequered with natural groves and ſavannahs or meadows. There is no want of water; for every hill affords little brooks, that glide down ſeveral ways; ſome of which, after ſeveral turnings and windings, meet by degrees, and make up the river of Natal, which diſcharges itſelf into the eaſtern ocean, in the latitude of about thirty degrees ſouth; then it opens, pretty wide, and is deep enough for ſmall veſſels. But at the mouth of the river is a bar, which has not above ten or eleven feet water on it in a ſpring tide; though within there is water enough. This river is the principal of the diſtrict of Natal, and has been frequented by ſome of our Engliſh ſhips. There are alſo other ſtreams and rivers, which bend their courſes northerly; eſpecially one of a conſiderable bigneſs, which runs due north, about one hundred miles within land.

Several ſorts of trees grow in the woods, many of which afford very good timber fit for any uſe, they being tall and large. The ſavannahs are cloathed with kindly thick graſs. The land animals of this country are lions, tygers, elephants, buffaloes, bullocks, deer, hogs, rabbets, &c. Here are alſo abundance of ſea-horſes; buffaloes and bullocks only are kept tame, but the reſt are all wild. Elephants are ſo numerous here, that they feed together in prodigious herds. Mornings and evenings they are ſeen grazing in the ſavannahs; but in the heat of the day they retire into the woods, and they are very peaceable if not moleſted; deer are alſo very plenty here, they feed quietly in the ſavannahs among the tame cattle; for the natives ſeldom diſturb them.

Fowls of various ſorts are found here in great plenty, ſome ſuch as we have in England, ducks and teal both tame and wild, and plenty of cocks and hens, beſides abundance of wild birds, wholly unknown to us. Here are a ſort of large wild fowl as big as a peacock, with many fine coloured feathers; they are very rare and ſhy. There are others like curlews, but bigger: the fleſh of theſe is ſweet and wholſome, but black.

Though there is plenty of divers ſorts of fiſh in the ſea and rivers; yet the natives do but ſeldom endeavour to take any, except tortoiſes or turtles, and that is chiefly when they come aſhore in the night-time to lay their eggs. But they have another very ſtrange way to catch turtle: they take a living ſucking fiſh, or remora, and faſtening a couple of ſtrings to it (one at the head, and the other at the tail) they let the ſucking-fiſh down into the water, on the turtle-ground, among the half-grown, or young turtles; and when they find that the fiſh has faſtened itſelf to the back of a turtle, as he will ſoon do, they then draw him and the turtle up together. The ſame way of fiſhing is alſo practiſed at Madagaſcar, one of the iſlands in the Indian ocean.

With reſpect to the natives of this country, they are but of a middle ſtature, yet have very good limbs; the colour of their ſkins is black, and the hair criſped; they are oval viſaged, their noſes neither flat nor high, but very well proportioned: their teeth are white, and their aſpect altogether graceful; they are nimble but very lazy, which probably is for want of commerce; their chief employment is huſbandry. They have a great many bulls and cows, which they carefully look after; for every man knows his own, though they all run promiſcuouſly in the ſavannahs; yet they have pens near their own houſes, where they make them gentle, and bring the cows to the pails. They alſo plant corn, and fence in the fields, to keep out all cattle, as well tame as wild. They have Guiney corn, which is their bread; and a ſmall grain, no bigger than muſtard-ſeed, of which they make their drink. No arts or trades are profeſſed among them, but every one makes for himſelf ſuch neceſſaries as need or ornament requires; the men keeping to their employment, and the women to theirs; the men build houſes and huts; plant, and do what is to be done abroad, and the women milk the cows, dreſs the victuals, &c. and manage all domeſtic matters. Their houſes are not large, nor richly furniſhed; but they are made cloſe, and well thatched; ſo that they are well defended from the inclemency of the weather.

Their clothes, of which they wear but few, are extremely mean; the men go in a manner naked; their common garb being only a ſquare piece of cloth made with ſilk-graſs, or moho rind, and wrought in form of a ſhort apron: at the upper corners it has two ſtraps to tie round their waiſts; and the lower end, being finely fringed with the ſame, hangs down to the knees. They have caps made with buff greaſed, of about nine or ten inches high; they are a great while in making theſe caps, for the greaſe muſt be made very pure before it is fit for this uſe; beſides, they lay on but a little at a time, and mix it finely among the hair, and ſo it never afterwards comes off their heads. When they go a hunting, which is but ſeldom, they pare off three or four inches from the top of their caps, ſo that it may fit the ſnugger; but the next day they begin to build it up again, and ſo they do every day till it is of a greater and faſhionable height. It would be a ridiculous thing for a man here to be ſeen without a greaſy cap; but boys are not ſuffered to wear any till they arrive at years of maturity, and then they begin to build up their heads. The women have only ſhort petticoats, which reach from the waiſt to the knee; when it rains, they cover their bodies with a ſimple cow hide, thrown like a blanket over their ſhoulders.

The food of theſe people chiefly conſiſts of Guiney corn, beef, fiſh, milk, ducks, hens eggs, &c. They alſo drink milk often to quench their thirſt, and this ſometimes when it is ſweet, but commonly they let it be four firſt. Beſides milk, which is their common drink, they make a better, but of the ſame grain beforementioned, purpoſely to be merry with; and when they meet on ſuch occaſions, they make themſelves extraordinary fine with feathers ſtuck in their caps very thick: they make uſe of the long feathers of cocks tails, and none elſe. Beſides theſe head ornaments, they wear a piece of cow hide made like a tail, and, like that, it is faſtened behind them, reaching from their waiſt to the ground. This piece of hide is about ſix inches broad, and each ſide of it is adorned with little iron rings of their own making; when they are thus attired, their heads a little intoxicated, and the muſic playing, they all ſkip about merrily, and ſhake their tails briſkly; but in their mirth they are very harmleſs and inoffenſive.

Polygamy being tolerated here, every man may have as many wives as he can maintain; and, without buying, here are none to be had; neither is there any other commodity to be bought or ſold but women. Young virgins are diſpoſed of by their fathers, brothers, or neareſt male relations; the price is according to the beauty of the damſel. They have no money in this country, but give cows in exchange for wives; and therefore he is the richeſt man who has moſt daughters or ſiſters; for then he is ſure to get cattle enough. They make merry all the wedding, but the bride

bride cries all the wedding day, and never joins in the mirth.

These people are very just, and extraordinary civil to strangers. They live together in small villages, and the oldest man governs the rest; for all that live together in one village are a-kin, and therefore willingly submit to his government.

Terra dos Fumos, is but a small trifling country, bounded on the south by the river Dellagoa, which separates it from Terra de Natal; on the north by Zanguana; on the west, by the country of the Naonetas; and by the Eastern ocean on the east. It extends from the mouth of the river Dellagoa, to the mouth of the river De Ladroon, or Teude; the first appellation signifying the river of robbers, which is in twenty-six degrees forty minutes south latitude. The only places worthy of notice here are, cape Pedras, which is about the twenty-ninth degree of south latitude. Potto de Pesqueria, or the Fishing-place, which is a little beyond the former; and the bay of St. Lucia, which is between the latter and the Ladroon river.

The Portuguese, who either named places from the saints days on which they discovered them, or from some trivial circumstance which they observed when they first saw them, gave this country the name of Terra dos Fumos, or the Land of Smoke, from perceiving some smoke on their first approaching the shore.

The Europeans, as yet, have not made any settlement here; and the Caffres, who inhabit the place, live in a simple state of nature, without towns, villages, or settled habitations, and frequently indeed without even moveable huts; so many are the artificial wants of men, and so few their real necessities.

Cape Town, is situated in cape Colony, in thirty-four degrees fifteen minutes south latitude, and sixteen degrees five minutes east longitude. This place is large, commodious, pleasant, and populous; the streets are spacious, and regularly laid out; the houses are built of stone, and tolerably handsome, but they are very low and only thatched; both which circumstances are owing to the stormy weather; for were they built high, they would be blown down, and, if tiles were used instead of thatch, the people would be knocked on the head with them as they passed along the streets. The houses in general have pleasant gardens behind, and neat court yards before them. Building, as well as tillage, is greatly encouraged here, and land given for either purpose to those who chuse to accept of it; but then the government claims an annual tenth of the value of the former, and produce of the latter, and a tithe of all purchase money when estates are sold.

The town extends from the sea shore to the company's garden, spreading along the Table bay. The fort is in a valley at a little distance, its form is pentagonal, it commands the landing place, and is garrisoned by two hundred soldiers; the government storehouses are within it; the governor and other officers have apartments here, as well as six hundred servants; the same number of slaves are lodged in a commodious building in the town, which is divided into two wards, the one for the men, and the other for the women; and there is a house of correction for the reception of dissolute persons of either sex. The hospital for sick seamen is of essential service to the Dutch fleets in going or returning from India.

The church is a large commodious edifice, elegantly plain: but the roof and steeple are thatched, for the reason already mentioned. Thatching indeed, from the nature of the hurricanes, seems absolutely necessary; but from the method in which it was formerly done, it appears that it was frequently attended with danger, as we are informed that there were formerly shelving pent houses erected on both sides the streets, to shelter passengers in rainy weather: but these brought the inhabitants under such dangers and inconveniences, that they were quickly all pulled down by order of the government. Sailors and Hottentots were continually assembling and smoaking their pipes under them, and sometimes through carelessness set them on fire. The government very wisely laid hold of that occasion to rid the streets of those fellows that were continually pestering them, by publishing an order, which is still in force, and from time to time republished, that no Hottentot or common sailor shall smoak in the streets; with a declaration, that the sailor or Hottentot, who should presume so to do, should be tied to the whipping post, and severely lashed. This cleared the streets at length, and keeps them clear to this day of all sailors and Hottentots who have no business there; for it is with great difficulty that either of them can forbear smoaking while they are awake, if they have tobacco, which they are seldom without.

What is most to be admired at the cape is the company's garden, where they have introduced almost all the fruits and flowers that are to be found in Europe, Asia, or America; and most of them are improved. and flourish more than they did in their respective climates and countries from whence they were brought; and the garden is watered with springs that fall down from the Table mountain just above them. The apples and pears of Europe are planted here, with the grapes of Asia, as well as those of Europe; all of a delicious flavour. Here are also excellent lemons, oranges, citrons, figs, Japan apples, and a great variety of other fruits.

SECT. III.

Containing an Account of the Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, and the People called HOTTENTOTS, at the Cape of GOOD HOPE.

THE weather at the Cape of Good Hope may be divided into two seasons only, viz. winter and summer; or the wet monsoon, and the dry monsoon. The wet monsoon begins in March, and the dry one in September; so that summer commences at the cape about the time that it concludes with us. The inconveniences of the climate are, excessive heat in the dry season, and heavy rains, thick fogs, and unhealthy north-west winds in the wet season. Thunder and lightning are never known here but in March and September. Water seldom freezes, and, when it does, the ice is but thin, and dissolves upon the least appearance of the sun. In the hot weather, the people are happy when the wind blows from the south-east, because it keeps off the seaweeds, which otherwise would float to the shore, and corrupt there, which, by infecting the air, and causing dreadful head-achs, would prove very troublesome.

The appearance of two remarkable clouds, which frequently hang over the summits of the two mountains, of Table-hill and Devil-hill, commonly enable the inhabitants of this country to prognosticate what weather will happen. These clouds are at first but small, but, gradually increasing, they at length unite, and invelop both mountains, when a terrible hurricane soon ensues.

The violence of the wind does great damage to the corn and fruits, and endangers any shipping that happens to be near the coast; but at the same time it purifies and occasions a brisk circulation of the air, which greatly contributes to the health of the inhabitants. A gentleman who resided many years at the cape says, "The skirts of this cloud are white, but seem much compacter than the matter of common clouds. The upper parts are of a lead colour, owing to the refracted rays of light. No rain falls from it, but sometimes it discovers great humidity; at which time it is of a darker colour, and the wind issuing from it is broken, raging by fits of short continuance. In its usual state, the wind keeps up its first fury unabated for one, two, three, or eight days, and sometimes a month together. The cloud seems all the while undiminished, though little fleeces are seen torn from the skirts from time to time, and hurried down the sides of the hills, vanishing when they reach the bottom; so that during the storm the cloud seems supplied with new water. When the cloud begins to brighten up, those supplies fail, and the wind proportionably abates. At length the cloud growing transparent, the wind ceases.

During the continuance of these south-east winds, the Table-valley is torn by furious whirlwinds. If they blow warm, they are generally of short duration, and in this case the cloud soon disappears. This wind rarely blows after sun-set, and never longer than towards midnight, though the cloud remains, but then it is thin and clear. But when the wind blows cold, it is a sure sign it will last for some time, except an hour or two at noon or midnight, when it seems to recover itself, and afterwards renews its boisterous rage."

Near the cape, the water of the ocean is of a green colour, owing principally to the coral shrubs, and the weed called tromba. The first, while in the water, are green and soft; but when exposed to the air, they grow hard and change their colour to white, black, or red. The latter are ten or twelve feet in length, hollow within, and when dry, become firm and strong. They are often framed into trumpets, and the sound they produce is very agreeable to the ear.

The ſource of the rivers in this country are in the mountains: they glide over a gravelly bottom, are clear, pleaſant, and ſalubrious; but moſt other ſtreams are dark, muddy, and unwholſome. Here are a few brackiſh ſprings, whoſe waters, medicinally uſed, greatly purify the blood, and ſeveral warm and hot baths, which are ſingularly efficacious in various diſorders.

In Waveren colony are three hot ſprings, the moſt particular of which is Black-hole bath. The mould of this hole is of the colour of jet, light, greaſy, and ſo ſoft, that the feet of horſes ſink into it. The waters are uſed in ſcorbutic, leprous, and chronic diſorders, being ſtrongly impregnated with ſaline and ſteely particles. Upon the whole, the reputation of the cape waters is ſo great, that every Daniſh ſhip returning from India is obliged to fill a large caſk with the clear ſweet water that abounds here, for the particular uſe of his Daniſh majeſty.

White and red chalks are found in abundance at the cape, which alſo yields excellent clay both for the purpoſes of making brick and earthen-ware: the white chalk is uſed by the Dutch, to whitewaſh their houſes, and the red by the Hottentot women to paint their faces. Various bituminous ſubſtances of ſeveral colours are found in Drakenſtein colony, particularly a kind of oil which trickles from the rocks, and has a very rank ſmell. It is medicinally uſed as a purgative by the Hottentots, who indiſcriminately take it themſelves and give it to their cattle. Many of the hills yield excellent ſtones of a hard nature, and very proper for building. Sand ſtones are found in the running waters; and the country produces many quarries of lime-ſtone, which, however, is but ſeldom uſed, as the mortar in general is made of muſcle-ſhells. Whetſtones, touchſtones, and flints are common; but the moſt valuable ſtone is found in a quarry near the cape. This is of a red colour, veined with white, and ſpotted with blue; it takes an admirable poliſh, and in beauty exceeds the fineſt marble.

With reſpect to minerals, ſilver ore has been found in ſome of the hills; the Namaqua Hottentots bring copper to trade with the Dutch from ſome mountains which are ſituated about three hundred miles from the cape; and there are alſo ſeveral iron mines here. The ſoil in general about the cape conſiſts of a clayey earth; and is ſo fat, that it requires but little manuring. It produces all the neceſſaries and moſt of the luxuries of life.

Moſt of the kinds of grain produced in Europe, except oats, thrive well here; but many of the vegetables in the cultivated parts ſuffer greatly from caterpillars, mildews, and the incurſions of wild beaſts. The elephants in particular do great miſchief among the corn, as they frequently break the incloſures.

When we take occaſion to mention agriculture, it is to be obſerved, that the Europeans of the cape and their lands are implied; for the Hottentots in general deteſt the very idea of cultivation, and would ſooner ſtarve than till the ground, ſo greatly are they addicted to ſloth and indolence.

The working of the plough here is ſo laborious, from the ſtiffneſs of the ſoil, that it frequently requires near twenty oxen to one plough. The ſowing ſeaſon is in July, and the harveſt about Chriſtmas. The corn is not thraſhed with a flail, but trod out by horſes or oxen on an artificial floor made of cow-dung, ſtraw, and water, which when mixed together, cements, and ſoon becomes perfectly hard. It is laid in an oval form; the cattle are confined by halters, which run from one to the other, and the driver ſtands in the middle, where he exerciſes a long ſtick to keep them continually to a quick pace. By this method half a dozen horſes will do more in one day, than a dozen men can in a week. A tythe of the corn belongs to the Dutch company as a matter of right, and the reſt they purchaſe at a price ſtipulated between them and the huſbandmen, according to the nature of the crop and the kindneſs of the ſeaſon.

Many exotics have been tranſplanted from Europe and India, beſides what trees might originally grow here; ſo that the cape now produces oak, fir, camphire, pine, cypreſs, orange, lemon, citron, quince, pomegranate, apricot, apple, pear, peach, fig, plumb, cheſnut, walnut, and almond trees. The cinnamon tree has likewiſe been brought from Ceylon, and ſucceeds tolerably. The vines of Germany and Perſia have been introduced, and thrive exceedingly; ſo that the moſt inconſiderable huſbandman is not without a vineyard. The ſtocks are planted in rows; but that they may not be injured by the ſouth-weſt wind, they are never ſuffered to grow above two feet high, or three at the fartheſt. It is remarkable that they produce more here in the third year, than the European vines do in the fifth. The wine itſelf is ſtrong, mellow, and delicious; the vintage continues from the beginning of February to the latter end of March, and the wine bears a great price all over India.

Aloes are the ſpontaneous product of the place, and afford an agreeable fragrancy. The cripple tree has broad leaves, knotted branches, and bears fruit like a pine apple. The bark is uſed by tanners, and ſometimes medicinally by the cape phyſicians. The amaquas tree grows to the height of about ten feet; it produces white bloſſoms, and a fruit like the pea, only very large, which grows in pods, is of a brown colour, oval form, and aſtringent taſte. When a branch of this tree is lopped, a beautiful gum flows from the aperture, and the wood when dry is exceedingly hard. There is a tree as large as the oak, which is with great propriety denominated the ſtink wood tree, becauſe whenever the carpenters cut it, or attempt to work it with a tool, it yields ſuch an abominable ſtench, that they can ſcarcely endure it; yet it is ſo finely clouded, and takes ſuch a beautiful poliſh, that, the bad ſmell ſubſiding in time, great quantities of furniture are made of it.

A kind of wild hemp, called dakha, is uſed as a ſubſtitute for tobacco, and when mixed with the latter, is called baſpach, and ſmoked in great quantities by the Hottentots; who alſo ſmoke elephants dung, and ſeem to reliſh it highly, when they can neither procure dakha or tobacco. The karma root has many qualities of the Chineſe ginſeng, and produces the ſame effects as opium, on which account the Hottentots hold it in the higheſt eſteem. The ſpiræ or bukhu plant is another favourite vegetable, for the Hottentots pulverize the roots when dry, and with the powder, which is yellow, powder their hair; in ſhort, the native trees, plants, ſhrubs, roots and flowers at the cape, are of various kinds and admirable qualities; and moſt of the exotics thrive ſo greatly, that they exceed thoſe of the ſame ſpecies in the countries from whence they were brought; in particular, the head of a cape cabbage will often weigh forty, and a potatoe ten pounds, though the ſeeds were originally brought hither by the Europeans.

There are great numbers of tame cattle and domeſtic animals in the various colonies and ſettlements at the cape, and the woods and mountains abound with wild beaſts. The oxen are large and fine, and the ſheep numerous, with tails weighing near twenty pounds; the mutton is excellent, and the fat is uſed by the Hottentots in general, and even by ſome Europeans, as a ſubſtitute for butter. Both are ſold exceeding cheap to the Dutch; but the latter make any other Europeans, who touch at the cape, pay dear for them. The horſes, which were brought originally from Perſia, are of a bay cheſnut colour, and rather ſmall: the dogs are of little uſe, and are of a very unpleaſing appearance. With reſpect to wild animals, the elephant claims the firſt place, but differs in nothing from thoſe found in other parts, and which we have already deſcribed.

In treating of the other animals belonging to the cape, we ſhall firſt of all take notice of the rhinoceros, whoſe ſkin is ſo hard, that it is difficult to pierce it with a ſword. This creature is of a dark aſh colour, and has a ſnout like a dog; a horn projects about two feet from the noſe, reſembles a ploughſhare, and is of a dingy grey colour; with this he tears up the ground, rips up the elephant, to whom he is a mortal enemy, pulls up trees by the roots, and throws large ſtones over his head to a great diſtance. Another horn of about ſix inches long, turns up from his forehead. His legs are ſhort, his ears ſmall, and his ſenſe of ſmelling ſurprizingly acute. When he ſcents any thing he purſues in a right line, and tears up every thing in his way; but it is one happineſs that his eyes are exceeding ſmall, and ſo fixed, that he can only ſee ſtrait forward, ſo that it is eaſy to avoid him by ſtepping aſide, as he is a long time in turning himſelf, and longer ſtill in getting ſight again of the object. He will not, however, attack a man unleſs provoked, or unleſs he is dreſſed in ſcarlet. When he has killed any creature, he licks the fleſh from its bones with his rough tongue, which is like a raſp. He feeds principally on herbs, thiſtles, and a plant which reſembles the juniper, and which, from his fondneſs of it, is called rhinoceros-buſh. The blood, ſkin, and horn of this animal are medicinally uſed, and are ſaid to be very efficacious in various diſorders. Wine poured into cups made of the horn, bubbles up in a ſtrange kind of fermentation, and appears as if boiling. If a ſmall portion of poiſon is put into the wine, the cup ſplits; but if poiſon only is poured into the cup, it flies into a thouſand pieces. Hence cups made of the horn of the rhinoceros are deemed excellent

Broad tailed Sheep.



Mouflon.



Syrian Goat.



Cape Sheep.











Thornton sculp.

excellent ſafeguards to ſuch as drink out of nothing elſe; and on that account are highly valued, independent of their ſalubrious qualities.

Wolves at the cape are of two kinds: the one reſembles a ſheep-dog, is ſpotted like a tyger, and has a head like a bull-dog, his hair is frizzled, his tail ſhort, and his claws ſharp. The other is like an European wolf: they both prowl about and do great miſchief in the night time, but lie concealed in the day.

Lions, tygers, leopards, &c. alſo abound here, and are ſo troubleſome, that the perſon who kills one of either ſort, is rewarded with twenty-five florins, or fifty ſhillings. The fleſh of the lion is eſteemed equal to veniſon, and the fat is much valued.

Here are much larger buffaloes than in Europe. They are of a brown colour: the horns are ſhort, and curve towards the neck, where they incline to each other. Between them there is a tuft of hair upon the forehead, which adds to the fierceneſs of the look. The ſkin is exceeding hard, and the fleſh rather tough. He is a ſtrong fierce creature; and is enraged at any thing red, like many other animals.

They have very large elks here, being five feet high, with horns a foot long. This is a very handſome creature, having a beautiful head and neck, ſlender legs, and ſoft ſmooth hair, of an aſh colour. Their upper jaw is larger than the other, the tail about a foot long, and the fleſh by the cape epicures is ſaid to exceed the beſt beef. They run ſwift, and climb the rocks with great agility, though they uſually weigh about four hundred pounds each.

The creature called ſtink-breeches, or ſtink-box, is one of the moſt ſingular animals at the cape. This beaſt receives its name from its offenſive ſtench both living and dead. When purſued, it can ſtink away thoſe who follow it; and, if killed, the ſmell is ſo odious, that none can approach the carcaſe. It is about the ſize of a common houſe-dog, and made much like a ferret.

The goats are of various ſpecies, particularly one called the blue goat, which is of a fine azure colour. The ſpotted goat is larger than the other, and beautifully marked with brown, white, and red ſpots. The horns are a foot long, and the fleſh is fine eating. The tame goat is much like the European. The rock-goat is no larger than a kid, but very miſchievous in the plantations. The diving-goat is much like the tame one, and receives its name from its method of ſquatting down in the graſs to hide itſelf. There is another animal called a goat, but without any additional appellation; it is of the ſize of a hart, and extremely beautiful; the hair on the back and ſides is grey, ſtreaked with red, and that on the belly white; a white ſtreak paſſes from his forehead to the ridge of his tail, and three others ſurround his body in circles. The female hath no horns; but thoſe of the male are three feet in length, and the fleſh of both is exceeding delicate. The horns of the hart do not branch like thoſe of Europe; but the roebuck is in every reſpect like ours.

Wild cats are of ſeveral ſorts here: the firſt the Dutch call the civet-cat, not that it is really the animal ſo denominated, but becauſe of the fine ſcent of its ſkin. The next is called the tyger-cat, from its being very large, and ſpotted like a tyger. The third ſort is the mountain cat, which, as well as the tame cat, exactly reſembles thoſe of Europe. The fourth ſpecies is termed the blue cat, from its colour; as it is of a fine blue tinge, with a beautiful red liſt down its back.

There is a ſpecies of mice peculiar to this country, called the rattle-mouſe, which is about the ſize of a ſquirrel, and makes a rattling noiſe with its tail, from which it receives its appellation; it is very nimble, reſides among trees, lives upon nuts and acorns, and purs like a cat. The rats, and their other mice are like ours; and indeed ſome have affirmed, by miſtake, that there was none of this ſort of vermin at the cape till the Europeans carried them thither.

The country abounds with hogs of ſeveral ſorts; namely, the common hog, which is of the breed of thoſe brought from Europe, and reſembles ours. The Java hog, which came originally from Java, but is not unlike the former. The wild hog, or rather wild boar, is very fierce, and harbours in woods; and the earth hog, which is of a red colour, and without teeth; this latter lodges like a badger in holes, and feeds upon ants, which he procures by forcing his long rough pointed tongue into their hills, and drawing it thence with a great number of thoſe animals glued to it.

Many jackalls, and ſome ermines, are found about the cape. Baboons, apes, monkies, &c. are very numerous, and frequently do great miſchief in the gardens, orchards, and vineyards. The porcupine is very common here, and its fleſh eſteemed delicious. Hares, rabbets, and moles, differ in nothing from thoſe generally known.

There are two ſorts of wild aſſes in this country: the firſt reſembles the common aſs of Europe, but the other is a beautiful creature called the zebra, and bears a greater affinity in make and ſhape to the horſe than the aſs. Indeed the ears are ſomething like thoſe of the latter animal, but in all other reſpects it has a much more noble appearance. It is admirably well made, exceeding lively: and ſo extremely ſwift, that it throws almoſt every purſuer at a diſtance. It has fine legs, a twiſted tail, round fleſhy haunches, and a ſmooth ſkin. The females are white and black; and the males white and brown. Theſe colours are placed alternately in the moſt beautiful ſtripes, and are parallel, diſtinct, and narrow. The whole animal is ſtreaked in this admirable manner, ſo as to appear to the diſtant beholder as if curiouſly covered with ribbons. Moſt naturaliſts affirm, that the zebra never can be tamed; that which was preſented to her preſent majeſty queen Charlotte, and kept ſeveral years at the ſtables near Buckingham-gate, continued vicious till its death, which happened ſome years ſince, notwithſtanding it was brought over young, and every poſſible means uſed to render it tractable: it fed upon hay, and the noiſe it made rather reſembled the barking of a maſtiff dog, than the braying of an aſs.

Captain Carteret having, by order of his preſent majeſty, performed a voyage round the world in the Swallow ſloop of war, wrote a letter to the late Dr. Maty, ſecretary to the Royal Society, in which he mentions the camelopardalis, ſaid to have been found in the countries about the cape: "From the ſcarcity of this creature (ſays he) as I believe none have been ſeen in Europe, ſince Julius Cæſar's time, (when, I think, there were two of them at Rome) I imagine a more certain knowledge of its reality will not be diſagreeable to you, as the exiſtence of this fine animal has been doubted by many; if you think it may afford any pleaſure to the curious, you may make what uſe of it you pleaſe. The preſent governor of the cape of Good Hope has ſent out parties of men on inland diſcoveries, ſome of which have been abſent from eighteen months to two years, in which traverſe they have diſcovered many curioſities, which it is hoped they will, in convenient time, communicate to the world. One of theſe parties croſſed many mountains and plains, in one of which they found two of theſe creatures, but they only caught the young one; they endeavoured to bring him alive to the cape town, but unfortunately it died. They took off his ſkin, which they brought as a confirmation of this truth, and it has been ſent to Holland."

The ſkin alluded to in this letter is now depoſited in the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Leyden. Linnæus ranks this animal as one of the deer kind. Its head is like that of a ſtag, the horns are blunt, about ſix inches long, covered with hair, and not branched; the neck reſembles a camel's, but is longer, being near ſeven feet in length: it has a mane like a horſe; feet, ears, and tongue, like a cow; ſlender legs, the fore ones being conſiderably longer than the hinder; the body is but ſmall, covered with white hair, and ſpotted with red; the tail is long, and buſhy at the end; the upper jaw contains no fore-teeth; he moves both the fore feet together when he runs, and not one after the other like other animals; he is eighteen feet in length from the tail to the top of the head, and is ſixteen feet from the ground when he holds up his head.

There is a great variety of birds and fowls found at the cape, moſt of which are ſold cheap, particularly cocks, hens, turkies, capons, and other poultry.

Here are three ſorts of eagles, viz. the bone-breaker, who feeds on tortoiſes; to get at the fleſh of which it uſes this ſingular method: Having carried the tortoiſe aloft in the air, it drops it upon ſome hard rock, by which means the ſhell is broken, and the eagle can eaſily come at its prey. 2. The dung-eagle, which tears out the entrails of animals to ſubſiſt on; and, though no bigger than a common gooſe, is exceeding ſtrong and voracious. And, 3. The duck-eagle, which feeds principally upon ducks.

Wild geeſe are likewiſe of three ſorts, viz. The water-gooſe, which reſembles ours. 2. The mountain gooſe, which is the largeſt of all, and has a green head and green wings. 3. The crop gooſe, ſo named from its remarkable large craw, of which bags, pockets, and tobacco-pouches are made. All theſe kinds of geeſe are ſuch good eating, ſo plentiful, and ſo eaſily taken, that the people at the cape do not think the tame geeſe worth the trouble of breeding.

The bird called the flamingo is one of the moſt ſingular. It has a long neck, and is every way larger than a ſwan: the legs are remarkably long, and of an orange tawnéy, and the feet are like thoſe of a gooſe; the bill contains blue teeth with black points; the head and neck are intirely white; the upper part of the wings are of a bright flame colour, and the lower black. The knor-bird is about the ſize of a common fowl, with a ſhort black bill, and a black tuſt upon the crown; the legs are yellow; the wings of an aſh colour, ſpotted with red and white, but ſo ſmall as greatly to impede its progreſs in flying, and the fleſh is pretty good eating. The ſpoon-bill, or, as ſome call it, the pelican-bird, is rather longer than a gooſe, has a long bill formed like a narrow ſpoon, great eyes, and feathers to its tail of about half a foot in length. It is very uſeful in deſtroying ſerpents, toads, &c. but on that account the cape Europeans abſtain from eating.

Sea-gulls are very numerous here: and do not differ from thoſe in other parts: they furniſh admirable feathers for bedding, as well as a tolerable good diſh for the table. The penguin is about the ſize of the ſea-gull, but cannot fly on account of the ſhortneſs of the wings. The legs are green, the bill black, and the feathers of an aſh colour. It is very fat, builds its neſts in the rocks, and lays eggs that are much valued; but the fleſh, as it taſtes ſtrong and diſagreeable, is ſeldom or never uſed for food. The malagoſis is about the ſize of a gooſe, with black and white feathers prettily ſpotted with grey. The legs are ſhort, and placed ſo far behind, that its walk is whimſically aukward; the bill is ſmall, but contains ſharp teeth.

Peacocks, oſtriches, falcons, pheaſants, ſnipes, and ravens, do not differ from birds of the ſame ſpecies in other places. Owls are only diſſimilar in colour; and the wild ducks have either blue or brown heads; but the tame ones exceed thoſe of Europe in ſize. Here are likewiſe larks, greenfinches, yellow-hammers, water-wagtails, ſparrows, quails, thruſhes, &c. a bird reſembling a cuckow, which inſtead of ſpeaking the word "cuckow," continually cries "edolio," and ſeveral birds of the blackbird kind; ſome like ours, being black, others of a gold colour, and others brown or red. The ſtone-peckers, ſtarlings, ſwallows, hawkfinches, &c. ſeldom differ from thoſe of Europe, and when they do, the difference is in their favour. The canary-birds are only different from the common ones in the tints of their feathers.

The cape-finch and blue-bird are peculiar to this country: this latter is about the ſize of a common ſtarling, covered with blue feathers of different ſhades, and has a reddiſh bill near four inches long; the former are remarkable for changing the colour of their feathers twice annually. In ſummer the head and neck are ſcarlet, but all the reſt black; in winter, they are all over of an aſh colour. The bill is yellow, ſharp, and ſhort, and the reſt divided into two apartments, in which there are ſeparate accommodations for the male and female.

Reptiles are very numerous at the cape, particularly the following ſerpents, or reptiles of the ſerpent kind: 1. The tree ſerpent, which is ſo called, from reſembling the branch of a tree, and from being fond of winding itſelf about trees, ſhrubs, &c. 2. The aſh colour'd aſp, ſpeckled with red and white, which is ſeveral yards long. 3. The ſhoot ſerpent, ſo named from the amazing velocity with which it ſhoots, or darts itſelf at an enemy. Some call it the eye ſerpent, on account of the numerous white ſpots reſembling eyes, with which its ſkin is marked. 4. The blind ſlow worm is a black, ſcaly ſerpent, ſpotted with brown, white, and red. 5. The thirſt ſerpent, or inflamer, is a moſt venomous and dangerous ſerpent, about three quarters of a yard long: has a broad neck, black back, and is very active. The hair ſerpent is about three feet in length, as thick as a man's thumb, and received its name from its yellow hair; its poiſon is ſo malignant, that nothing but the ſerpent ſtone can prevent its proving mortal. The ſtone abovementioned is ſaid to be an artificial compoſition prepared by the Bramins in India, who keep the ſecret to themſelves. It is ſhaped like a bean, in the middle whitiſh, the reſt of a ſky-blue. Whenever this is applied, it ſticks cloſe without bandage or ſupport, and imbibes the poiſon till it can receive no more, and then drops off. Being laid in milk, it purges itſelf of the venom, turning the milk yellow, and ſo is applied again, till by its not ſticking, it proves the poiſon is exhauſted. Some affirm, that horned ſerpents are found at the cape, but the beſt authentics contradict this aſſertion. Houſe ſerpents, however, are very common; but they are intirely inoffenſive, and may perhaps be of the ſame kind as thoſe which the people in Whidah worſhip.

Among the inſects of this country, are the millepes, whoſe bite is mortal: a ſmaller ſpecies of the ſame, called a fugger, which does great miſchief in the vineyards; moths, waſps, a poiſonous black ſpider, butterflies, ſnails, flies, earth flies, bees, ants, &c.

Here are two ſorts of graſshoppers; the ſmaller has a brown back, ſilver belly, green wings, and aſh coloured legs; the larger has a red head, brown wings. aſh coloured back, ſilver belly, and red legs.

The houſes at the cape are greatly infeſted with bugs; to deſtroy which, the Europeans make uſe of oil colours and mercury, and with theſe they paint their wainſcots and bedſteads. Fleas are very numerous, and troubleſome even to a proverb; as they have a ſaying, which may be thus tranſlated, "Our plagues are theſe; wind, flies, and fleas." The former, however, when it comes, carries away or deſtroys thoſe vermin.

Though the Hottentots ſwarm with lice, none will live on the body of an European at the cape; and even if any of the ſhips crew from Europe are infected with thoſe vermin, they die ſoon after the perſon arrives on ſhore. The beetles are of ſeveral kinds; ſome having green backs and bellies, ſpeckled with white and red, grey legs, and gold wings. Whatever place one of theſe inſects alights on, is deemed ſacred by the Hottentots: the other beetles have no eſſential difference from thoſe of Europe. The ſcorpion, which to appearance reſembles a craw-fiſh in every thing but having a larger and narrower tail, is exceedingly dangerous, and very much dreaded both by Hottentots and Europeans.

The ſea flea and the ſea louſe are the moſt particular inſects about the cape. The former is much like a prawn, ſticks faſt to various fiſhes, and plagues them with its ſting. The latter, which is a ſhell-fiſh, is as troubleſome with its mouth. Sea worms of ſeveral kinds abound. The river inſects are only water ſnakes and leaches. Both toads and frogs are found in the ditches and ſtagnate waters. The Hottentots, however, take them to be the ſame animal, not knowing the difference.

The neighbouring ſea affords a plentiful ſupply of fiſh to the inhabitants of the cape. The meat of the ſea cows is much admired. The flying fiſh, which has wings like a bat, is reckoned a great delicacy, and the herrings are exceeding good. The blower is ſo called, becauſe it can blow itſelf up into the form of a ball: this fiſh is without ſcales, has a yellow back, white belly, and a ſmall mouth, armed with four teeth; but being of a poiſonous nature, is not fit to be eaten. The brown fiſh is as big as an ox, and is deemed good food either freſh or ſalted. The bennet is near three feet long, and weighs about ſeven pounds; the eyes and tail are red, the fins yellow, and the ſcales purple, with gold ſtreaks. The meat is of a crimſon colour, and ſo remains after it is dreſſed; nevertheleſs it is delicious eating. The elft is about two feet long, has yellow ſcales, a black back, white belly, with dark ſtreaks and red ſpots, and is very dry eating. The gold fiſh has a ſtreak from head to tail, and circles round his eyes of a gold colour: it is eighteen inches long, weighs about a pound, and its fleſh of an exquiſite taſte.

Porpoiſes, pikes, pilot fiſhes, ſharks, and dolphins, abound here. The braſſem is only found about the cape. Of this fiſh there are two ſorts: the one has a black back, and purple head; the other is of a dark blue colour, and the former is rounder than the latter. They are both cheap and wholſome food. The ſtone-braſſem is good either freſh or ſalted, reſembles a carp in make, but is more delicious in taſte. One ſpecies of this fiſh is called flat-noſe, from the ſhape of the head, and is much more valued than the other ſort. The red-ſtone fiſh, is exceeding beautiful to the eye, and exquiſite to the taſte: the back is ſcarlet ſpotted with blue, and beſpangled with gold; the eyes are of a bright red, and ſurrounded with a ſilver circle, and the belly is of a pale pink colour, has a ſhining ſilver tail, reſembles a carp both in ſhape and taſte, and weighs about a pound.

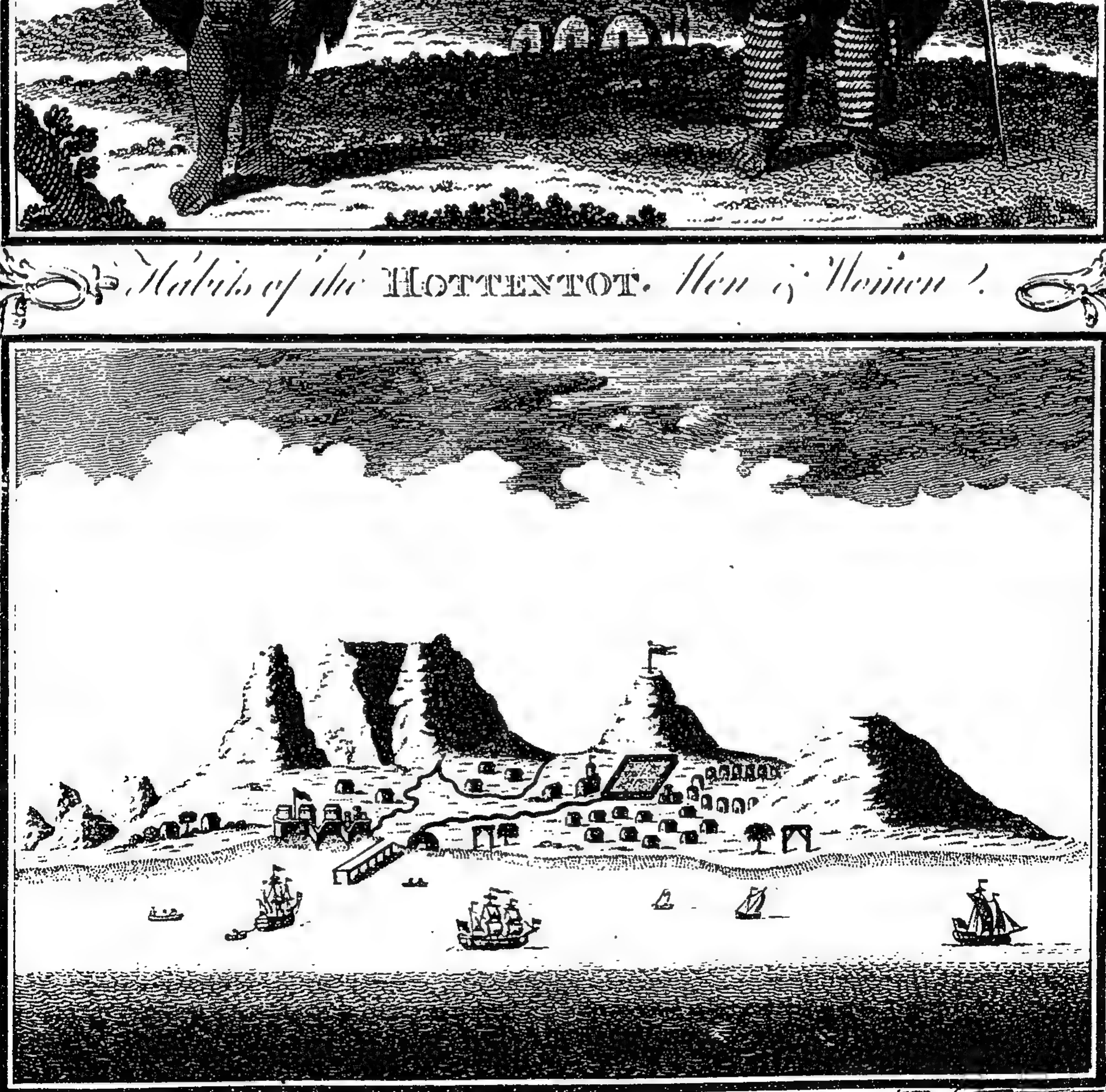
Barbels, tortoiſes, tunnies, ſoles, rock-fiſh, eels, lobſters, crabs, oyſters, ſea-ſnails, &c. are innumerable. Of the latter, there is one ſingular ſpecies called klin-kouſen, which has an upper and under-ſhell, thick, rough, twiſted, and incruſted. In vinegar, however, the cruſt drops off, and the ſhell exhibits an admirable pearl colour.

Sea-ſuns and ſea-ſtars are ſmall round ſhell-fiſh; and receive their denominations from the great variety of prickles, which ſhoot from them like rays of light. The fiſh called pagger has a prickly ſhell, and is much dreaded by the people at the cape, as a wound from one of its protube-

rances



Habits of the HOTTENTOT. *Men & Women.*



Perspective View of the Cape of Good Hope.

rances turns to a mortification, unleſs great care is taken to prevent it. The ſea-ſpaut reſembles a piece of moſs ſticking faſt to the rocks: it is of a green colour, emits water, and within is like a tough piece of fleſh. It exhibits no ſigns of animation, except on being touched, when it diſtils clear water from ſeveral ſmall holes.

It has been affirmed by ſome, that ſea lions are found here; and we are told by an accurate author, that a ſea lion was ſhot while baſking on the rocks in Table bay in 1737: it meaſured about ſeventeen feet in length, and as many in circumference; his head nearly reſembled that of a lion in ſhape, but had no hair, nor had he either hair or ſcales on his body. The tongue was all fat in a manner, and weighed above fifty pounds. The colour of his ſkin was yellowiſh. Before, he had two ſhort legs footed like a gooſe: in the place of hind legs, he had two broad fins, each about eighteen inches long: his body tapered to a tail, ending like a half moon. Several barrels of oil were extracted from him.

The torpedo, or cramp-ray, found at the cape, is a very ſingular production of nature. The body is circular, the ſkin ſoft, ſmooth, and yellow, marked with little annular ſpots; the eyes ſmall, and the tail tapering. It is of different ſizes, and weighs from five to fifteen pounds. The narcotic or benumbing quality of this fiſh was known to the antients, and hath furniſhed matter of ſpeculation to the philoſophers of all ages. If a perſon touches it when alive, it inſtantly deprives him of the uſe of his arm, and even has the ſame effect if he touches it with a ſtick. Kempfer, in ſpeaking of this creature, ſays, "The inſtant I touched it with my hand, I felt a terrible numbneſs in my arm, and as far up as my ſhoulder. Even if one treads upon it with a ſhoe on, it effects not only the leg, but the thigh upwards. They who touch it with the feet are ſeized with a ſtronger palpitation than even they who touch it with the hand: this numbneſs bears no reſemblance to that which we feel when a nerve is a long time preſſed, and the foot is ſaid to be aſleep: it rather appears to be like a ſudden vapour, which paſſing through the pores in an inſtant, penetrates to the very ſprings of life, from whence it diffuſes itſelf all over the body, and gives real pain. The nerves are ſo affected, that the perſon ſtruck imagines all the bones of his body, and particularly thoſe of the limb that received the blow, are driven out of joint. All this is accompanied with an univerſal tremor, a ſickneſs of the ſtomach, a general convulſion, and a total ſuſpenſion of the faculties of the mind. In ſhort, ſuch is the pain, that all the force of our promiſes and authority could not prevail upon a ſeaman to undergo the ſhock a ſecond time. A negro indeed, that was ſtanding by, readily undertook to touch the torpedo, and was ſeen to handle it without feeling any of its effects. He informed me, that his whole ſecret conſiſted in keeping his breath: the torpedo was harmleſs; but when we breathed ever ſo little, its power took place. However, experience has ſince proved, that this expedient will not always prevail, as the ſhock hath been ſometimes found very great, even when the breath was held; but climates in this may make a difference.

It has been obſerved, that the powers of this fiſh decline with its ſtrength, and intirely ceaſe when it expires. This benumbing faculty is of double uſe to the torpedo; firſt, it enables it to get its prey with greater facility, by rendering other fiſhes inſenſible with its touch, and conſequently incapable of getting from it; and ſecondly, it is an admirable defence againſt its enemies, as by numbing a fiſh of ſuperior force with its touch, it can eaſily eſcape. The narcotic power of the torpedo is greater in the female than the male. According to Appian, it will benumb the fiſherman through the whole extent of hook, line, and rod. The fleſh of this remarkable fiſh having, however, no pernicious quality, is eaten by the people at the cape, in common with others.

SECT. IV

Treating of the Perſons and Habits of the HOTTENTOTS, their Food, Camps, Government, Forces, method of Fiſhing, Swimming, Marriages, Burials, Religion, &c.

THERE are ſixteen Hottentot nations, which inhabit this ſouthern promontory; at leaſt, there are ſo many that hold a correſpondence with the Dutch, though it is preſumed there are many more to the northward.

The ſtature of the Hottentot men is from five to ſix feet in height. Their bodies are proportionable, and well made: they are ſeldom either too fat or lean, and ſcarce ever any crooked or deformed perſons amongſt them, any farther than they diſfigure their children themſelves, by flatting and breaking the griſtles of their noſes, looking on a flat noſe as a beauty. Their heads as well as their eyes, are rather of the largeſt: their lips are naturally thick; their hair black and ſhort like the negroes, and they have exceeding white teeth: and after they have taken a great deal of pains with greaſe and ſoot to darken their natural tawny complexions, reſemble the negroes pretty much in colour. The women are much leſs than the men; and, what is moſt remarkable in them, is a callous flap or ſkin that falls over the pudenda, and in a manner conceals it. The report of which uſually excites the curioſity of the European ſailors, to viſit the Hottentot villages near the cape, where a great many of thoſe ladies, on ſeeing a ſtranger, will offer to ſatisfy his curioſity, for a halfpenny, before a crowd of people, which perfectly ſpoils the character that Mr. Kolben has given of their modeſty.

The men cover their heads with handfuls of greaſe and ſoot mixed together; and going without any thing elſe on their heads in ſummer-time, the duſt ſticks to it, and makes them a very filthy cap, which they ſay cools them, and preſerves their heads from the ſcorching heat of the ſun; and in the winter, they wear flat caps of cat-ſkin or lamb-ſkin, half dried, which they tie with a thong of the ſame leather under their chins. The men alſo wear a kroſſe or mantle, made of ſheep-ſkins or other ſkins, over their ſhoulders, which reaches to the middle; and, being faſtened with a thong about their neck, is open before. In winter they turn the woolly or hairy ſides next their backs, and in ſummer the other: this ſerves the man for his bed at night; and this is all the winding ſheet or coffin he has when he dies. If he be a captain of a village, or chief of his nation, inſtead of a ſheep-ſkin, his mantle is made of tyger-ſkins, wild-cat-ſkins, or ſome other ſkins they ſet a value upon: but though theſe mantles reach no lower, generally, than their waiſts, yet there are ſome nations who wear them as low as their legs, and others that have them touch the ground.

The man alſo hangs about his neck a greaſy pouch, in which he keeps his knife, his pipe and tobacco, and ſome dahka (which intoxicates like tobacco) and a little piece of wood, burnt at both ends, as a charm againſt witchcraft. He wears alſo three large ivory rings on his left arm, to which he faſtens a bag of proviſions when he travels. He carries in his right hand two ſticks, the firſt called his kirri, which is about three feet long, and an inch thick, but blunt at both ends; the other, called his rackum-ſtick, about a foot long, and of the ſame thickneſs, but has a ſharp point, and is uſed as a dart, to throw at an enemy or wild beaſt; which he ſeldom miſſes, if he be within diſtance. In his left hand he has another ſtick, about a foot long, to which is faſtened a tail of a fox or wild cat; and this ſerves him as a handkerchief to wipe off the ſweat. They wear a kind of ſandals, alſo made of the raw hide of an ox or elephant, when they are obliged to travel through ſtony countries; and ſometimes have buſkins, to preſerve their legs from buſhes and briars: but ordinarily their legs and thighs have no covering.

The women wear caps, the crowns whereof are a little raiſed; and theſe are made of half dried ſkins, and tied under their chins. They ſcarce ever put them off night or day, winter or ſummer. They uſually wear two kroſſes or mantles, one upon another, and, as theſe are only faſtened with a thong about their necks, they appear naked down to the middle: but they have an apron larger than that of the men to cover them before, and another of ſtill larger dimenſions that covers their hind parts. About their legs they wrap thongs of half dried ſkins, to the thickneſs of a jack-boot, which are ſuch a load to them, that they lift up their legs with difficulty, and walk very much like a trooper in jack-boots: this ſerves both for a diſtinction of their ſex, and for ornament. But this is not all their finery: if they are people of any figure, inſtead of a ſheep ſkin, they wear a tyger-ſkin, or a mantle of wild-cat-ſkin. They have alſo a pouch hanging about their necks, in which they alſo carry ſomething to eat, whether they are at home or abroad, with their dahka, tobacco and pipe. But the principal ornaments both of men and women are braſs or glaſs beads, with little thin plates of glittering braſs and mother of pearl, which they wear in their hair, or about their ears. Of theſe glaſs or braſs beads ſtrung, they alſo make necklaces, bracelets for the arms, and girdles, wearing ſeveral ſtrings of them about their necks, waiſt, and arms, chuſing the ſmalleſt beads for their necks: thoſe are fineſt that have moſt ſtrings of them, and their arms

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are ſometimes covered with bracelets from the wriſt to the elbow. The largeſt beads are on the ſtrings about the middle: in theſe they affect a variety of colours, all of which the Dutch furniſh them with, and take their cattle in return.

There is another kind of ornament peculiar to the men; and that is, the bladder of any wild beaſt they have killed, which is blown up, and faſtened to the hair as a trophy of their valour.

Both men and women powder themſelves with a duſt they call bachu; and the women ſpot their faces with a red earth or ſtone (as ours do with black patches) which is thought to add to their beauty, by the natives; but, in the eyes of Europeans, renders them more frightful and ſhocking than they are naturally.

But, as part of their dreſs, we ought to have mentioned, in the firſt place, the cuſtom of daubing their bodies, and the inſide of their caps and mantles, with greaſe and ſoot. Soon after their children are born, they lay them in the ſun, or by the fire, and rub them over with fat or butter, mixed with ſoot, to render them of a deeper black, it is ſaid; for they are naturally tawny: and this they continue to do almoſt every day of their lives, after they are grown up, not only to increaſe their beauty, but to render their limbs ſupple and pliable. As ſome nations pour oil upon their heads and bodies, ſo theſe people make uſe of melted fat: you cannot make them a more acceptable preſent than the fat or ſcum of the pot that meat is boiled in, to anoint themſelves. Several of theſe Hottentots coming on board our ſhip, ſays the author, as ſoon as we arrived at the cape, addreſſed themſelves in the firſt place to the cook, for ſome of the fat he had ſkimmed off his boiling coppers; which being gratified in, they immediately clapped it on their heads by handfuls; which confirmed us in the opinion of their naſtineſs, of which we had heard ſo much.

Nor are the Hottentots more cleanly in their diet than in their dreſs; for they chooſe the guts and entrails of cattle and of ſome wild beaſts (with very little cleanſing), rather than the reſt of the fleſh, and eat their meat half boiled or broiled; but their principal food conſiſts of roots, herbs, fruits or milk: they ſeldom kill any of their cattle, unleſs at a feſtival; they only feed on ſuch as die of themſelves, either of diſeaſes or old age, or on what they take in hunting; and, when they are hard put to it, they will eat the raw leather that is wound about the womens legs, and even ſoles of ſhoes; and, as their mantles are always well ſtocked with lice of an unuſual ſize, they are not aſhamed to ſit down in the public ſtreets at the cape, pull off the lice, and eat them. And we ought to have remembered, that they boil their meat in the blood of beaſts when they have any of it.

They rather devour their meat than eat it, pulling it to pieces with their teeth and hands, diſcovering a canine appetite and fierceneſs: they abſtain, however, from ſwinesfleſh, and ſome other kinds of meat, and from fiſh that have no ſcales, as religiouſly as ever the Jews did. And here it may not be improper to ſay ſomething of the management of their milk and butter: they never ſtrain their milk, but drink it with all the hairs and naſtineſs with which it is mixed in the milking by the Hottentot women. When they make butter of it, they put it into ſome ſkin made in the form of a ſoldier's knapſack, the hairy ſide inwards; and then two of them taking hold of it, one at each end, they whirl and turn it round till it is converted into butter, which they pot up for anointing themſelves, their caps and mantles with, for they eat no butter; and the reſt they ſell to the Dutch, without clearing it from the hairs and dirt it contracts in the knapſack. The Hollanders, when they have it indeed, endeavour to ſeparate the naſtineſs from it, and ſell it to the ſhipping, that arrives there, frequently for butter of their own making; and ſome they eat themſelves (but ſurely none but a Dutchman could eat Hottentot butter) and the dregs and dirt that is left they give to their ſlaves; which having been found to create diſeaſes, the governor of the cape ſometimes prohibits their giving their ſlaves this ſtuff by public edict; which is not, however, much regarded. The butter-milk, without any manner of cleaning or ſtraining, the Hottentots drink themſelves; giving what they have to ſpare, to their lambs and calves.

The uſual drink of the Hottentots is cow's milk or water, and the women ſometimes drink ewe's milk; but this the men never touch: and it is obſerved, that the women are never ſuffered to eat with the men, or come near them, during the time of their menſes.

Since the arrival of the Dutch among them, it appears that the Hottentots are very fond of wine, brandy, and other ſpirituous liquors: theſe, and the baubles already mentioned, the Hollanders truck for their cattle; and though a Hottentot will turn ſpit for a Dutchman half a day for a draught or two of four wine, yet do they never attempt to plant vineyards (as they ſee the Dutch often do) or think of making wine themſelves.

We ſhall proceed, in the next place, to give an account of their towns and houſes, or rather, their camps and tents.

The Hottentots, like the Tartars and Arabs, remove their dwellings frequently for the conveniency of water and freſh paſture: they encamp in a circle formed by twenty or thirty tents, and ſometimes twice the number, contiguous to each other; within the area whereof they keep their leſſer cattle in the night, and the larger on the outſide of their camp: their tents, or, as ſome call them, houſes, are made with ſlender poles, bent like an arch, and covered with mats or ſkins, and ſometimes both: they are of an oval figure, the middle of the tent being about the height of a man, and decreaſing gradually (the poles being ſhorter) towards each end, the loweſt arch, which is the door or entrance, being about three feet high, as is the oppoſite arch at the other end; the longeſt diameter of the tent being about twelve or fourteen feet, and the ſhorteſt ten; and in the middle of the tent is a ſhallow hole about a yard diameter, in which they make their fire, and round which the whole family, conſiſting of nine or ten people of all ages and ſexes, ſit or lie night and day in ſuch a ſmoak (when it is cold, or they are dreſſing of victuals) that it is impoſſible for an European to bear it, there being uſually no vent for the ſmoak but the door, though ſome have ſeen a hole in the top of ſome of their huts, to let out the ſmoak, and give them light. Such a circle of tents or huts as has been deſcribed, is called by the Hottentots a kraal, and ſometimes by the Europeans a town or village; but ſeems to be more properly a camp: for a town conſiſts of more ſubſtantial buildings, and is ſeldom capable of being removed from one place to another; whereas theſe dwellings conſiſt of nothing more than ſmall tent-poles, covered with ſkins or mats, which are moveable, and carried away upon their baggage oxen whenever they remove with their herds to a diſtant paſture.

As to the furniture of their tents; they conſiſt of little more than their mantles which they lie on, ſome other ſkins of wild beaſts they have killed or purchaſed, an earthen pot they boil their meat in, their arms, and perhaps ſome other trivial utenſils. The only domeſtic animals they keep, are dogs, as ugly in their kind as their maſters, but exceedingly uſeful to them in driving and defending their cattle.

The Hottentots are agreed by all to be the lazieſt generation under the ſun: they will rather ſtarve, or eat dried ſkins, or ſhoe ſoles at home, than hunt for their food; and yet, when they apply themſelves to the chace, or any other exerciſe, no people are more active and dextrous than the Hottentots: and they ſerve the Europeans often with the greateſt fidelity and application, when they contract to ſerve them for wages: they are alſo exceeding generous and hoſpitable; they will ſcarce eat a piece of veniſon, or a diſh of fiſh they have catched, or drink their beloved drams alone, but call in their neighbours to partake with them as far as it will go.

The next thing we ſhall enquire into, is the government of the Hottentots; and we find all people agree, that every nation has its king or chief, called konquer, whoſe authority devolves upon him by hereditary ſucceſſion; and that they do not pretend to elect their reſpective ſovereigns. That this chief has the power of making peace or war, and preſides in all their councils and courts of juſtice: but then his authority is ſaid to be limited; and that he can determine nothing without the conſent of the captains of the ſeveral kraals, who ſeem to be the Hottentot ſenate. The captain of every kraal, whoſe office is hereditary alſo, is their leader in time of war, and chief magiſtrate of his kraal in time of peace; and, with the head of every family, determines all civil and criminal cauſes within the kraal; only ſuch differences as happen between one kraal and another, and matters of ſtate, are determined by the king and ſenate. The Dutch, ſince their arrival at the cape, have preſented the king, or chief of every nation of the Hottentots in alliance with them, with a braſs crown; and the captains of each kraal with a braſs-headed cane, which are now the badges of their reſpective offices, formerly they were diſtinguiſhed only by finer ſkins, and a greater variety of beads and glittering trifles.

In their councils their king ſits on his heels in the center, and the captains of the kraals ſit in like manner round

about him. At his acceſſion, it is ſaid, he promiſes to obſerve their national cuſtoms; and gives them an entertainment, killingan ox, and two or three ſheep, upon the occaſion; on wh ch he feaſts his captains, but their wives are only entertained with the broth: but then the next day, we are told, her Hottentot majeſty treats the ladies, and their huſbands are put off in like manner with the ſoup.

The captain of each kraal alſo, at his acceſſion, engages to obſerve the cuſtoms of his kraal, and makes an entertainment for the men, as his lady does the next day for the women; and, though theſe people ſhew their chiefs great reſpect, they allow neither their king or inferior magiſtreates any revenue; they ſubſiſt, as other families do, upon their ſtock of cattle, and what they take in hunting.

As they have no notion of writing or letters, they can have no written laws; but there are ſome antient cuſtoms, from which they ſcarce ever deviate. Murder, adultery and robbery, they conſtantly puniſh with death; and, if a perſon is ſuſpected of any of theſe crimes, the whole kraal join in ſeizing and ſecuring him: but the guilty perſon ſometimes makes his eſcape to the mountains, where robbers and criminals like himſelf, ſecure themſelves from juſtice, and frequently plunder the neighbouring country; for no other kraal or nation of Hottentots will entertain a ſtranger, unleſs he is known to them, and can give a good reaſon for leaving his own kraal.

If the offender is apprehended, the captain aſſembles the people of his kraal in a day or two; who, making a ring, and ſitting down upon their heels, the criminal is placed in the center of them: the witneſſes on both ſides are heard, and the party ſuffered to make his defence: after which, the caſe being conſidered, the captain collects the ſuffrages of the judges; and, if a majority condemn him, the priſoner is executed on the ſpot. The captain firſt ſtrikes him with a truncheon he carries in his hand, and then the reſt of the judges fall upon him and drub him to death: then wrapping up the corpſe in his kroſſe or mantle, it is carried to ſome place diſtant from the kraal, where they bury it.

In civil caſes alſo, the cauſe is determined by a majority of voices, and ſatisfaction immediately ordered to the injured perſon, out of the goods of the perſon that appears to be in the wrong. There is no appeal to any other court: the king and his council, conſiſting of the captains of the kraals, never interpoſe unleſs in matters that concern the public, or where the kraals are at variance.

It may be proper here to add, that the Hottentot's cattle and perſonal eſtate deſcend to his eldeſt ſon: he cannot diſinherit him, or give his effects to his other children; but as for property in lands, or any certain real eſtate, no man has any; the whole country is but one common, where they feed their cattle promiſcuouſly, moving from place to place, to find water or freſh paſture as neceſſity requires.

Even the ſeveral nations have no ſtated bounds; but uſe ſuch tracts of land as their anceſtors did before them: it is true, their reſpective limits ſometimes create great differences between the ſeveral nations, and occaſion bloody wars; which brings us now to treat of their arms, and the arts and ſtratagems they uſe in war.

The arms of a Hottentot are, 1. His lance, which reſembles a half-pike, ſometimes thrown, and uſed as a miſſive weapon; and at others, ſerves to puſh with in cloſe fight, the head or ſpear whereof is poiſoned. 2. His bow and arrows, the arrows bearded and poiſoned likewiſe, when they engage an enemy, or wild beaſt they do not intend for food. Their bows are made of iron, or olive-wood; the ſtring, of the ſinews or guts of ſome animal: the quiver is a long narrow caſe, made of the ſkin of an elephant, elk, or ox, and ſlung at their backs, as ſoldiers ſling their knapſacks. 3. A dart of a foot long, which they throw exceeding true, ſcarce ever miſſing the mark they aim at, though it is not above the breadth of half a crown; theſe alſo are poiſoned, when they engage an enemy, or a wild beaſt that is not to be eaten: and laſtly, when they have ſpent the reſt of their miſſive weapons, they have recourſe to ſtones, ſeldom making a diſcharge in vain; and, what is moſt remarkable in their ſhooting or throwing arrows, darts, or ſtones, they never ſtand ſtill, but are all the while ſkipping and jumping from one ſide to the other, poſſibly to avoid the ſtones and darts of the enemy.

They are all foot, and never engage on horſeback; but have diſciplined bulls or oxen taught to run upon the enemy, and to toſs and diſorder them; which theſe creatures will do with the utmoſt fury on the word of command, not regarding the weapons that are thrown at them: for though the Hottentots have numbers of large elephants in their country, they have not yet learned the art of taming them, or training them up to war, as the military men in the Eaſt Indies do.

Every able bodied man is a ſoldier, and poſſeſſed of a ſet of ſuch arms as have been deſcribed; and on the ſummons of his prince, appears at the rendezvous with all imaginable alacrity and contempt of danger, and every man maintains himſelf while the expedition laſts. As their officers, civil and military, have no pay; ſo neither do the private men expect any; a ſenſe of honour, and the public good, are the ſole motives for hazarding their lives in their country's ſervice.

In war, the Hottentots have very little conception of diſcipline, nor indeed is it poſſible they ſhould; for the only method of raiſing an army, is, for the kraal captains to order the people to follow them; the only method of maintaining one, is by hunting as they march: and the only way of deciding a diſpute between two nations, is, by fighting one battle; the ſucceſs of which determines the whole affair. In an engagement, they attack with an hideous yell, fight in great confuſion, and put more confidence in their war oxen than their own ſkill: for, as we have hinted before, theſe animals, when trained to the buſineſs, are better diſciplined, and much more formidable, than the Hottentots themſelves.

The principal inducement to their entering into a war at any time, is the preſervation of their territories. As they have no land marks or written treaties to adjuſt the exact bounds of every nation, they frequently diſagree about the limits of their reſpective countries; and, when any neighbouring nation grazes their cattle upon a ſpot of ground another claims, ſatisfaction is immediately demanded; and, if it be not given, they make repriſals, and have recourſe to arms. But this is not the only occaſion of wars amongſt the Hottentots: they are not always that chaſte and virtuous people Mr. Kolben has repreſented them; ſome tempting Helen (for Hottentots poſſibly may appear amiable in one another's eyes, with all the greaſe and carrion they are cloathed with) has ſmitten a neighbouring chief, perhaps, who prevails on his people to aſſiſt him in the rape of the deſired female; and this frequently ſets their tribes together by the ears. The ſtealing each others cattle is another cauſe of deadly ſtrife; for though each kraal puniſhes theft among themſelves with death, yet it is looked upon as an heroic act to rob thoſe of another nation; at leaſt the body of the people are ſo backward in giving up the offender, that they frequently come to blows upon it.

When they march into the field, every man follows his particular captain, the chief of his kraal: they obſerve little order; neither do they take the precaution of throwing up trenches to defend themſelves: and what is ſtill more ſurpriſing, have no ſhields to defend themſelves againſt miſſive weapons, though ſome ſay they will ward off a lance or dart, and even a ſtone, with a little truncheon about a foot long, which they carry in their hand.

The ſeveral companies advance to the charge, at the command of their chief; and, when thoſe in the front have ſhot one flight of arrows, they retreat and make room for thoſe in the rear; and, when they have diſcharged, the former advance again, and thus alternately they continue till they have ſpent all their miſſive weapons, and then they have recourſe to ſtones, unleſs they are firſt broken and diſperſed by a troop of bulls; for the wiſe chiefs and generals of each ſide, according to the European practice, remaining on an eminence in the rear, to obſerve the fortune of the day, when they obſerve their people are hard preſſed, give the word of command to their corpſe de reſerve of bulls, who break into the body of the enemy, and generally bring all into confuſion; and that ſide that preſerves their order beſt, on this furious attack of theſe bulls of Baſan, are ſure to be victorious. The ſkill of the general ſeems to lie chiefly in managing his bulls; who never charge each other, but ſpend their whole rage upon the men, who have, it ſeems, no dogs of Engliſh breed to play againſt them, or this ſtratagem would be of little ſervice: but we ſhould have obſerved, that as the battle always begins with horrid cries and noiſe, which perhaps ſupplies the place of drums and trumpets; ſo the victors inſult with no leſs noiſe over the conquered enemy, killing all that fall into their hands: but they ſeldom fight more than one battle, ſome neighbouring power uſually interpoſing to make up the quarrel; and of late the Dutch perform this good office, between ſuch nations as lie near their ſettlements. From their wars with each other, we naturally proceed to their wars with wild beaſts, with which their country abounds more than any other: theſe people, it

ſeems, eſteem it a much greater honour to have killed one of theſe foes to mankind, than an enemy of their own ſpecies.

There are inſtances, of a Hottentot's engaging ſingly with the fierceſt wild beaſts, and killing them; but uſually the whole kraal or village aſſemble, when a wild beaſt is diſcovered in their neighbourhood, and, dividing themſelves in ſmall parties, endeavour to ſurround him. Having found their enemy, they uſually ſet up a great cry, at which the frighted animal endeavours to break through and eſcape them: if it prove to be a rhinoceros, an elk, or elephant, they throw their lances at him, darts and arrows being too weak to pierce through their thick hides: if the beaſt be not killed at the firſt diſcharge, they repeat the attack, and load him with their ſpears; and, as he runs with all his rage at the perſons who wound him, thoſe in his rear follow him cloſe, and ply him with their ſpears, on whom he turns again, but is overpowered by his enemies, who conſtantly return to the charge, when his back is towards them, and ſcarce ever fail of bringing the creature down, before he has taken his revenge on any of them. How hazardous ſoever ſuch an engagement may appear to an European, theſe people make it their ſport; and have this advantage, that they are exceeding ſwift of foot, and ſcarce ever miſs the mark they aim at with their ſpears: if one of them is hard preſſed by the brute, he is ſure to be relieved by his companions, who never quit the field till the beaſt is killed, or makes his eſcape: though they ſometimes dexteroully avoid the adverſary, they immediately return to the charge, ſubduing the fierceſt either by ſtratagem or force.

In the attacking a lion, a leopard, or a tyger, their darts and arrows are of ſervice to them; and therefore they begin the engagement at a greater diſtance, than when they charge an elephant or rhinoceros; and the creature has a wood of darts and arrows upon his back, before he can approach his enemies, which make him fret and rage and fly at them with the greateſt fury; but thoſe he attacks, nimbly avoid his paws, while others purſue him, and finiſh the conqueſt with their ſpears. Sometimes a lion takes to his heels, with abundance of poiſoned darts and arrows in his fleſh; but, the poiſon beginning to operate, he ſoon falls, and becomes a prey to thoſe he would have preyed upon.

The elephant, the rhinoceros, and the elk, are frequently taken in traps and pitfalls, without any manner of hazard. The elephants are obſerved to go in great companies to water, following in a file one after another, and uſually take the ſame road till they are diſturbed: the Hottentots therefore dig pits in their paths, about eight feet deep, and four and five over; in which they fix ſharp ſtakes pointed with iron, and then cover the pit with ſmall ſticks and turf, ſo as it is not diſcernable: and as theſe animals uſually keep in one track, frequently one or other of them falls in with his fore feet into the pit, and the ſtake pierces his body; the more he ſtruggles, the deeper the weight of his monſtrous body fixes him on the ſtake. When the reſt of the herd obſerve the misfortune of their companion, and find he cannot diſengage himſelf, they immediately abandon him: whereupon the Hottentots, who lie concealed, in expectation of the ſucceſs of their ſtratagem, approach the wounded beaſt, ſtab him with their ſpears, and cut his largeſt veins, ſo that he ſoon expires; whereupon they cut him to pieces, and, carrying the fleſh home, feaſt upon it as long as it laſts. His teeth they make into rings for their arms, and, when they have any ivory to ſpare, diſpoſe of it to the Europeans. The rhinoceros and elk are frequently taken in pitfalls, as the elephants are.

The Hottentot, who kills any of theſe, or a lion, leopard, or tyger, ſingly, has the higheſt honour conferred upon him, and ſeveral privileges, which belong only to ſuch intrepid heroes. At his return from this hazardous and important ſervice, the men of the kraal depute one of the ſeniors to congratulate him on his victory, and deſire that he will honour them with his preſence; whereupon he follows the old deputy to the aſſembly, whom he finds, according to cuſtom, ſitting upon their heels in a circle; and, a mat of diſtinction being laid for him in the center, he ſets himſelf down upon it: after which the old deputy urines plentifully upon him, which the hero rubs in with great eagerneſs, having firſt ſcratched the greaſe off his ſkin with his nails; the deputy all this while pronouncing ſome words unintelligible to any but themſelves. After this, they light a pipe of tobacco, which they ſmoke and hand one to another till there remain nothing but aſhes in the pipe, and theſe the old deputy ſtrews over the gallant man, who rubs them in as they fall upon him, not ſuffering the leaſt duſt to be loſt. After which the neighbours having ſeveral congratulated him on his advancement to the high honour, they diſperſe, and go to their reſpective tents. The conqueror, afterwards, faſtens the bladder of the furious beaſt he has killed to his hair, which he ever after wears as a badge of his knighthood; and is from that time eſteemed by every one a brave man, and a benefactor to his country.

Being retired to his tent, his neighbours ſeem to vie which of them ſhall oblige him moſt, and are, for the next three days, continually ſending him one delicious morſel or other; nor do they call upon him to perform duty during that time, but ſuffer him to indulge his eaſe: but, what is ſtill more unaccountable, his wife, or wives, (for he may have more than one) are not allowed to come near him for three days after this honour is conferred on him; but they are forced to ramble about the fields, and to keep to a ſpare diet, leſt they ſhould, as Mr. Kolben ſurmiſes, tempt the huſbands to their embraces: but on the third day in the evening, we are told the women return to the tent, are received with the utmoſt joy and tenderneſs; mutual congratulations paſs between them; a fat ſheep is killed, and their neighbours invited to the feaſt, where the proweſs of the hero, and the honour he has obtained, are the chief ſubjects of their converſation.

There is ſcarce any wild beaſt, but the fleſh is good eating, if it be not killed with poiſonous weapons: but the tyger is the moſt delicious morſel; and as the whole kraal partake of the feaſt, the perſon who kills him meets with a double ſhare of praiſe, as he both rids the country of an enemy, and pleaſes their palates. Mr. Kolben relates, that he has himſelf eaten of the fleſh of a tyger, and that it exceeds any veal in the world. But to return to the field ſports of the Hottentots: when they hunt a deer, a wild goat, or a hare, they go ſingly, or but two or three in company, armed only with a dart or two, and ſeldom miſs the game they throw at: yet, as has been obſerved already, ſo long as they have any manner of food left, if it be but the raw hides of cattle, or thoe ſoles, they will hardly be perſuaded to ſtir to get more; though it is true, when they apprehend their cattle in danger from wild beaſts, no people are more active, or purſue the chaſe of them with greater alacrity and bravery.

From hunting, we proceed to treat of their fiſhing; at which, according to Kolben, they are very expert; taking fiſh with angles, nets, and ſpears; and they get a certain fiſh, called rock-fiſh, particularly by groping the holes of the rocks near the ſhore, when the tide is out: theſe are mightily admired by the Europeans; but having no ſcales, the Hottentots will not eat them.

When they throw their lines into the ſea, Kolben pretends they allure the fiſh towards the bait, by whiſtling and other noiſes; which we ſhall not encourage our readers to have much faith in, our fiſhermen imagining that a noiſe frights away the fiſh: however, both ſeem to be of opinion, that fiſh can hear in the water; and if this may be depended on, we cannot ſee why fiſh, as well as ſerpents, may not be charmed with muſic, or ſomething like it. Certain it is, the ſnakes in the Eaſt Indies will riſe up and dance to the voice of a girl, and the muſic of a very ill inſtrument. But ſtill, we muſt confeſs, we are in doubt, whether fiſh can hear in the water; and if they can, whether they may be charmed with ſounds of any kind.

But the manner of the Hottentots ſwimming, is as particular as of his fiſhing; for he ſtands upright in the ſea, and rather walks and treads the water, than ſwims upon it, his head, neck, and ſhoulders being quite above the waves, as well as his arms, and yet they move faſter in the water than any European can; even in a ſtorm, when the waves run high, they will venture into the ſea, riſing and falling with the waves like a cork. However, it is obſerved by our author, that before they venture either into the ſea, or a river, they mutter ſomething to themſelves, which he ſuppoſes to be a ſhort prayer; adding, that when they have put up their fiſh in ſkins, they will ſwim, or rather walk with a great load of them upon their heads, through the waves to the ſhore.

The next thing we ſhall conſider is the marriages of the Hottentots: and it ſeems, every young fellow has ſuch regard to the advice of his father, (or rather the laws and cuſtoms of the country require it) that he always conſults the old man before he enters into a treaty with his miſtreſs, and if he approves the match, the father and ſon, in the firſt place, pay a viſit to the father of the damſel, with whom having ſmoaked, and talked of indifferent things for ſome time, the father of the lover opens the matter to the virgin's father, who having conſulted his wife, returns

an anſwer immediately to the propoſal: if it be rejected, the lover and his father retire without more words; but if the offer be approved by the old folks, the damſel is called, and acquainted, that they have provided a huſband for her; and ſhe muſt ſubmit to their determination, unleſs ſhe can hold her lover at arms end, after a night's ſtruggling: for we are told, that when the parents are agreed, the two young people are put together, and if the virgin loſes her maidenhead, ſhe muſt have the young fellow, though ſhe be never ſo averſe to the match: but then ſhe is permitted to pinch and ſcratch, and defend herſelf as well as ſhe can; and if ſhe holds out till morning, the lover returns without his miſtreſs, and makes no further attempts; but if he ſubdues her, ſhe is his wife to all intents and purpoſes, without further ceremony; and the next day the man kills a fat ox, or more, according to his circumſtances, for the wedding dinner, and the entertainment for their friends, who reſort to them upon the occaſion, bringing abundance of good wiſhes for the happineſs of the married couple, as is uſual among politer people. The ox is no ſooner killed, but the company get each ſome of the fat, and greaſe themſelves with it from head to foot, powdering themſelves afterwards with buchu, and the women, to add to their charms, make red ſpots with oker, or red chalk, on their black faces.

The entertainment being ready, the men form a circle in the area of the kraal (for a large company cannot ſit within doors) and the women form another; the bridegroom ſitting in the middle of the men's circle, and the bride in the center of her own ſex. Then the prieſt enters the men's circle, and urines upon the bridegroom, which the young man rubs in very joyfully. He then goes to the ladies circle, where he does the bride the ſame favour. Then the old man goes from the bride to the bridegroom, till he has exhauſted all his ſtore. The prieſt then pronounces his benediction in theſe words: "That they may live long and happily together; that they may have a ſon before the end of the year; and that he may prove a brave man, and an expert huntſman, and the like." After which, the meat is ſerved up in earthen pots glazed with greaſe; and ſome of them having knives ſince the Europeans came amongſt them, they divide their meat pretty decently; but more of them make uſe of their teeth and claws, pulling it to pieces, and eating it as voraciouſly as ſo many dogs, having no other plates or napkins than the ſlinking corners of the napkins they wear; and ſea ſhells without handles uſually ſerve them for ſpoons. When they have dined, a pipe is filled with tobacco, which they ſmoke all round, every one taking two or three whiffs, and then handing it to the next. It is ſingular, that though the Hottentots are immoderately fond of ſpirituous liquors, muſic and dancing, yet they do not drink the firſt, nor practiſe the latter at weddings.

The Hottentots allow of polygamy; but ſeldom have more than three wives at a time; and it ſeems it is death to marry or lie with a firſt or ſecond couſin, or any near relation. A father ſeldom gives his ſon more than two or three cows, and as many ſheep, upon his marriage, and with theſe he muſt make his way in the world; and we do not find they give more with their daughters than a cow, or a couple of ſheep; but the latter are to be returned to the father, if the bride dies without having had any children: on the contrary, if ſhe ever bore any children to her huſband, the portion becomes his; even though the children are defunct.

They do not leave their daughters, or younger ſons, any thing when they die; but all the children depend upon the eldeſt brother, and are his ſervants, or rather ſlaves, when the father is dead, unleſs the elder brother infranchiſe them; nor has the mother any thing to inſiſt on, but what the eldeſt ſon allows her.

As there are no great fortunes among them, they match purely for love; an agreeable companion is all their greateſt men aim at: their chiefs intermarry frequently with the pooreſt man's daughter; and a brave fellow, who has no fortune, does not deſpair of matching with the daughter of a prince. Merit, according to Kolben, is much more regarded there than among politer nations.

A widow, who marries a ſecond time, is obliged to cut off a joint of one of her fingers; and ſo for every huſband ſhe marries after the firſt. Either man or woman may be divorced, on ſhewing ſufficient cauſe before the captain and the reſt of the kraal; the woman, however, muſt not marry again, though the man is allowed to marry, and have as many wives as he pleaſes at the ſame time.

A young Hottentot never is maſter of a hut or tent till he marries, unleſs his father dies and leaves him one: therefore the firſt buſineſs the bride and bridegroom apply themſelves to, after their marriage feaſt, is to erect a tent or hut of all new materials, in which work the woman has as great a ſhare as the man; and this taking them up about a week's time, the new married couple are entertained in the mean time in the tents of ſome of their relations.

When they reſort to their new apartment, and come to keep houſe together, the wife ſeems to have much the greateſt ſhare of the trouble of it: ſhe fodders the cattle, milks them, cuts out the firing, ſearches every morning for roots for their food, brings them home, and boils or broils them, while the drone of a huſband lies indolently at home, and will ſcarce give himſelf the trouble of getting up to eat when the food is provided for him by the drudge his wife. The more wives he has, ſtill the more indolent life he leads, the care of making proviſion for the family being thrown upon them.

He will, it is ſaid, in his turn, attend his cattle in the field; but expects every one of his wives ſhould do, at leaſt, as much towards taking care of them as he does. He will alſo, ſometimes, but very rarely, go a hunting with the men of his kraal, and bring home a piece of veniſon, or a diſh of fiſh: but this is not often; and if he is of any handicraft trade, he may work at it two or three hours in a week, and inſtruct his children in the art. He alſo takes upon him to ſell his cattle, and purchaſe tobacco, and ſtrong liquors of the Dutch, with neceſſary tools, beads and other ornaments, for which the Hottentots barter away their cattle: their wives are not permitted to intermeddle in the buſineſs of buying and ſelling, this being the ſole prerogative of the man.

If a woman brings a living ſon into the world, there is great rejoicing: but the firſt thing they do with the child, is to daub it all over with cow-dung; then they lay it before the fire, or in the ſun, till the dung is dried; after which they rub it off, and waſh the child with the juice of certain herbs, laying it in the ſun, or before the fire again, till the liquor is dried in, after which they anoint the child from head to foot with butter, or ſheeps fat melted, which is dried in as the juice was: and this cuſtom of anointing their bodies with fat, they retain afterwards as long as they live. After the child has been thus ſmeared and greaſed, the mother gives it what name ſhe thinks proper, which is uſually the name of ſome wild beaſt, or domeſtic animal. When the woman is well again, and able to leave her hut, ſhe rubs herſelf all over with cow-dung; and this filthy daubing is by theſe delicate people termed a purification. Being thus delightfully perfumed, and elegantly decorated with ſheep's guts, ſhe is permitted to go abroad, or to ſee company at home.

If the woman has twins, and they are girls, the man propoſes it to the kraal, that he may expoſe one of them, either upon pretence of poverty, or that his wife has not milk for them both; and this they uſually indulge one another in; they do the ſame when they have a boy and girl: but always preſerve the boys, though they happen to have two at a birth. The expoſed child is carried to a diſtance from the kraal: and if they can find a cave or hole in the earth, that ſome wild beaſt has made, they put the child alive into it; and then having ſtopped up the mouth of the den with ſtones or earth, leave it there to ſtarve: if they cannot meet ſuch a cavity, they tie the infant to the lower bough of a tree, or leave it in ſome thicket of buſhes, where it is frequently deſtroyed by wild beaſts. They do not deal thus, however, as has been obſerved, by their male children: on the birth of a boy, they kill a bullock: and if they have twins, two bullocks; and make an entertainment for all the neighbourhood, who congratulate the parents on their good fortune: and, as with us, the greateſt rejoicings are on the birth of the firſt ſon.

At about ten years of age, the males are always deprived of their left teſticle; the operation is performed with a dexterity that would ſurprize an European ſurgeon, and bad conſequences are ſeldom or never known to enſue. A ſheep is killed, and great rejoicings are made upon the occaſion; but it is to be obſerved, that the men devour all the meat, and allow the women nothing but the broth. The reaſon of this abſurd cuſtom of mutilating their male youth is unknown: ſome of the Hottentots ſay, it is to make them run ſwift; but the greateſt part of theſe people give their general reaſon, which they uſe upon all occaſions, when they are unable to account for any of their abſurd practices; namely, That it is the Hottentot cuſtom; and has been practiſed by their anceſtors time immemorial.

At the age of eighteen, the male Hottentots, being deemed

deemed men, are thus admitted into male ſociety: the men of the village (if it may be ſo called) ſquat down, and form a circle, as is uſual upon moſt public occaſions, the youth ſquats down without the circle, at ſome diſtance. The oldeſt man of the kraal then riſes from the circle, and, having obtained the general conſent for the admiſſion of a new member, he goes to the youth, acquaints him with the determination of the men of the kraal, and concludes his harangue with ſome verſes, which admoniſh him to behave like a man for the future. The youth being then daubed with ſoot and fat, and well ſprinkled with urine, is congratulated by the company in general in a kind of chorus, which contains the following wiſhes: that good fortune may attend him, that he may live long, and thrive daily; that he may ſoon have a beard, and many children; till it is univerſally allowed he is a uſeful man to the nation. A feaſt concludes the ceremony; but the youth himſelf is not permitted to participate of any part thereof till all the reſt are ſerved.

Being thus admitted into male ſociety, it is expected that he ſhould behave ill to women in general, and to his mother in particular, in order to evince his contempt of every thing feminine. Indeed it is uſual for a youth as ſoon as admitted, to go to his mother's hut, and cudgel her heartily, for which he is highly applauded by the whole kraal; and even the ſuffering parent herſelf admires him for his ſpirit, and proteſts that the blows do not give her ſo much pain, as the thoughts of having brought ſuch a mettleſome ſon into the world afford her pleaſure. The more ill treatment he gives his mother, the more eſteem he obtains; and every time he ſtrikes her ſhe is in the higheſt raptures, and thanks Providence for having bleſſed her with ſuch a ſpirited child. So egregiouſly will cuſtom counteract the very dictates of nature, and impoſe upon the underſtanding of the ignorant.

A Hottentot never obtains an eſtabliſhment, or, in other words, never is permitted to have a hut or cattle, previous to his marriage, but lives immediately under the direction of his father after eighteen, as he did with his mother before that age. As ſoon as he is married, his wife, as we hinted above, becomes his ſlave, does all the drudgery, and has all the care of domeſtic affairs upon her hands. The huſband ſinks into ſupineneſs, and gives himſelf totally up to idleneſs; if he ever ſtirs, it is now-and-then to go a fiſhing or hunting for a little amuſement, or, if he knows a mechanical buſineſs, he may perhaps teach it to his eldeſt ſon. Upon no other occaſion will he quit his beloved indolence, or ſhew the leaſt alacrity, unleſs indeed he happens to receive an invitation to get drunk. Then joy ſparkles in his eyes and elates his heart, and he thinks he never can make too much haſte to render himſelf a greater brute than he naturally is.

It may now be proper to ſay ſomething of thoſe officers amongſt them, which the Europeans generally denominate their prieſts. Theſe perſons are generally called ſurri or maſter, and are elected by every kraal: they are the men who perform the ceremony of making water at their weddings, and other feſtivals; the ſurri alſo is the perſon who extracts the left teſticle from the young males at eight years of age; for all which he has no ſtated revenue, but a preſent now and then of a calf or a lamb, and makes one at their entertainments.

But every kraal alſo has its phyſician, as well as its prieſt, who are perſons that have ſome ſkill in phyſic and ſurgery, and particularly in the virtues of ſalutary herbs: theſe alſo are choſen by a majority of voices, and make it their buſineſs to look after the people's health; but have no other reward for their pains, than voluntary preſents. And ſuch is the opinion of the Hottentots of theſe phyſicians, that, if they cannot effect a cure, they conclude they are certainly bewitched, as the doctor himſelf alſo never fails to give out: whereupon application is made to ſome pretended conjurer for relief; and if the patient happens to recover, it gives the cunning man, as we call him, a mighty reputation.

The Hottentot phyſician and ſurgeon, as has been hinted, is the ſame perſon; and though theſe gentlemen ſcarce ever ſaw a body diſſected, it is ſaid, they have pretty good notions of anatomy: they cup, bleed, make amputations, and reſtore diſlocated limbs, with great dexterity; cholicks and pains in the ſtomach they relieve by cupping. Their cup is an horn of an ox, the edges cut very ſmooth: the doctor, having ſucked the part where the pain lies, claps on the cup; and, after it has remained ſome time, till he thinks the part is inſenſible, he pulls off the horn-cup, and makes two or three inciſions, half an inch in length, with a common knife, having no other inſtrument: after which, he applies the cup again, which falls off when it is full of blood, but the patient it is ſaid, ſuffers great pain in the operation. If the pain removes to another part, they rub it with hot fat; and, if that does not eaſe the pain, they uſe the cup again on the part laſt affected; and, if the ſecond cupping does not relieve the patient, they give him inward medicines, being infuſions or powders of certain dried roots and herbs.

They let blood in plethories and indiſpoſitions of that kind, having no other inſtrument than a common knife; and, if bleeding will not effect the cure, they give the patient phyſic. For head-achs, which they are pretty much ſubject to in calm weather, they ſhave their heads in furrows, as they do when they are in mourning; but a briſk gale of wind uſually carries off the head-ach, without any other application; and this they do not often want at the cape.

They ſeldom make any other amputations, than of the fingers of ſuch women as marry a ſecond time, or oftener; and, in this caſe, they bind the joint below that which is to be cut off very tight, with a dried ſineiw, and then cut off the joint at once with a knife, ſtopping the blood with the juice of myrrh-leaves; after which, they wrap up the finger in ſome healing herbs, and never any part of the finger receives any hurt beyond the amputation.

They have little or no ſkill in ſetting fractured limbs; but are pretty dexterous at reſtoring of diſlocations.

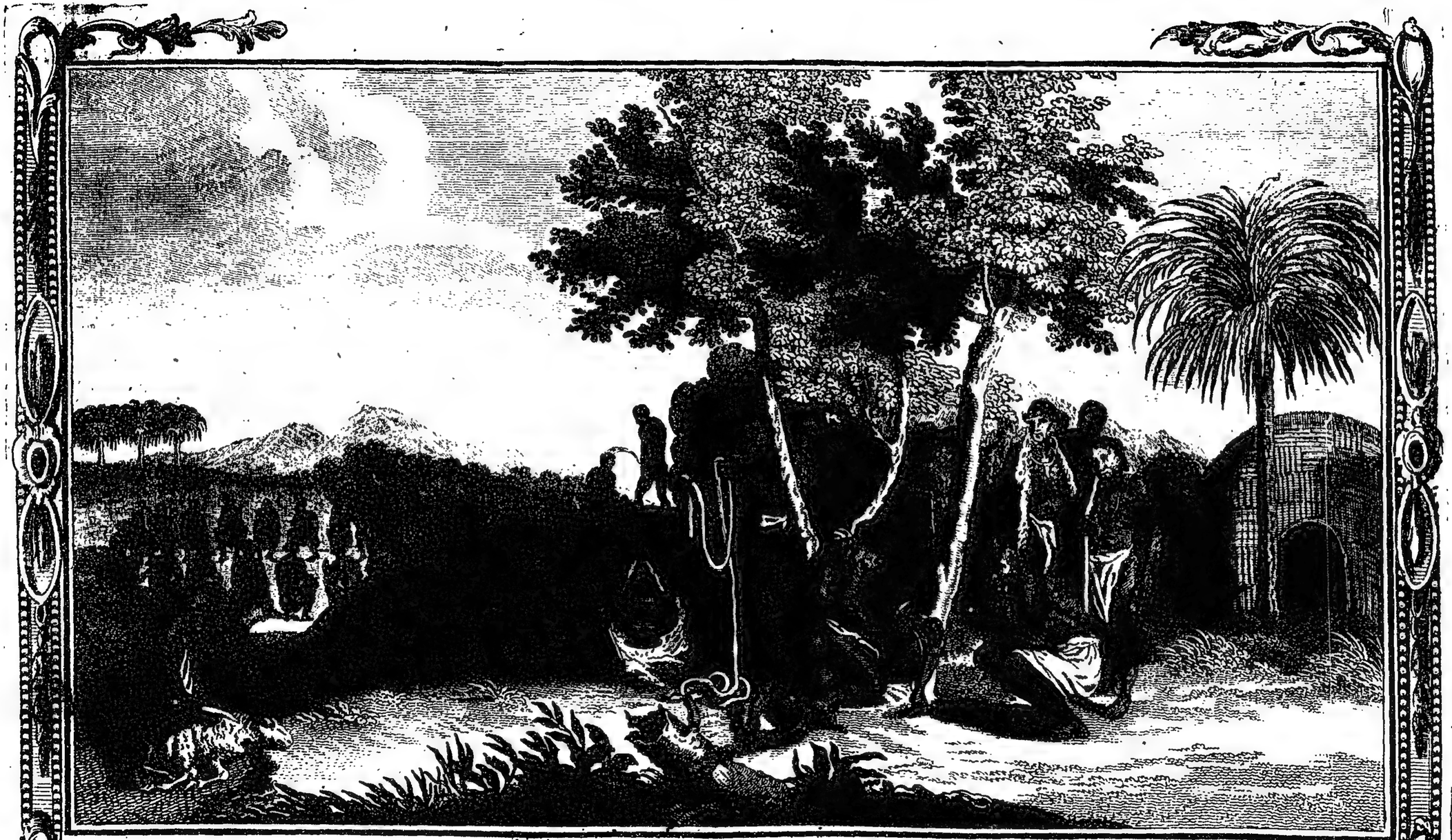
The Hottentot phyſician, in caſe he meets with a foul ſtomach, gives the juice of aloe leaves; and, if one doſe will not do, repeats it two or three days; and, for any inward ail, they give chiefly the powders or infuſions of wild ſage, wild figs and fig leaves, buchu, garlic or fennel: but whatever the diſeaſe be, it ſeems the patient never fails to ſacrifice a bullock, or a ſheep, upon his recovery.

Theſe people are exceedingly ſuperſtitious, and fond of divination. In order to know the fate of a ſick perſon, they flay a ſheep alive; after having its ſkin intirely taken off, if the poor animal is able to get up and run away, it is deemed a propituous omen; but, on the contrary, if the excruciating pain kills it, they imagine that the patient will certainly die, and accordingly give him up intirely to nature, without taking any farther care of him.

Whatever they believe of departed ſouls, they have no notion either of heaven or hell, or of a ſtate of rewards or puniſhments; this is evident from the behaviour of a dying Hottentot, and thoſe about him: neither he nor his friends offer up any prayers to their gods for the ſalvation of his ſoul; or even mention the ſtate of departed ſouls, or their apprehenſions of his being happy or miſerable after death: however, they ſet up ſuch terrible howlings and ſhriekings, when the ſick man is in his laſt agonies, that they may be heard, ſays our author, at a mile's diſtance; and yet theſe very people are frequently guilty of murdering their antient parents, as well as their innocent children.

When the father of a family is become perfectly uſeleſs and ſuperannuated, he is obliged to aſſign over his ſtock of cattle, and every thing elſe he has in the world, to his eldeſt ſon; and in default of ſons, to his next heir male: after which, the heir erects a tent or hut in ſome unfrequented place, a good diſtance from the kraal or camp he belongs to; and, having aſſembled the men of the kraal, acquaints them with the condition of his ſuperannuated relation, and deſires their conſent to expoſe him in the diſtant hut; to which the kraal ſcarce ever refuſe their conſent. Whereupon a day being appointed to carry the old man to the ſolitary tent, the heir kills an ox, and two or three ſheep, and invites the whole village to feaſt and be merry with him; and at the end of the entertainment, all the neighbourhood come and take a formal leave of the old wretch, thus condemned to be ſtarved or devoured by wild beaſts (which ſeems to be the moſt cruel and ill-natured part of the whole tragedy): then the unfortunate creature is laid upon one of their carriage oxen, and carried to his laſt home, attended to the place, where he is to be buried alive, by moſt of his neighbours. The old man being taken down, and ſet in the middle of the hut provided for him, the company return to their kraal, and he never ſees the face of a human creature afterwards: they never ſo much as enquire whether he was ſtarved to death, or devoured by wild beaſts: he is no more thought of, than if he had never been. In the ſame manner they deal with a ſuperannuated mother; only as ſhe has nothing ſhe can call her own, ſhe has not the trouble of aſſigning her effects to her ſon.

When the Hottentots are upbraided with this unparallelled piece of barbarity, they reply, it would be a much greater



Roberts sculp.

CAFERS or HOTTENTOTS *assembled for the admission of their* YOUTH *to the state of* MANHOOD
At the Cape *of* Good Hope.

greater cruelty to ſuffer an old creature to languiſh out a miſerable life, and to be many years a dying, than to make this quick diſpatch with them; and that it is out of their extreme tenderneſs they put an end to the lives of theſe old wretches; all the arguments in the world againſt the inhumanity of the cuſtom, can make no impreſſion on them: and, indeed, as long as the Dutch have reſided at the Cape, they have not been able to break them of one ſingle cuſtom, or prevail with them to alter any part of their conduct, how barbarous or abſurd ſoever: and, it ſeems, the captain of a kraal is not exempted from ſeeing his funeral ſolemnized in this manner, while he is alive, if he happens to become uſeleſs. And this leads me to treat of ſuch funerals as are ſolemnized after the perſon is really dead.

The ſick man, having reſigned his breath, is immediately bundled up, neck and heels together, in his ſheep-ſkin mantle, exceeding cloſe, ſo that no part of the corpſe appears: then the captain of the kraal with ſome of the ſeniors, ſearch the neighbouring country for ſome cavity in a rock, or the den of a wild beaſt, to bury it in, never digging a grave, if they can find one of theſe within a moderate diſtance. After which, the whole kraal, men and women, prepare to attend the corpſe, ſeldom permitting it to remain above ground more than ſix hours. When all things are ready, all the neighbourhood aſſemble before the door of the deceaſed, the men ſitting down on their heels in one circle, and reſting their elbows on their knees (their uſual poſture) as the women do in another: here they clap their hands, and howl, crying, Bo, bo, bo! (i. e. father) lamenting their loſs. The corpſe then being brought out on that ſide the tent, where the perſon died, and not at the door, the bearers carry him in their arms to the grave, the men and women following in different parties, but without any manner of order, crying all the way, Bo, bo, bo! and wringing their hands, and performing a thouſand ridiculous geſtures and grimaces, which is frequently the ſubject of the Dutchmen's mirth; it being impoſſible, it is ſaid, to forbear laughing at the antick tricks they ſhew on ſuch an occaſion.

Having put the corpſe into the cavity prepared for it, they ſtop up the mouth of it with ant-hills, ſtones, and pieces of wood, believing the ants will feed on the corpſe, and ſoon conſume it. The grave being ſtopped up, the men and women rendezvous again before the tent of the deceaſed, where they repeat their howlings, and frequently call upon the name of their departed friend: after which two of the oldeſt men get up; and one of them going into the circle of the men, and the other into the circle of the women, urine upon every one of the company; and, where the kraals are ſo very large, that two cannot find water enough for this ceremony, they double or treble the number. Then the old men go into the tent of the deceaſed; and, having taken up ſome aſhes from the fire-place, they ſprinkle them upon the bodies of the people, bleſſing them as they go: and if the deceaſed was a perſon of diſtinction, this is acted over again ſeveral days. But we ſhould have remembered, that the ceremony always concludes with an entertainment. If the deceaſed had any cattle, a ſheep is killed on the occaſion; and the caul, being powdered with buchu, is tied about the heir's neck, who is forced to wear it till it rots off, which is no great penance, all ſtinks being perfumes to a Hottentot. All the relations alſo wear the cauls of ſheep about their necks; which it ſeems is their mourning, unleſs the children of the deceaſed are ſo poor that they cannot kill a ſheep; and then they ſhave their heads in furrows of about an inch broad, leaving the hair on of the ſame breadth between every furrow.

It is not an eaſy matter to come at a Hottentot's religious notions; he is ſparing of his words, and laconic in his anſwers upon all occaſions; but when religious topics are introduced, he generally conceals his ſentiments in ſilence. Some on this account have doubted whether the Hottentots have any religion at all: but the moſt intelligent among the Dutch at the Cape, poſſitively affirm, that they believe in a Supreme Being, whom they ſtile Gounya Tequoa, or God of gods, and fancy that his reſidence is beyond the moon. They allow that Gounya Taquoa is a humane benevolent being, yet they have no mode of worſhipping him; for which they give this reaſon, "That he curſed their firſt parents for having greatly offended him, on which account their poſterity have never from that time paid him adoration."

They believe that the moon is an inferior viſible god, and the repreſentative of the high and inviſible: that ſhe has the direction of the weather; and therefore they pray to her when it is unſeaſonable. They never fail to aſſemble and worſhip this planet at the new and full moon, let the weather be never ſo bad; and though they diſtort their bodies, grin, and put on very frightful looks, crying and howling in a terrible manner, yet they have ſome expreſſions that ſhew their veneration and dependence on this inferior deity; as, 'Mutſchi Atze, I ſalute you; you are welcome: Cheraqua kaka chori Ounqua, grant us paſture for our cattle and plenty of milk.' Theſe and other prayers to the moon they repeat, frequently dancing and clapping their hands all the while; and at the end of every dance, crying, Ho, ho, ho, ho! raiſing and falling their voices, and uſing abundance of odd geſtures, that appear ridiculous to European ſpectators; and which no doubt made them at firſt, before they knew any thing of their language, conclude, that this could not be the effect of devotion, eſpecially when the people themſelves told them, it was not an act of religion, but only intended for their diverſion. But to return:

They continue thus ſhouting, ſinging, and dancing, with proſtrations on the earth, the whole night, and even part of the next day, with ſome ſhort intervals, never reſting, unleſs they are quite ſpent with the violence of the action; and then they ſquat down upon their heels, holding their heads between their hands, and reſting their elbows on their knees; and, after a little time, they ſtart up again, and fall to ſinging and dancing in a circle as before, with all their might.

The Hottentots alſo adore a fly about the bigneſs of a hornet, called by ſome the gold beetle: whenever they ſee this inſect approach their kraal, they all aſſemble about it, and ſing and dance round it while it remains there, ſtrewing over it the powder of buchu, by botaniſts called ſpiræam; which when it is dried and pulverized, they always powder themſelves with at their feſtivals. They ſtrew the ſame powder alſo over the tops of their tents, and over the whole area of the kraal, as a teſtimony of their veneration for the adored fly. They ſacrifice alſo two ſheep as a thankſgiving for the favour ſhewn their kraal, believing they ſhall certainly proſper after ſuch a viſit: and, if this inſect happens to light upon a tent, they look upon the owner of it for the future as a ſaint, and pay him more than uſual reſpect. The beſt ox of the kraal alſo is immediately ſacrificed, to teſtify their gratitude to the little winged deity, and to honour the ſaint he has been pleaſed thus to diſtinguiſh: to whom the entrails of the beaſt, the choiceſt morſel in their opinion, with the fat and the caul is preſented; and the caul being twiſted like a rope, the ſaint ever after wears it like a collar about his neck day and night, till it putrifies and rots off; and the ſaint only feaſts upon the entrails of the beaſt, while the reſt of the kraal feed upon the joints, that are not in ſo high eſteem among them: with the fat of the ſacrifice alſo the ſaint anoints his body from time to time, till it is all ſpent; and, if the fly lights upon a woman ſhe is no leſs reverenced by the neighbourhood, and entitled to the like privileges.

It is ſcarce poſſible to expreſs the agonies the Hottentots are in, if any European attempts to take or kill one of theſe inſects, as the Dutch will ſometimes ſeem to attempt, to put them in a fright: they will beg and pray, and fall proſtrate on the ground, to procure the liberty of this little creature, if it falls into a Dutchman's hands; they are, on ſuch an occaſion, in no leſs conſternation than the Indians near Fort St. George, when the kite, with a white head, which they worſhip, is in danger. If a ſoldier takes one of theſe alive, and threatens to wring the neck of it off, the Indians will gather in crowds about him, and immediately collect the value of a ſhilling or two, to purchaſe the liberty of the captive bird they adore. But to return to the Hottentots: they imagine if this little deity ſhould be killed, all the cattle would die of diſeaſes, or be deſtroyed by wild beaſts; and they themſelves ſhould be the moſt miſerable of men, and look upon that kraal to be doomed to ſome imminent misfortune, where this animal ſeldom appears.

The Hottentots alſo pay a ſort of religious worſhip to the ſouls of departed ſaints and heroes; they conſecrate fields, mountains, woods, and rivers to their memory; and when, at any time, they happen to paſs by ſuch conſecrated ground, they put a ſhort prayer to the ſubordinate deity of the place, and ſometimes dance round, and clap their hands as they do in their adoration of the moon.

The Hollanders have ſent ſeveral reverend divines to the Cape as miſſionaries, who have ſpared no pains to bring the Hottentots off from their idolatry, and induce them to embrace Chriſtianity; even their covetouſneſs and ambition have been applied to, and temporal rewards offered them, on condition of their being inſtructed in the prin-

ciples of Chriſtianity. But no motives whatever, whether thoſe relating to this or another ſtate, have yet been able to make the leaſt impreſſion on any one of them: they hold faſt and hug their ancient ſuperſtitions, and will hear of no other religion; which, with me, is a great argument that they have a religion or ſuperſtition of their own; for were they governed only by ſecular motives, and had no notion of God or providence, why ſhould they not accept the rewards the Dutch offer, and importune them to accept of, on their embracing Chriſtianity? and I am apt to think, that the reaſon that they neither imitate the Europeans in their building, planting, or cloathing, is becauſe they imagine themſelves to be religiouſly obliged to follow the cuſtoms of their anceſtors; and that, if they ſhould deviate from them in the leaſt of theſe matters, it might make way for a total change of their religion and manners, which they cannot think of without abhorrence.

Kolben relates, that one of the Dutch governors at the Cape bred up an Hottentot from his infancy, obliging him to follow the faſhions and cuſtoms of the Europeans, to be taught ſeveral languages, and to be fully inſtructed in the principles of the Chriſtian religion, cloathing him handſomely, and treating him, in all reſpects, as a perſon for whom he had a high eſteem; and let him know, that he deſigned him for ſome beneficial and honourable employment. The governor afterwards ſent him a voyage to Batavia, where he was employed under the commiſſary, his friend, for ſome time, till that gentleman died; and then he returned to the cape of Good Hope: but, having paid a viſit to the Hottentots of his relations and acquaintance, he threw off all his fine cloaths, bundled them up, and laid them at the governor's feet, and deſired he would give him leave to renounce his Chriſtianity, and live and die in the religion and cuſtoms of his anceſtors: only begging the governor would give him leave to keep the hanger and collar he wore for his ſake; which, while the governor was deliberating with himſelf upon, ſcarce believing the fellow to be in earneſt, the young Hottentot took the opportunity of running away, and never came near the Cape afterwards, thinking himſelf extremely happy that he had exchanged his European cloaths for a ſheep-ſkin, and the reſt of the Hottentots dreſs and ornaments: the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, we are informed, made the like experiment, bringing over two of that nation hither, whom they cloathed decently after the European manner, and uſed them, in all reſpects, with the greateſt goodneſs and gentleneſs, hoping, by that means, to be better informed of the condition of their country, and whether it might be worth the while to make a ſettlement there; but the two Hottentots only learnt Engliſh enough to bewail their misfortune in being brought from their country and their friends; and, after two years trial of them, being ſet on ſhore at the Cape, they immediately ſtripped off their European cloaths, and, having taken up the ſheep-ſkin mantle again, rejoiced beyond meaſure for their happy eſcape from the Engliſh.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Traffic and Commerce, Manufactures, Artificers, Language, &c. of the HOTTENTOTS.

THE poor Hottentots ſometimes employ themſelves in making arms, viz. bows and arrows, lances and darts, bartering them with the rich for cattle, to begin the world with: others get elephants teeth, and what they do not uſe in making rings and ornaments for themſelves, are generally diſpoſed of, it is thought, to the Portugueſe and other Europeans, who touch at Terra de Natal, and other parts of the eaſtern or weſtern coaſt. The Hottentots ſell very few teeth to the Dutch; though it is manifeſt they kill abundance of elephants: they ſupply the Hollanders, however, with cattle, and take wine, brandy, or tobacco, in return; and Kolben relates that an ox may be purchaſed of them for a pound of tobacco, and a large ſheep for half a pound. As to coin, the reader will conclude they have none; nor do they ever ſee any, unleſs ſome ſmall pieces of money the Dutch ſometimes give them for their wages at the Cape: and it muſt not be forgot, that the Hottentots find abundance of oſtrich's eggs in the ſand, which they barter with the ſea-faring men, that touch at the cape, for brandy and tobacco; every ſailor almoſt being proud of bringing home one of theſe egg-ſhells to his friends, after he has fried and eaten the yolk, which makes a large pancake, and is pretty good food, but rather of the ſtrongeſt.

Their butchers are ſaid to be great artiſts in their way, and to handle a knife as dextrouſly as an anatomiſt: having tied the hind and fore legs of a ſheep, they throw the creature on his back, and with cords two of them extend it to its full ſtretch, while a third rips it up; ſo that all the entrails appear: then, with one hand, he tears the guts from the carcaſe, and, with the other, ſtirs the blood, avoiding as much as he can the breaking any of the blood-veſſels about the heart; ſo that the ſheep is a long time a-dying; in the mean time he gives the guts to another, who juſt rids them of the filth, and rinces them in water, and part of them are broiled and eaten amongſt them, before the ſheep is well dead: having ſcooped the blood out of the body of the animal with their hands or ſea-ſhells, they cut the reſt of the guts in ſmall pieces, and ſtew them in the blood, which is the Hottentots favourite diſh. An ox alſo is killed in the ſame barbarous manner; being thrown upon his back, and his legs extended with cords, he is ripped up, and his guts taken out firſt; in which cruel operation the beaſt is half an hour a dying: they ſeparate the parts with great exactneſs, dividing the fleſh, the bones, the membranes, muſcles, veins, and arteries, and laying them in ſeveral parcels, every thing entire. The bones alſo are taken out of the fleſh, and laid together in ſuch order, that they might be eaſily formed into an exact ſkeleton: theſe they boil by themſelves, and get the marrow out of them, with which they anoint their bodies. Of the ſheep ſkin, as has been obſerved already, they make a mantle, if it be large; but, if it is ſmall, they cut it into thongs, to adorn their women's legs; and the hide of an ox ſerves either to cover their tents, or to make girts and ſtraps of, with which they bind their baggage on their carriage-oxen when they decamp; and, if they have no other uſe for their ox-hides, they lay them by, and eat them when they want other food.

They have another artificer, who is both ſelmonger and taylor: that is, he dreſſes ſkins after their way, and then makes them into mantles: he takes a ſheep-ſkin juſt flayed off, and, rubbing it well with fat, the ſkin becomes tough and ſmooth; and, if it be for one of his countrymen, he rubs it over alſo with freſh cow-dung, and lays it in the ſun till it is dry: then he rubs it with fat and cow dung again; which he repeats ſeveral times, till it becomes perfectly black, and ſtinks ſo, that no European can bear it; and then, with a little ſhaping and ſewing, it is a compleat mantle for a Hottentot: but, if it be dreſſed for a Dutchman, he only rubs the ſkin well with fat, which ſecures the wool from coming off. If he be to dreſs an ox's hide, he rubs the hairy ſide with wood aſhes; then ſprinkling it with water, rolls it up, and lays it a day or two in the ſun; which expedients effectually bring off the hair; this ſkin is then well greaſed, ſtretched out, and dried again, when it is deemed good leather.

Their ſmiths do not only faſhion their iron, but melt it from the ore: they find plenty of iron ſtones in ſeveral parts of their country; and having got a heap of theſe, they put them into a hole in the ground, heated and prepared for their purpoſe; then they make a fire over the ſtones, which they ſupply with fuel, and keep up till the iron melts: and then it runs into another hole, which they make for a receiver, a little lower than the firſt: as ſoon as the iron in the receiver is cold they break it to pieces with ſtones; and, heating the pieces again in other fires, beat them with ſtones, till they ſhape them into the heads of lances, darts, arrows, and bows, and ſuch weapons as they uſe; for they ſcarce ever form any other utenſils, but arms of this metal: they get the hardeſt flat ſtone, according to Monſieur Vogel, and, laying the iron upon it, as upon an anvil, beat it with another round ſtone, which ſerves them for a hammer; then they grind it upon the flat ſtone, and poliſh it as nicely as any European artificer could do with all his tools: they have ſome copper ore too, which they melt in like manner; but they make only toys and ornaments for their dreſs of this metal: nor indeed, do they ever work in iron, but when they want weapons. They would never labour, if their neceſſities did not ſometimes compel them to it: but, when they do, no people work harder, or more indefatigably; for they never leave a piece of work, till they have finiſhed it.

The ivory-turner makes the ivory rings that are worn ornamentally about the arms; and conſidering that his only tool is a common claſp knife, which he procures from the Dutch, the workmanſhip has great merit.

The potter or maker of earthen veſſels is another art; but this, it ſeems, they are all dexterous at, every family making the pots and pans they want. For theſe they uſe only the earth of ant-hills, clearing them of all ſand and gravel; after which, they work it together with the bruiſed

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ant eggs, that are ſaid to conſtitute an extraordinary cement. When they have moulded theſe materials into a kind of paſte, they take as much of them as will make one of their pots, and faſhion it by hand upon a flat ſtone, making it of the form of a Roman urn; then they ſmooth it within and without very careſully, not leaving the leaſt roughneſs upon the ſurface; and, having dried it in the ſun two or three days, they put the pot into a hole in the ground, and burn it, by making a fire over it; and, when they take it out, it appears perfectly black: every family alſo make their own mats, with which they cover their tents or huts; but this is chiefly the buſineſs of the women: they gather the flags and ruſhes by the river ſide, and weave or plat them into mats ſo cloſely, it is ſaid, that neither the weather or light can penetrate them.

The laſt artificer we ſhall mention is the rope-maker, who has no better materials, than ſuch flags and ruſhes as the mats are made of; and yet they appear almoſt as ſtrong as thoſe made of hemp: the Dutch, at the Cape, buy and uſe them in ploughing, and in draught-carriages.

As to the way of travelling here, the natives all travel on foot, except the aged and infirm: and theſe are carried on their baggage oxen. As there are no inns or places for refreſhment, the travelling Hottentot calls at the kraals in his way, where he meets with a hearty welcome from his countrymen, who endeavour to ſhew their hoſpitality to ſtrangers, whether of their own country or of Europe. Such indeed is the general urbanity of theſe people, and their ſtrict integrity when any confidence is placed in them, that when the Hollanders travel either on foot or horſe-back, if they cannot reach an European ſettlement, they alſo call at the kraals of the Hottentots, where they are complimented with a hut, and ſuch proviſions as they have, or they may lie in the area of the kraal, in the open air, if they pleaſe, and the weather be good; and here they are ſecure, both from robbers and wild beaſts; for the buſhis banditti on the mountains are dangerous, as they give no quarter; but the Hottentot nations in general hold them in abhorrence, and unanimouſly concur in ſeizing and puniſhing them upon all occaſions.

Their language is very inarticulate and defective; one word ſignifies ſeveral things, the definitive meaning being determined by the manner of pronouncing; and the pronunciation is ſo harſh and confuſed, that they ſeem to ſtammer in all they ſpeak. Hence, though they are eaſily taught to underſtand other languages, they can ſeldom be brought to ſpeak them with any degree of intelligibility.

We ſhall here ſubjoin a ſmall Hottentot vocabulary, for the ſatisfaction of the curious; khauna, ſignifies a lamb; kgou, a gooſe; bunqvaa, trees: knomm, to hear; quaqua, a pheaſant; tkaka, a whale; horri, beaſts in general; knabou, a fowling piece; qua-ara-ho, a wild ox; ounequa, the arms; quienkha, to fall; likhanee, a dog; konkequa, a captain; quas, the neck; quan, the heart; kgoyes, a buck or doe; tikquoa, a god; komma, a houſe; khoaa, a cat; kowkuri, iron; konkekerey, a hen; thoukou, a dark night; tkoume, rice; ghoudie, a ſheep; toya, the wind; ttkaa, a valley; tkaonoklau, gunpowder; kamkamma, the earth; quaouw, thunder; duckatere, a duck; kamma, water; quayha, an aſs; naew, the ears; kirri, a ſtick; nombha, the beard; ka-a, to drink; durieſa, an ox; hek-kaa, an ox of burden; ounvie, butter; houteo, a ſea-dog; bikgua, the head; kamma, a ſtag; kouquil, a pigeon; anthuri, to-morrow; kou, a tooth; khamouna, the devil; hakqua, a horſe; koo, a ſon; kammo, a ſtream; tika, graſs; toqua, a wolf; koanqua, the mouth; khou, a peacock; gona, a boy; gois, a girl; khoakamma, a baboon; kerhanehou, a ſtar; mu, an eye; tquaſſouw, a tyger.

The Hottentots have only ten numerical terms, which they repeat twice to expreſs the multiplication of the firſt term, and three times to expreſs the re-multiplication of the latter. Their terms are: q'kui, one; k'kam, two; kouna, three; kakka, four; koo, five; nanni, ſix; hounko, ſeven; khiſſi, eight; khaſſi, nine; ghiſſi, ten.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Empires of MONOMOTAPA and MONOEMUGI: deſcribing their Boundaries and Extent, Provinces, Rivers, the Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Laws, Ceremonies, and other Particulars relative to theſe People.

MONOMOTAPA is one of the largeſt empires in all Africa; being bounded on the weſt, by the mountains of Caffraria; on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Sofala; on the north, by the river Cuama, which ſeparates it from Monoemugi; and on the ſouth by the river de Spiritu Sancto. It is ſituated between the fourteenth and twenty-fifth degrees of ſouth latitude, and between the forty-firſt and fifty-ſixth of eaſt longitude, being ſix hundred and fifteen miles in breadth from north to ſouth, and ſix hundred and ſeventy in length from eaſt to weſt.

In this country are ſix provinces, or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vaſſals to the king or emperor of Monomotapa. The names of theſe provinces are Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Sabia, and Inhamior.

The moſt conſiderable of the whole is Monomotapa Proper, which is particularly diſtinguiſhed for containing the capital city of the empire. It is ſituated in eighteen degrees twenty-ſeven minutes ſouth latitude, and thirty-one degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude from London. It is a large and populous city, and the ſtreets very long and ſpacious. The houſes are built with timber and earth, and are of different ſizes, ſome being much more lofty than others, according to the quality of thoſe that occupy them: the roofs are large, and formed in the ſhape of a bell; and all of them are neatly whitewaſhed both within and without.

The greateſt ornament in the city is the imperial palace, which is a large ſpacious fabric, well flanked with towers, and has four avenues or ſtately gates, conſtantly kept by a numerous guard. The inſide conſiſts of a great variety of ſumptuous apartments, ſpacious and lofty halls, all adorned with a magnificent kind of cotton tapeſtry, the manufacture of the country. The floors, cielings, beams, and rafters, are all either gilt, or plated with gold curiouſly wrought, as are alſo the chair of ſtate, tables, benches, &c. The candleſticks and branches are made of ivory inlaid with gold, and hang from the cieling by chains of the ſame metal, or of ſilver gilt. The plates, diſhes, and bowls, belonging to the emperor's table, are made of a ſort of porcelain, curiouſly wrought on the edges with ſprings of gold reſembling thoſe of coral. In ſhort, ſo rich and magnificent is this palace, that it may be ſaid to vie with that which diſtinguiſhes a monarch of the eaſt.

This province contains ſeveral other towns, all of which are very inconſiderable, except one called Tete, which is remarkable for being the reſidence of the Portugueſe Jeſuits, and is large and populous.

To the ſouth of Monomotapa Proper lies Quiteve, which is bounded on the eaſt by Sabia, on the weſt by Caffraria, and on the ſouth by Manica. The king or governor of the province uſually reſides in this city, which is large, and well inhabited.

Manica is bounded on the eaſt, by Sabia; on the weſt, by Caffraria; on the north, by Quiteve; and, on the ſouth, by the river de Spiritu Sancto. The capital town is called after the name of the province, but it is a ſmall place, and very poorly inhabited. The river de Spiritu Sancto, by ſome called Manica, ſprings from the mountains of Lupata, ſituated in nineteen degrees ſouth latitude, and twenty-ſix degrees eaſt longitude. It runs firſt from north to ſouth, after which it bends its courſe to the ſouth-eaſt, then paſſes along the kingdom of Manica, and empties itſelf into a ſmall gulf, with which the ſea immediately communicates.

The province of Inhambana lies ſouthward from the above province under the tropic of Capricorn, ſo that the air is here exceeding ſultry. The capital town is called Tongue, which, though ſmall, is very populous, owing to the number of Portugueſe that reſide in it.

Sabia, is a very large province, and well watered by ſeveral excellent rivers, one of which is called Sabia, and the other Aroe. The iſland of Bocica, and the capes of St. Sebaſtian and St. Catharine, are on the coaſt of this kingdom.

Inhamior, is a very extenſive province, but it doth not contain any thing that merits particular notice. Its chief town is of the ſame name; and here the king or governor of the province conſtantly reſides.

The climate of Monomotapa is much more wholſome than many other parts of Africa; and the ſoil is ſo fertile, that it produces great plenty of the principal neceſſaries of life. It abounds with paſture grounds, on which are bred prodigious quantities of cattle, eſpecially oxen and cows. The chief grains are rice and millet, and they have plenty of various kinds of tropical fruits. In the woods and foreſts are great numbers of wild beaſts, particularly elephants, the latter of which the natives kill not only for their fleſh, but alſo for their teeth, which they make a conſiderable advantage of by ſelling to the Portugueſe, while the former furniſhes them with food.

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There are many rivers in this country, and on the banks of moſt of them grow many fine trees and ſugar-canes, without any culture. They abound with a variety of excellent fiſh, and in ſome of them is found gold that is ſwept away from the mines through which they run in the more inland parts.

With reſpect to the natives, they are in general tall, well ſhaped, and healthy; they are quite black, and have woolly hair, which they decorate with a variety of trinkets. They are of a very ſprightly and docile diſpoſition: notwithſtanding which, they are fond of being engaged in war, and prefer that employment to any other. The poorer ſort are brought up to diving; and their chief employment is to get the ſand or mud from the bottom of the rivers, ponds, and lakes, from which they ſeparate the gold that is intermixed with it, and barter it with the Portugueſe for cotton and various other neceſſary articles.

The common people wear a piece of cotton cloth of various colours round the waiſt, from whence it reaches to the knees: but the upper part of the body is entirely naked. The garments of the richer ſort are of the ſame form, but more coſtly and elegant, being made of Italian ſilks, or of cotton embroidered with gold; and they generally wear the ſkin of ſome wild beaſt over them.

The fleſh of oxen and elephants is their common food, with bread made of rice or millet, which is baked into thin cakes; and their drink is either ſour milk or water. The better ſort moſtly eſteem palm-wine, which is reckoned a royal liquor, and greatly uſed at court; though ſome of them uſe ſtrong liquors made from honey, millet, rice, and ſeveral ſorts of fruit.

Here, as in moſt other parts of Africa, polygamy is allowed, every man being permitted to take as many wives as he can maintain; but the firſt wife is the principal; and the father's eſtate devolves to the children borne by her.

Theſe people pay a religious worſhip to the dead, every one preſerving the bones of the moſt diſtinguiſhed of his family. Theſe they hang up in a court, and know whom they belonged to by fixing certain marks on them. Every ſeventh day the relations go and viſit them, being all dreſſed in white, which is the mourning of the country. They ſpread a little table before them with proviſions, then pray to the deceaſed for the king's proſperity, and afterwards ſit down and regale themſelves, which they look upon as the greateſt honour they can confer on their departed relations.

The Portugueſe have converted ſome of the inhabitants here to the Roman catholic religion; but the principal part of them are idolaters, and practiſe the moſt ſuperſtitious maxims. They hold a feaſt on the firſt day of every new moon, as alſo on the anniverſary of the emperor's birth. They ſhew a ſingular veneration for a certain virgin, whom they call Al Firoo, and have temples erected in honour of her: they alſo confine ſome of their daughters in nunneries, of which they have ſeveral, obliging them to obſerve ſtrict celibacy during life.

The emperor or king of Monomotapa, has a prodigious number of wives, the principal of whom are the daughters of ſome of his vaſſal princes: but the firſt only is called empreſs or queen. He always wears the ſame kind of dreſs, which conſiſts of a robe made of a ſilk ſtuff, manufactured in the kingdom: it reaches from the waiſt to the knees, and is faſtened with a girdle richly bedecked with diamonds and other precious ſtones. He has alſo a brocaded mantle over his ſhoulders, and on his legs he wears buſkins, richly wrought and embroidered with gold, pearls, &c. On his head is a turban, the band of which is ornamented with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and other precious ſtones: and his neck is decorated with a magnificent carkanet, or collar, enriched with the ſame coſtly jewels.

This monarch is exceedingly fond of palm-wine, great quantities of which he always keeps by him, in veſſels made of horn, curiouſly wrought: but he generally mixes with it manna, muſk, or ſome other high ſcented perfumes, of which alſo the courtiers and better ſort of people are great admirers, and uſe them not only in their victuals and drink, but alſo in their apartments and walks, and other places.

The emperor's victuals is always dreſſed by the princeſſes and ladies of the firſt rank, who bring and ſerve it at his table: they diſcharge this buſineſs in their turns, and think it the higheſt honour to be ſo employed. During his meal, he is accompanied by a band of muſicians: but theſe, before they come into his preſence, muſt be hoodwinked, or have a veil before their faces, to prevent their ſeeing him either eat or drink. He is commonly attended by a great number of officers, who keep a moſt profound ſilence, except when he drinks, or happens to ſneeze or cough, at which times one of them cries aloud, "Pray for the health and proſperity of the emperor:" as ſoon as the words are repeated, they all kneel, then riſe, and teſtify their joy by the loudeſt acclamations and tokens of loyalty.

Whenever his majeſty goes abroad, he is generally carried in a ſtately ſedan or chair, over which is a magnificent canopy richly embroidered, and beſpangled with pearls and precious ſtones; and if the weather happens to be cloudy or miſty, four lighted torches are carried before him, to clear and perfume the air. He is always attended by a prodigious retinue, beſides his own guard, and a numerous band of muſicians. On theſe occaſions his ſubjects pay him the moſt profound homage and reſpect, wiſhing him all imaginable ſucceſs and proſperity, and ſhewing their attachment to him by ſacrificing a deer, or ſome other victim, on the road through which he paſſes.

This prince having many powerful vaſſals, far remote from his capital, takes care to bring up their ſucceſſors at his court as hoſtages of their fidelity. They have colleges and academies appropriated for their education at his expence, and he endeavours to win their affections by the greateſt acts of munificence. He alſo takes great pains to preſerve the reſpect of his ſubjects: he exacts no taxes or tribute from them, inſtead of which he is ſatisfied with a trifling preſent, when they apply to him for any particular favour. This is an univerſal cuſtom from an inferior to a ſuperior of every rank and denomination, and is eſteemed the higheſt mark of reſpect that can be ſhewn. His ſubjects always obey his commands with the greateſt cheerfulneſs, inſtead of attending upon him with reluctance; for if at any time he orders them to labour either at the gold mines, or any other ſervice, as is ſeldom the caſe, he always ſends them cows, or other proviſions.

The officers and miniſters of the king of this country, both civil and military, as well as his ſoldiery, who ſubſiſt by his pay, are indeed obliged, inſtead of taxes, to pay him a kind of ſervice of ſeven days in every month, either in cultivating his grounds, or any other work he thinks proper to employ them in; and the lords and nobles are alſo bound to the ſame ſervice when required, unleſs exempted from it by ſome particular privilege granted to their family or office in time paſt.

A numerous army is maintained by the king; for he has no cavalry, there being but few horſes, and thoſe not fit for the purpoſe, throughout his dominions. The weapons uſed by the ſoldiers are bows and arrows, the javelin, ſcymetar, cutlaſs, and dagger, and ſome of them carry a hatchet, all which they handle with great dexterity, being trained up to it from their youth. Wherever the emperor encamps, they always erect a large wooden houſe, in which a fire muſt be kept conſtantly burning during his ſtay. Neither he nor any of his ſoldiers are permitted to waſh their hands or face while the war continues; and when it is over and they have gained a complete victory, the ſpoil is divided, the emperor reſerving one part to himſelf, and diſtributing the reſt in proportionable ſhares to his officers and men. This equitable diſtribution, as it tends to animate the men, and make them fight with diſtinguiſhed intrepidity, has an excellent effect.

There are few laws in this country; and ſo little occaſion is there for the confinement of criminals, that there is not a ſingle priſon throughout the whole empire. Juſtice is adminiſtered in every part of it with the greateſt expedition; the judges hear the reaſons and depoſitions on both ſides, and then pronounce ſentence, which the emperor either confirms or annuls; and every criminal is executed in the open fields immediately after conviction. If the complaint or crime be of ſuch a nature that it cannot be ſo quickly adjudged, and there be any danger of the perſon accuſed making his eſcape, he is ordered to be tied to a tree, and a guard is ſet over him, till he is either acquitted or condemned. In trifling matters they only inflict a corporal puniſhment, which is done by giving the party a certain number of ſtrokes with a knotted cord, according to the nature of the crime; but thoſe found guilty of murder are puniſhed with death.

With reſpect to the gold mines in this empire, from which the Portugueſe have reaped conſiderable advantages, the chief of them are in the province of Manica, near the capital of the ſame name. They extend themſelves through a large, ſpacious, champaign, wild, ſandy, and barren country, about nine miles in circumference, and ſurrounded with high mountains. They are ſituated about one hundred and fifty miles weſt of the market, or place where the commerce for it is carried on. The natives that work at them, find great difficulty in gathering

the metal, which is here in duſt, for want of water to ſeparate it from the earth, ſo that they are obliged to take the whole as they dig it, to other diſtant places, where they keep large ciſterns and reſervoirs for that purpoſe. They have one convenience, however, which is, that they need not dig lower than ſix or ſeven feet, all the reſt being a hard ſolid rock beneath that depth.

There are alſo other mines in different parts of the empire that produce excellent metal, particularly thoſe near Batua, a ſmall place bordering on the province of Manica, and extending itſelf from the mountains of the Moon to the river Magnico, whoſe governor is a vaſſal to the emperor. Theſe mines are reckoned the moſt antient in the whole empire, on account of ſome caſtles in their neighbourhood, which bear the greateſt marks of antiquity, and are ſuppoſed to have been built as a ſafeguard to them. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe buildings is ſituated in the middle of a large ſpacious plain, and ſurrounded by the mines above-mentioned. Its walls are not high, but of the thickneſs of twenty-five feet; the ſtones are laid regularly one upon another, but without any kind of cement to faſten them together. On the front, juſt over the great gate, is a ſtone larger than the reſt, and upon it an inſcription in characters, or rather Hieroglyphics, which are ſo unintelligible, that no perſon hath yet been able to decypher them. And at ſome diſtance from this building are ſeveral others, all ſituated on ſome eminence or riſing ground, and amongſt them is a tower about ſeventy feet high. The natives imagine them to be the works of dæmons, being unable to conceive how ſuch ſtructures could be raiſed.

There are ſeveral conſiderable places between the mines and the ſea coaſt, where fairs and markets are held for the ſale of gold, particularly thoſe towns which lie on the river Zezebe and Cuama, and where the Portugueſe have built fortreſſes to keep the natives in awe, who come to thoſe markets to exchange their gold for European and other commodities. In each of theſe markets they have an officer of their own, who decides all conteſts and differences that ariſe about their traffic; they have likewiſe churches and monaſteries in moſt of theſe towns.

The Portugueſe were firſt permitted by the emperor of Monomotapa to build forts here, in gratitude for the ſervice they had done in contributing to reduce ſome revolted vaſſals to return to their obedience, as well as to enable them, on all ſuch exigencies, to be near at hand to aſſiſt him. This was about the year 1640, ſince which time they have been on ſuch good terms with the ſovereigns of the empire, that they have made themſelves maſters of a tract of land on both ſides the river Cuama for above one hundred and ſixty miles; beſides which, they have engroſſed the whole commerce not only of the coaſt, but alſo the inland parts, and obtained to themſelves ſome of the moſt conſiderable mines in the empire.

The natives, beſides gold, bring great quantities of ivory, furs of ſundry wild and tame beaſts; and other valuable articles, in exchange for cloths of various ſorts, glaſs beads of different ſizes and colours, and other trifling trinkets, which renders it a very advantageous commerce to the Portugueſe.

Monoemugi, is a conſiderable empire; but, being an inland country, is very little frequented by the Europeans. It is bounded on the north, by Abyſſinia; on the eaſt, by part of Zanguebar; on the ſouth, by the empire of Monomotapa; and, on the weſt, by Matamba and Makoko.

We have no particulars relative to this empire, but what are chiefly founded on the authority of the negroes, who carry on a commerce with it, European travellers not daring to venture themſelves in it, not only by reaſon of the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate, but alſo for fear of the inhuman Jaggas, who infeſt the interior parts of it, and maſſacre all that happen to fall in their way, without regard to age or ſex.

It appears from the diſtance of the confines of this empire, that its extent is very great, though it cannot be aſcertained. The emperor is a powerful and rich prince, and hath ſubdued moſt of the petty kingdoms about him to obedience; but ſome of them, eſpecially on the north ſide, revolt, and put themſelves under the protection of the Abyſſinian or Monomotapan emperors. He is ſaid to have many rich gold, ſilver, and copper mines in his dominions, by means of which he carries on a kind of commerce with thoſe two empires, as alſo with ſome of the eaſtern coaſters, with whom he is forced to exchange gold for Indian and European commodities, for want of having ſome port of his own on either the eaſtern or weſtern ſea. This obliged him to preſerve a conſtant friendſhip with the maritime kingdoms of Quiloa, Mombaſo, and Melinda, whoſe merchants furniſh him with a variety of ſilks, cotton cloth, and other ſuch merchandize. He alſo lives in friendſhip with the great makoko, another prince on the north of him, on account of the negro merchants who trade with the Portugueſe, and carry on a conſiderable trade with him and his ſubjects by paſſing through his dominions.

Monoemugi is divided into five kingdoms or provinces, all of which are governed by petty princes, ſubject to the emperor. The names of theſe are as follow; namely, Gingiro, Mujaco, Alaba, Cambate, and Monoemugi Proper.

Gingiro, which is a very large kingdom, lies between Narea, the moſt ſouthern kingdom of Abyſſinia, and Makoko and Cambate. Father Antony Fernandez, who travelled through this kingdom, ſays, the king preſerves an extraordinary dignity, and that he contends with the ſun; for which reaſon he never goes abroad, or gives audience, but before the ſun riſes, alledging that two ſuns cannot appear at once. The ſame perſon tells us, that his palace is no better than a cottage, which, when he dies, is always burnt, and the ſucceſſor has a new one built for him, which is dedicated with the blood of two or three men of a certain family killed at the door, and on that account the ſaid family is free from all other duties, which are ſo heavy, that they render this cruel compoſition acceptable; for when the king buys any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in ſlaves, and theſe are the ſons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleaſure.

The province of Mujaco, is bounded on the eaſt, by Abyſſinia; on the weſt, by Congo; on the north, by Nubia; and, on the ſouth, by Makoko. It is a large kingdom, but very poorly inhabited; neither does it contain any thing that merits a particular deſcription.

The province of Alaba, is very large, and ſituated to the eaſt of Cambate: it reaches to the coaſt of Zanguebar, and is inhabited by a cruel people called Gallas. Many of the people are idolaters, and of the worſt ſort, for they offer human ſacrifices.

The province of Cambate joins to that of Gingiro, on the weſt, and is bounded on the eaſt by Alaba, on the north, by Abyſſinia; on the ſouth, by Makoko; and on the weſt, by Gingiro. This country pays a voluntary acknowledgement to the emperor of Abyſſinia. Sangara, which is a poor place, and wretchedly inhabited, is the principal town in the kingdom.

The province of Monoemugi Proper, is bounded on the eaſt by Congo, on the weſt by Tranquebar, on the north by Monomotapa, and on the ſouth by Makoko. This is the largeſt diviſion of the whole empire, and, except for its being the reſidence of the emperor, is no otherwiſe remarkable.

Excluſive of the reſpective mines of gold, ſilver, and copper, the chief productions of this country, are, palm wine and oil, and honey is here ſo plentiful, that the negroes cannot conſume one third of it, ſo that they ſuffer the reſt to be loſt. The great misfortune is, that the air and climate is ſo unwholſome, that no miſſionaries, or other Europeans, dare venture ſo far into the inland parts, principally on account of thoſe degenerate canibals the Jaggas, who infeſt them, as we before obſerved.

In this country the natives dreſs themſelves in ſilks and cottons, which they buy of ſtrangers, and wear collars of tranſparent beads which are brought them from Camboya: theſe beads alſo ſerve inſtead of money; gold and ſilver being conſidered of no value, as it is ſo very common here.

We have not any account of the laws, cuſtoms, ceremonies, and other particulars relating to the people; what we farther know of them is, that they are refractory and cruel in their diſpoſitions, and moſt of them idolaters.

According to the Portugueſe, there is on the eaſt ſide of this empire a great lake full of ſmall iſlands, from whence iſſue ſeveral rivers. They ſay that theſe iſlands abound in all ſorts of fowl and cattle, and are inhabited by negroes.

It has been obſerved, reſpecting the little knowledge attained of this empire, and thoſe parts that border on it to the ſouthward, that "The farther we move ſouthwards towards the cape of Good Hope, the farther we may be ſaid to travel in the dark;" though all our maps unite to embelliſh both the coaſt and inland parts with ſuch proſpects, and pompous names of empires, kingdoms, and countries, crouded ſo cloſe to each other, as might induce an unwary reader to imagine thoſe countries to be as fully

known as Europe itſelf; and were he to compare the vaſt ſhew in thoſe maps with the little he finds in the relations and accounts of the African writers, he might be apt to conclude, from the former, that the far greater and moſt conſiderable part of the latter, like thoſe of the antients, have been unhappily loſt or deſtroyed. And this we think ourſelves bound to appriſe our readers of, leſt they ſhould be induced to aſcribe our leaping over ſuch a vaſt tract of land, overlooking ſo many ſeeming conſiderable kingdoms and ſtates, to our neglect, rather than to what it is really owing, the want of proper intelligence, and to loſe their time in a fruitleſs ſearch after them, amongſt that variety of authors that have written on this part of the world. The truth is, the Arabs, as well as the natives who inhabit this whole eaſtern coaſt, are too jealous of, not to ſay incenſed againſt all Europeans, to give them any intelligence of the inland parts; much leſs to let any of our miſſionaries penetrate into them, as they have more luckily done in the weſtern. So that all the knowledge we have been able to get of them is chiefly founded on the precarious report of thoſe trading coaſters, and extends little farther than the names and ſituations of thoſe kingdoms which make ſo fine an appearance in our maps; and might probably be repreſented by them in ſuch a light, as rather to deter than encourage ſtrangers to attempt making any farther diſcoveries of countries which bear ſo unpromiſing an aſpect.

CHAP. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ZANGUEBAR.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account of ZANGUEBAR; alſo a Deſcription of the Kingdoms of MOSAMBIQUE, MELINDA, and SOFALA, their Towns, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, their Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Laws, Ceremonies, &c.

ZANGUEBAR, by ſome ſtiled Zangibar, is ſo denominated from the word Zangue, which in the Arabic language ſignifies black, all the inhabitants being of that colour. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the Indian ocean; on the weſt, by Monoemugi; on the north, by Anian, or Aian; and on the ſouth, by the river Cuama, which ſeparates it from Monomotapa. It is very diſproportionate in its extent, being not more than three hundred and fifty miles in the broadeſt part, and one thouſand four hundred in length.

This country has a very extenſive coaſt, and there are many rivers and iſlands in it. This part of it is beſt known to the Europeans, owing to the conqueſts made here by the Portugueſe. The inland part conſiſts of a large, barren, and unhealthy track, the lands lying low, and are interſected by rivers, lakes, thick woods, foreſts, and marſhy grounds. Moſt of the inhabitants are Arabs, the deſcendants of thoſe who were baniſhed here from their own country, on account of their adherence to the ſect of Ali, whoſe tenets they profeſs and adhere to with great ſtrictneſs.

Kilmanci, or Quilmanca, is one of the rivers that water this country: the latter name was given it by the Portugueſe, from a fort and town ſo called, built by them at the mouth of it. This river hath its ſource near the mountains of Gravo, in the kingdom of Narea, ſubject to the Abyſſinian empire, and near a village called Bochia, or Boxia; it is one of the moſt conſiderable in all this part of Africa, eſpecially on account of the length and vaſt winding of its courſe, making a kind of circle toward the north and eaſt, as it were to incloſe into a kind of peninſula the kingdom of Gingiro, and divides the ſettlement of the wild Jaggas from Abyſſinia; and thus far it is called by the name of Zebea. After this, it winds its courſe through the country of the Makorites, which it leaves on the eaſt ſide, then croſſes the equinoctial line, continues its courſe along the coaſt of Zanguebar, and diſcharges itſelf into the ocean in the kingdom of Melinda. Ptolemy, in his deſcription of the coaſt of Africa, mentions this river, which is by moſt authors ſuppoſed to be the Rapte. They alſo divide the continental part of Zanguebar into two kingdoms, namely, Moſambique and Melinda: the former of which is divided into ſeveral provinces and lordſhips, and each of them has a peculiar dialect to itſelf.

The climate here is exceeding ſultry and unwholſome, but the ſoil is very fertile, producing plenty of millet, rice, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe; as alſo abundance of orange and lemon-trees. It abounds likewiſe with wild beaſts, particularly boars and elephants, the latter of which are ſo numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged to kindle fires round the fields, to prevent them from devouring the corn; nor dare they go abroad at night, without carrying lighted torches in their hands to frighten them away. They have likewiſe great plenty of black cattle here, and there are gold and ſilver mines in ſome parts of the country.

The natives of Moſambique are in general of low ſtature, very black, and have ſhort, curled hair; they are naturally cruel, deceitful, and great enemies to ſtrangers; but as they are naturally timorous, the Portugueſe keep them under tolerable ſubjection. The men go quite naked, except only a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt; but the women have a kind of petticoat of coarſe cotton cloth, which reaches from the waiſt to the knees. Their ornaments conſiſt in three or four necklaces of coral beads of ſeveral colours, with braſs rings in their ears, and bracelets of the ſame metal on their arms. They adorn their bodies by inſcribing the figures of birds and animals on different parts of them.

Their common food is the fleſh of elephants, with bread made of millet and rice: from the latter of which they alſo make a kind of beer. Their towns are very ſmall, and their buildings low and deſpicable.

Gold, ebony, ivory, and ſlaves, are the chief wealth of theſe people, who traffic with the Portugueſe only, for they will not ſuffer any other foreigners to enter their country, or trade with them.

Some of theſe people are Chriſtians, and others Mahometans, but the principal part of them are idolaters, and uſe all thoſe ſuperſtitious and ridiculous maxims practiſed in other idolatrous countries in Africa.

There are two ſmall diſtricts, called Mongalo and Angos, adjoining to the kingdom of Moſambique: the former is ſituated near the mouth of the river Cuama and is chiefly inhabited by Arabs; the other is alſo ſituated on a bank of the ſame river, about one hundred and ſixty miles from the former. Both theſe places are fruitful, producing abundance of rice and millet, as alſo great quantities of cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but intermixed with negroes, who are idolaters, and remarkable for the lowneſs of their ſtature. They have no covering to the upper parts of their bodies, but round their waiſt they wrap pieces of cotton or ſilk; and a turban is worn by ſome of the better ſort.

A commerce is carried on by the people of both theſe places with the inhabitants of Monomotapa, in gold, gum, elephants teeth, and other commodities.

Melinda is ſituated partly under the equinoctial line, and partly on both ſides of it, for its ſouthern boundaries lie under two degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and its northern extremity extends to the river Quilmanci, the

mouth of which lies ſome minutes to the north of the equator. Its extent weſtward is not certainly known, but it is ſuppoſed to be bounded on that ſide by the country of the Moſſegayes, a barbarous nation of the Caffres, and on the eaſt by the weſtern ocean.

The ſoil of this kingdom, which is well watered by rivers, is in general very fertile, and produces great abundance of the principal neceſſaries of life. It abounds alſo with a variety of fruit-trees, particularly orange, palm, and citron trees, the latter of which conſtantly perfume the air with an odoriferous ſcent: they have likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of cattle, with plenty of game and poultry. Some of their ſheep are remarkable for having large tails, which, on an average weigh from twenty to thirty pounds. Inſtead of bread, the poorer ſort uſe potatoes, which are here exceeding large, fine, and in great plenty, they having but little wheat or rice.

The complexions of the inhabitants of this country are very different, ſome of them being quite black, ſome of an olive colour, and others almoſt white, particularly the women.

With reſpect to their dreſs, the ladies of quality always appear in ſilk, and adorn their necks and arms with rings of gold. The common people wear only a looſe piece of cloth about their waiſts; but the better ſort have a garment made of cotton or ſilk, which reaches from the waiſt to the knees, and adorn their necks and arms with ſtrings of gold: the men wear a turban on their heads.

The capital city of this kingdom, called alſo Melinda, is ſituated in a very agreeable plain, and contains a great number of houſes, moſt of which are well built with free-ſtone. It is the reſidence of the king, and in it are a great number of rich merchants who trade with the Indians of Camboya in gold, ivory, copper, quickſilver, and all ſorts of ſtuffs. The Portugueſe are ſo numerous in this city, that they have built no leſs than ſeventeen churches and chapels in it; and they have alſo erected a ſtately croſs of gilt marble before one of the churches. The king's palace is a very ſpacious edifice, built of ſtone, and neatly ornamented; the apartments within are large, and decorated with very rich furniture.

The king is an arbitrary monarch; notwithſtanding which, he is greatly revered by his ſubjects, whoſe affection he obtains, by being always ready to liſten to and redreſs their complaints. Whenever he goes abroad, he is carried in a ſedan, on the ſhoulders of four of the greateſt men in the kingdom, and incenſe and other perfumes are burned before him as he paſſes along the ſtreets. When he goes on any particular expedition, he rides on a horſe richly capariſoned, amidſt the univerſal acclamations of his people. On theſe occaſions the prieſts ſacrifice a hind before him, and, whilſt the king's horſe is paſſing over it, they obſerve very narrowly the motions of the creature's entrails, and, from the obſervations they make upon them, pretend to foretel whether his expedition will be attended with ſucceſs. They alſo offer a ſacrifice of the ſame kind, and with the ſame views, whenever an ambaſſador arrives from a foreign prince, to treat with the king on any important buſineſs. At every town the king enters, he is always met by a number of beautiful women, ſome of whom preſent him with flowers, and others go before him ſcattering various kinds of perfumes; ſome of them make a kind of muſic by beating ſticks upon braſs baſons, while others join the melody of their voices with the ſound of other inſtruments, ſinging the praiſes of the king; in ſhort, they all endeavour to pleaſe and divert him, to the utmoſt of their abilities.

There are but few laws in this country, and thoſe wholly veſted in the power of the king. If any one is found guilty of murder, he is immediately puniſhed with death; but theſts and trifling offences are puniſhed only by fine. If any of the king's grandees are detected in having impoſed falſities upon him, they are ſentenced to pay a fine, or to receive a number of blows from the king's own hand, more or leſs, according to the greatneſs of the offence: in the latter caſe, the method of inflicting the puniſhment is as follows: They ſtrip the criminal naked, and lay him on the ground, in the apartment of the palace aſſigned for that purpoſe; the king then gives him a number of blows on his back and breech with a kind of whip made with two long pieces of leather faſtened to the end of a ſtick: as ſoon as the king thinks he has ſufficiently ſcourged him, he deſiſts, when the criminal riſes, puts on his cloaths, kiſſes the king's feet, and thanks him in the moſt reſpectful and ſubmiſſive manner. After this, the king orders him into his preſence-chamber, when he grants him a pardon in the preſence of his whole council, and forbids every one from reflecting on him for what has paſſed. The criminal is then conducted out of the palace with great pomp, perfumed torches being carried before him by the reſt of the nobles. They who calumniate their neighbours are alſo chaſtiſed in the ſame manner; but the puniſhment is inflicted by the king's officers, when this happens among the lower rank of people.

The people of this kingdom uſe bows and arrows, darts and ſhields for their weapons. They are ſaid to be the beſt ſoldiers on the whole coaſt of Zanguebar; notwithſtanding which, they would certainly have been overpowered by their neighbours, who have made ſeveral attempts on them, had not the Portugueſe conſtantly aſſiſted and protected them.

With reſpect to their religion, ſome of them are Mahometans, but the principal part are idolaters. The Portugueſe have made but few proſelytes in this kingdom, the people being obſtinately tenacious of their own religious principles. The former have uſed many efforts to bring them to a ſenſe of Chriſtianity; but as theſe have proved ineffectual, they have long ſince deliſted from any farther attempts, and now ſatisfy themſelves with the liberty they enjoy of exerciſing their own religion without moleſtation.

Sofala is a very extenſive kingdom, and, like that of Monomotapa, and others above deſcribed, is remarkable for containing many excellent mines of gold. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the Indian ſea; by the province of Manica, on the weſt; by the empire of Monomotapa, on the north; and by the kingdom of Sabia, on the ſouth. It is, properly ſpeaking, a continued coaſt, extending itſelf from the river Cuama, on the north, to that of Magnico, or De Spiritu Sancto, on the ſouth. The inland parts are very trifling in extent, being confined on the weſt by the empire of Monomotapa, notwithſtanding which, the whole kingdom is computed to be two thouſand two hundred and fifty miles in circumference at the leaſt.

Several rivers run through this country, the moſt conſiderable of which are the Cuama and the De Spiritu Sancto, both of which are ſuppoſed to take their riſe from the lake Goyama. The former received its name from the Portugueſe, but it is generally called by the natives Zambere. It receives in its courſe, among others of leſs note, the Mangania, Mazeno, and Suabo; and after being divided into two branches, diſcharges itſelf into the Indian ſea at four channels, from north to ſouth, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Kilimano, Linda, Cuama, and Luava. It is navigable upwards of one hundred and fifty leagues, and hath many large iſlands beſides thoſe formed by its ſeveral channels. This river waſhes down great quantities of gold, which the negroes gather when the waters are low, by diving to the bottom of ſuch parts of it, as from practice they know contain the greateſt abundance. They bring up the mud in buckets, which being properly levigated, the metal is afterwards eaſily diſcovered.

The principal capes on the coaſt, are, Corientes, St. Catharine, and Sebaſtian. The former is ſituated under the twenty-third degree of ſouth latitude: it is noted for the many rocks, ſands, and ſhelves, that lie between it and the iſland of St. Laurence, or Madagaſcar, and which cauſe frequent ſhipwrecks along that channel, to European veſſels.

The ſoil of this country, from the mouth of the river De Spiritu Sancto to Cape Corientes, is very uneven, barren and deſart; but from thence to the mouth of the river Cuama, it is very fertile, and produces great plenty of ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly rice and millet; in ſome parts of it there is alſo excellent paſturage, and the cattle bred here are alſo larger than in any part of Africa. The inland parts abound with various ſorts of wild beaſts, but particularly elephants, great numbers of which are annually killed by the natives, not only for the ſake of their fleſh, which is the chief part of their food, but alſo for their teeth, which they ſell to great advantage to the Europeans. The number of thoſe animals deſtroyed here by the natives, is ſaid one year with another, to amount at leaſt to four thouſand. But the climate of this kingdom is exceeding unwholſome, occaſioned by the vaſt number of marſhes in it, which, being dried up in ſummer by the ſcorching heat of the ſun, infect the air with peſtilential ſteams.

With reſpect to the inhabitants of this kingdom, they are in general well ſhaped, and have ſhort curled hair: they cover themſelves only from the waiſt to the knees, with a garment made of ſilk or cotton: but they adorn their arms, wriſts, legs, and ancles, with rings of gold, amber,

ber, or coloured beads; the better ſort have ſwords by their ſides, the handles of which are made of ivory curiouſly inlaid with precious ſtones, and they alſo wear a turban on their heads.

The people chiefly ſubſiſt on the fleſh of elephants: large and ſmall cattle, and fiſh, with which the rivers abound; and they uſe rice and millet, inſtead of bread. The better ſort have a kind of beer, made of rice and millet; they have alſo ſome ſtrong liquors made from honey, palm and other fruits; but the drink of the lower claſs is water.

The language of the country is chiefly ſpoken by the common people, but they alſo underſtand the Portugueſe and Arabic. The coaſters in general ſpeak the latter, which is indeed their natural language, for they are not the original natives, but the deſcendants of the natives, who ſettled themſelves more or leſs upon this whole weſtern coaſt, after having been expelled from their native country. The king and his court, with a great number of the principal people, are alſo the deſcendants of the Arabs, and not only ſpeak their language, but alſo ſtrictly profeſs the Mahometan religion; but the original natives are permitted to retain their antient cuſtoms, as alſo their religious maxims, the latter of which nearly reſemble thoſe practiſed by other African idolaters.

The only place of any note in this kingdom, and which is the metropolis of it, is called Sofala: it is pleaſantly ſituated on a ſmall iſland at the mouth of the river Cuama. Before the Portugueſe viſited this part of the coaſt, it was a very inconſiderable town, neither large nor walled, but fenced only with a thorny hedge; ſince their arrival, however, it has been greatly improved, and is now a very large and populous place. The Portugueſe have alſo built a ſtrong fortreſs here, which is of infinite ſervice to them, as it ſecures their ſhips in the harbour when they ſtop here in their paſſage to and from India. Both the fortreſs and iſland are tributary to the king of Portugal. The articles the Portugueſe purchaſe of the natives, are, gold, ambergris, ſlaves and elephants teeth; in exchange for which they ſupply the natives with ſilks, ſtuffs, cotton, glaſs beads, and other ſuch trinkets.

There are two other towns on the coaſt, near the town of Sofala, one of which is called Harlema, and the other Dardema; there are alſo ſeveral villages, but they do not merit particular deſcription, being inconſiderable places.

A great number of ſoldiers is kept by the king; theſe are all paid in gold duſt, each according to his rank. Since the arrival of the Portugueſe, they have been taught the uſe of fire-arms, of which they are very fond, and exerciſe them with great dexterity; but their original weapons were bows and arrows, the ſcymetar, javelin, dagger, and hatchet.

This country is frequently reſorted to by the inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, who come thither in ſmall boats called tambues, with ſtuffs of blue and white cottons, ſilk ſtuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory; and theſe again ſell them to the inhabitants of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return, without weighing it, ſo that the profit of the exchange is very conſiderable. This is the reaſon that when the Monomotapans come to purchaſe theſe articles, as ſoon as the Sofalans perceive their veſſels at ſea, they light fires on the ſhore, to teſtify their joy, and bid them welcome.

The gold mines of this kingdom are ſaid to yield about two millions of metigals per annum, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres; that the ſhips from Zidem and Mecca carry off above two millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Moſambique, whoſe office laſts but three years, has above three hundred thouſand crowns revenue, without including the ſoldiers pay, and the tribute annually paid to the king of Portugal. From hence many learned men have conjectured that this is the Ophir, whither Solomon ſent ſhips every three years from Ezion-geber to fetch gold; Ezion-geber being thought to be Suez, a ſea-port on the Red ſea. This conjecture is ſupported by the remains of ſeveral ſtately edifices, which are found in the different parts where the gold mines are ſituated, and, from their appearance, are ſuppoſed to have been originally palaces or caſtles built by that opulent prince the king of Iſrael. It may be alſo confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who tranſlate the word Ophir, 1 Kings ix. 28. into Sophira which has ſome reſemblance to its preſent name of Sofala. As a farther confirmation of theſe conjectures, Lopez, in his voyage to India, ſays, the inhabitants of this country, boaſt, that they have books to prove that the Iſraelites ſailed every third year to fetch gold from theſe parts, in the time of Solomon.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Republic of BRAVA; and alſo of the Kingdoms of MAGADOXA, or MAGADOSKA; and the Kingdom of ADEL, or ZEILA, &c. their Situation, Boundaries and Extent, principal Places, Produce, Inhabitants, their Traffic, &c.

THE republic of Brava, is the only one on the whole coaſt of Africa. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the coaſt of the ſame name, being bounded on each ſide by a river, ſuppoſed to be two branches of the great river Quilmancea. Its inland extent is inconſiderable; and the chief thing that renders it remarkable is its capital, which is alſo called Brava, and ſituated in one degree north latitude, between the two rivers or branches abovementioned, where it has a tolerably good harbour. It is a large city, and, with the whole republic, was founded by ſeven Arabian brethren, who fled hither to avoid the impending danger that threatened them from the tyranny of their king, who was one of the petty monarchs of Arabia Felix at that time.

Several ſtrong walls encompaſs this city, which is otherwiſe well fortified. The houſes are very ſpacious, and built after the Moreſco ſtile: they are chiefly inhabited by rich merchants, whoſe principal traffic conſiſts in gold, ſilver, elephants teeth, gums and other drugs, particularly ambergris, with which this coaſt abounds; alſo cotton and other cloths.

This republic is ſubject to an ariſtocratical government, the inhabitants having a right to chooſe twelve chiefs from among the moſt antient families, whom they intruſt with the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the management of all affairs.

The Mahometan is the prevailing religion of the inhabitants, who pay an annual acknowledgment or tribute to the king of Portugal, and the manner by which this republic became tributary to the Portugueſe is thus related:

Triſtran de Cugna, admiral of the Portugueſe fleet, having ſet on ſhore at Melinda three ambaſſadors, ſent by king Emanuel to the emperor of Abyſſinia, and recommended them to the care and protection of the king of it, continued his courſe northward along the coaſt, till he came to the city of Brava, where he caſt anchor, at the port. Here he diſpatched, according to the Portugueſe cuſtom, one of his officers, named Lionel Codingo, to wait on the heads of the republic, and offer them peace, and the friendſhip and alliance of the king his maſter. To this the chiefs anſwered, that they had no objection to enter into ſuch a treaty; but this anſwer proved to be only a piece of diſſimulation, and calculated to detain the fleet to its deſtruction, the ſeaſon being then near at hand, when ſuch boiſterous winds uſually blow in theſe parts as would daſh to pieces in the harbour all their ſhips.

This artifice being diſcovered by Cugna, he reſolved immediately to aſſault the city. Accordingly, before day-break, he drew up his men on the ſhore, and formed them into two lines, the firſt whereof conſiſted of ſix hundred men, the command whereof he gave to Alphonſo Albuquerque, whilſt he reſerved to himſelf the command of the others, which conſiſted of about ſix hundred ſoldiers. Brava was at this time garriſoned by four thouſand men, half of whom immediately ſallied out againſt them. The conflict was ſevere on both ſides: but the Portugueſe charged them with ſuch fury, that they found themſelves obliged to give ground, and made a very regular retreat into the city; after which, to prevent the army from following them, they ſhut all the gates.

Hereupon the place was immediately ſurrounded by the Portugueſe, who examined, with the utmoſt diligence, where they could beſt force an entrance; but were all that time terribly annoyed from within by burning torches, and other miſſile weapons caſt at them by the beſieged.

Albuquerque, having in the mean time diſcovered a weak part in the wall, began his attack there, but was quickly oppoſed by the garriſon, who flocked thither with all ſpeed, and defended it with ſurpriſing intrepidity. The conteſt was maintained with great ſpirit on both ſides, when, luckily for Albuquerque, the admiral came up; at whoſe approach the Moors were ſtruck with ſuch a panic, that they fled with the greateſt precipitation, whilſt the Portugueſe ſoldiers, eager for their prey, would have purſued them into the city, had not their commanders reſtrained them.

Soon after this ſucceſs, the aſſailants entered the city, and plundered it of a very large and valuable booty, which the Portugueſe immediately carried on board their ſhips.

Great numbers of the beſieged were ſlain and wounded, and many of them taken priſoners: but moſt of theſe were ſoon after releaſed. The Portugueſe had about fifty of their men killed, and many dangerouſly wounded, beſides eighteen others who periſhed in the long boat, which, through their inſatiable avarice, they had loaded ſo immoderately, as to occaſion it to overſet. Such too was the inhumanity of the Portugueſe ſailors, and ſuch their thirſt after ſpoil, that they cut off the arms of ſeven women, to come the more readily at their rings and bracelets; but Cugna deterred the reſt from this barbarity, by ſeverely puniſhing the perpetrators of this cruelty.

The victors having plundered the city, Cugna ordered it to be ſet on fire; and it was ſoon reduced to aſhes in ſight of the inhabitants, who ſtood at a ſmall diſtance, beholding the diſmal ſpectacle. From this cataſtrophe, they were forced to become tributary to their conquerors; for the Portugueſe would not permit them to rebuild their city, or enjoy their ancient privileges, on any other condition than that of paying the king of Portugal an annual acknowledgment, which from that time to the preſent has been regularly exacted and paid.

The kingdom of Magadoxa, or Magadoſka, is ſituated on the coaſt of Ajan, and reaches from five degrees forty minutes of north latitude, quite to the equinox, where the river or gulf of Jubo ſeparates the coaſt of Ajan from that of Zanguebar. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the ocean; on the weſt, by the kingdom of Alaba; on the north, by the kingdom of Adel; and on the ſouth, by the territories of Brava. It receives its name from the capital; ſituated at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, and which river, by reaſon of its annually overflowing like that of Egypt, is called by the Arabs the Nile of Magadoxa.

The country is likewiſe well watered by a number of canals that are cut from this river; ſo that the ſoil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of ſeveral kinds of grain, as alſo a variety of excellent fruits; it likewiſe affords good paſturage, for which reaſon the natives breed great quantities of cattle, particularly oxen and ſheep: they have alſo numbers of horſes, and in the inland parts are various kinds of wild animals, particularly monkies, baboons, and apes. The rivers alſo produce ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, which the inhabitants catch without any fear, they not being infeſted with crocodiles, or any other dangerous animals, as in moſt other parts of Africa.

The natives of this country are of different complexions, ſome of them being quite black, others of a tawny colour, and ſome almoſt white. They are very robuſt, and of a courageous and warlike diſpoſition. Their weapons are bows and arrows, the latter of which they infect with poiſon; they uſe alſo darts and lances in war.

With reſpect to the city of Magadoxa, it is tolerably large and well inhabited. Great numbers of merchants reſort to it from the kingdom of Adel, Camboya, and other parts, who bring hither ſtuffs of various ſorts, as alſo drugs and ſpices; in exchange for which they receive gold, ivory, wax, and other commodities, from the inhabitants.

The Mahometan religion is profeſſed by the king and his court, as alſo by the chief inhabitants of the city; but thoſe in the interior parts of the country ſtrictly adhere to their heatheniſh ſuperſtitions and maxims, being all of them idolaters.

As to the hiſtorical part of this country, we have only to obſerve, that an hoſtile attempt was made on its capital by the Portugueſe fleet, under the command of admiral Triſtran de Cugna, who, as we obſerved before, took the city of Brava, and reduced it to aſhes: their atchievments in this place are thus related:

Cugna, after the reduction of the laſt mentioned city, proceeded as far as Magadoxa, which he cauſed to be ſummoned, as uſual; to accept of peace and friendſhip, or, in plainer terms, of ſubjection, and tributaryſhip to Portugal. But here he found the inhabitants ready prepared to give him a ſuitable reception; great numbers of foot were patrolling along the ſhore, the walls were covered with armed men, and a conſiderable body of troops were drawn up before the town, which made Codingo, the officer ſent with the ſummons, afraid of going on ſhore; inſtead of which, he ſent one of the Brava captives to aſſure the Magadoxans, that the Portugueſe came not to denounce war, but to offer peace to them. They, however, knowing what dreadful execution had been made at the city of Brava, fell furiouſly upon the meſſenger, and tore him in pieces; they alſo threatened to ſerve Codingo in the ſame manner, if he offered to land; which obliged him to return to his admiral, and to acquaint him with the inſolent menaces of the enemy, and the ill ſucceſs he had met with.

On receiving this information, Cugna was ſo enraged, that he determined to bombard and ſtorm the place, but was happily diverted from his deſign by the perſuaſion of his officers and pilots.

The former repreſented to him the natural ſtrength of the place, the number of the garriſon, the great plenty of ammunition, and the valour and reſolution of the inhabitants: the latter pointed out the extreme danger that muſt unavoidably ariſe to the ſhips, both from the fire of the town, and the violence of the ſea, eſpecially as winter was then coming on, and the ſeaſon for ſailing nearly expired; ſo that if his troops ſhould miſcarry in their attempt againſt the place, their fleet and army muſt inevitably periſh. Theſe reaſonable obſervations induced Cugna to leave the brave Magadoxans in the peaceable enjoyment of their own poſſeſſions, and to relinquiſh all thoughts of proſecuting the deſign he had ſo precipitately formed; ſo that he gave orders for ſailing to the iſland of Socotora, where he ſoon after arrived with all his ſhips.

The kingdom of Adel, otherwiſe called Zeila, is bounded on the eaſt, by part of the eaſtern ocean; on the weſt, by the kingdoms of Daneali and Balli; on the north, by the ſtraits of Babelmandel; and, on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Magadoxa. Its full extent on either ſide is not certainly known; but along the coaſt, from north to ſouth, it is ſuppoſed to reach about ſeventy-two leagues, and about one hundred and ſixty from eaſt to weſt.

The ſecond name, which is given it, was taken from the capital called Zeila, which is ſituated to the ſouth eaſt of the mouth of the ſtraits of Babelmandel, near a very ſpacious and convenient bay. The city is tolerably large, and the ſtreets are regularly formed: the houſes are built of ſtone and mortar, and are in general very ſpacious, and divided into convenient apartments. The ſoil round the city is very barren, and ſo diſtreſſed are they for water, that they are obliged to go many miles to fetch that uſeful article. At ſome diſtance, however, from the city, the country is very fertile, and produces moſt of the neceſſaries of life, particularly corn and fruit, which are ſo plentiful, that the natives have not only a ſufficiency for their own conſumption, but alſo export great quantities to the neighbouring countries. They have likewiſe abundance of excellent cattle, eſpecially oxen, ſheep, and hogs; and in the woods are plenty of various ſorts of game. Beſides theſe, the country alſo produces gold, ivory, frankincenſe, and pepper, which the natives ſell to the merchants of Arabia and Camboya, who come hither with cloths, amber, necklaces, glaſs beads, dates, raiſins, and other commodities.

The people who inhabit the northern coaſt of this kingdom are of a tawny complexion, but to the ſouth are quite black. Both ſexes are ſtrong and well made, and have naturally good conſtitutions. They go almoſt naked, having only a looſe piece of cloth hanging from the waiſt to the knees; but they are very fond of ornaments, eſpecially the women, who decorate their arms, necks, and ancles with circles made of glaſs and amber beads. The king and nobility are diſtinguiſhed in their dreſs from the commonalty by having a kind of looſe garment, which covers the whole body from the ſhoulders to the ankles, and wearing caps on their heads.

Theſe people are naturally of a warlike diſpoſition, and are frequently at enmity with thoſe who inhabited the remote parts of Abyſſinia, as well out of zeal for religion, as in hopes of plunder: the former being all ſtaunch Mahometans, and the latter a puſillanimous ſort of Chriſtians, no ways equal to them either in valour, diſcipline, or warlike weapons. The arms of theſe people conſiſt chiefly of bows and arrows, lances, and javelins, all wretchedly fabricated; and the ordinary ſort amongſt them have hardly any thing better than long ſtaves, ſharp pointed at one end; whereas the Adelites are furniſhed by the Turks and Arabs, with variety of fire-arms, and other offenſive weapons, in exchange for which, they give them ſlaves, gold duſt, and ſuch other articles as they obtain from their neighbours, by plundering them in their excurſions.

There are in this kingdom ſeveral other large towns beſides Zeila, but the only one that merits any notice is called Barbora, ſituated at the bottom of a convenient bay, on an iſland of the ſame name. It hath been continually a kind of rival in commerce with Zeila, and is no leſs reſorted to by foreign merchants, who carry on the ſame

kind of traffic. It is ſituate oppoſite the city of Aden, and was once more conſiderable than it is at preſent, being plundered and a great part of it deſtroyed by the Portugueſe fleet under Triſtran de Cugna, who expected to have found a conſiderable ſpoil in it, but were greatly diſappointed, the inhabitants having had time enough to carry off their moſt valuable effects, and make their eſcape.

This town is ſituated on an iſland, which is very fertile, and produces abundance of different kinds of grain; as alſo plenty of fruits and cattle, great quantities of which are exported to foreign countries by the merchants.

With reſpect to the interior parts of the kingdom of Adel, they are chiefly flat, and they have ſeldom any rains; but this defect is ſupplied by the number of rivers that water the whole country. Among theſe, the moſt conſiderable is called Hawaſh, which is very broad and deep, and hardly inferior to the Nile, except in the length of its courſe; for it does not extend above ſix miles from its mouth, before it is divided into ſuch a number of canals as to be in ſome meaſure exhauſted before it reaches the ſea. This renders the ſoil ſo exceedingly fertile, that it produces great plenty of wheat, barley, and millet, and alſo feeds prodigious numbers of ſheep, cows, and other cattle.

Gold-duſt, elephants teeth, frankincenſe, and ſlaves, conſtitute the principal traffic of the natives in theſe parts of the kingdom; all which they get chiefly from the inhabitants on the borders of Abyſſinia, with whom they are continually at war, and miſs no opportunities of making inroads into ſome of their provinces, from whence they ſeldom return without great quantities of different kinds of plunder. Theſe they convey to the port of Zeila, where they ſeldom fail of meeting with merchants from Arabia, Camboya, and other ports, who will readily take them off their hands, and furniſh them with cloths of cotton, ſilk, linen, bracelets, amber, cryſtal, fire-arms, and other commodities, in exchange.

The eaſtern part of this coaſt is a mere ſandy and barren tract, producing neither corn, grain, fruit, or any animals except wild ones; for which reaſon it is generally called the Deſert coaſt. The northern part of it however makes amends; the ſoil being very fertile, and producing moſt kinds of proviſions, in which the inhabitants carry on a great commerce. It is particularly remarkable for producing an excellent breed of horſes, which are chiefly purchaſed by foreign merchants, for which the natives take ſilks, cottons, and other commodities, in exchange.

There are great numbers of negroes on the coaſt, who live and intermarry with the Bedouin Arabs (an idolatrous and ſuperſtitious ſect amongſt thoſe people), and like them, are inveterate enemies to the Abyſſinians, on whom they are continually making inroads. They carry on a conſiderable traffic in gold, ſlaves, horſes, ivory, &c. but they are brutiſh and arrant thieves, more particularly thoſe who live near the trading coaſts.

It is neceſſary to obſerve, before we conclude this chapter, that moſt geographers have, by miſtake, included the republic of Brava, with the kingdom of Magadoxa and Adel, under the general name of Ajan, though that is but a term accidentally given by the Portugueſe to the whole tract of coaſt called by that name, which extends itſelf from the ſtraits of Babel-mandel quite to the utmoſt verge of Africa on that ſide, or to the cape called Guardaſui; and on the eaſtern ſide from the ſaid cape, in the twelfth degree of north latitude, which divides it from the coaſt of Zanguebar, already deſcribed.

CHAP. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ABYSSINIA OR UPPER ETHIOPIA, ABEX, AND NUBIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account of ABYSSINIA; together with a Deſcription of the different Kingdoms and Provinces that now form that extenſive Empire.

ABYSSINIA, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and lies between the eighth and ſeventeenth degrees of north latitude, and between the thirty-firſt and fortieth of weſt longitude from London. It is bounded on the eaſt, by the Red ſea, and the coaſts of Abex, or Habeſh, which have been diſmembered from it, and now make a province of the Turkiſh empire; on the weſt, by the river Maley, which divides it from Shankala, or the country of the wandering Ethiopians, and falls into the Nile, after it hath run a conſiderable way into the Nubian dominions; on the north, by the kingdom of Nubia; and, on the ſouth, by Alaba. This country is of a thouſand miles extent; and has been known by the different names of Abyſſinia, Abaſſia, and Habeſſinia, the latter of which is obtained from the Arabic word Habeſh, ſignifying a mixture, or confuſion, it being inhabited by people of various nations. The inhabitants, however, reject theſe names, and call themſelves Itiopians, and their country Mangheſta Itiopia, or kingdom of Ethiopia; but the diverſity of names having heretofore made great confuſion, that of Abyſſinia at length prevailed, and by this it hath for ages paſt been univerſally known.

It may however be proper to ſay ſomething concerning the title that hath been abſurdly given to its monarchs, namely, that of Preſtor John, and which ſeems to have thus originated: in the kingdom of Tenduc, in Tartaria Proper, was an antient race of Chriſtian princes, who bore the title of Preſtor, or Preſbyter John, as it was corruptly called by the Europeans, though chiefly owing to an epithet which Ung-Chiang, one of the firſt of thoſe monarchs, either took of Preſtigian, or was complimented with by his ſubjects, that word ſignifying apoſtolical or orthodox, but which had by the Europeans been corrupted into Preſtor John, on ſuppoſition that he was a prieſt as well as king. The fame of this monarch was become ſo great, in the time of John II. king of Portugal, when the diſcovery of India was made, that he ſent Peter Covillan by land to make inquiry after him in India; but as he could hear nothing of ſuch a prince there, he (being informed that there was a potent Chriſtian emperor in Africa) took that country in his way home, and was ſo kindly treated by the reigning monarch, that this was the kingdom ſo much ſought after, though he could find nothing like the title of Preſtor John. This point, however, hath produced much controverſy among the learned world; ſome affirming the empire of Abyſſinia to be the real Preſtor John's country; while others, with much more reaſon, have treated that notion as abſurd and chimerical.

This empire was much more extenſive than at preſent, ſeveral of its kingdoms and provinces having been diſmembered from it by the incurſions of the Gallas, a barbarous people, of whom we ſhall treat hereafter.

The kingdoms and provinces that at preſent belong to it are as follow; namely, 1. Tigra, or Tigre; 2. Bagameder, or Bagamedri; 3. Amara, or Amhara; 4. Oleca and Choa; 5. Damota, or Damut; 6. Goyam, or Gojam; 7. Dambea; 8. Narea, or Enarea. We ſhall deſcribe each of them in the order here ſet down.

The kingdom of Tigra is the moſt conſiderable in the whole empire, and is remarkable for having in it the remains of the city of Axum, which was formerly the reſidence of the emperors; and though now abandoned by thoſe monarchs, and reduced to a mere village, is ſtill the place whither they repair to be crowned. It is bounded on

on the eaſt, by the Red ſea, on the weſt by Dambea, and part of Nubia; on the north, by Barnagaſs; and, on the ſouth, by the kingdoms of Angot and Begameder. Its length, from north to ſouth, is computed to be about three hundred miles, and its breadth about an hundred and ſixty.

The city of Axum, which was formerly very opulent, and the capital city of the kingdom, is the chief place of note in it. When in its proſperity, it was a large and well built city, as appears by its few remains; and ſituated on a ſpacious and delightful plain, watered by ſeveral rivulets, and was adorned with ſtately palaces, churches, obeliſks, arches, &c. There are particularly the ruins of a ſpacious and magnificent ſtructure, ſome of the ſtones of which are of a prodigious length and thickneſs; one of theſe, which is ſtill to be ſeen in the form of a pyramid, is one hundred and four cubits high, on a baſis of ten cubits, and raiſed on a plinth about two feet high. Beſides this, there were many other ſuperb buildings, all of which were reduced to a mere heap of ruins during the wars between the Gallas and the Abyſſinians; after which, the imperial court being removed, it ſtill farther declined, and has now ſcarcely two hundred houſes left, and they make but a mean appearance. The city is ſituated about forty Engliſh miles from the Red ſea; and though the way to it was ſo rocky and mountainous, that it took up ſeven days journey, yet it was well ſupplied from thence with various neceſſary articles. It was antiently the reſidence of queen Candace, and even of the famed queen Sheba, if the Abyſſinian accounts may be credited.

The town of Madgoga, which is ſituated on a hill, ſtands about ten miles ſouth-weſt of Axum: it was ſo called originally from the murmuring noiſe of a neighbouring rivulet; but afterwards received the name of Fremona, from the jeſuit miſſionaries, who had their reſidence in it, on account of one father Frumentius, the firſt of their order that came into theſe parts. This place became more celebrated by the long reſidence and death of father Andrea de Oviedo, ſent thither patriarch of Abyſſinia by the pope; after whoſe death it ſtill continued the reſidence and ſeminary of all the miſſionaries of that order that came into the country (the greateſt part of whom loſt their lives for the cauſe they came to eſtabliſh there, the ſupremacy of the church and pope of Rome) until their final expulſion out of the whole empire. There are ſtill the remains of a large monaſtery, that formerly belonged to the jeſuits in this town.

A town called Ambacanet is about a day's journey from Madgoga; and a little farther to the ſouthern frontiers is another called Manadela; but they are both inſignificant places, and very indifferently inhabited. To the northward of the latter, however, are two of the fineſt monaſteries in the whole empire, both of which were formerly occupied by the jeſuit miſſionaries; the largeſt of them is called Hallelujah, and the other Abugarina.

The town of Barnagaſs is the utmoſt extent of this kingdom, and reaches to the coaſt of the Red ſea, where it had formerly a famous ſea-port called Arquico, which rendered its commerce very conſiderable. This port, however, was ſome years ago ſeized by the Turks, ſince which Barnagaſs has gradually dwindled, and is now become ſo inſignificant as not to merit any farther deſcription.

The kingdom of Angot is ſituated to the north-eaſt of Tigra: it was one of thoſe wreſted from the Abyſſinian empire by the Gallas, who broke into it from the ſouthern parts, where they moſtly ſpread themſelves up to, or even beyond the line, and made themſelves complete maſters of it. It hath ſome few towns in it, viz. Angot, the capital: Doſarzo, ſaid to contain near one thouſand houſes. Abugana, once famed for having in it a handſome church called Imbre Chriſtos, and for being the capital of a conſiderable territory of its name. Beſides theſe, there are many others of leſs note, but they all contain wretched buildings, and no leſs deſpicable inhabitants.

Bagameder, or Bagamedri, lies weſt of Tigra, and extends from it to the Nile. It is about an hundred and eighty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth; but the greateſt part of it is mountainous, rocky, and inhabited by wild nations. It has ſome towns, particularly one of its own name, which is the metropolis, but it is an inconſiderable place, and the others are ſtill more unworthy of notice. This province is however divided into thirteen governments, moſt of which are fertile, and well watered by ſmall rivers.

Amara, or Amhara, lies to the ſouth of the laſt mentioned province, and on the weſt is divided by the Nile, which ſeparates it from the province of Gojam. It is computed to extend about forty leagues from eaſt to weſt, and has thirty-ſix diſtricts. This is conſidered as the moſt noble province in the empire, from its being the uſual reſidence of the Abyſſinian monarchs, and conſequently of the chief nobility. It has a peculiar dialect different from all the reſt, which is become that of the court, and of the polite throughout the empire. Here ſtand the rocks of Ambaguexen, where the princes of the blood were formerly confined and educated; and this province is conſidered as the center of the empire, at this time.

The province of Oleca, lies to the ſouth of Amhara, and is bounded on the eaſt by Angot, and on the weſt by Gojam, from which it is ſeparated by the Nile. It is a very ſmall province, and has nothing remarkable in any of its towns.

To the ſouth of Oleca, is ſituated the province of Choa, called alſo Xoa, and Shewa. It hath part of the country of Marabet on the north, Iſot on the eaſt, and Gojan on the weſt. It is divided into Upper and Lower Choa, and is the laſt province on the ſouth ſide that now acknowledges ſubjection to the emperor of Abyſſinia. The river Sambo, which runs into the Nile, parts it from the north, the Roma on the ſouth-weſt, and the Yema on the ſouth-eaſt; all which rivers ſpring from thoſe mountains that ſtand on the eaſtern borders.

Korkora, the capital, is almoſt the only town worthy of notice: it was once the imperial reſidence, at which time this province flouriſhed ſuperior to any other in the empire. Some remains of the imperial palace are ſtill to be ſeen; as alſo thoſe of a church, and a large monaſtery called Nazareth. Here are alſo ſome other towns that have monaſteries in them, particularly thoſe called Debra Lebanus, or Mount Lebanos; Menghеſtra Samajat, or kingdom of Heaven, and ſome others of leſs note. The general of the monks uſually reſided in the monaſtery at Lebanus.

The kingdom of Damota, or Damut, hath neither cities nor towns, the principal part of it being covered with high mountains; notwithſtanding which, it is ſo well peopled and cultivated, that the inhabitants of it were the firſt that made an inſurrection againſt the emperor, on account of the Portugueſe miſſionaries, which could not be quelled till they were wholly extirpated by the command of that monarch.

In this kingdom, there is, among others, a lofty hill called the Dead mountain: this is the higheſt and coldeſt in all Abyſſinia, and the place to which priſoners of ſtate, and ſuch others as the emperor determines to rid himſelf of, are ſent; for here they are ſoon ſtarved with cold and famine.

The river Maleg hath its ſpring head under one of the mountains in this kingdom, and, in its courſe towards the Nile, runs acroſs it.

There were formerly two places of reſidence for the Jeſuits in Damota, from whence they were driven by the inhabitants, in the inſurrection abovementioned.

On the other ſide of the Nile, and farther to the weſt, is the province of Goyam, or Gojam, which is almoſt encompaſſed on every ſide by that river, except to the north-eaſt, where it is bounded by the Dambean lake. Its length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt is ſomewhat above an hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt, where it is broadeſt, is about ninety, it contains twenty diſtricts or governments. This country is fertile, but in the middle is high and mountainous; and theſe eminences are partly inhabited by a people ſaid to be deſcended from Hagar, Abraham's Egyptian bond-maid.

The northern parts are altogether mountainous and rocky, and ſaid to be inhabited by Jews; but it is more probable that they are ſome of the ancient Abyſſinians, who have never yet embraced the Chriſtian religion; for though there are great numbers of Jews diſperſed through the whole empire, yet that people are never known to prefer deſart habitations before the inhabited plains and places of commerce: nor is it probable, that they would reſide among the inhoſpitable rocks, unleſs we ſuppoſe ſome rich mines lie hid amongſt them, which keep them more profitably employed.

There is alſo, about the neck or iſthmus made by the Nile, a very ſteep and almoſt inacceſſible mountain, on the top of which is an oval plain two hundred and fifty fathom in length, and one hundred and thirty in breadth; to which there are two paths as aſcents acroſs the rocks, and on one ſide a ſpring of excellent water. Farther towards the Nile is another plain ſeparated from this mountain by a natural trench, where there is a kind of camp, in which the viceroy reſides.

This

This kingdom has but few towns of note. The chief, and only one worth notice, is that called Nebeſſa, in which the empreſs Helena, governeſs to the emperor David, erected a magnificent church, which was afterwards deſtroyed by the Gallas, but rebuilt by the Jeſuits, who reſided in ſeveral parts of the kingdom. Some remains of this church are ſtill to be ſeen, but no idea of its original grandeur can be traced from them.

The kingdom of Dambea, is bounded on the ſouth by Gojam, from whence it is ſeparated by the Nile, and the lake of its own name; on the north, by Nubia; on the eaſt, by Tigra; and, on the weſt, by Changalia. Its length from eaſt to weſt is about ninety miles, and from north to ſouth about thirty-ſix excluſive of the lake, or ſeventy including it. It is one of the flatteſt territories in all Abyſſinia, ſo that it is frequently overflowed, not only by the lake of Dambea, but alſo the rivers that run through it from the higher lands; and on this account it is interſected almoſt every where with deep ditches and canals.

There is, on the eaſtern confines of this kingdom, a remarkable mountain called Dancas, or Dancaton; it is very high; and on the top of it is a ſpacious and fertile plain, where the emperors formerly reſided, with their court and retinue. Here alſo was an elegant building erected after the European manner, for the reſidence of the Portugueſe patriarch Mendez; a monaſtery for the Jeſuits; a church called Gambianet; and about nine hundred ſtone huts, or barracks, covered with ſtraw, for the ſoldiers attending on the emperor. But they have all been totally deſtroyed many years paſt.

Another exceeding high mountain ſtands oppoſite to this, and is ſo ſteep, that the natives uſed to flee hither for ſecurity when attacked by their enemies. On the eaſt ſide of it is the monaſtery of St. Euſtatius, ſo called from its firſt abbot of that name.

There is not a ſingle town in this province; in confirmation of which, Ludolph aſſures us, that the people here not only prefer the living in ſcattered villages and hamlets to towns, where houſes are contiguous, but likewiſe own themſelves at a loſs to conceive how it is poſſible to live in large or walled towns, and be there ſupplied with all the neceſſaries of life; ſuch utter ſtrangers are they to thoſe conveniencies uſed for the carrying on of commerce in other countries. This kingdom is divided into fourteen diſtricts, and governed by a viceroy, who has the title of Dambea Cantiba.

The things moſt worthy of notice here are the following: in the eaſtern part of the kingdom is a famous monaſtery called Ganeta Jeſu, ſituated on a low ground, but very pleaſant, and being well watered, is exceeding fertile. In the church belonging to this monaſtery are the monuments of the Abyſſinian emperors for ages paſt. Father Pais, a Portugueſe jeſuit, was ſo pleaſed with this ſpot, that he built here a church, as alſo a place for the emperor, after the European manner; but they have been both deſtroyed long ago.

There is between Ganeta Jeſu and the frontiers of Bagemeder, a ſmall but pleaſant territory, remarkable for a kind of market or fair kept in it for cattle, to which the inhabitants of moſt parts of the kingdom reſort. This territory was heretofore granted to the patriarch Mendez for his ſubſiſtence, and that of his fraternity. It is about nine miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about ſix from north to ſouth.

Contiguous to the kingdom of Dambea is a ſmall barren province called Fatigar. It was formerly a part of the Abyſſinian empire, but was diſmembered from it by the Gallas, who ſo ravaged it, that it hath not any thing now worth mentioning, except two high hills, one of which is called the Mountain of the Fever: it is ſituated near a plain, to which the Europeans have given the name of Market, becauſe moſt of the merchants of the neighbouring kingdoms reſort thither. The other is called the Mountain of the Lake, becauſe there is a lake about nine miles in compaſs, with ſeveral monaſteries round it, at the foot of it.

Several other ſmall kingdoms belonging to the Gallas, lie to the weſt of Fatigar; and on the eaſt and north-eaſt are the rivers Haowach and Machi, which join their ſtreams in the kingdom of Fatigar, and thence take their courſe through the kingdom of Adel, and the vaſt territories of the eaſtern Gallas.

Narea, or Enarea, which is the laſt kingdom or province worth notice, extends ſouth as far as the ſixth degree of longitude, and conſequently to the extremity of the empire. It was formerly governed by its own monarchs, who, as well as their ſubjects, were Pagans; but being conquered about a century ago, they embraced Chriſtianity. However, a conſiderable part of the country is ſtill unſubdued, and perhaps unconverted. The whole kingdom is eſteemed rich and fertile, and produces a great number of cattle. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade with the Caffres, who bring them abundance of gold, which they exchange for cloth, ſalt, and other merchandize.

The Nareans are allowed by the Abyſſinians themſelves to be the beſt and handſomeſt people in all Ethiopia. They are tall, ſtrong, and well ſhaped; and in their dealings honeſt, wiſe, faithful, and undiſguiſed. They are alſo brave and warlike, and have always defended their country with great gallantry againſt the incurſions of the wild and barbarous Gallas, who have ſubdued even half of the Abyſſinian empire. The tribute they pay to the emperor of Abyſſinia, appears rather to proceed from their loyalty than any force; for they receive no aſſiſtance from him againſt thoſe common invaders, nor does he maintain any ſtanding forces, garriſons, or fortreſſes, to keep them in awe. This kingdom is ſaid by ſome authors to abound in gold; but that is probably owing to the great quantity of that metal brought into it by the neighbouring Caffres, unleſs it be ſuppoſed that they deſignedly conceal and forbear ſeeking for it, leſt the fame of their wealth ſhould induce the Turks, or the plundering Gallas, to invade them, for the ſake of plunder.

The Gallas having obtained ſo conſiderable a part of the empire, it may not be improper to give ſome account of them. Theſe people, who are alſo called Galli and Balli, are commonly diſtinguiſhed according to their ſituation with reſpect to Abyſſinia, into eaſtern, weſtern, and ſouthern. They are a bold warlike people, who live by the ſword, and conſider that as giving the beſt title to every thing, and as being the ſureſt means of preſerving what they have acquired. They are brought up to arms from their infancy, and are early taught to love glory and conqueſt, and to deſpiſe ſlavery and death. Their youth are not allowed the privilege of cutting their hair, which they eſteem the badge of manhood, till they have killed an enemy or ſome ſavage beaſt. The greater number of brave actions a man has performed, the more he is reſpected; and this gives them the preſidence at councils and at feſtivals, on which account they ſave the heads of thoſe enemies that fall by their hands as the moſt valuable trophies. After an engagement they lay them before the proper officers on the field of battle, where they are regiſtered in favour of the perſons by whom they are brought: after which the owner may carry them to his own tent, together with his ſhare of the plunder, which is adjudged to him according to the ſhare he had in the victory, and the courage he diſplayed.

The bow and arrow, and the dart, when they fight at a diſtance, are their common weapons. Thoſe of high rank cloſe in upon the enemy with their ſwords, and the reſt have a club with one end hardened in the fire. Their ſhields are chiefly made of the hide of a bull or buffalo. They had formerly no cavalry, but have ſince learned to fight on horſeback; and though their horſes are but indifferent, yet they fight ſo cloſe, and in ſuch good order, that the Abyſſinians, though much better mounted, cannot bear the ſhock. It is even a capital crime among them to give way after the onſet is begun: hence they all fight to conquer or die, neither giving nor aſking quarter; ruſhing with ſuch fury on the foe, that it is very difficult to make head againſt them; whence they have gained many ſignal victories over Abyſſinian armies that have been much more numerous, and provided with better horſes and arms. Whenever therefore the Gallas make incurſions into the territory of an enemy, inſtead of truſting to numbers, they commonly chooſe a ſelect body of determined youths, not exceeding eight or ten thouſand at the moſt, who being all ſworn to ſtand by each other to the laſt, fight with ſuch intrepidity as ſeldom fails of putting into diſorder an enemy of twice or three times their number.

Agriculture they conſider as a ſlaviſh employment; and though they admire the bread they take from the Abyſſinians and other neighbours, are generally above ſowing corn; and if they do, leave that work to their ſlaves and women, while they follow what they eſteem the more manly exerciſes of war and hunting. They, however, feed numerous herds of cattle, and live chiefly upon their milk, and ſuch productions of the earth as the country affords, ſhifting from place to place for the ſake of paſture, always taking with them their families and cattle. They give a political reaſon for their indolence, which is, that if their lands produced plenty of corn, the Abyſſinians, and other enemies, might be tempted to invade them, and reap the

fruit

fruit of their labour; and if any neighbouring ſtates make incurſions on their territories, they immediately retire to ſome remote parts, with their wives, children, and cattle, in the latter of which conſiſts their principal wealth; ſo that the enemy, finding the country thus barren, are obliged either to return, or periſh for want of ſubſiſtence.

The Gallas, are ſaid to be divided into above ſixty tribes, each of which has a particular head or prince; and theſe chuſe from among themſelves a luva, or luba, who preſides over all the reſt, but whoſe authority extends only to military affairs, and is confined to eight years. This octennial chief convenes the grand council, in which the affairs of peace and war are determined; and if they agree upon the latter, he heads the army as commander in chief, diſtributing to each of the heads of the tribes his proper province and duty; and when the war or expedition is over, he aſſigns to each man his proper honours and rewards, according to his merit: but if any diſpute or matter of complaint ariſes, it is adjudged by the national council, who alone have a power to confirm, alter, or abrogate the ſentence or decree which the luva has pronounced.

That we may enable the reader to form an idea of the mock dignity preſerved by theſe chiefs, as well as the ſingular method in which they treat thoſe who requeſt audience of them, we ſhall relate the following particulars, as given by father Lobo, who had an opportunity of ſeeing the whole: "Being, ſays he, obliged to pay my reſpects to the luva, or chief, in order to diſcover a new way into Abyſſinia, I found him with all his wives and flocks about him; the place where he received me being a hut thatched with ſtraw, but ſomewhat larger than thoſe of his ſubjects. He appeared with all the ſeeming conſequence of an eaſtern monarch, and his attendants paid him the moſt reverential reſpect. His manner of giving audience to ſtrangers is ſomewhat ſingular: he appears ſeated in the middle of the apartment, with all his courtiers about him, ſitting againſt the wall, each with a goad, or ſtaff, or club in his hand, longer or ſhorter, according to his rank; the longer are the more dignified. As ſoon as the ſtranger enters the place, all theſe courtiers fall foul of him, and baſtinado him till he has regained the door, and got hold of it with his hand; upon which they return to their ſeats, and he is complimented as if nothing of this kind had happened. I myſelf, ſays he, did not fare one jot better, notwithſtanding the peaceable and friendly offices that had paſſed between us; and when I aſked the meaning of ſo ſtrange a ceremony, I was anſwered, that it was to make thoſe that came among them ſenſible of the valour and bravery of their nation above all others, and how reaſonable it is that they ſhould behave ſubmiſſively to ſuch a people."

Notwithſtanding the Gallas are naturally cruel and barbarous, yet they are not without ſome good qualities: they are honeſt and true to their promiſe, and are never known to violate an oath. They conſider this as moſt ſolemn of all engagements; the ceremony of which is thus performed: they bring a ſheep to a proper place appointed, where they anoint it with butter; after which the perſons (or, if it be taken in the name of a tribe or family, the heads of it) lay their hands upon the head of the ſheep, and ſolemnly proteſt, that they will religiouſly obſerve every part of their engagement. The explanation they give of this ceremony is, that the ſheep is, in ſome ſenſe, the mother of all that ſwear, and the butter is an emblem of the mutual love of the mother and her children; and, conſequently, that when a man hath taken an oath upon the head of his mother, he ought never to violate it.

As to their religion, they acknowledge one ſupreme Being, as governor of all ſublunary things, but have not any mode of worſhip, being extremely ignorant of every thing relating to religion. When the Romiſh miſſionaries were here, many of them embraced Chriſtianity, to which for ſome time they ſtrictly adhered; but they have laid their religion aſide, and followed their original maxims, ever ſince the expulſion of the jeſuits.

SECT. II.

Deſcribing the Mountains, Rivers, Soil, Produce, and Animals of ABYSSINIA; containing alſo an Account of the Inhabitants, their Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms, together with their Buildings and Furniture: alſo their Marriages and Funeral Rites.

ABYSSINIA, is interſected throughout with a great number of prodigious high mountains, between which are ſuch dreadful precipices as muſt naturally ſtrike terror into the beholder. Some of them have very large plains on the tops covered with trees and other verdure, and afford ſprings of excellent water; and ſome of them are ſo well cultivated as to produce moſt of the principal neceſſaries of life.

Theſe ſtupendous hills, which the natives call Dambas, appear at a diſtance with a delightful variety of ſhapes. Some of them reſemble pyramids, and others look like towers of various ſhapes. Some are of an equal ſquare, others as perfectly round as if they had been turned or wrought with the chiſſel. Some again ſo deceive the eye, that when you arrive at what you ſuppoſe to be the top, you diſcover it only to be the foot of another, no leſs difficult to aſcend, and equally high and craggy.

That our readers may form a proper idea of one of theſe ſtrange natural productions, and the great danger and difficulty there is in aſcending them, we ſhall preſent the reader with an account of that called Guza, ſituated in the kingdom of Tigra, which travellers who come from the Red ſea are obliged to croſs, in going to Dambea: when you have gained the top, it opens to your view a handſome ſpacious plain, in the midſt of which ſtands another mountain of equal height, which you muſt alſo go over, after you have ſufficiently refreſhed yourſelf on the fertile and delightful top of the Guza. The aſcent takes up about half a days journey, and goes winding all the way up; the paths are very narrow, and cut into the ſide of the ſolid rock; and all the way you go preſents you with a moſt deep and dreadful precipice, the bottom of which cannot be reached by the naked eye, but only offers a gulf, which at once makes the head giddy, and fills the heart with a continual dread. Should any of the caravans that keep going up and down theſe ſteep and narrow roads, chance to meet another in its way, they are in the greateſt danger, both man and beaſt, of being thrown down the precipice, and broken into a thouſand pieces before they reach the bottom, unleſs they take the utmoſt care in paſſing by one another. The mules are by far the beſt for thoſe that ride, becauſe they are the ſureſt footed; but they have an ill faculty with them, that they will always go cloſe to the edge of the precipice, and cannot without great riſque be turned to the other ſide of the road, or be kept to it when they are. What adds ſtills more to the horror of the journey, whether it be up or down the ſteep declivity, is, that at the bottom of the valley below there commonly runs a ſwift torrent of water, with a moſt hideous roar, which being echoed by the adjacent rocks, and often heightened by loud winds; as well as by the continual trampling of the men and beaſts upon the rock, increaſes the horrid din to ſuch a degree, that one cannot poſſiby hear one's ſelf, much leſs another ſpeak, though ever ſo loud, or ever ſo near the perſon.

The wiſhed-for ſummit being however once attained (which is reckoned above three hundred fathoms perpendicular above the plain top of Guza, and the moſt difficult part of all the way, being only provided by nature with a ſort of ſteps like winding ſtairs, two or three cubits high, and uncouth, on both ſides of the rock), one is made ample amends by the beautiful proſpect it at once preſents to the view, which is not that of rugged and interſected peaks above, and deep gaping vallies beneath, as might be expected, but of a ſmall, though delightful plain, about two miles in compaſs, and a muſket ſhot in breadth, and terminated at one end by a new, flat, and upright rock, like the back of a chair, of which this little plain is the ſeat, ſo that take the whole mountain together, that of Guza ſeems to be a kind of pedeſtal to this; and the latter, which the natives call Lamalmon, repreſents, in ſome meaſure, a chair without arms, the back of which is the upright rock at the end of the plain, which is as perpendicular as if it had been hewn out with a chiſſel. Along what we may call the ſeat of this wonderful and ſupereminent chair, is pleaſantly ſituated a town of the ſame name, whoſe inhabitants make a decent livelihood by helping the caravans to load and unload the beaſts of burden a good part of the way of the craggy aſcent beforementioned, in order to help them to leap from one ſtep to another; ſo that one would be ſurpriſed to ſee with what facility they make the beaſts climb and keep their feet, while they themſelves convey their burdens from one ſtair to another, through every difficult part of this extenſive aſcent. Thus far the deſcription of this remarkable mountain, as given by the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory.

In this country, there are other mountains of much the ſame nature as the above, particularly one ſituated between the kingdoms of Amhara and Oleca. But the moſt conſiderable of them all is that called by the natives Thabat Mariam, or more properly Tadbaba Mar-jam, whoſe ſum-

mit greatly exceeds all the reſt, and is at the ſame time very ſpacious. This remarkable mountain, whoſe bottom is watered by two large rivers deſcending from it, hath on its ſummit ſeven handſome churches, one of which dedicated to St. John, is exceeding beautiful, having been formerly the burial place of the Abyſſinian emperors: within ſide are at this time five monuments erected to the memory of thoſe monarchs: the arms of Portugal are repreſented on them, and they are covered with tapeſtry.

In the kingdom of Gojam there is a remarkable hollow and high rock: directly oppoſite to which, at a ſmall diſtance, is another much at the ſame height and bulk, ſo exactly placed by nature, that it echoes back a word barely whiſpered in the former with amazing force; and the joint voices of three or four perſons ſpeaking together, produces a ſound not inferior to that of a numerous army ſhouting.

Here are many excellent rivers in this country: the moſt conſiderable of which, beſides the Nile, which takes its riſe here, are the following: 1. The Tacazee, ſuppoſed to be the Aſtabores of Ptolomy; it riſes in the kingdom of Angot, and, after many conſiderable windings, firſt eaſt, then north, then weſt, and then north again, diſcharges itſelf at length into the Nile: this river, though not ſo large as that it runs into, is in many places very deep, and abounds with crocodiles and ſea-horſes, as alſo that remarkable fiſh called the torpedo, already deſcribed. 2. The Mareb, or Moraba, which comes down from the coaſts of Habeſh, or Abex, and runs moſtly north-weſt through the kingdom of Tigra and other provinces, and at laſt falls into the Tacazee. 3. The Maley, which riſes in Damut, and, after a courſe of ſome ſcore leagues to the weſtward, turns northward toward Narea, waters Biſamo and Faſcala, weſtward of the Nile, and then diſcmbogues itſelf into the White river. 4. The Bahr el Abiad, or White river, which ſprings in Biſamo, receives the Maley, and ſurrounds the kingdom of Changara on the weſt, dividing it from thoſe of Gorham and Gagoa, and falls into the Nile about ſixty leagues below Nubia. 5. The Zebee, which riſes in the kingdom of Narea, and is little inferior to the Nile: it takes its courſe firſt weſtward, then eaſtward, and after that ſouthward; when it ſurrounds in ſome meaſure the kingdom of Gingiro into a peninſula, as the Nile doth that of Gojam; after which, it continues its courſe ſouthward, and at laſt empties itſelf into the Indian ocean. 6. The Howaſh, or Haowache, which runs through the kingdoms of Gan, Fatagar, Bally, &c. and loſes itſelf at laſt in the ſandy deſart in the kingdom of Adel. This river makes ample amends to the inhabitants for the want of rains, which ſeldom fall in this part of the country; and being, like the Nile, drawn into numerous channels, enrich all that tract, by watering their fields, and fertilizing their vallies; ſo that they produce moſt of the articles neceſſary for the preſervation and ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, particularly plenty of corn and cattle.

In this country, beſides the above, are great numbers of ſmaller rivers, the chief of which fall at length into the Nile, and the reſt into the Indian ſea. The people cut canals from theſe rivers, to water their lands, which in ſome parts are made ſo rich and fertile, that they yield annually two or three crops.

Several large lakes are alſo here, the moſt conſiderable of which is that called by the Europeans Dambea, and by the natives Bahr Tzana, or ſea of Tzana, from the chief iſland in it of that name. This lake is ſituated in the kingdom of Dambea, and is computed to be about thirty leagues in length, twelve in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in compaſs, excluſive of its deep bar, creeks, and other windings. The country round about it is plain, fertile, and pleaſant; and the inſide of the lake abounds with a multitude of iſlands of different ſizes, the largeſt of which are inhabited by Abyſſinian monks. About ſeven or eight of theſe iſlands contain the remains of large monaſteries, which appear to have been formerly ſtately edifices; and among the natural productions of them are ſuch fine citron and orange trees as are not to be equalled in any other part of the empire. One of theſe iſlands, and the moſt barren of them all, is called by the natives Dek, and is the place where ſtate priſoners are uſually confined.

The Abyſſinians ſail on this lake in flat-bottomed boats, which they call tancoas; they are not made of wood, but of a kind of ruſhes that grow on its banks, each of which is about the thickneſs of a man's arm, and about two yards in length. They call theſe ruſhes tambua, the like of which grow alſo on the banks of the Nile, and are uſed for the ſame purpoſes. Theſe laſt are thoſe which the antients call papyrus, and were ſerviceable to them not only in making their boats, ſails, and other tackle, but alſo their paper.

This lake is attended with one great inconvenience, which is, that it breeds great numbers of ſea horſes, which not only endanger the navigation, but deſtroy the fiſh, and ſometimes make conſiderable ravages in the land. However, the people that live on its banks make it their buſineſs to deſtroy theſe animals, not only to ſecure their corn and other grain from being deſtroyed by them, but alſo for the ſake of their fleſh, of which they are very fond; they likewiſe cut their ſkins into long ſtraps, called allongas, which they uſe to ſcourge their horſes with, inſtead of whips.

With reſpect to the climate of this country, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, from its ſituation, that it is exceeding ſultry; but the extreme heat is only felt in the vallies or low lands, for the hills, or ridges of mountains (moſt of which are of a prodigious height, as we have lately obſerved), enjoy an agreeable coolneſs; inſomuch that there are ſome parts where the ſummers are leſs ſultry than in Portugal; and others, where the inhabitants are more afraid of cold than heat. This difference of climate is, however, frequently productive of violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning, which are ſometimes ſo terrible as to be very deſtructive both to man and beaſt. Theſe ſtorms are alſo generally attended with exceſſive rains, which are frequently ſo violent, that their ſtreams carry away with them trees, houſes, and even hills, whilſt all the rivers overflow, and lay the country under water; and after the water retires, the lands and roads are ſo covered with a thick ſlimy mud, that they become for ſome time intirely impaſſable. But the greateſt inconvenience that attends theſe rains, is, that they infect the air with a dangerous malignancy; for, falling on a ground that hath lain dry and almoſt parched up for a conſiderable time, they naturally raiſe ſuch vaſt quantities of unwholſome vapours, as ſeldom fail to produce ſome violent diſtempers, from which even thoſe are ſeldom excepted, who remain altogether at home.

They have properly ſpeaking, three ſeaſons here; namely, the ſpring, which begins at the latter end of September; the ſummer, which commences on the 25th of December; and the winter, which begins on the 25th of June. They divide the ſummer into two parts, of three months each; the firſt of which they call Tzadai, and is the moſt ſultry and diſagreeable; and the other, which is much more moderate and pleaſant, they call Hagai.

The winds alſo of this country differ, as well as the climates: ſome eſpecially on the high lands and lofty mountains, are very refreſhing and pleaſant; while others on the low lands, where the air is leſs agitated, are hot and very unhealthy. They are ſubject to one in particular, which is rather a hurricane, and is called in their language ſengo, or ſerpent. This is ſometimes ſo violent, that it overturns houſes, tears up trees by the roots, and is frequently very prejudicial to the ſhipping. But notwithſtanding theſe inconveniencies, this wind has ſome good property, as it clears the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwiſe ſtagnate, and prove infectious not only to men, but to other creatures in general.

The lands in Abyſſinia are ſome of them ſo fertile as to yield two or three harveſts of very good millet, barley, and wheat. They have no rye, inſtead of which they make uſe of a ſmall grain called teff, which is of much the ſame taſte and flavour, and yields very good nouriſhment. It is ſmaller than our poppy ſeed, and a little oblong; but at the ſame time the people in general live very poorly, and even naſtily, and their cattle ſeem to fare much better than they do themſelves. As they have no oats, they feed their horſes, camels, dromedaries, and other large beaſts with barley; for though their low lands produce plenty of graſs ſufficient to feed a prodigious number of cattle, yet they never make any hay, which is here the more neceſſary, as it muſt be frequently ſcorched up by the heat of the ſun, and even when it is moſt plentiful, it is liable to be deſtroyed by the vaſt flights of locuſts, with which they are ſometimes infeſted, which cover the ſurface of the earth, and ſoon devour every blade of graſs, beſides other vegetables.

A conſtant verdure is ſaid to crown the trees of this country, and if the inhabitants have a ſcarcity of fruit, it is rather owing to their negligence than to any fault of the ſoil, which is capable of producing as great a plenty and variety of them as any country in Africa. They cultivate the black grape, peaches, ſour pomegranates, ſugar canes, and ſome citrons and oranges: they have alſo ſeveral kinds of figs,

figs, and among others one called enſette, which grows to a prodigious ſize, and which Ludolph has endeavoured to prove to be the dudaim of Moſes, which is rendered mandrakes in our and other tranſlations.

Here are not only the ſame variety of medicinal and odoriferous plants, herbs, and roots that are to be met with in Europe, and which alſo grow without cultivation, but many more unknown to us. The country produces great quantities of ſenna, and there are plains, covered with cardamums, and a kind of ginger that has a moſt agreeable ſcent, and is four times as large as that of India. To theſe we may add the aſſaſo, which has ſuch an effect, that it ſtupifies the ſerpents and venomous reptiles that approach it, and its root is a certain cure for thoſe who are bitten by thoſe creatures. Here are alſo great numbers of the cotton ſhrub which produces cotton in great abundance.

During the greateſt part of the year, the banks of the rivers are adorned with jaſmines, roſes, lillies, jonquils, and a prodigious number of flowers unknown in Europe.

This country produces a great variety of both domeſtic and wild animals: among the former are camels, dromedaries, horſes, aſſes, mules, cows, ſheep with great tails, and goats, which are bred in vaſt numbers, they being the principal wealth of the inhabitants. Their fat oxen are ſaid to be of ſo monſtrous a ſize, that at a diſtance they have been miſtaken for elephants: whence it has been ſaid that horned elephants were common in Abyſſinia, and theſe horns travellers have repreſented as being ſo large, that one of them will contain above ten quarts of liquor, and ſay they are uſed by the people inſtead of pitchers and other veſſels to carry wine, milk, or other liquids. But beſides theſe large oxen, which are fatted for ſlaughter, they have an ordinary ſort deſigned for labour and carriage, whoſe horns are ſaid to be ſo ſoft and flexible, that they hang down like a dead weight from their heads.

Here is a very fine breed of horſes, which, like thoſe of Europe, are of various colours, but the black are the moſt numerous, and in the greateſt eſteem. Theſe are only uſed for war and for travelling. In long journies they make uſe of mules, which are commonly very gentle, ſure footed, and fit for the craggy mountains; they have a quick eaſy pace, and in travelling are commonly preferred by the Abyſſinians to their beſt horſes.

They have here, among the animals of the camel kind, the camelopardus, which is ſaid to be much taller than an elephant, but as ſlenderly made as that is clumſy and unweildy; its fore legs are repreſented as of an amazing length, and though the hinder are ſomewhat ſhorter, its belly is ſo far from the ground, that a tall man may eaſily paſs under it without ſtooping. The neck is of a proportionable length to enable it to reach the ground, and feed upon the graſs, which is the food it chiefly lives on.

Elephants are here extremely numerous, and none were ever known to be brought up tame in this empire. They make dreadful havock among the corn and other grain, much more being deſtroyed by trampling it down, than by what they eat.

The zebra is one of the moſt beautiful animals in this country, it is of the ſhape and ſize of a mule, but more ſleek and ſlender; it is here curiouſly marked with white, black, grey, and yellow ſtreaks acroſs the back from the neck to the tail. This animal is not, however, very common, ſince it is ſo much admired as to be thought a preſent of ſufficient value to be offered to the monarch. We have already deſcribed this creature more at large.

Lyons, tygers, panthers, leopards, wolves, monkies, foxes, wild cats, civet cats, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, and a varitey of other animals, abound in this country.

Travellers who have viſited Abyſſinia mention a very extraordinary animal, which is probably one of the many ſpecies of monkies. They repreſent it no bigger than a cat; but as having the face of a man, with a mournful voice. It lives upon the trees, where they ſay it is brought forth, and dies: but it is ſo very wild, that there is no poſſibility of taming it; for when any of them have been caught in order to bring them up, all the care that can be taken of them will not prevent their pining themſelves to death.

This place is ſtocked with a great variety of the feathered kind, both wild and tame, many of which are found in Europe; but thoſe here excel ſeveral of ours in beauty and ſize, particularly their partridges, which are ſaid to be as large as our capons; they have ſeveral kinds of them, as alſo of pigeons and turtle-doves. Among the birds which ſeem in a manner peculiar to this country is the maroc, or honey-bird, ſo called from its particular inſtinct in diſcovering the hidden treaſures of the induſtrious bees, which they feed upon.

The largeſt and moſt unwieldy of all the feathered race, namely, the oſtrich, is common, not only here, but in the greateſt part of Africa. In this country are alſo the pipi, ſo named from its conſtantly uttering thoſe two ſyllables, and it is ſaid to direct huntſmen to their game, when it feeds on the blood of the beaſt killed by its direction. The cardinal is ſo called by the Portugueſe from the beautiful redneſs of its feathers, except thoſe on its breaſt, which reſemble the fineſt black velvet; and the white nightingale is a beautiful bird that has a tail two ſpans in length.

A multitude of obnoxious animals infeſt theſe parts, particularly ſerpents and inſects; many of the former are extremely venomous, and their bite attended with almoſt inſtant death, if an effectual remedy be not immediately applied. But none of theſe are capable of doing an hundredth part of the miſchief produced by the locuſts, which ſometimes appear in ſuch thick clouds as to eclipſe the light of the ſun, and to lay whole provinces deſolate by their ravages.

The crocodile and hippopotamus, or river horſe, are the largeſt and moſt deſtructive of their amphibious animals. It is not eaſy to conceive how this animal came to be called a horſe, to which it has ſcarce any reſemblance: Its body is like that of an ox, but is twice as big as that of a bull; its legs are ſhort, and reſemble thoſe of a bear, it having large round feeet, with four claws in each; its tail is like that of an elephant, and it has no more hair on its body than there is upon that animal. In the lower jaw it has four large teeth, two of them crooked like the two tuſks of a wild boar, and the other ſtrait, but ſtanding forwards, and all of them as thick as the horns of an ox. Its eyes and ears are ſmall conſidering its bulk; but it has a wide mouth, great open noſtrils, and an upper lip like a lion's, on which grows a briſtly beard. He ſpends the day commonly in the water, and the night on the land, when he feeds on the graſs, which is his principal food; his teeth, on account of their not being ſubject to turn yellow, are eſteemed more valuable than ivory.

The rivers and lakes abound with a variety of fiſh, among which is the torpedo, whoſe peculiar benumbing quality, on being touched by the finger while alive, we have already given an ample account of.

With reſpect to their perſons, the Abyſſinians are generally tall and well-ſhaped; their complexions may be called black, but ſome of them are inclined to the tawny, and to a reddiſh brown. Among them, the olive is reckoned the fineſt complexion, and next to that the jet black, but the reddiſh, and particularly the yellowiſh brown, is eſteemed the moſt diſagreeable. They have regular and agreeable features, and their eyes are black, briſk, and lively: their noſes are not flat, nor their lips protuberant, as among the natives of Guiney.

Theſe people are ſtout and ſtrong, briſk and healthy; and their labour, together with the temperance they uſe in eating, prolong their lives to a good old age. Moſt of them are ſo nimble and active, as to climb up the talleſt trees, or ſteepeſt rocks, with ſurprizing eaſe and agility. The women greatly exceed thoſe of Europe and Aſia in ſtrength and ſprightlineſs; they breed eaſy, are delivered without help, and can take care both of the child and themſelves, without the aſſiſtance of a nurſe. Indeed, except where they are weakened by a ſedentary life, this ſtrength of conſtitution is common to all the women in theſe hot climates.

The men of quality wear a long veſt, either of fine ſilk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich ſcarf; that of the citizens is much the ſame, but of cotton only, they not being allowed to wear ſilk, neither is their cotton of the ſame fineneſs. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of ſcarf, with which they looſely cover the reſt of their bodies; and, till about a century ago, this was the general dreſs of all the people, none but the emperor, the royal family, and ſome diſtinguiſhed favourites, being allowed to wear any other; and this ſcarf, or a piece of cloth, ſerves then to wrap themſelves in at night.

The habit of the women is allowed to be as fine and genteel as their circumſtances will admit; for they are far from being kept in ſo recluſe a manner as thoſe among the more eaſtern nations. Thoſe of high rank uſually dreſs in the richeſt ſilks and brocades, their upper garments are wide and full, not unlike ſurplices: they adorn their heads and hair an hundred different ways, and take care to have the richeſt pendants in their ears; beſides they ſpare no expence in adorning their necks with the

moſt

moſt coſtly ornaments of chains, jewels, and other decorations.

The natives of both ſexes are extremely curious about the management of their hair, on which they laviſh a great deal of butter, to render it ſmooth and ſhining. This vanity is perhaps the more excuſeable, as none but the emperor is allowed to wear either cap or other covering for their head, which, as they have a great deal of idle time upon their hands, is an inducement to them to beſtow ſome part of it in this amuſement. Indeed their hair not being apt to grow thick and long, but moſtly thin and frizly, ſome additional art ſeems neceſſary to keep it in tolerable order, ſo as to diſtinguiſh each ſex; and therefore while the men take much pains in braiding it up in various forms, the women ſtrive to have it hang looſe in a variety of curls and ringlets, except the foretop, which according to their rank, they take ſtill greater pains to adorn with jewels and trinkets.

Their dreſs, upon the whole, is chiefly accommodated to the climate. The heat is ſo exceſſive, that they can hardly ſuffer any cloaths to touch the fleſh; which makes them contrive, during the heat of ſummer, to have them as light, and to hang as looſe as poſſible. Hence the cloth that covers their bodies is thrown looſely over them, their breeches likewiſe, and the women's drawers, are made wide and long; but in the cooler ſeaſons they bring them much cloſer to their bodies, and the rich then appear in handſome veſts, open only to the waiſt, and cloſed with ſmall buttons; theſe have ſmall collars, and very long and ſtrait ſleeves gathered in at the wriſt. Some authors have miſtaken them for ſhirts; though according to the ſeaſon and their circumſtances, they wear another light garment under them, next to the ſkin, made of thin taffety, ſattin, or damaſk.

The Abyſſinians are not ſo temperate in their drinking as in their food, eſpecially at their feaſts, where after a full meal they uſually drink to exceſs: agreeable to one of their proverbs, "Plant firſt, and then water." Their liquors are rendered more tempting than their meat. As they have plenty of honey, their mead is excellent; they have likewiſe ſome other liquors made of various fruits, and a third ſort made of barley without hops. Theſe exceſſes are attended with no ill conſequences, for they live peaceably, and ſeldom quarrel among themſelves; or if they do, their conteſts ſeldom go farther than exchanging a few blows; and in matters of conſequence, they generally decide the controverſy by umpires choſen amongſt themſelves, or lay the affair before the ruler of the place. Here they are allowed to plead their own cauſe without the help of a lawyer: and when judgment is given, whether by the judge or the arbitrator, they without the leaſt grudge, murmur, or appeal, ſubmiſſively acquieſce in it.

The men and women are ſaid in general to be witty and ingenious; but thoſe of the kingdom of Nerea are deemed to exceed the reſt in ſenſe, bravery, generoſity, affability, and other ſocial virtues. They are extremely inquiſitive and fond of learning; yet the people of Tigra, and the neighbouring kingdoms are repreſented as being for the moſt part perfidious, cruel, revengeful, haughty, and inconſtant.

Though there is but little learning found among the Abyſſinians, that defect is rather for want of proper means, than of capacity to attain it, for they are naturally docile and fond of knowledge, which is acknowledged to have been one of the principal motives that induced them to give the jeſuit miſſionaries ſo kind a reception at their firſt coming amongſt them.

An intire negligence appears here reſpecting the ſymmetry and architecture of their buildings; which is owing to their living in huts or camps, after the manner of their monarchs: ſo that except a few old royal palaces, here are neither public ſtructures nor private buildings worthy of notice to be ſeen throughout the whole empire; for thoſe they ſtile houſes would hardly deſerve the name of huts among us, they being built of clay and lathes put together in the meaneſt and moſt ſlovenly manner, ſo as to be eaſily raſed, and as readily abandoned, when they think proper to ſhift their quarters. Theſe buildings belong to the inferior ſort, who follow the royal camp, and being unable to purchaſe tents, erect theſe huts with almoſt as little trouble as a large tent would require in rearing. The very emperors themſelves had neither caſtles nor palaces till the Portugueſe miſſionaries came among them, but lived in their ſtately pavilions, where all their nobles, guards, and other retinue attended them.

At the time abovementioned, theſe people were not only ſuch ſtrangers to all kinds of ſtately edifices, but even to common regular buildings, that when father Pays undertook to build a magnificent edifice for ſultan Segaud, none of that prince's ſubjects knew ſo much as how to dig the ſtones out of the quarries, much leſs how to ſquare or work them fit for uſe. He was therefore obliged to teach them both that, and how to make the proper tools for the maſons, carpenters, joiners, and in ſhort, for every part of the work; and alſo how to join the ſtones, which was performed with a red clay of ſo glutinous a nature, that it makes a good ſtrong cement, without the help of quicklime. The people were filled with amazement, at beholding not only a large ſtupendous ſtructure, erected with much ſtrength and regularity, but even high and ſtately ſtories raiſed one upon another, for which they had not even a proper word, but ſtiled them babeth-laibeth, or houſe upon houſe; ſuch was their ignorance of the nature of buildings in general.

They have chiefly round tables, which among the rich are large enough for twelve or fourteen perſons to ſit round them; but they are very low, as the people, like the inhabitants of moſt of the countries in the eaſt, ſit upon carpets, and the meaner ſort on the ground, or on mats. Their furniture even among thoſe of high rank, is mean: they have no fine paintings, tapeſtry, or other ornaments; and indeed, their way of living is in ſome meaſure incompatible with any ſuch finery. Even their beſt beds are no better than couches, on which they lie upon hides and ſoft furs, wrapped in their upper garments. Indeed, ſome of their princes and perſons of wealth purchaſe Indian quilts, with ſilk borders, which now come to them from the ports on the Red ſea: and theſe they ſpread upon their couches, chiefly in their outward apartments, that they may be ſeen by thoſe who come to viſit them. But the poor moſtly lie on mats, or a hide or two ſpread on the ground, which ſerve them inſtead of a bed.

Here are neither inns, taverns, nor caravanſeras for the entertainment of ſtrangers. Theſe are rendered unneceſſary, by that ſpirit of hoſpitality which prevails amongſt them. If a traveller ſtays longer in a village or camp than three hours, the whole community are ready to lodge and furniſh him with proper neceſſaries for himſelf, his ſervants, and cattle, at the public expence. He need only enter the firſt hut or tent he likes, and reveal his wants to the maſter of it, who immediately goes and informs the chief perſon of the place; upon which an ox is ordered to be killed, and ſo much of it is ſent to him as will be ſufficient for him and his company; together with a proper quantity of bread, liquor, and conveniencies for lodging. They are the more careful to ſupply him with all theſe, being liable to a fine of double the value of what they are bound to furniſh him with, ſhould he prefer a complaint, in caſe of their neglect, to a proper magiſtrate. However, this laudable cuſtom is attended with great inconveniencies, as it gives encouragement to a number of idle vagabonds to abuſe it, and become burdenſome to others.

Manufactures are not numerous among them; and though they are chiefly dreſſed in linen and cotton, and their country is as proper for producing them as any in Africa, they are ſo indolent, that they raiſe no more than will juſt ſerve their preſent wants; and the leſs of either ſerves them, as they make no uſe of any at their tables or for their beds, and a ſmall quantity is ſufficient to ſerve the common people as a covering for their bodies. The Jews are ſaid to be their only weavers, as they are in moſt parts of the empire their only ſmiths, and work in all kinds of metal.

What joiners, carpenters, and maſons are produced in this country may be eaſily gueſſed, from the meanneſs of their buildings and furniture; and the ſame may be ſaid of other trades, as taylors, ſhoemakers, &c. from the plainneſs of their dreſs. Indeed the potters, and makers of horn-trumpets and drinking cups are in the higheſt eſteem. Theſe and other inferior artiſts are incorporated into tribes or companies, and have their ſeveral quarters, neither intermingling nor intermarrying with the reſt, the children commonly following their parents buſineſs.

Gold and ſilver ſmiths, jewellers, and other curious artificers of the like kind, are altogether unknown to them, unleſs by ſome of their works being brought by way of traffic or exchange, and theſe are only to be found among the great and opulent. The ſame may be ſaid of their carpets, tapeſtry, ſilk, brocades, velvets, and other coſtly ſtuffs, which the Turks bring hither, by the way of the Red ſea, and exchange for gold duſt, emeralds, and fine horſes. The Jews, Armenians, and Arabians are the common brokers between them and the Abyſſinians, who ſeldom or ever travel out of their own country, or indeed are ſuffered to do ſo by the Turks, who, being poſſeſſed of

all the ſea ports on the Red ſea, enrich themſelves by this monopoly; and are extremely careful to prevent any trade from being opened into the country by any other nation, or of its being carried on by any other hands but thoſe of their own nation.

The Turks, beſides the above articles, bring them ſeveral kinds of ſpices, in very ſmall quantities, which they keep up at ſo high a price, that none but the richeſt of the Abyſſinians can purchaſe them; in return for theſe, the Abyſſinians bring them ivory, honey, wax, ſkins, furs, and leather in great quantities, for which they are obliged to take what the brokers pleaſe to give.

We muſt not omit, that in Abyſſinia the people have no idea of money; but in purchaſing what they want, exchange one commodity for another. The moſt common article of trade exchanged by them is ſalt, by which they rate the value of every thing elſe; and which in general anſwers the purpoſes of money, by being exchanged for ſuch neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, as they have occaſion for.

Among the Abyſſinians, marriage is little more than a firm bargain, or contract, by which both parties engage to cohabit and join their ſtock as long as they like each other; after which they are at liberty to part. The cuſtom of meeting and bleſſing the married couple at the church door, is doubtleſs derived from the Jews; and it is ſaid that none but prieſts and deacons are married within the body of the church. In this part of the matrimonial ſervice ſeveral ceremonies are performed.

Alvarez, who was preſent when the abuna, or patriarch, officiated at one of theſe marriages, ſays, that the bridegroom and bride were waiting at the church door, where a kind of bed or couch had been prepared for them, and on which the patriarch ordered them to ſit; he then, with a croſs in one hand, and a cenſer in the other, made a kind of proceſſion round them; and then laying his hands on their heads, told them, that as they were become one fleſh, ſo they ought to have but one heart and one will. This was followed by a ſhort exhortation ſuitable to the occaſion; after which he went into the church, and celebrated divine ſervice, at which they both aſſiſted; that being ended, he gave them his bleſſing, which renders the marriage valid, and then diſmiſſed them. The more religious ſort not only attend divine ſervice, but receive the holy communion, either juſt before or after their being joined. What feſtivities and rejoicings attended theſe nuptials, we are not told. The huſband and wife, after conſummation, keep ſeparate tables; or, if they agree to eat together, each bring their own proviſions ready dreſſed, or ſend them in before by their ſlaves or attendants.

Married women are permitted to appear abroad, and to viſit their friends and relations; and the princeſſes of the royal blood have ſtill greater privileges, and are ſaid to think no gallantries, however injurious to their honour, ought to be denied them by their huſbands; in which liberties they are ſo far upheld by their own relations, that all complaints againſt them will not only be in vain, but alſo give offence.

However, this is far from being the caſe of thoſe of inferior rank, who are generally obedient and faithful to their huſbands. Theſe are commonly obliged, eſpecially among the meaner ſort, to perform ſome of the moſt laborious offices of the family, and particularly to grind all the corn uſed in it, which the very ſlaves of the other ſex will refuſe to do: for as they have only hand-mills, they are forced to grind corn either for bread or drink every day, as they want it.

Marriage between perſons in the ſecond, third, and even the fourth degree of conſanguinity, is forbidden, and therefore they eſteem it unlawful to have more than one wife at a time; yet many amongſt them are ſaid to have a plurality of wives; theſe are indeed deprived by the church of the benefit of the holy communion; but they are, notwithſtanding, ſuffered to live with their wives without moleſtation, inaſmuch as polygamy is not deemed by the ſtate detrimental to ſociety.

We have already intimated, that they admit of divorces, not only for breach of conjugal fidelity, but for want of children, by reaſon of diſagreement, bodily infirmities, and the like; in all which caſes, the woman has the ſame privilege of abrogating the marriage contract as the man. In ſuch caſes, the diſſatisfied party applies to the biſhop, and having obtained the deſired divorce, which is ſeldom denied, if the party cannot be prevailed on to withdraw the ſuit, they next petition for a licence to contract a freſh marriage, which they very eaſily obtain.

By theſe indulgences, frequent divorces happen, eſpecially among thoſe of high rank. But with reſpect to the grand motive, the breach of fidelity on either ſide, they frequently compromiſe the affair; for as both the huſband and wife have their ſeparate lands, goods, and chattels, they can make what is eſteemed a ſuitable compenſation for the tranſgreſſion. But where ſuch a compenſation cannot be agreed on between the injurer and the injured, the woman is uſually the moſt ſeverely puniſhed: ſhe is condemned to loſe all her goods, and to leave her huſband's houſe in a mean ragged dreſs, and never to enter it more; carrying with her a ſewing-needle, by which ſhe may earn her livelihood; and ſometimes ſhe is ſentenced to loſe her head of hair, which is her chief ornament, and to be cloſe ſhaved, except a ſingle lock on her fore-top. But the huſband, if he pleaſes, may take her again; or, if he does not, they may both marry. If the huſband be the offender, he is alſo liable to be puniſhed, as well as the partner in his guilt; but a fine is generally laid upon them both, and appropriated to the uſe of the wife. Thus likewiſe the man who has debauched the wife, if convicted, is ſentenced to pay a fine of forty cows, horſes, ſuits of cloaths, &c. and if unable, he becomes the priſoner of the huſband, till the debt be paid. If the injured huſband ſuffers him to go, he obliges him to ſwear, that it is to fetch what will ſatisfy him; upon which the guilty perſon ſends him a piece of beef and ſome liquor, after which they ſometimes eat and drink together; and then, upon his aſking pardon, the huſband firſt remits one part of the fine, and then another, till at length the offender obtains a full acquittal.

They have but few ceremonies in the interment of their dead; as ſoon as the perſon has expired, and the body is waſhed, they perfume it with incenſe, ſprinkle it with holy water, and wrapping it in a ſheet, place it on a bier. The bearers then take it, and hurry it away with ſuch ſwiftneſs, that thoſe who attend can hardly keep pace with them. When they come to the church or church-yard, (for they bury in either), they again incenſe it, and throw plenty of holy water upon it. After the prieſt has read the fourteen firſt verſes of the goſpel of St. John, they ſhoot the corpſe into the ground, inſtead of letting it down gently; the prieſt repeating the ſervice, and the grave is immediately filled up.

The relations bewail their dead many days; their lamentations begin early in the morning, and continue till the evening; the parents, relations, and friends, meet at the grave, together with women mourners, hired to accompany the ſolemnity with their outcries, all clapping their hands, ſmiting their breaſts, and uttering the moſt affecting expreſſions in a doleful tone.

The funerals of the emperors and grandees are performed with great pomp and magnificence, and are accompanied with all the inſignia of their dignity, ſuch as the horſe, ſhield, lance, and other accoutrements of the deceaſed; which are brought to the place; offerings are made to the church and the clergy, and proviſions given liberally to the poor. This ceremony continues, acccording to the quality of the perſon, from three to forty days, and is repeated afreſh on the anniverſary; and, during the mournful ſolemnity, they all pray to God to be merciful to the ſoul of the deceaſed perſon. But they uſe neither torches, nor any other lights, either in the church, or in the proceſſion.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Power, Grandeur, and Titles of the Emperor of ABYSSINIA; his Camp, Marriage, and Revenues, great Officers, Forces, Manner of trying Cauſes, Laws, Puniſhments, &c.

IT is univerſally allowed, that the Abyſſinian government hath, from its firſt foundation, been intirely deſpotic; and according to their annals, there never was a period of time, ſince its firſt origin, wherein the princes of this empire did not claim an abſolute right over the lives, liberty, and fortunes of their ſubjects, as well as an uncontroulable authority in all eccleſiaſtical affairs; and it is not known that there ever were any written laws to reſtrain this exorbitant power of the monarchs, or ſecure the liberty of the ſubject againſt his arbitrary mandates.

The emperors of Abyſſinia boaſt their being deſcended from Menilehech, the ſon of Solomon king of Iſrael, by the queen of Sheba. According to them, this princeſs reigned twenty-five years after her return from Judea, and was ſucceeded by this ſon, from whom deſcended a ſeries of princes in a direct line down to the year 960, when the

crown paſſed into another family, but was afterwards reſtored to it again. Hence the emperor ſtill retains the pompous titles of the Beloved of God, Son of the Pillar of Sion, Kinſman to the race of Judah, Son of David and Solomon, and Emperor of the Great and High Ethiopia, its kingdoms and provinces, &c. They likewiſe bear in their arms the lion of the tribe of Judah, holding a croſs, with this inſcription in Ethiopic, "The lion of the tribe of Judah is conqueror."

This monarch has a degree of reſpect paid to him by his ſubjects which amounts almoſt to adoration: thoſe who are admitted into his preſence fall proſtrate before him, and kiſs the earth as they approach his perſon; and it is ſaid, that even in his abſence they never hear his name mentioned without bowing very low, and touching the ground with their hand. The other marks of grandeur chiefly conſiſt in the retinue with which he is attended; for he is not only attended by his own houſhold and guards, which are very numerous, but by all the grandees and officers of the empire, who ſtrive to outvie each other in the number, richneſs, and ſplendor of their retinue, in the elegance of their dreſs, and the magnificence of their pavilions.

We have already obſerved, that they chiefly live in tents; the emperor's camp always takes up a large ſpace of ground, and makes a very ſplendid appearance, to which the regular diſpoſition of the ſtreets, and great variety of tents, ſtreamers, and other ornaments, and eſpecially the many lights and fires at night, do not a little contribute; ſo that the whole appears like a vaſt open and regular city, in whoſe center, or on ſome eminent part of it, ſtands the imperial pavilion, which eclipſes all the reſt in grandeur, bulk, and height. Near to it are thoſe of the empreſſes, and royal family, and then thoſe of the officers of the court, all appearing with proportionable, though inferior luſtre; to theſe may be added thoſe large and ſtately pavilions which ſerve as churches, upon which they beſtow no ſmall expence, in adorning them both within and without. In ſhort, the imperial camp is of a vaſt extent, and yet good order is commonly obſerved in it. It has markets, courts of juſtice, and places where young perſons of rank perform a variety of exerciſes on horſeback. But all the reſt reſembles only a great number of long extenſive lanes, of mean ordinary taſte, or low miſerable huts of lath and clay, covered with ſtraw, which ſerve the emperor's guards and common ſoldiers, beſides a prodigious number of ſutlers, who ſupply them with all neceſſaries.

If either through the want of wood, or proviſions, in the different wars in which the emperor is engaged, it becomes neceſſary for him to remove his camp, the chief care is to chooſe a convenient and ſpacious ſpot, well furniſhed with water, and eſpecially with wood, of which they make ſuch havock, that vaſt forests are frequently laid bare in a ſhort time, and they are amazed, and think it incredible, that ſuch great cities as are in other parts of the world, ſhould be able, without being in extreme want of wood, to ſubſiſt ſo long a time in one place.

When the emperor is on his march, whether in time of peace or war, he is always attended by his chief miniſters; he appears with a crown on his head made of pure gold, with ſilver lilies, intermixed with pearls, and fixed on a cap of blue velvet, on the top of which is a gold croſs. Some time before he begins his march, officers are ſent to the governors of every province and place through which he is to paſs, with orders to clear and repair the roads, and open the woods through which his way lies, by cutting down branches of trees, the briars, and every thing elſe that may retard the march; and to provide neceſſaries both for him and the whole army, which travels but ſlowly, and by ſhort journies, on account of the multitude of women, children, and cattle, which follow the camp.

At the time appointed, all the governors punctually come in with their quotas of corn, cattle, beer, and other liquors, all which are diſtributed, with the utmoſt exactneſs, among the ſeveral ranks and orders of the army. In theſe marches the titmerari, an officer who commands the van-guard, fixes his pike on the ſpot he chooſes for the imperial pavilion; after which, every one of the reſt knowing his own rank, and the ground he is to take up, eaſily gueſſes by his eye where the tents are to be pitched: ſo that the whole encampment is ſoon completed with ſurpriſing readineſs, and in ſo exact and regular a manner, that notwithſtanding their being ſo frequently removed, every one knows the ways and paths ſo well, that he can go to the tent of any one with the ſame facility as he can to his own, or as we can find a ſtreet, lane, or houſe in any of our cities, and towns.

They always divide the camp into ſeven pariſhes, each of which has its miniſter, deacons, and inferior officers, who aſſiſt in the inſtruction of youth, in performing divine ſervice, and the other functions of the miniſter's office. Whenever an enemy is near, the army is ordered to march cloſe and in the beſt order, the van-guard and rear drawing up cloſe to the main body, the wings ſpread themſelves out, and the emperor keeps in the center with his guards, great officers, and ladies, a ſufficient interval being left for incloſing the baggage. At other times little order is obſerved in their marches, only there is always a number of warlike inſtruments ſounding before, and a particular guard marching round the emperor. He generally mounts and alights in his tent; but if he has occaſion to diſmount by the way, the guards immediately make a ring about his perſon, ſpreading their cloaths to keep him unſeen; and if he diſmounts in order to take reſt, a couch, which is commonly carried for that purpoſe, is brought him, on which he lies on cuſhions covered with the fineſt ſilk carpets.

Though the crown of Abyſſinia is hereditary, and muſt be preſerved in the ſame family; yet the emperor, if he pleaſes, may chooſe any one of his children whom he thinks moſt worthy to ſucceed him. This probably gave birth to the ſevere cuſtom, formerly obſerved in this empire, of confining all the princes of the blood to the fortreſs, or rock, called Ambaguexen, which ſome have deſcribed as a ſevere and diſagreeable place of confinement, on the ſummit of a lofty mountain; while others repreſent it as an earthly paradiſe, in which theſe princes enjoyed every bleſſing except liberty, and were educated in a manner ſuitable to their birth and deſcent.

Theſe young princes were brought out of this abode to aſcend the throne, in the following manner: after due conſultation, and a ſtrict enquiry into the character of the prince, or after the emperor's having declared him his ſucceſſor, which precluded all ſuch conſultations, the viceroy of Tigra went at the head of ſome forces, and encamped at the foot of the mountain, whence, with a proper retinue of grandees and officers, he aſcended it, and entering the cell of the prince elect with great formality, fixed the imperial ear-ring to his ear, as a token of his election: and inſtantly the other young princes were ſent for to pay him homage, and congratulate him on his acceſſion to the throne.

The new emperor was no ſooner come down from the mountain, than the governors and other officers met him at the head of the army, and all alighting together ſaluted him. After which, upon his giving them the ſignal, they mounted again, and taking him into their center, conducted him to the debana, or imperial pavilion, with the ſound of trumpets, kettle-drums, and other muſical inſtruments, intermixed with loud acclamations of joy. Here he alone alighted within, while all the reſt did the ſame without the pavilion. He was ſoon after ſolemnly anointed by a prelate, and the reſt of the clergy accompanied the ceremony with pſalms and hymns ſuitable to the occaſion. Soon after he was inveſted with the imperial robes, and the crown ſet upon his head. The ſword of ſtate was then drawn and put into his hand, and he being ſeated on the throne, an herald proclaimed him emperor, and was ſuddenly anſwered by the loud acclamations of the whole aſſembly and army, who came to pay him their homage.

Upon theſe occaſions a kind of ritual, which perhaps contained the duty of a good ſovereign, was read and explained before him, either by the metropolitan, by whom he was anointed, or by ſome of his ſubſtitutes. From thence the new ſovereign went and aſſiſted at divine ſervice, and received the holy communion; after which he returned, accompanied by his court and army, to the royal tent, through the joyful acclamatio. s of the people, with the ſound of muſical inſtruments; and the ſolemnity was cloſed with feaſting, and other tokens of joy, by all ranks of people.

It is uſual for the Abyſſinian monarchs, like their ancient progenitor Solomon, king of the Jews, to allow themſelves a plurality of wives; and not only imitate him in that, but in taking theſe of different religions, even Mahometans and Gentiles; and ſome have carried this ſo far as to allow their heathen wives to have their own temples and idols; ſo that on one ſide might be ſeen the church of God, and on the other a Pagan temple. Others, however, have had ſo much regard to their religion, as to cauſe thoſe Pagan or Mahometan ladies to be inſtructed and baptized before they married them. The generality of theſe princes, however, chooſe to marry the daughters of noble families among their ſubjects; while others, leſs

attentive

attentive to their noble extraction, pay a greater regard to the natural endowments of the mind, or the beauty of the perſon.

No ſooner has the monarch pitched upon a young lady for his wife, than ſhe is taken from her parents, and lodged with ſome of his relations, in order to obtain a better knowledge of her good qualities. If he is ſatisfied with her, he takes her with him to church, and having both received the holy communion, they are conducted to the imperial pavilion, attended by the whole court in the richeſt attire; and there the abuna, or chief prelate, commonly performs the matrimonial ceremony; which being ended, the emperor, as at other times, dines by himſelf in his own apartment, and ſhe in her's, in company with a number of other ladies. The nobles and clergymen are treated at other tables in ſeparate tents, with a variety of meats and liquors; and the feaſt generally continues among the male gueſts till all the liquor is drank, after which every one retires to reſt.

The Abyſſinian emperors uſed frequently never to appear in public, and they were ſeldom known to trouble themſelves with the affairs of government, the care of which was committed to two miniſters, called babluded, or favourites; but this cuſtom has been long aboliſhed, and they ſhew themſelves to their ſubjects at leaſt three or four times a year, though none is allowed to ſee them eat, except the pages who feed them; (for both they and all the great have their meat cut into bits, and conveyed to their mouths by young pages): and when they give audience to public ambaſſadors, they always ſit behind the curtain, concealed from the public view.

The imperial revenues ſeem to be very inconſiderable, and chiefly ariſe from the four following branches: the firſt is the tribute paid by the governors of ſuch provinces and kingdoms as abound with gold, which amounts to no more than about five or ſix thouſand ounces per annum, one year with another. The next ariſes from the ſale of all the great offices of the empire, and the yearly tribute they pay him. The third branch conſiſts of a tenth of all the cattle in the empire. By this laſt (which it appears was unknown till about the middle of the third century) every man that hath cows, is obliged to pay him one out of ten every third year, and the country breeding vaſt quantities of them, makes it by far the moſt conſiderable branch: this is called the burning or branding tax, becauſe the emperor's officers brand thoſe with a particular mark which they ſet aſide for his uſe. The fourth and laſt branch ariſes from a duty laid on every loom of cotton cloth. If it belongs to a Chriſtian, he pays one piece of cloth; and if to a Mahometan, a piece of eight per annum. By this duty are gathered in the kingdom of Dambea, and parts adjacent, about one thouſand of theſe pieces, and in that of Gojam three thouſand; beſides about two hundred biſſets, which are a thicker and ſtronger cloth, and all ſhagged on one ſide. The like tax is gathered in all the other kingdoms and provinces throughout the empire, and the annual amount of it is very conſiderable.

We ſhall now, as we propoſed, give an account of the great officers and forces of the empire; beginning with the chief officer belonging to the emperor, who is ſtiled raſh, or principal, and is generaliſſimo of all the forces; he has under him two great officers, one of whom is called bellatinoche goyta, that is, lord of the ſervants, and is a kind of high ſteward; his power extends not only over the azagues and umbares, or civil judges of the empire, but over all the viceroys, governors, and generals of the army. The other officer is ſtiled tahah, that is, lord of the leſſer ſervants: he is only a kind of under ſteward to the king's houſhold, which is generally compoſed of perſons of inferior rank. Theſe have in a good meaſure the management of the empire, and the regulation of the army, which is indeed far from being anſwerable to the extent of the country, as they ſeldom exceed forty thouſand men, of whom between four and five thouſand are cavalry, and the reſt foot.

With reſpect to their cavalry, about fifteen hundred of them are well ſized, and properly mounted; but the reſt are indifferently armed and accoutred, having no other arms but ſpears and a buckler. The ſpears are of two ſorts, the one like our half pikes, and the other reſembles a halbert or partizan. The ſtaves of the former are ſlender, and the iron narrow like our pike, but the iron of the other is broad and thin; the firſt is to be darted at the enemy, and the laſt to be uſed in cloſe fight with one hand, while the other holds a buckler made of a buffalo's hide, which is uſually very thick and ſtrong.

The foot ſoldiers have each of them two ſpears; and thoſe of a higher rank have likewiſe ſwords, which they ſeldom uſe in battle, but rather wear them as a mark of diſtinction, and in time of peace commonly hold them in their hands when in converſation; but if they walk, their ſervants carry them under the arm. They have the hilt of gold, or ſilver gilt, and the ſcabbard of velvet or rich damaſk, which is commonly red; theſe weapons are chiefly worn by way of ornament. They likewiſe wear a kind of dagger under their girdle, and ſome alſo carry a club of ſome hard, heavy wood, with a dagger in it. This weapon they commonly uſe by darting at the enemy when they come to a cloſe engagement.

Their ſoldiers are but little acquainted with fire arms, and as poorly furniſhed with powder and ball. The Abyſſinians have not above one thouſand five hundred muſkets, and there are not more than three or four hundred muſketeers in any action, who are generally ſo ill trained to the uſe of arms, that they never fire above once, for want of powder and ball. Theſe they ſeldom have at their exerciſes, except a few of the higher rank, who with their muſquets uſe a reſt.

Their cavalry are all ſaid to be very good horſemen, and are all armed much like the foot: they mount and ſit their horſes extremely well: but in other reſpects, are very ill-diſciplined, like the foot.

The Abyſſinians generally draw up their armies with little regularity, ſo that the firſt ſhock frequently begins and ends the battle, one ſide turning their back, and the other purſuing; for it is ſo common to run from the enemy, that it is not conſidered as any diſgrace; and they never endeavour to rally their troops, or indeed know how to go about it. This behaviour is entirely owing to their want of diſcipline, for they are commonly hardy, and enured to hunger, thirſt, and fatigue, to which they are trained up from their youth; and as they continue in the field the greateſt part of the year, they are equally capable of bearing the moſt exceſſive heat, the ſharpeſt cold, and the moſt violent rains, with very little for their ſuſtenance; and even this they procure by their labour from the lands the emperor allows to thoſe in his ſervice. Another diſadvantage is, their taking their wives and children with them, and theſe are generally ſo numerous, that a camp of thirty thouſand men always conſiſts of above an hundred thouſand perſons, all of whom are obliged to live on the produce of lands aſſigned for their maintenance. They have alſo a vaſt number of prieſts, who not only perform the divine ſervice in pavilions, but eſcort and attend the ſacred utenſils with great pomp and ceremony, and with vocal and inſtrumental muſic. The army is alſo attended by drums and kettle drums, larger and louder than ours; beſides trumpets, hautboys, flutes, and other inſtruments.

The viceroys and governors of provinces, as well as the military commanders and civil magiſtrates, hold their ſeveral courts of judicature, in which all cauſes, whether civil or criminal, are decided; only thoſe of the martial kind have martial officers, who preſide in them, and the others are tried by civil judges, who alone are allowed to ſit, while the plaintiff, defendant, and the reſt of the company ſtand. Theſe, upon proper occaſions, will even ſit upon the ground in the highway or open field, and try a cauſe brought before them, when every one who pleaſes may be preſent. They make uſe of no writing, nor keep any records, nor do they allow of attornies and councils to plead on the merits of the cauſe; but both the plaintiff and defendant plead their own cauſe, the former ſpeaking firſt, and the latter after him: each may anſwer and reply three or four times by turns; after which the judge, commanding ſilence, aſks the opinion of the by-ſtanders, and then pronounces ſentence upon the ſpot.

In criminal caſes, if the accuſed be caſt, he is either kept priſoner by the judge till he has made ſatisfaction to the accuſer, or if the crime be capital, as in the caſe of murder, he is delivered up to the plaintiff, to be puniſhed at his diſcretion, and that of the relations of the deceaſed, who either ſell the murderer, or put him to death in what manner they pleaſe. But when a murder cannot be ſufficiently proved againſt any man, all the inhabitants of the place where it was committed are ſeverely fined, or ſuffer ſome bodily puniſhment for the crime.

They have three kinds of capital puniſhments: the firſt is, burying the criminal quite up to his mouth; then covering his head with thorns and briers, they lay a heavy ſtone upon them. The ſecond is, beating him to death with thick clubs about two feet long; but the moſt uſual method, in caſes of murder, is, running the criminal through with their lances, in which caſe the neareſt relation of the deceaſed makes the firſt thruſt, and the reſt

follow

follow in due order: even thoſe who come after the criminal has expired, generally dip their weapons in his blood, to ſhew that they are alſo concerned to revenge the murder of a relation. But what is ſtill more barbarous, is, the feaſting and loud rejoicing made by thoſe relations, from the time the criminal is delivered into their hands, till his execution, and more particularly on the night preceding it, to all which the priſoner himſelf is a witneſs. This often exaſperates his friends to that degree, that it is not unuſual for the death of ſome of the moſt zealous proſecutors to follow that of the criminal.

Hiſtory informs us, that the Abyſſinians boaſt their having received both their kings and the Jewiſh religion from Solomon. Of this they have an antient record, which gives the following account of this ſingular event: "That a great and potent queen, named Azeb, or Maqueda, reigning in Ethiopia, being informed by a merchant named Tamerin, of the great power and wiſdom of Idoman, travelled to Jeruſalem, attended by a retinue of the greateſt nobles and princes of Ethiopia, and with immenſe treaſure. There Solomon inſtructed her in the knowledge of the true God; and upon her return home, at the end of nine months, ſhe was delivered of a ſon, who was called Menilchech, and alſo David. This ſon afterwards going to Jeruſalem, to ſee his father Solomon, was magnificently entertained by him, and anointed king of Ethiopia, by Zadoc, and Joaſh, the high-prieſt; and when he was thoroughly inſtructed in the law of God, which he was to cauſe to be obſerved in his dominions, Solomon aſſigned ſeveral of the firſt-born of Iſrael to attend and ſerve him in Ethiopia, and furniſhed him with officers and ſervants belonging to the houſe of Judah, with a high-prieſt, levites, and doctors in the law of Moſes, the Jewiſh legiſlator."

Though it muſt be allowed there is nothing in this account very improbable, yet the ſame record adds many circumſtances that are evidently falſe; as, that the firſt-born of Iſrael, at the inſtigation of Azariah, the ſon of Zadoc, went to Jeruſalem, and fetched the ark out of the Temple; and, being aſſiſted by a train of miracles, eſcaped the purſuit of Solomon, and arrived with it in Ethiopia. However, it is not improbable, that the prince of Abyſſinia might cauſe another ark to be made like that formed by Moſes, and that this ſtory might be afterwards invented, in order to procure it a more general veneration from the public.

They keep this ark ſo cloſely concealed, that even their monarchs are not admitted to the ſight of it. Since the Abyſſinian emperors have aſſumed the cuſtom of living in tents, this precious relic is no longer confined to a temple, but always accompanies the royal camp, and is carried about with the greateſt form and ceremony, attended by four prelates in their pontifical habits, and about forty or fifty other prieſts, who chaunt before and after it; while one marching backwards before with a cenſer in his hand, offers incenſe to it all the way, till it be depoſited in the grand pavilion, which is the church where the imperial court aſſemble.

Theſe people maintain, that they were converted to Chriſtianity by the eunuch or prime miniſter of their queen Candace, or, as they call her, Handake, who after his converſion by Philip, they ſay, returned into Ethiopia, and gave his queen a full account of all that had paſſed; upon which that princeſs alſo believed the goſpel. However, in the year 335, Athanaſius, patriarch of Alexandria, ordained Frumentius biſhop of Axuma, and ſent him to preach the goſpel in Ethiopia. This he performed with great ſucceſs; the diſcipline of the church was then ſettled conformably to that of Alexandria; prieſts and deacons were every where ordained; liturgies, articles, and canons were ſettled and confirmed; and the Abyſſinian church was brought to acknowledge herſelf wholly ſubject to, and dependent upon that of Alexandria.

It appears, however, that the Abyſſinians retain many of the Jewiſh ceremonies, beſides that of attending the ark: ſo that their religion may be deemed a mixture of Judaiſm and Chriſtianity. They circumciſe not only the male but the female infants, which laſt is done by cutting off a ſmall piece of ſkin from the clitoris. They abſtain from blood, things ſtrangled, the fleſh of ſwine, and the other animals prohibited by the Moſaic law. They uſe purifications and waſhings after certain defilements. They oblige a man if his brother die without male iſſue, to marry his widow, and raiſe up ſeed to his name; and they keep the ſeventh day ſabbath. On the other hand, they believe the doctrine of the Trinity, and that Chriſt ſhall come again in glory to judge the quick and the dead, when the juſt ſhall inherit the kingdom of heaven, and unrepenting ſinners be ſent into the miſerable regions of darkneſs.

The people never enter their churches without pulling off their ſhoes or ſandals. The divine ſervice conſiſts of a ſet of prayers, pſalms, and hymns ſuitable to the ſeaſons, and for the moſt part performed with great decency and devotion, without any of that pomp and ceremony uſed in the church of Rome. They have no bells, but call the people to the church by the ſound of wooden hammers, which they ſtrike upon a hollow board; at the hearing of which both the clergy and laity repair thither with a decent gravity, ſaying ſome prayers all the way they go; and when there, neither ſtare about, whiſper, nor ſpit. The prieſts and laity are ſeparated from each other; the former are in a kind of choir, with a curtain drawn before them, which hinders the people who are in the body of the church, from ſeeing, though not from hearing the divine ſervice. They have neither pews, benches, nor halſocks, but continue ſtanding all the time. In none of theſe edifices, whether ſumptuous or mean, are any ſtatues or carved images of any kind, except pictures: they will not ſuffer any crucifixes, whether carved or caſt in metal, to be ſeen in them, or to be worn about the necks of the people. The clergy are allowed to marry.

In baptiſm, they uſe a three-fold immerſion, if the infant be capable of bearing it; without danger of its life; if not, the three-fold aſperſion of water is deemed ſufficient. The firſt immerſion is only of one-third of the body, in the name of the Father; the ſecond of two-thirds, or up to the breaſt, in the name of the Son; and the laſt of the whole body, by plunging in the head, in the name of the Holy Ghoſt. They then anoint the whole body, eſpecially the joints, with the holy chriſm, and afterwards adminiſter the holy communion to the child in both kinds, by dipping a bit of the conſecrated bread into what they call the wine, and applying it to the lips of the child.

There is in every church a ſmall room behind the eaſt end, in which are the materials for making the communion bread, which is a leavened cake, that they conſecrate every time they adminiſter the Lord's ſupper, dividing the whole among the communicants, and having it freſh made every time. Inſtead of wine, from which they wholly abſtain, they keep in this little room a ſmall quantity of dried raiſins, which they ſqueeze and macerate in a greater or leſſer quantity of water, according to the number of the communicants; for they adminiſter the cup alſo to the laity, and receive both the elements as ſymbols and channels conveying to them the benefits of Chriſt's death. They do not admit laymen and women to come up to the altar to receive; but adminiſter it to them at the door of the choir; nor do they oblige them to receive it kneeling, but in a ſtanding poſture.

The Abyſſinian clergy are little verſed in the ſacred writings, having neither expoſitors, commentaries, concordances, nor any of thoſe helps which are in uſe amongſt us, except a few homilies upon ſome ſelect parts of the goſpels, or upon a few theological points; but as they never preach or expound them to the laity, it is not ſurpriſing that they are extremely ignorant, and in many particulars groſsly ſuperſtitious. Like the Roman Catholics, they offer up their devotions and prayers to the ſaints, and have proper offices, faſts, and feſtivals to their honour. Though they do not believe a purgatory in the ſame ſenſe as the Greek and Roman churches, nor have any particular office for the dead, yet they make mention of them in their common ſervice, and pray to God to abſolve them from their ſins, and to make them fit for the joys of heaven. They likewiſe keep a kind of anniverſary of their departure, on which they give alms according to their ability, to the prieſts, monks, and poor, to pray for the ſouls of their departed friends.

In this church they receive the ſame canonical books, both of the Old and New Teſtament, that we do; the former are tranſlated into Ethiopic from the Greek verſion, called the Septuagint; and the latter alſo from the Greek text; they have likewiſe the Apoſtolical Conſtitution, which, in many reſpects, differs from the work which paſſes by that name. This they believe to be of divine authority, and to have been written by St. Clement, whoſe name it bears. They have alſo the Nicene, but not that called the Apoſtles Creed.

Like the oriental churches, they obſerve four lents, viz. the great lent, which laſts fifty days; that of St. Peter and St. Paul, which laſts forty days, more or leſs, according to the nearneſs of their Eaſter; that of the Aſſumption of our Lady, which continues fifteen days; and that of Advent, which laſts three weeks. In all theſe lents they abſtain from

from eggs, butter, cheeſe, and neither eat nor drink till after ſun-ſet, which is never later than between ſix and ſeven in the evening: and after that time, they may eat and drink till midnight. Inſtead of butter they uſe oil, which they extract from a ſmall grain, and is far from having an unpleaſant taſte. They faſt with the ſame ſtrictneſs on all the Wedneſdays and Fridays throughout the year, and on thoſe days always go to prayers before they begin their evening meals. The very peaſants leave their work to have time to perform their duty, before they break their faſt. Neither the old nor young, nor even the ſick, are excuſed from faſting, except in ſome very extraordinary caſes.

It may not be improper, before we quit this ſubject, to take ſome notice of the different orders of the Abyſſinian clergy; the moſt dignified of which is the abuna, or patriarch, who is wholly ſubject to that of Alexandria, as all the reſt of the clergy are to him. His office is very lucrative; for having no biſhops under him, nor any other perſon to controul him, he diſpoſes of all benefices, which bring him great emolument. He has likewiſe the ſole privilege of ordaining, which alſo produces a conſiderable income, few being received into holy orders, without a previous offering to obtain them admittance. Beſides theſe advantages, he has alſo certain lands aſſigned him in the kingdoms of Tigra, Gojam and Dambea. The firſt of theſe is computed to bring him in forty or fifty ounces of gold per annum; thoſe of Gojam and Dambea afford him a more than ſufficient quantity of proviſion for his tables, the remainder of which he diſpoſes for his own profit. To theſe may be alſo added, a kind of public gathering of ſalt and cloth, which is annually made for him throughout the empire, and amounts to a conſiderable value, all which put together make a very large income; and the more ſo, as the emperor has exempted the lands from taxes.

The Debararas are the next order of eccleſiaſtics; and theſe are held in great eſteem. They are neither prieſts nor deacons, but a kind of Jewiſh levites, or chanters, who aſſiſt at all public offices of the church, and whoſe head, or ſupreme, called barca guyva, hath the care and direction of the ſacred pavilions in the imperial camp. As theſe boaſt themſelves of Jewiſh extraction, they pretend, by the ſongs, dances, and beating of drums, to imitate the ſervice of the Jewiſh tabernacle, and temple of Jeruſalem, and the dancing of king David before the ark. Theſe debararas always attend on great feſtivals, when they begin their muſic and dancing long before day, and, without appearing to be in the leaſt fatigued, continue it till noon.

The next in order are the komos, and in point of dignity follow the abuna. Every parochial church hath one of theſe, who is a kind of hagumanus, or archipreſbyter, and hath all the inferior prieſts and deacons, as well as the ſecular affairs of the pariſh, under his care and government; and as they have no biſhops over them, they preſide in chief at divine ſervice, diſtribute the ſeveral offices of the inferior clergy, and reconcile their diſputes. The office of the inferior prieſts, is, to ſupply the place of the komos when abſent, and, if preſent, to aſſiſt him in baptizing, marrying, viſiting the ſick, burying the dead, and other parts of divine ſervice.

The laſt order of the prieſthood are the deacons, who likewiſe aſſiſt in performing religious duties, though in a lower ſphere than the prieſts; and both have their proper offices and veſtments when they officiate. This order is conferred by the abuna on the emperor, princes, grandees, and even on their children; not that they may have the privilege of officiating as ſuch, but only to aſſiſt at the divine ſervice, and to receive the communion in the chancel with the clergy, and be ſeparate from the laity, who ſtand in the body of the church by themſelves.

The abovementioned orders are allowed to marry, even after they have been ordained prieſts. Their ſons alſo are permitted to ſucceed them in their eccleſiaſtical benefices. In general, however, they are all, except the abuna, exceeding poor, inſomuch that they are obliged to apply themſelves to labour and induſtry, but chiefly to farming and paſturage; all which renders them leſs reſpected than clergy in other countries, eſpecially as they wear no particular dreſs or other mark of the prieſtly office, except a ſmall croſs, which they carry in their hand, and bleſs the people with, and a ſmall round cap of any colour, which they wear on their heads. Neither have they the privileges enjoyed by prieſts of many other countries; for ſhould they commit any thing derogatory to the laws of their country, they are liable to be puniſhed by the lay magiſtracy, in the ſame manner as ſecular perſons.

The Abyſſinian churches appear for the moſt part to have been formerly large and elegant ſtructures; but they are now ſo decayed, that it is impoſſible to form a proper idea of their original magnificence. The following ones are the moſt diſtinguiſhed, and chiefly claim the attention of all the curious: namely, St. Emanuel, St. Saviour, St. Mary, the Holy Croſs, St. George, Golgotha, Bethlehem, the Martyrs, Marcorcos, and Lalibela. However incredible it may appear, yet certain it is, that theſe ten churches were all cut out of a ſolid rock, by dint of the hammer and chiſſel. The laſt of them bears the name of their founder, who, being deſirous of having them executed, ſent for a number of workmen from Egypt; and ſo expeditiouſly was the undertaking carried on, that it is ſaid the whole was completed in twenty-four years: a ſhort time, conſidering the ſtately manner in which they are conſtituted, being proportionable in all their parts, as gates, windows, pillars, arches, channels, &c. and alſo the number of them.

There are, beſides the above churches, many monaſteries in Abyſſinia, moſt of which contain two chapels, one for the men, and the other for the women; but how they came to be introduced, and of what order the firſt founders of them were, is not known. At preſent there are only two different orders, who are called by the names of their founders, namely thoſe of Taklo Haymanout, and of Alba Euſtatius; the former a native of Ethiopia, and the other of Egypt. All the monks belonging to theſe monaſteries live in a very recluſe and abſtemious manner: their cells are very mean, being built only of clay, and covered with ſtraw, and their furniture within is equally deſpicable: they lie only upon mats on the floor, and follow every thing that is anſwerable to a monaſtic life. To what we have already ſaid concerning their faſts, it may be neceſſary to add, in this place, that in their work of mortification they are peculiar to themſelves, for, inſtead of thoſe practiſed by the monks of other countries (which perhaps rather ſtimulate than damp the fleſhly appetites), they plunge themſelves into the coldeſt rivers, and continue in them, with the water up to their chin, for ſeveral hours together, and this kind of mortification they practiſe even in the coldeſt weather. They have all of them the privilege of carrying a croſs in their hands, and bleſſing the people; thoſe of the abbots or ſuperior orders of convents are diſtinguiſhed from the reſt, by being much larger and better ſhaped: and when they go abroad, are uſually carried before them by ſome inferior monk, as a token of their dignity. Such as prefer a life of celibacy are much more eſteemed than thoſe who marry; and are often, eſpecially their abbots, conſulted in matters relative to the welfare of the ſtate, by the emperor himſelf.

SECT. VI.

Treating of the Hiſtory of ABYSSINIA, and the Succeſſion of their Monarchs, from the Reign of the Queen of Sheba, to the preſent Century, compriſing a Space of upwards of two thouſand ſeven hundred Years.

THE principal materials relating to the Abyſſinian hiſtory have been collected by the jeſuit miſſionaries while in this empire. It is leſs copious and more vague than the hiſtories of moſt other countries; notwithſtanding which, we hope our readers will find ſome ſatisfaction in peruſing the detached fragments they have tranſmitted to us. The antient records, from whence they have obtained theſe accounts, are preſerved in the great church at Axum, and are digeſted in the following order:

The queen of Sheba was the firſt ſovereign of the Abyſſinian empire. She came into Judea in or about the year before Chriſt 992, and of the world 3012. She reigned twenty-five years after her return, and left the crown to

Menilehech, her ſon, who reigned in conjunction with his father twenty-nine years, and eighteen more with his ſon Rehoboam: after which he died, and was ſucceeded by

Sadgur, the ſon of Menilehech, from whom proceeded, in a lineal deſcent, twenty-four princes; but the length of their reigns is not recorded, nor any particulars relative to either of them, except that in the eighth year of the laſt (viz. A. M. 4004.) whom the chronicle calls Phecon, our Saviour was born.

Thirteen emperors reigned from this period to the year 327, whoſe names, and the length of the time each reigned, are omitted; but it was in the above year that St. Athanaſius

nasius sent Frumutius into Ethiopia to convert the Abyssinians to Christianity.

The records, after the above circumstance, furnish us with a remarkable account of three brothers who agreed to reign jointly; their names are, Atzsa, Atzsed, and Amay; and it is said, that in order to prevent discord among them, they projected a very strange expedient, which was, to divide the day into three parts, and to hold the reins alternately, each his third part, or eight hours. This was certainly a most uncommon mode of government, notwithstanding which, if we give credit to the Abyssinian legends, it proved very successful: for if at any time one of the brothers differed or fell out with another, the third was ready to interpose, and act as umpire between the other two.

Several other monarchs succeeded these; but we have not any account of their lives and reigns, only that in the three last of them, whose names were, Arado, Aladoba, and Alamid, great numbers of monks and anchorites came hither from Egypt, with a view of propagating the Christian faith.

Tacena, was succeeded by Alamid, who left the crown to Caleb, in whose time new tribes of monks came from Rum, and settled in the kingdom of Tigra. This was about the year after Christ 521, and the time that Justinian was emperor of Rome. Caleb was sometime at war with the Sabean or Homente kingdom; but at length totally subdued it by defeat and death of the Jewish king Dunavas, whose crown he is said to have sent to Jerusalem, to be there suspended in the great church of St. Sepulchre, in memory of his signal success over that distinguished persecutor of those who professed Christianity at that time.

Gabra Meskel, succeeded Caleb. He was a very peaceable prince, and it is said, formed an alliance with the emperor Justinian. His two next successors were Constantine and Fuzena; and after them fifteen more; all the descendants of Solomon. The last of these was named Del-Noad, who reigned till about the year 960, when the succession passed into the Zegean family; at which time the usurpation, which continued for three hundred and forty years, commenced, by the infamy of a woman named Tredda Gabex, who, for her impiety, cruelty, lewdness, and other enormous vices, was otherwise called Escat, or Firebrand.

This woman formed a plan not only to destroy Del-Noad, the then emperor, but also the whole imperial family; and this she concerted in order to raise a son of hers, whom she had by the governor of Bugna, to the Ethiopian throne. So effectually did she succeed in this diabolical plot, that only one of the whole family escaped, who fled for security into the kingdom of Xava, where his posterity were preserved with the utmost privacy by the viceroys of that kingdom, who, during the whole time of the Zagean usurpation, were strongly attached to the line of Solomon.

While the imperial throne was in the hands of the Zagean family, the following are the only princes of whom any notice is taken; namely, Lalibela, Degna Michael, Newaja Ohristos, and Naacu Luabo. The first of these eternized his name by many glorious actions, and particularly distinguished his piety in causing ten churches to be hewn out of a solid rock, for performing divine service, which we have lately described. The last of the above monarchs, was greatly extolled by his subjects, as a peaceable, magnanimous, and beneficent prince, and likewise of a very pious disposition.

We are not certainly informed who the rest were that filled the throne during the Zagean usurpation, neither are we told by what means the crown was restored to the descendants of Solomon; but only that the Zagean family being driven from the throne about the year 1300, Icon Ambac, whose predecessors had been preserved in the kingdom of Xava during the usurpation, recovered the Abyssinian throne; and that it hath continued in the antient line of Solomon ever since.

The last-mentioned prince held the throne about fifteen years, and is said to have been succeeded by sixteen other princes; but we have no particulars mentioned of either of them till we come to Zaara Jaacob, who was the last. This prince began to reign in 1437, and was greatly esteemed as a man of learning and deep penetration.

After the death of Zaara Jaacob, which happened in 1465, Boeda Mariam assumed the reins, and, after reigning only ten years, died, and was succeeded by Alexander, who reigned fifteen years and six months, that is from 1475 to 1491.

During the reign of Alexander, Peter Covillan arrived in the empire of Abyssinia, and was the first Portuguese that ever penetrated so far into the interior part of the country.

Amda Jeygon was the successor of Alexander: he reigned only six months, and then dying without issue male, was succeeded by

Nahod his uncle, and the son of Boeda Mariam, who was confined, at the time of his accession, on the rocks of Amba-Guexen, where he had been placed by the emperor Alexander. He reigned thirteen years and nine months, dying about 1507, was succeeded by Etana Denghel, or Lebna Denghel, who is better known by the names of Onag-Segued and David; which last he took on his accession to the crown.

This prince reigned very peaceably for some years after his accession, but was at length so harrassed by the cruel depredations made on his dominions by his Mooriish neighbours, that he applied to the Portuguese for assistance; which gave them an opportunity of enlarging the endeavours they had heretofore made of propagating the Romish religion in the Abyssinian empire. Onag-Segued by the great zeal he shewed for the church of Rome, and the Pope's supremacy, had not only occasioned his subjects in general to hate him, but in particular rendered the whole Abyssinian clergy his most inveterate enemies, and at last brought on those complicated troubles which occasioned his death.

Notwithstanding the assistance offered to this prince by the Portuguese, yet so powerful were his enemies, such devastations had they made by their incursions, and so closely did they follow him, that he was reduced to the necessity of seeking refuge among some of the desart mountains, where he remained for some time; but being at length routed, was obliged to retire to the top of the Damo. Having some of his bravest men with him here, he endeavoured to defend himself for some time, having now little more than the name, much less could he support the dignity of a monarch. However, all his troubles had a period in this fortress; for here, in the year 1540, he yielded up his crown and life, in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign, which he began in 1507: the first twenty years of which had been as happy and prosperous as the last thirteen had proved distracted and unfortunate.

Claudius Segued, or Atgnaf-Segued, son of the former, succeeded to the throne. His reign was but little more tranquil than the latter part of his father's, being harrassed on all sides by the Gallas and Mahometans: and his whole empire must have been totally destroyed, had not the Portuguese interposed to prevent it. However, in the month of March 1559, he lost his life in an engagement with the Gallas, after a tiresome reign of little more than eighteen years. Leaving no male issue, he was succeeded by his brother's son,

Minas, who assumed the name of Adama Segued, at his coronation. This prince reigned only three years, when he was treacherously murdered by his own soldiers, in an engagement against one of the revolted governors of the maritime provinces, in April 1562. He was succeeded by

Melech Segued, a wise and valiant prince, who was blessed with a long, and, for the most part, successful reign, though hardly ever free from war, either against some of his rebellious subjects, or his formidable and inveterate enemies the Gallas and Mahometan Moors. After reigning a little more than thirty-three years he died in 1595; and as he had no sons by his wife, designed a natural one, named Jaacob, for his successor; but having changed his mind a short time before his death, he left the crown to

Zedenghel, his brother's son, who, though in other respects a brave and noble prince, yet, on account of his too great fondness for the Romish church, unhappily proved the fatal cause of a most bloody civil war, as many of the grandees took Jaacob's part against him. Peter, the then abuna, was the principal leader of this rebellion; and, having absolved the Abyssinians from their oath of allegiance, they took up arms against him, whilst he, with the few forces he had left, and a small number of the Portuguese, venturing to give them battle, was defeated and killed, after he had reigned nine years, in October 1604.

Jaacob, on the death of Zedenghel his competitor, obtained the imperial dignity; but had not long enjoyed it, before he found himself strenuously opposed by the great grandson of Etana Danghel, whose name was Susneus, or Socinius, a young prince, no less artful than brave. The contest lasted somewhat longer than two years, when it was decided by an obstinate engagement on the 10th of March

March 1607; in which Jaacob and the abuna Peter loſt their lives on the field of battle.

The crown of Abyſſinia, then devolving to Suſneus, he immediately manifeſted his ſtrong attachment to the Roman catholic religion, notwithſtanding it had been very prejudicial to ſeveral of his predeceſſors. In conſequence of this, he gave ſuch encouragement to the Popiſh miſſionaries, that great numbers flocked thither during his reign, who in all probability would have univerſally eſtabliſhed the pope's authority in this country, had not a ſtop been put to their progreſs by the unexpected death of that monarch, who took leave of the empire and the world in November 1632, and was ſucceeded by his ſon,

Baritides, who aſſumed the name of Adzam Sagued. He had not long aſcended the throne, before he iſſued a decree againſt the Roman catholics; and through the whole of his reign, proved as great an enemy to the miſſionaries, as his father had been a friend and patron to them; inſomuch that before his death, he totally extirpated them from the empire. He died about the year 1664, and was ſucceeded by his ſon John, who, on his aſcenſion, took the name of Aclaf Segued. This prince, after reigning peaceably for ſixteen years, died ſuddenly; and was ſucceeded by his ſon Jawſo, or Adyan Seguel, who aſcended the throne in 1680, and, after reigning upwards of twenty-five years, was dethroned by his ſon Tahlimenoth, who took poſſeſſion of the crown in the year 1706, and enjoyed it but a ſhort time; for the people having conceived a univerſal diſguſt againſt him for his perfidy, cauſed him to be maſſacred about two years after by his own troops.

Teſilis, the brother of Tahlimenoth, then uſurped the throne. His reign, however, was little leſs permanent than that of his predeceſſor: his prime miniſter, named Ouſtas, the ſon of a ſiſter of Jawſo Adyan Segued, having dethroned him in the third year of his reign, and ſeized upon the crown. The Abyſſinians, however, would not ſuffer him to hold the imperial dignity longer than till they could raiſe another prince, named David, to the throne; but this was not effected till great ſlaughter had been made by both parties, as appears from accounts received from Mocha, dated June 1718.

David, having obtained intire poſſeſſion of the throne, enjoyed it without interruption during the remainder of his life; and the revolutions occaſioned by his acceſſion were the laſt of any conſequence that have happened in this empire, his ſucceſſors having from that time to the preſent regularly aſſumed the imperial dignity, and quietly enjoyed the honours annexed to it.

Having now given the moſt intereſting particulars we could meet with, relative to the Abyſſinian hiſtory; we ſhall, before we conclude our account of this country, give a ſuccinct account of the ſtrenuous attempts the Portugueſe have made to eſtabliſh their religion, the deſtruction it hath occaſioned, and their final extirpation by the natives.

The Portugueſe miſſionaries, reſorting to Ethiopia at the latter end of the fifteenth century, when their countrymen found the way round the cape of Good Hope, had almoſt made good catholics of the Ethiopians, and perſuaded their emperor, not only to acknowledge the pope's ſupremacy, but to admit a patriarch amongſt them, ſent thither from Rome. The government alſo conſented to aboliſh their antient rites and ceremonies, and conform entirely to the ritual of the Roman church: but many of the nobility and governors of the provinces, with a majority of the common people, having the greateſt abhorrence of the popiſh religion, roſe in arms againſt their emperor, which occaſioned civil wars in Ethiopia, that laſted upwards of one hundred years, wherein many thouſands were killed; but the court, with the aſſiſtance of the jeſuits, European engineers, and ſome Portugueſe troops, were generally victorious over thoſe of the ancient religion, but could never ſubdue their obſtinate perſeverance in it; and ſeveral provinces revolted entirely from the emperor.

Their emperors, however, continued ſtill to profeſs the popiſh religion, and ſubmit to the dictates of Rome; till at length the jeſuits, under pretence of maintaining the pope's eccleſiaſtical ſupremacy, took upon them to direct almoſt all ſecular affairs, treating the prince rather as viceroy to his holineſs, than ſovereign of the country; and having erected and garriſoned ſeveral fortreſſes, were ſending for European forces to maintain their uſurped power; which gave ſuch an alarm to the emperor, as well as to the nobility, that it was agreed at once to aboliſh popery, and reſtore their ancient religion. The Romiſh prieſts were hereupon generally ſacrificed to the fury of the people, and their patriarch very narrowly eſcaped out of the country, with his life: and when three capuchins afterwards came as far as Squaquena, upon the Red ſea, from whence they ſent letters to the emperor of Ethiopia, to obtain leave to come into his territories again, that prince requeſted the Turkiſh baſſa, who commanded on that coaſt, to ſuffer no franks to come that way into his territories, and to ſend him the heads of thoſe Capuchins: which the baſſa did not only oblige him in, but ſent him their ſkins flayed off, and ſtuffed, that he might know them to be franks by their colour, and prieſts by their ſhaved crowns.

Thus have the jeſuits and fathers of the Romiſh church procured their ſuperſtition to be baniſhed out of almoſt every country where they have planted it; they have indeed, by their ſkill in phyſic and mathematics, and an artful addreſs, inſinuated themſelves into the courts of many great princes; but then their advancing the pope's ſupremacy to ſuch an extravagant height, and pretending to controul the government in civil as well as eccleſiaſtical matters, has ever occaſioned their expulſion. Thus it was in Japan, where that emperor, finding them uſurping upon the civil authority, ordered every Chriſtian in his dominions to be maſſacred; and that no Chriſtian ſhould ever ſet his foot on ſhore there again. This has alſo put a ſtop to their progreſs in China, and occaſioned very ſevere perſecutions of the Chriſtians there; but ſtill they perſiſt in their encroachments on princes where they have an opportunity, and probably will never be ſatisfied, till they have made his holineſs univerſal monarch in temporals as well as ſpirituals; or procured their own extirpation, by the general conſent of Chriſtian princes, as the knights templars did by their inſolence in the fourteenth century.

SECT. VII.

Containing a Deſcription of NUBIA, ABEX, and ANIAN, their Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables and Animals; alſo the Perſons, Dreſs, Cuſtoms, and Manners of the Inhabitants; with an Account of the reſpective Cities in theſe Empires, and the Articles of their Commerce, &c.

NUBIA, which is alſo called Sennar, is bounded on the north, by Egypt; on the eaſt, by the Red ſea; on the ſouth, by Abyſſinia; and on the weſt, by the kingdoms of Tagua, Caoga, and the deſart of Gorham. It is ſituated between the thirteenth and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and between the twenty-fifth and thirty-eighth degrees of eaſt longitude, extending in an irregular oblong ſquare. Its principal rivers are the Nile, the Nubia, and the Sira. The Nile overflows here at its uſual ſeaſon, but not ſo conſiderably as in Egypt.

This country, though entirely under the torrid zone, is nevertheleſs in many places very fruitful, eſpecially on the banks of the Nile, where the inhabitants, as in Upper Egypt, raiſe the water up to the high banks by art and labour. Hence it produces ſome very fine fruits, with plenty of ſugar canes; but the natives are unacquainted with the method of making good ſugar. They have alſo a great variety of medicinal plants, roots, and drugs; with others that are extremely obnoxious, particularly a moſt dreadful poiſon, ſo quick and fatal in its operations, that, it is ſaid, a ſingle ſeed taken inwardly gives almoſt inſtant death. Theſe ſeeds grow on the top of a plant that reſembles our nettles, and it is ſaid that conſiderable quantities of it are exported to the neighbouring countries. Nubia alſo affords gold, ivory, ſanders, and other medicinal woods, and drugs.

Here are likewiſe great numbers of dromedaries, camels, horſes, and various kinds of wild beaſts, as lions, tygers, leopards, crocodiles, vipers, and ſeveral kinds of ſerpents, particularly one of a colour which ſo nearly reſembles that of the duſt, or ſand, in which it lurks, that it is not eaſily avoided, and its bite is commonly attended with almoſt immediate death, and that of the moſt painful and dreadful nature.

Moſt of the inhabitants are Mahometans; they are much given to cheating; are a ſtupid debauched people, and are ſaid to have neither modeſty, civility, nor religion. Thoſe that live in villages chiefly apply them to agriculture, except thoſe who inhabit the more deſart parts, who live upon plunder. Mr. Norden, who proceeded up the Nile, a conſiderable way into Nubia, found them baſe, treacherous, mean, and avaricious; eſpecially ſome of the great, who ſcruple neither threats nor entreaties to obtain the treaſures of thoſe whom they dare not plunder by open violence and force.

The natives are ſwarthy, and ſmall of ſtature. Thoſe

of ſuperior rank in the heart of the country wear a veſt without ſleeves; but the common people only wrap a piece of linen cloth about them, and the children go quite naked. However, perſons of quality wear fine looſe long robes of ſilk or cotton, and thoſe of the women reach to the ground; theſe laſt alſo adorn their hair with rings and other trinkets, ſilver, and braſs; yet have nothing on their legs or feet but a kind of ſandal, or leather ſole. As for the women of lower rank, they only wear a ſhort kind of petticoat, from the waiſt to the knees.

They fight to greater advantage on horſeback than on foot, for they are very expert horſemen; but, they poiſon their weapons, and the Turks ſeldom care to attack them; they are however almoſt continually at war with the inhabitants of Gorham, the deſart tracts on the ſouth weſt, or making excurſions as far as to the Red Sea, in the eaſtern parts.

Mr. Poncet, a French phyſician, who paſſed through this country, in his way to Ethiopia, ſays, they are ſubject to a prince, who wears a long robe, embroidered with gold and ſilver, faſtened with a girdle of the fineſt cotton. On his head he has a turban of the ſame, and never appears in public without having his face veiled with a ſilk gauſe of various colours. Strangers, who are permitted to pay their homage to him, are obliged to pull off their ſhoes, and kneeling, to kiſs the ground two or three times; and his ſubjects always appear barefooted before him.

The ſame author obſerves, that the royal palace is a large confuſed pile of buildings, without any regularity, and ſurrounded with a high brick wall; it is, however, furniſhed with every thing eſteemed curious, rich, and coſtly; and the floors, after the manner of the eaſtern nations, are covered with the fineſt ſilk carpets. This prince applies himſelf five days in the week to affairs of ſtate, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, at which time he ſits at the head of his council, and decides cauſes with the utmoſt expedition. When ſentence of death is paſſed on the criminal, it is immediately executed by laying him flat on his back, and beating him on the breaſt with a ſtick till he expires. It is alſo ſaid, that on the death of the king the grand council aſſemble, and have the inhumanity to cauſe all the brothers of their new ſovereign to be put to death. However, the accounts we have both of this country and Abyſſinia are not entirely to be depended upon; though the author laſt mentioned ſeems to have as much veracity as thoſe writers among the Jeſuits, who have deſcribed the country of Abyſſinia, and have endeavoured with the utmoſt malignity, to deſtroy his credit as an hiſtorian.

The king of Nubia is a deſpotic, independent, and powerful prince. Dangala or Dongola, and Sennar, the capital, are the chief cities of Nubia.

Sennar is ſituated in the fourteenth degree, north latitude, and twenty-ninth degree, eaſt longitude. It ſtands on the eaſtern bank of the Nile, and is bounded on the ſouth by Abyſſinia, and on the weſt by Gagoa. It is pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence, between which is a large plain, covered with a great variety of odoriferous fruit trees. It is about five miles in circumference; and ſo populous, that the inhabitants are eſtimated at one hundred thouſand. The houſes in general are low, flat, and ill built; and thoſe in particular without the city are truly wretched, conſiſting only of poor ſmall huts made of wood and mud. Proviſions of all kinds are here very plentiful and cheap; and a market is held every day in the centre of the city for the ſale of them. The inhabitants make fine wheaten bread for ſtrangers, but they chuſe a coarſer ſort for their own eating. The inconveniencies attending this city are chiefly owing to the air being very unwholeſome from the exceſſive heats, which are alſo attended with violent rains, ſo as ſometimes to prove fatal to men and beaſts from the diſorders produced by it.

A conſiderable trade is carried on here, in all parts, between this city and Dangala, as alſo from thence down to Cairo, and other parts of Egypt. The commodities they diſpoſe of are gold, muſk, elephants teeth, in return for which they receive ſpices, cottons, ſilks, and other commodities belonging to India.

Dangala is ſituated in nineteen degrees, ten minutes, north latitude, and twenty ſeven-degrees, ten minutes, eaſt longitude. It ſtands on the eaſtern banks of the Nile, near the confines of Gagoa, and is about two hundred and fifty miles from Sennar. It is extremely populous, and is ſaid to contain at leaſt ten thouſand houſes; but they are all inſignificant buildings, being very low, and made only of mud and wood, and covered with ſtraw. The inhabitants however are moſt of them very rich, and carry on a conſiderable traffic with Cairo, and other parts of Egypt, where they exchange their own commodities, eſpecially ſanders and muſk, for arms, linen cloth, &c.

There are four principal towns in this kingdom, namely, Cuſa, Guola, Jalac, and Sula; but they are all very trifling, neither of them containing any thing worthy of particular deſcription.

Moſt of the villages, of which there are many, are ſituated on the banks of the Nile, and other rivers, for the convenience of watering the grounds. Theſe are tolerably pleaſant; but the reſt, which are in deſart parts, are very thinly inhabited, and make but a mean appearance.

The ſmall kingdom of Gorham lies to the ſouth of Nubia; but we know little of it elſe, than that it is chiefly a deſart country, and that the inhabitants of it are generally at war with the Nubians, and other adjoining kingdoms. The people are very rude and ignorant, go about naked, and live chiefly by plunder. There is not a ſingle village in the whole kingdom, or any thing that looks like one, except a few wretched huts ſituated along the White River, which divides this territory from Abyſſinia, and falls into the Nile ſome leagues below the city of Sennar, otherwiſe called Nubia.

We muſt not omit to mention, that the language of the Nubians is peculiar to themſelves, but bears ſome kind of affinity to the Arabic: it is not however univerſally ſpoken throughout the whole kingdom, for in the deſolate parts, which are inhabited by a different kind of people, they ſpeak a language that does not border either on the one or the other; ſo that theſe and the inhabitants of the more civilized parts of the country, can ſcarcely converſe together at all.

The country of Abex, or Habeſh, is only a narrow ſlip of land which extends along the weſtern or African ſhore of the Red ſea, and was formerly a part of Upper Ethiopia, though it is at preſent ſubject to the Turks, who ſeized on all its bays and ports from Egypt to the Straits of Babelmandel, by which means the natives of Abyſſinia were excluded from all intercourſe with the Red ſea.

The air is not only ſultry, but foggy and unwholeſome, eſpecially after ſun-ſet; and the country is ſandy and ſo parched by the ſun, that it is almoſt barren, and produces few of the neceſſaries of life. It has however ſome deer, and alſo ſheep of a prodigious ſize, with large tails like thoſe we have deſcribed in treating of Syria, p. 281; it is alſo ſaid to abound with a great number of lions, tygers, and other wild animals.

A long chain of inacceſſible mountains ſecure the weſtern part of this track of land, and prevent the paſſage of an army from Abyſſinia into their country, there being only two narrow paſſes, that of Suakin and that of Arkico; and even in theſe paſſes the road is ſo rugged and difficult, that there is no travelling above five or ſix miles a day, and conſequently they may be eaſily defended againſt a numerous army by a handful of troops.

The natives are a mixture of Turks, Egyptians, Ethiopians, Caffres, and Arabs.

Suaquam and Arkico, or Ercoco, are the chief towns; beſides which there is a number of villages of fiſhermen. Suaquam is built on a ſmall iſland of its own name, ſituated in nineteen degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and is one of the beſt ſea ports in the Red ſea; the entrance into the harbour is by a narrow ſtrait that reaches into a lake, in the midſt of which is the iſland on which the town is built. All the houſes are of ſtone and mortar, and here reſides a Turkiſh governor under the baſha of Cairo. Turks and Arabs are the principal inhabitants of this city.

The town of Arkico, or Ercoco, is ſituated in ſixteen degrees five minutes north latitude, on the coaſt of the Red ſea, and is defended by a caſtle; but is ſmall, and neither rich nor populous.

Several petty kingdoms, ſcarce worthy of notice: one of the principal of theſe is Dancali, or Danraly, which extends beyond the ſtraits of Babelmandel. The ſoil is for the moſt part dry, ſandy, and barren; for the whole country labours under a great ſcarcity of water, and that which they have is very brackiſh. The land produces little beſides ſome hardy vegetables that ſerve to feed the goats, which are in a manner the only quadrupeds in the country. It has ſome ports in the Red ſea, the principal of which is Baliur, and having ſome ſalt mines, the produce of them is ſent into other countries, and in return they receive the neceſſaries of life. Their king, though a Mahometan, is ſaid to be tributary to the Abyſſinian monarch.

Anian

Anian extends along the ſouthern coaſt of the gulf of Babelmandel to cape Guardafuy, and from the twelfth degree of north latitude to the equator; it being bounded on the north by the gulf of Babelmandel, on the eaſt by the Indian ocean, on the ſouth by Zanguebar, and by Abyſſinia and the unknown parts of Africa on the weſt.

The climate being exceeding hot, all the eaſtern coaſt is a mere ſandy barren tract, producing neither corn, fruit, nor any animals, but of the wild kind, on which account it is generally called the Deſart coaſt; but the northern coaſt, which is waſhed by the gulf, is a fertile country that produces plenty of proviſions, in which the natives carry on a conſiderable commerce. They have alſo an excellent breed of horſes, which foreign merchants purchaſe in great numbers, in exchange for ſilks, cottons, and other commodities.

Along the north coaſt the inhabitants are for the moſt part white, with long black hair, and grow more tawny, or even quite black, on proceeding towards the ſouth. Here are likewiſe many negroes, who live and intermarry with the Arabs ſettled in the country, and carry on a great commerce with them in ſlaves, horſes, gold and ivory, which they commonly bring from Abyſſinia; where they are almoſt conſtantly waging war; and, by their frequent inroads into that kingdom, have rendered themſelves a warlike people.

Several kingdoms are included in this tract, the moſt conſiderable of which is that of Adel, ſo called from its metropolis, which authors have not deſcribed; it is alſo named Zeila, from another ſea-port ſituated on the ſouthern coaſt of the Red ſea. This kingdom has the ſtraits of Babelmandel on the north, part of the eaſtern ocean on the eaſt, and the Gallas with the kingdoms of Dancali and unknown countries on the weſtern part.

Zeila is ſeated on a ſpacious bay, to the ſouth-eaſt of the mouth of the ſtraits of Babelmandel, in eleven degrees ten minutes north latitude, and forty-four degrees thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude from London. This city is extremely populous, the ſtreets are regularly laid out, and the houſes built of free-ſtone. Its haven is very commodious, and it carries on a conſiderable commerce, it being the place through which the greateſt part of the merchandize carried into the Abyſſinian empire commonly paſſes, as well as thoſe that are conſumed in the kingdom of Adel.

The ſoil about Zeila is only a dry barren ſand, and the inhabitants are obliged to fetch freſh water at the diſtance of two days journey from the city, where the country abounds with corn and fruit to ſuch a degree, that the inhabitants cannot conſume it all; on which account, the people of the neighbouring places come thither to purchaſe proviſions, and carry goods in return.

Barbora, the next city, is ſituated at the bottom of a bay, on an iſland of its own name. It has been all along a kind of rival in commerce with Zeila, and is no leſs reſorted to by foreign merchants.

The iſland, which is almoſt contiguous to the continent, is very fertile, and produces plenty of corn, fruit, and cattle, great part of which is exported into other countries.

The other parts of the kingdom of Adel being generally flat, and with very few hills, they have ſeldom any rains; but that defect is abundantly ſupplied by the many rivers that run through the country. One of theſe rivers named the Hawaſh, flows down from the Abyſſinian mountains, and receiving ſome other rivers, takes a circuit before it enters the kingdom of Adel. This river is very broad and deep, but it has ſcarce run ſix miles through the country of Adel, before the inhabitants divide it into ſuch a multitude of canals, that it is in ſome meaſure exhauſted before it reaches the ſea. This renders the country ſo rich in grain, fruit, and other proviſions, that part of it is conveyed into the neighbouring kingdoms.

They have plenty of wheat, barley, and millet, and a variety of cows, ſheep and other beaſts; but their principal traffic conſiſts in gold-duſt, elephants teeth, frankincenſe and negro ſlaves, which the inhabitants of Adel carry to the port of Zeila, where they never fail of meeting with merchants from Arabia, Guzarat, and other parts, who give in exchange for them cloths of cotton, ſilk, and linen of various ſorts, collars, bracelets, and other ornaments of amber and cryſtal, with dates, raiſins, and other articles of merchandize.

The natives are brave and warlike, and fight with ſurpriſing intrepidity againſt the Abyſſinians, who are far from being equal to them in valour, diſcipline, and offenſive weapons, the Adelites being furniſhed by the Turks and Arabs with variety of fire arms.

Their dreſs conſiſts of a piece of cotton cloth, which covers them only from the girdle to a little below the knee, the reſt of their body being naked; but the king and nobles of both ſexes wear a kind of looſe garment, which covers their whole body, and a cap on their heads: however, all the women are very fond of adorning their necks, arms, wriſts, and ancles, with bracelets of braſs or amber, and other decorations.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

EGYPT.

SECT. I.

Treating of the Name, Situation, and Boundaries, Climate, Diviſions, Deſcription of the River Nile, Produce of the Country, &c.

THE name of Egypt, according to the claſſicks, is derived from (Egyptus,) the brother of Danaus, once ſovereign of this country. It is called Miſraim by the Hebrews and Arabs, which name it is ſuppoſed to have obtained from Miſraim, the ſon of Cham, and grandſon of Noah. It has alſo been known by the name of Coptus, the capital city of Upper Egypt, from whence the natives were called Cophtis, as the Chriſtians of Egypt are at this day; and, notwithſtanding they are the moſt numerous, are looked upon to be the true deſcendants of the antient Egyptians.

The Turks call this country El-kebit, or the overflowed country: and a multitude of other names have been given to it; but by theſe it has been moſt generally known.

Egypt is ſituated on the north-eaſt part of Africa, being bounded by the Mediterranean ſea on the north: by the Red ſea, and the Iſthmus of Suez, which divide it from Aſia, towards the eaſt: by the empire of Abyſſinia and Nubia towards the ſouth; and by the deſart of Barca towards the weſt. It extends from the twenty-firſt degree of northern latitude, to the thirty-firſt and ſome odd minutes beyond; and conſequently muſt be about ſix hundred miles in length from ſouth to north; but the breadth in many places does not ſeem to be near two hundred miles.

The air of this country is not healthful, the ſituation being very low, and the mud which covers the beſt part of it after the overflowing of the Nile, ſending up a noiſome vapour. The ſandy deſarts alſo, which encloſe Egypt on three ſides, render it exceſſive hot. Nor are there more than two ſprings in the whole country to refreſh the parched inhabitants; ſo that they ſeem to be under a neceſſity of building their towns on the banks of the Nile. Accordingly moſt of them ſtand near the river upon riſing ground,

ſo made by art or nature: and when the river overflows, appear like ſo many iſlands, which have a communication with each other only by boats. It ſeldom rains here in the ſummer; but in the winter, modern travellers aſſures us, it rains plentifully ſometimes, eſpecially in Lower Egypt; notwithſtanding it was univerſally believed formerly, that it never rained here at all; which error, we preſume, was occaſioned by the relation of ſome travellers, who had reſided but part of the year in Egypt, and had not informed themſelves of the different ſeaſons.

This country, as has been obſerved already, is uſually divided into lower, middle, and upper Egypt. Lower Egypt is moſt part of it contained in a triangular iſland, made by the Mediterranean ſea, and the two great branches of the Nile, which dividing itſelf five or ſix miles below Old Cairo, flows one part of it towards the north-weſt, and falls into the ſea at Roſſetto, and the other branch towards the north-eaſt; falling into the ſea at Damieta, the antient Peluſium: but there is a great extent of country both to the eaſtward and weſtward of this triangle, which is included under the name of Lower Egypt. But we ſhall ſpeak more particularly of theſe diviſions, when we come to deſcribe the chief towns, and the antiquities contained in them.

Dr. Pococke obſerves, that the ſoil of Egypt being full of nitre, occaſions vapours that render the evening air cold and unhealthful. On the ſmall lakes in the low grounds a cake of ſalt is left on the ſurface after the water has evaporated, which they carry away for domeſtic uſes. This nitre, and the ſediment of the water of the Nile, renders Egypt ſo fruitful, that they ſometimes find it neceſſary to temper it with common ſand. For within a mile of the mountains the country is ſandy, and lies upon an eaſy aſcent, which the Nile never reaches, and on the edge of it are many villages; but where the mountains extend four or five miles from the Nile, there are villages in the midway between them and the river built on eminences raiſed by art; and theſe reſemble ſo many iſlands, from their being ſurrounded with water, during the flood.

The river Nile or Abanchi, which in the Abyſſinian language ſignifies the father of rivers, hath its ſources, as is generally held, in eleven or twelve degrees of northern latitude, in the empire of Abyſſinia: but whether the Portugueſe jeſuits, as is pretended, or any other perſons have diſcovered the very fountains it iſſues from, is very much queſtioned, the country where it riſes, as ſome of the natives relate, being covered with vaſt impenetrable woods. This river runs a courſe of about fifteen hundred miles from ſouth to north for the moſt part, and a little below Cairo dividing itſelf into two branches, one inclining to the eaſt and the other to the weſt, falls into the Mediterranean, the mouths being about an hundred miles aſunder. As for any other branches of this river our modern travellers take no notice of them, and probably thoſe that have been mentioned by antient writers were only canals cut from one of theſe, particularly the canal which was made to convey the water from the river to Alexandria, ſeems in our maps to be laid down for one: however, certain it is, there are no other branches navigable at this day than thoſe of Damieta and Roſetto. While the river is contained within the bounds of the ordinary channel, we do not find it is broader at Old Cairo than the Thames at London, and in the drieſt ſeaſon of the year is fordable in many places. In the upper part of the ſtream there are ſeven cataracts where the water falls in ſheets from a very great height, cauſing a prodigious noiſe; but through Lower Egypt it ſlides along with a very gentle ſtream, and paſſengers are ſeldom ſurprized by tempeſts on it, as has been obſerved. The water is very thick and muddy, eſpecially when it is ſwelled by thoſe heavy rains, which conſtantly fall within the tropicks in the beginning of the ſummer, and theſe are the occaſion of its overflowing the low lands in Egypt annually. The antients, who were unacquainted with thoſe latitudes, were much perplexed to diſcover the true cauſe of deluge; but at this day every traveller obſerves, that this is the caſe of all rivers which have their riſe or courſe within the tropicks; they break their ordinary bounds annually, and overflow the lands for many miles before they reach the ſea, particularly in Tonquin, Siam, Bengal, &c. And theſe alſo leave a prolifick mud which yields a vaſt increaſe, like that which the Nile leaves in Egypt; and though the waters of all theſe rivers be very thick, when they have ſtood ſome time, they are not unwholeſome or unpalatable, and ſome eſteem them preferable to ſpring water, on account of the long courſe they run in latitudes where the ſun has ſo much influence.

There are great rejoicings annually in Egypt, when the river Nile riſes to a certain height, for upon this depends the fruitfulneſs of the country; and at the cutting of the banks to let it into their canals, from whence it is diſtributed into their reſpective fields, is ſolemnized one of their greateſt feſtivals. The river uſually begins to ſwell in the month of May, and on the 28th of June they publiſh in Cairo, and other towns, by a crier, how much the water is increaſed.

One circumſtance, however, belongs to this river, which is of a peculiar nature. Other rivers being ſupplied by rivulets, the ground is loweſt near the banks; but as no water flows into the Nile in its paſſage through Egypt, and as it is neceſſary that this river ſhould overflow the land, the country of Egypt is generally lower at a diſtance from the Nile than it is near it; and the land ſeems, in moſt parts, to have a gradual deſcent from the Nile to the foot of the hills, that may be ſaid to begin at thoſe ſandy parts already mentioned, as being a mile or two from them, which are never overflowed, ſince they riſe towards the mountains in a gradual aſcent.

The cataracts in Upper Egypt, are ſome of the moſt remarkable particulars in relation to the Nile. Several authors have viſited them; one of whom obſerves, that, on approaching them, he never ſaw nature diſcover ſo rough a face as appeared in the country. Nothing is to be ſeen on the eaſt ſide of the river, but rocks; on the weſt, the hills are either of ſand or black rocks: above to the ſouth, there ſeems to be a high rocky iſland; higher up, rocky cliffs appear on each ſide; and below, to the north, are ſo many rocks, that little of the water could be ſeen. The bed of the Nile is croſſed by rocks of granite, which in three places, at ſome diſtance from each other, divide the ſtream, and make three falls at each. The firſt he came to was the leaſt, and appeared not to exceed three feet: the ſecond, which is a little lower down the river, winds round a large rock, or iſland, forming two ſtreams. This iſland is about twelve feet high towards the north, and we are told that at high water the Nile runs over it; but ſuppoſing the river to be then five feet higher below the rock, the fall will not exceed ſeven or eight feet. There are other rocks farther to the weſt; and a third ſtream, which has a greater fall than any of the reſt.

We are not able, however, from this account, to form any idea of theſe cataracts deſcribed by the antients, and even by ſome of the moderns, who inform us, that under the twenty-third degree of latitude, the water of the Nile iſſues from ſeveral large openings of a high rock into its bed below, falling near two hundred feet with ſuch prodigious noiſe as to exceed that of the firing of cannon, or the loudeſt claps of thunder. The water, in its fall, reſembles a large white ſheet about thirty feet in breadth, which in its rapid deſcent forms a kind of arch, under which people may walk without being wet; and this ſeems to have been formerly the amuſement of the neighbouring people, there being ſeveral niches and ſeats in the rock for the convenience of ſitting down. There are alſo, under the arch made by the caſcade, a kind of platform, and ſome ſubterraneous grottos, into which the people uſed to retire, in order to cool themſelves; but theſe are now become inacceſſible by the breaking in of the water from ſome freſh gaps of the rock. It is alſo obſervable, that the water, in its fall below, raiſes a thick miſt, which at a diſtance reſembles a cloud; and yet one who tells us he ſaw this cataract, affirms, that the natives ſhoot it with rafts; which circumſtance we think very improbable, though it is certainly conformable to Lucan's antient deſcription of it. The learned Dr. Shaw's accounts of the cataracts agree with the deſcriptions of the judicious Dr. Pococke and Mr. Norden, and ſeems to diſcredit every thing that is marvellous in the above relation: for he aſſures us, that they are only ordinary falls of water, like thoſe we frequently meet with in great rivers, where the ſtream is a little confined: but (and which ſeems highly probable) may not the cataracts farther up the Nile be much higher, and more agreeable to the deſcriptions of the antients, than thoſe viſited by theſe gentlemen?

Thoſe authors, who have given deſcriptions of Egypt, contented with ſaying that its fertility is ſolely to be aſcribed to the annual inundation of the Nile, have, by their ſilence, given occaſion to think that Egypt is a paradiſe on earth, where the people neither plow nor ſow, but every thing is produced as it were ſpontaneouſly after the draining of the waters: though few lands have more need of cultivation than thoſe of Egypt.

The people have been taught, by neceſſity, to form various methods of raiſing the water, where the land lies higher

higher than the inundation riſes. This is done at Damieta (where the Nile, when at its height, is not much below the ſurface of the earth) by means of a wheel made with boxes round its circumference, which receive the water, and as the wheel turns round, the boxes empty themſelves at the top into a trough made for that purpoſe. Where the water is too deep to be raiſed in this manner, they put a cord round the wheel that reaches down to the water, to the end of which are faſtened earthen jars that fill as it goes round, and empty themſelves at the top in the ſame manner as the other; both being turned by oxen. But where the banks are high, the moſt common way is to make a baſon upon them, and fixing in the ground a pole forked at the top, they place another pole by an axle to the top of it. To one end of this laſt pole they tie a heavy ſtone, and at the other a rope and a leathern bucket. Two men draw down the bucket into the water, and the weight brings it up, the men directing it, and turning the water into the baſon. This baſon is frequently made on the ſide of the bank, and running into another is raiſed up higher with the ſame labour; and in Upper Egypt there are ſometimes ſeen five of them, one higher than the other, the uppermoſt only ſerving to water the fields. However, in Lower and Middle Egypt, where canals have been dug, they have no occaſion for all this labour. The water is conveyed by opening ſluices, or breaking down banks, through canals cut for that purpoſe, into large reſervoirs which are made to ſupply the lower lands as there is occaſion for it.

They ſometimes alſo near Cairo uſe leathern veſſels, and an hydraulic machine, called the Perſian wheel, to pour water into the canals; and very ingenious methods have been invented to retain the water upon the ground till ſufficient humidity is imbibed, and the ſoil thoroughly ſoaked. The grand Signor is not intitled to his tribute till the canal is opened at Grand Cairo; and when the baſſa opens it, the people refuſe to pay tribute, unleſs the waters are ſixteen cubits high.

With reſpect to the natural hiſtory of this country, we muſt firſt obſerve, that Egypt naturally produces few vegetables, moſt of the tender plants being deſtroyed by the heat and inundation; but where the Nile has overflowed, and the land is plowed and ſown, it yields a great increaſe. Egypt, which was anciently the granary of the Roman empire, ſtill produces great quantities of wheat, rice, barley, beans, and other kinds of pulſe, with which the neighbouring countries are ſupplied; beſides ſugar canes, of which ſome ſugar is made; and likewiſe melons, dates, figs, cucumbers, and other vegetables, which the people eat in hot weather as a cooling food.

Upper Egypt ſupplies moſt parts of Europe with ſenna; and coloquintida grows wild in the ſandy grounds: but as Egypt has no common graſs, they ſupply the want of it by ſowing the land with clover, without plowing. The ſpring corn and vegetables are ſown in November and December, as ſoon as the Nile is fallen, and ſooner where that river does not naturally overflow the ground. This corn conſiſts of wheat, lentils, and barley that has ſix rows of grain in one ear; and with this they feed their horſes, for they have no oats. They ſow beans for their camels, and theſe the people alſo eat green both raw and boiled. They have a kind of vetch little inferior to peaſe, with one large grain in each pod; they alſo plant an herb called nill, of which they make a kind of indigo blue, reſembling that uſed in Europe.

Moſt of the trees in Egypt ſeem to have been tranſplanted from other countries: for thoſe in their gardens are doubtleſs exotics, as the cons, or cream-trees, apricots, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, caſſia, cotton-tree, and moſch, a delicious fruit.

The papyrus is a production of Egypt, thought not ſo plentifully as formerly. This reed grew principally on the borders of the Nile, and ſerved the antients for writing-paper.

The moſt common trees in Egypt, are, the ſount, which bears a key or pod uſed inſtead of bark in tanning of leather, the tamariſk, Pharaoh's fig, the ſycamore of the antients, the palm, or date-tree, and is another ſpecies of the palm.

Four-footed beaſts, are not very numerous here: the cows are large and red, with ſhort horns: the natives make uſe of their oxen to turn the wheel with which they raiſe the water, and to plow the land. They have alſo large buffaloes, which are ſo impatient of heat, that they will ſtand in the water with only their noſes out to breathe; and when this convenience is not to be had, they will lie wallowing in mud and water all day like ſwines.

They have a great number of beaſts of burden, particularly camels and dromedaries, and the Turks eat the fleſh of the young ones as a moſt delicate diſh; but will not permit it to be eaten by the Chriſtians, probably that the breed may not be deſtroyed. The horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Upper Egypt, are very fine ones; but their necks are too ſhort. They never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable; but they cannot perform long journies, and are only fit to walk in travelling. During the heat of ſummer, when there is no clover-graſs, they are fed with chopped ſtraw and barley. In Cairo all but the great ride on aſſes, of which they have a fine large breed, and in that city there are ſaid to be no leſs than forty thouſand of them.

Great numbers of antelopes are about Alexandria: they have longer horns, and are more beautiful than thoſe in other countries. The hares and foxes are of a light colour, but the former are not very common. The tyger and the hyena are ſeldom ſeen; however they have alſo ſome of theſe here.

Of the birds in Egypt, the oſtrich deſerves the preference; it is called in Arabic ter-gimel, or the camel-bird, becauſe in its head, neck, and walk, it reſembles the camel. This bird is common in the mountains ſouth-weſt of Alexandria; its fat is ſold by the Arabs, and uſed as an ointment for the rheumatiſm, palſy, and all cold tumours. They have here a kind of large domeſtic hawk, of a brown colour, with a very fine eye. Theſe frequent the tops of houſes, where they may be ſeen with pigeons ſtanding cloſe by them; but though they are not birds of prey, they eat fleſh wherever they find it: the natives never kill them, for they, as well as their anceſtors, ſeem to entertain a veneration both for theſe birds and for cats. The ter-chacus, or meſſenger bird, would be thought very beautiful were it not ſo common; it is almoſt as large as a dove, and is not only finely ſpeckled, but has on the top of its head a tuft of feathers which it ſpreads when it alights on the ground.

They have alſo a beautiful white bird, called by the Europeans the field hen; it reſembles a ſtork, but is not half ſo large, and is ſeen about the fields like a tame fowl. They have likewiſe a large white bird with black wings, ſhaped like a raven; but it is very ugly, and not at all ſhy: theſe laſt are called Pharaoh's hens, and live in the ſame manner as the tame hawk.

Great numbers of the birds called ibis, are found on the iſlands in the Nile: theſe were held in great veneration by the Egyptians, on account of their delivering the country from the multitude of ſerpents that breed in the ground after the retreat of the Nile. They are of a greyiſh colour, with the wings and tail black, and reſemble the crane.

The ſtork is held in the higheſt eſteem and veneration by the Mahometans; it being as ſacred among them as the ibis was among the Egyptians, and no leſs profane would that perſon be accounted, who ſhould attempt to kill, or only hurt or moleſt it. The great regard paid to theſe birds was at firſt, perhaps, leſs occaſioned by the ſervice they are to moiſt fenny countries, in clearing them of a variety of reptiles and inſects, than from the ſolemn geſticulations they are obſerved to make whenever they reſt upon the ground, or return to their neſts: for they firſt throw their heads backwards, as it were, in a poſture of adoration; then ſtrike, as with a pair of caſtanets, their upper and lower bill together, and afterwards proſtrate their necks in a ſuppliant manner quite down to the ground; conſtantly repeating the ſame motions three or four times together.

Here are alſo great flocks of wild geeſe of ſeveral kinds, wild ducks, woodcocks, ſnipes, quails, &c. and eagles and vultures are among their birds of prey.

In this country are ſeveral ſorts of yellow lizards, among which is the worral, which is ſaid to be affected by muſic; Dr. Shaw ſays, he has ſeen ſeveral of them keep exact time and motion with the derviſes in their circulatory dances, turning when they turned, and ſtopping when they ſtopped. This animal, which is of the lizard kind, is four feet long, eight inches broad, and has a forked tongue, which it puts out like a ſerpent, but it has no teeth, and is harmleſs, living on lizards and flies. It frequents the grottos and caverns in the mountains on the weſt of the Nile, and is only found during the hot weather, as it always ſleeps during the winter.

There are two ſpecies of vipers in Egypt, which are much eſteemed in phyſic; they are of a yellowiſh colour like the ſand in which they live, one with a kind of horns, which have ſome reſemblance to thoſe of ſnails, but are of a horny ſubſtance; and the others like thoſe in Europe.

Few

Few of the fish found in any of the rivers of Europe, except eels and mullets, and no kind of shell-fish, are to be met with in the Nile; and the former, with some others, come only at certain seasons from the sea. Of those most esteemed are the ray, which resembles a carp, but is said to be sometimes two hundred pounds weight. The most delicate fish is the hesker, which is only caught in Upper Egypt; it has a long narrow snout, and so small a mouth that one would imagine it could only live by sucking the juice out of the weeds on the ground. Here is a small fish in Upper Egypt called the gurgur, which is about a foot long: its head is armed with a strong bone; the fin on the back, and those on each side under the gills, are also armed with bone. The inhabitants believe that the crocodile is frequently killed by this fish.

Many of the creatures described by the antients are unknown to the modern inhabitants of Egypt, particularly the hippopotamus, or river-horse, which is supposed to be a native of Ethiopia in the upper parts of the Nile; and the crocodile so rarely appears below the first cataracts, that the sight of it is as great an object of curiosity here, as to the Europeans; and though this creature was thought peculiar to Egypt, yet there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both in the form of a lizard; are amphibious animals, which grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs with large feet armed with claws. They have a flat head; their eyes are indifferently large, and their back is covered with scales, of a square form, which, though extremely hard, are not proof against a musket-ball, as some have asserted.

As many ridiculous and marvellous stories have been told concerning the crocodile, some of which have proceeded from travellers taking the most absurd tales upon trust, and others have been the manufacture of their inventive faculties, in order to impose upon the credulous; we shall therefore present our readers with the following description of one that was dissected some years since by the jesuits: "It was eighteen feet and a half in length, of which the tail was five feet and a half, and the head and neck about two feet and a half; the circumference was four feet nine inches in the thickest part; the fore legs had the same parts and make as the arms of a man both within and without; the fore feet had five fingers, the two last of which had no nails, and were of a conical figure; the hinder legs, including the thigh and paw, were two feet two inches long: the paws, from the joint to the extremity of the longest claws, were about nine inches; they were divided into four toes, of which three were armed with large claws, the longest of which was an inch and a half; these toes were united by a membrane, resembling those of a duck, but thicker. The head was long, with a little rising at the top, but the rest was flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws; it was covered by a skin adhering firmly to the scull and to the jaws. The scull was rough, and unequal in several places; and about the middle of the forehead there were two long crests, about four inches high; the scull, between these two crests, was impenetrable by a musket-ball, for it only rendered the part it struck against a little white. The eye, in proportion, was very small, and so placed within its orbit, that the external part, when the lid was closed, was only an inch long, and the line running parallel to the opening of the jaws: it was covered with a double lid, one within and one without; that within was folded in the great corner of the eye, and had a motion towards the tail, but being transparent, it covered the eye without hindering the sight. The iris was very large in proportion to the globe of the eye, and was of a yellowish grey colour. Above the eye the ear was placed, which opened from above downwards, as it were by a kind of spring, by means of a solid, thick and cartilaginous substance. The nose was placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and was perfectly round and flat, being nearly two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog. The jaws appeared to shut within each other; and the opinion commonly received is false, that the animal's under jaw is without motion, for it moves like the lower jaw in all other animals; while the upper jaw is fixed to the scull, and absolutely immoveable. The animal hath twenty-seven cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and fifteen in the lower, with several void spaces between them; they were thick at the bottom and sharp at the point, being all of different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which were in the lower jaw, and four in the upper. The mouth was fifteen inches long, and eight and a half in the broadest part; the distance of the two jaws, when opened as wide as they could be, was fifteen inches and an half. The colour of the body was of a dark brown on the upper part, and of a whitish citron below, with large spots of both colours. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail, it was covered with large square scales, disposed like parallel girdles, and fifty-two in number; but those near the tail were thinner than the rest. The animal was covered not only with these, but all over with a coat of armour, which, however, as we before observed, might be penetrated by a musket-ball. Those parts of the girdle underneath the belly were of a whitish colour, and were made up of scales of divers shapes, which were not so hard as those on the back. The gullet was large when compared to the mouth; and a ball of wood, as large as a man's hand, readily ran down and was drawn up again. The entrails were but short in proportion, being not so long as the animal's body. The tongue (which some have erroneously, from Pliny, asserted this animal is without) consisted of a thick, spongy, soft flesh, and was strongly connected to the lower jaw. The heart was about the size of a calf's, and of a bright red colour, the blood passing as well from the veins to the aorta as into the lungs: there was no bladder, but the kidnies sent the urine to be discharged by the anus. There were sixty two joints in the back-bone, which though very closely connected, had sufficient play to enable the animal to bend like a bow to the right and the left; so that what we are told of escaping a crocodile, by turning out of the right line, seems to be fabulous; nor is there any foundation for the story that the tears and alluring voice of this creature will draw persons to it, in hopes of devouring them; or that the little bird hochilos lives on the meat it picks from the crocodiles teeth; or that the ichneumon, or rat of Pharaoh, destroys this animal, by jumping into his mouth, and cutting his way out again through his belly, though it must be confessed he is a terrible enemy to this species, and destroys both his eggs and young fry with great avidity.

The crocodiles will leap out of the river on a man or beast that stands near it, and seize him with their fore-paws; but if the distance be too great, they make a spring, and with their tails endeavour to beat down their prey.

We are told, that the most common method of killing crocodiles, is, by shooting them in the belly, where the skin is soft, and not covered with scales like the back. The natives destroy them by making some animals cry at a distance, and when the crocodile comes out, they thrust a spear, to which a rope is tied, into his body; then letting him retire into the water to spend himself, they afterwards draw him out, run a pole into his mouth, and, leaping upon his back tie his jaws together. The people say, they cannot seize a man in the water, and therefore frequently cross the Nile by swimming both by themselves and with their cattle, even above the first cataract, where there are a great number of crocodiles.

They are not fond of salt water, but love to continue in rivers. They lay their eggs in the sand, having previously dug a hole with their fore-paws to deposit them in. Having delivered some of their burden, they cover up the place with great care, and then retire. The next day they return again, uncover the place, lay about the same number of eggs, and then retire till the ensuing day, when they repeat the same for the last time, after which the hole is finally closed. As soon as the eggs are hatched by the warmth of the sun, which happens at the end of thirty days, the young ones begin to break the shell. The mother, by instinct, goes at the same time to assist them by scratching away the sand. The moment they are at liberty, the strongest move towards the water, and the rest mount upon the back of the mother, who carries them safely to it; but the moment they arrive at the water, all natural connection ceases, for when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, she and the males become their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can; the whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom, and most of them are destroyed. This animal is not only an enemy to its own species, but is at perpetual war with all other living creatures. Man is its professed foe, and kills it to prevent its depredations, as well as to eat it.

The flesh of the crocodile is but indifferent food, though the eggs are deemed great delicacies, and are sought after very eagerly, not only by man, but by many beasts and birds of prey. The vulture is particularly successful in destroying its eggs, which they effect by the following stratagem: They hide themselves among the bushes and shrubs, about the banks of those waters where the crocodile inhabits, then watching till she hath deposited her eggs,

Scorpion

Worms of Different kinds

The Walking Leaf

Rattle Snake

The Palmer Worm

A Locust

Centipede

A Young Crocodile just leaving its Egg

The Plume'd Moth

A Libellula

Elephant Beetle

West-Indian Spider

Capricorn Beetle

The Black Butterfly of the West-Indies

Hair Serpent

Hooded Serpent

Horn Serpent

Various INSECTS and REPTILES of DIFFERENT PARTS of the WORLD

Grainger sculp.

they go to the place as ſoon as ſhe retires, ſcratch away the ſand, and feaſt upon the ſpoil. At other times, when they have not diſcovered a crocodile's neſt, they are equally deſtructive to the young ones while they are running to the river.

Having mentioned the ichneumon, it may be proper here to give ſome account of that animal, which, with reſpect to ſhape and colour, reſembles a badger; it has a ſnout like a hog, with which it roots up the earth and ſand, the noſe is prominent, and the ears ſhort and round. It is of a yellowiſh colour at all times, when angry: but if provoked it briſtles up its hair like a porcupine, and then appears of two colours, which are white and yellow, that run in diſtinct ſtreaks. The legs are black, the tail long, and the tongue and teeth like thoſe of a cat. It is an amphibious creature, can bear to remain under water much longer than the otter, and is bold, active, and nimble.

Some of the inhabitants, particularly thoſe who are more ſavage than in Lower Egypt, have ſeveral ſtrange methods in croſſing the Nile, which they perform without the leaſt apprehenſion of falling a prey to the crocodiles. Two men, our author obſerves, were ſet on a truſs of ſtraw, while a cow was ſwimming before, one of them held in one hand her tail, and with the other guided the beaſt by a cord faſtened to her horns. The other man, who was behind, ſteered with a little oar, by means of which he kept at the ſame time the balance. The ſame perſon likewiſe ſaw ſome loaded camels croſſing the river. A man ſwimming before held the bridle of the firſt camel in his mouth; the ſecond camel was faſtened to the tail of the firſt, and the third to the tail of the ſecond; while another man brought up the rear, and took care that the ſecond and third camels ſhould follow in a row.

SECT. II.

Containing an Account of the Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Education, Religion, &c. of the EGYPTIANS.

AS this country is inhabited by a variety of people, namely, Arabs, Moors, Copts or Coptis, Turks, Greeks, Jews, Franks, &c. ſo they materially differ in their perſons, manners, habits, and cuſtoms. The Turks are tall, well-made, finely featured, fair, and dreſſed after the Aſiatic faſhion. The Arabs are a ſmall ſwarthy people, and reſide in tents ſcattered about the country in a circular form, which they remove as inclination prompts, or neceſſity requires. The Moors are nearly as ſwarthy as the Arabs, and in every other particular reſemble the Moors of the Bombay ſtates. The Greeks are in every particular like thoſe of the Levant; the Jews in all reſpects reſemble thoſe who reſide in the other parts of Africa; and the Franks may be characterized from the different nations to which they belong.

The real Egyptians, called Copts or Coptis, who are deſcended from the original inhabitants of the country, are a very ill-favoured, bad-ſhaped, effeminate, ſlovenly and dirty people. They are diſagreeable to the beholders in themſelves, and receive no manner of addition from their dreſs; for if the latter be ever ſo good, they put it on ſo aukwardly, as to appear very ridiculous to other people; and indeed the beſt dreſs cannot remain long decent upon them, as they frequently uſe their long ſleeves not only to wipe their hands and mouths after meals, but to blow their noſes on at other times. The Coptic tongue is a corruption of the antient Egyptian, and is now a dead language. Theſe people are ſaid to have been called Coptis, from their retiring to Coptus, and the adjacent places, during the firſt perſecutions.

The people of this country are naturally inclined to indolence, and take great delight in ſitting ſtill, and hearing tales, and indeed appear to be always more fit for a quiet than an active life. This probably may be owing to their being enervated by the heat of the country. They are alſo envious and miſchievous; which prevents their uniting and ſetting up for themſelves. The Mahometan inhabitants are either original natives, who live in the villages, or of the Arab race. The latter are divided into thoſe who are alſo ſettled in the villages, and are for the moſt part an honeſt, harmleſs people; who live in tents, and chiefly ſubſiſt on their cattle, which are principally camels and goats, that feed on ſmall ſhrubs. The Turks, who are thus named to diſtinguiſh them from the Arabs and the original natives of the country, are thoſe ſent by the grand ſignior, and the ſlaves. Theſe are the governing party, and are remarkable for being moſt avaricious, and very fond of power: the Turkiſh dreſs diſtinguiſhes them from the others.

In the country, moſt of the children go naked in ſummer, and many of them do ſo all the year round. The moſt ſimple dreſs of the natives reſembles that worn by the antient Egyptians, who were cloathed in linen, and over it had a woollen garment: this, it is not improbable, may be ſomewhat like the primitive manner of cloathing. They wear a long ſhirt with wide ſleeves, commonly tied about the middle. The common people have over it a brown woollen ſhirt; thoſe of ſuperior rank a long cloth coat, and over that a long blue ſhirt; but in the dreſs of ceremony, they wear a white ſhirt inſtead of a blue one, which, in Upper Egypt, they appear in on feſtival days, and when they viſit their ſuperiors. In the lower parts of the country they uſe a garment of the ſame form made of black woollen, which is ſometimes left open before, and the people of rank have them of cloth adorned with furs. The Coptis and Arabs always wear large ſleeves; but the Turks only wear them upon public occaſions; at other times their ſleeves are ſmall and cloſe. The people in general wear drawers, but the men do not tuck the ſhirt or under garment into them, though the women do. Some of the Turks, over their linen drawers, wear another pair made of red cloth, but the latter reaches to the ancles, and beneath them yellow ſocks are worn.

We have the following account of the true Mamaluck dreſs; which is the ſhut garment above-mentioned, put into their great red trowſers, which are tied round the leg at each ancle, the foot being left bare; and they wear the ſort of ſhoes uſed by the Arabs when they ride. In other reſpects they dreſs like the Turks; and this is the dreſs of the ſlaves, as alſo of the great men, except on extraordinary occaſions.

Among the deſcendants of the Arabs, and the native Mahometans, it is almoſt a general cuſtom to wear in winter a white or brown blanket, and in ſummer a blue and white cotton ſheet. This the Chriſtians in the country alſo conſtantly uſe, wrapping it round their bodies over the left ſhoulder, and under their right arm, which is left free; and in ſome parts of the country no other cloathing is worn by young people and the poorer ſort.

The Janiſſaries, Arabs, Egyptians, and Chriſtians here, wear ſlippers of red leather, while thoſe of the Jews are blue. Within doors, the Turks and Chriſtians out of frugality, wear a kind of wooden clogs, ſome of which are made very fine. People, in ſhort, are diſtinguiſhed by the dreſs of their head and feet; and are fined if they do not follow the cuſtom: hence none but foreign Chriſtians are permitted to wear yellow ſlippers. The dreſs for the head, is either the turban, or red woollen cap that fits cloſe to the head, which is worn among the Coptis and the Arabs by the lower claſs of people.

The drawers, worn by the women, and moſt of their other garments, are of ſilk; all but their outward dreſs are ſhorter than the mens, and their ſleeves hang down very low. They wear on their heads a white woollen ſkull-cap, and over it an embroidered handkerchief, round which their hair is plaited. Over all they have a large black veil. As it is eſteemed indecent to ſhew too much of the face, they generally cover the mouth and one eye, if not the whole face. Women of ordinary rank have a large garment like a ſurplice, of blue linen or cotton, and before their faces hang a kind of bib joined to the head-dreſs by a tape over the noſe: thus hiding all the lower parts of the face, and leaving the eyes uncovered, which gives them a very odd appearance.

The women, among the vulgar, eſpecially the blacks, wear rings in their noſes adorned with glaſs beads, and have ear-rings three inches in diameter, that come round their ears, and are adorned with ſtones; they likewiſe wear ſtone rings on their fingers, which among the ordinary people are of lead, while thoſe in better circumſtances have them of gold. The bracelets are generally of wire, but ſome are of plain iron or braſs, but others have them of gold finely jointed. The women, among the vulgar, paint their lips, and the tip of their chin, with blue, and thoſe of ſuperior rank paint their eye-lids black, and their nails and feet yellow; but both, in order to render themſelves attractive, take great pains to make their appearance frightfully hideous to ſtrangers.

In Egypt, education chiefly conſiſts in learning to read and write, which the Coptis generally obtain, together with book-keeping; but few of the Arabs and native Mahometans can read, except thoſe bred to the law, or educated for ſome poſt. The beſt education is given to the ſlaves, who often underſtand Arabic and Turkiſh, and

frequently write both. They are alſo well ſkilled in riding, ſhooting, and throwing the dart; which are eſteemed great accompliſhments.

It may not be improper, before we deſcribe the preſent ſtate of religion in Egypt, to give ſome account of that uſed by the antient Egyptians, who were groſs idolaters, and worſhipped the moſt fabulous deities, ſurpaſſing all other people in ſuperſtition. They had a great number of gods of different orders and degrees, which we ſhall omit, as belonging more to fable than hiſtory. Among the reſt, two were univerſally adored in that country, and thoſe were Oſiris and Iris, which are thought to be the ſun and moon; and indeed the worſhip of thoſe luminaries have given riſe to idolatry.

Beſides theſe gods, the Egyptians worſhipped a great number of beaſts; as the ox, the dog, the wolf, the hawk, the crocodile, the ibis, the cat, &c. Many of theſe beaſts were the objects only of the ſuperſtition of ſome particular cities; and whilſt a people worſhipped one ſpecies of animals as gods, their neighbours had the ſame animal gods in abomination. This was the ſource of the continual wars which were carried on between one city and another; and this was owing to the falſe policy of one of their kings, who, to deprive them of the opportunity and means of conſpiring againſt the ſtate, endeavoured to amuſe them, by engaging them in religious conteſts.

Every nation had a great zeal for their gods. "Among us, ſays Cicero, it is very common to ſee temples robbed and ſtatues carried off; but it was never known, that any perſon in Egypt, ever abuſed a crocodile, an ibis, or a cat; for its inhabitants would have ſuffered the moſt extreme torments, rather than be guilty of ſuch ſacrilege."

It was death for any perſon to kill one of theſe animals voluntarily; and even a puniſhment was decreed againſt him, who ſhould have killed an ibis, or a cat, without deſign. Diodorus relates an incident, to which himſelf was an eye-witneſs, during his ſtay in Egypt. A Roman had inadvertently, and without deſign, killed a cat; the exaſperated populace ran to his houſe: and neither the authority of the king, who immediately detached a body of his guards, nor the terror of the Roman name, could reſcue the unfortunate criminal. And ſuch was the reverence which the Egyptians had for theſe animals, that in an extreme famine, they choſe to eat one another, rather than feed upon theſe imagined deities.

Of all theſe animals, the bull Apis, called Epaphus by the Greeks, was the moſt famous. Magnificent temples were erected to him; extraordinary honours were paid him while he lived, and ſtill greater after his death. Egypt went then into a general mourning. His obſequies were ſolemnized with ſuch pomp as is hardly credible. In the reign of Ptolemy Lagus, the bull apis dying of old age, the funeral pomp, beſides the ordinary expences, amounted to upwards of fifty thouſand French crowns. After the laſt honours had been paid to the deceaſed god, the next care was to provide him a ſucceſſor, and all Egypt was ſought through for that purpoſe. He was known by certain ſigns, which diſtinguiſhed him from all other animals of that ſpecies; upon his forehead was to be a white ſpot in form of a creſcent; on his back, the figure of an eagle; upon his tongue, that of a beetle. As ſoon as he was found, mourning gave place to joy; and nothing was heard, in all parts of Egypt, but feſtivals and rejoicings. The new god was brought to Memphis, to take poſſeſſion of his dignity, and there inſtalled with a great number of ceremonies. Cambyſes, at his return from his unfortunate expedition againſt Ethiopia, finding all the Egyptians in tranſports of joy for their new god apis, and imagining that this was intended as an inſult upon his misfortunes, killed, in the firſt ſtart of his fury, the young bull, who, by that means, had but a ſhort enjoyment of his divinity. It is plain, that the golden calf ſet up near mount Sinai by the Iſraelites, was owing to their abode in Egypt, and an imitation of the god apis; as well as thoſe which were afterwards ſet up by Jeroboam, (who had reſided a conſiderable time in Egypt) in the two extremities of the kingdom of Iſrael.

The Egyptians, not contented with offering incenſe to animals, carried their folly to ſuch an exceſs, as to aſcribe a divinity to the pulſe and roots of their gardens: for this, they are ingeniouſly reproached by the ſatyriſt:

Who has not heard, where Egypt's realms are nam'd,
What monſter gods her frantic ſons have fram'd;
Here Ibis gorg'd with well grown ſerpents, there
The crocodile commands religious fear:
Where Memnon's ſtatue magick ſtrings inſpire
With vocal ſounds that emulate the lyre;
And Thebes, ſuch fate, are thy diſaſtrous turns!
Now proſtrate o'er her pompous ruin mourns;
A monkey-god, prodigious to be told!
Strikes the beholder's eye with burniſh'd gold;
To godſhip here, blue Triton's ſcaly herd,
The river progeny is there preferr'd:
Thro' towns, Diana's power neglected lies:
Where to her dogs aſpiring temples riſe:
And ſhould you leeks or onions eat, no time
Would expiate the ſacrilegious crime:
Religious nation ſure, and bleſt abodes,
Where ev'ry orchard is o'er-run with gods.

Several reaſons are given of the worſhip paid to animals by the Egyptians.

The firſt is drawn from fabulous hiſtory. It is pretended, that the gods, in a rebellion made againſt them by men, fled into Egypt, and there concealed themſelves under the forms of different animals; and that this gave birth to the worſhip which was afterwards paid to theſe animals.

The ſecond is taken from the benefit which theſe ſeveral animals procure to mankind; oxen by their labour; ſheep by their wool and milk; dogs by their ſervice in hunting and guarding houſes; whence the god anubis was repreſented with a dog's head. The ibis, a bird very much reſembling a ſtork, was worſhipped becauſe he put to flight the winged ſerpents, with which Egypt would otherwiſe have been grievouſly infeſted; the crocodile, an amphibious creature, that is, living alike upon land and water, of a ſurprizing ſtrength and ſize, was worſhipped, becauſe he defended Egypt from the incurſions of the wild Arabs; the ichneumon, a kind of rat, was adored, becauſe he prevented the too great increaſe of crocodiles, which might have proved deſtructive to Egypt.

After having thus given an account of the religious worſhip of the antient Egyptians, we ſhall proceed to take notice of that practiſed by the modern ones; and muſt firſt premiſe, that the preſent eſtabliſhed religion in Egypt is that of the Mahometans, which is here exerciſed in all reſpects the ſame as in Turkey, except that they are not quite ſo ſtrict in obſerving it in the former, as they are in the latter.

It appears by the moſt antient and authentic records, that Chriſtianity was firſt planted in Egypt by St. Mark, who was the firſt biſhop of Alexandria, then the metropolis of the kingdom. The juriſdiction of theſe prelates was ſettled by the council of Nice over all the churches of the dioceſe of Egypt, which included Libya, Pentapolis, and Egypt properly ſo called; and afterwards the Ethiopian or Abyſſinian churches, became ſubject to this patriarch.

In the time of Severus, a perſecution againſt the Chriſtians went through all the Roman provinces, but it was more violent at Alexandria than any where elſe; and many Chriſtians of the firſt rank in Egypt ſuffered martyrdom; particularly the two female confeſſors, St. Felicia and St. Perpetua. Churches were eſtabliſhed in Egypt in the third century.

The religion which is profeſſed here by the Coptis, is that of the native Chriſtians. The Greeks alſo are very numerous at Cairo and in Dalmatia; but there are not many of them in the other parts of the country, except a few merchants in the principal towns. The Chriſtian religion would ſtill be at a lower ebb, did not the people find it convenient to have Coptis ſtewards, who are well acquainted with buſineſs, and very expert at keeping accounts, which they do in a ſort of Coptic characters that none but themſelves underſtand. They are the protectors of the Chriſtians in every village and town.

The Coptis, in general, are very irreverent and careleſs in their devotions; yet they ſpend the night before Sundays and feſtivals in their churches, which they no ſooner enter, then they pull off their ſlippers and kiſs the pavement. They paſs their holidays in ſauntering about, ſitting under ſhady trees in ſummer, and under their walls in winter. They ſeem to imagine that religion conſiſts in repeating their long ſervices, and in the ſtrict obſervance of their numerous faſts. They uſe the liturgies of St. Baſil, St. Gregory, and St. Cyril; but the firſt, being ſhorteſt, is oftenеſt read. However, both the prieſts and people are extremely ignorant with reſpect to the doctrines of their religion; the former perform the ſervice in the Coptic language, which they generally underſtand very imperfectly, but they have books of their liturgy with an Arabic interpretation annexed to them.

Theſe people are ſaid to faſt ſeven months in the year.

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The children are eſpouſed at ſeven or eight years of age, and conſummate at eleven or twelve; and a little before that time they are circumciſed. They eaſily procure divorces on account of adultery, long ſickneſs, or diſagreement; and, at their deſire, the patriarch, or biſhop, gives them leave to marry again: but, if this be refuſed, they go to the cady, who will do it readily, and this is practiſed all over Turkey by the Chriſtians.

The child at baptiſm, is plunged three times into the water, and then the prieſt dips the end of his finger into the conſecrated wine, and puts it into the child's mouth; but if the child happens to be ſick, inſtead of being immerſed in water, it is laid on a cloth near the font, and the prieſt, dipping his hands in water, rubs it all over him; but if the infant be too ill to be brought to church, they then only anoint him, which they ſay is baptiſm ſufficient under that circumſtance.

The ſacrament is adminiſtered by them in both kinds on Sundays, Wedneſdays, and Fridays, on all their numerous holidays, and every day in lent; and when the prieſt, in reading the ſervice, mentions Peter's cutting off the ear of the high prieſt's ſervant, the people cry out, Well done Peter. They abſtain from ſwines' fleſh, from blood, and things ſtrangled; pray for the dead, and proſtrate themſelves before pictures; but have no images, except a crucifix. They alſo adminiſter extreme unction, and at the ſame time give abſolution, anointing all the people preſent in order to repel the evil ſpirit.

Notwithſtanding the religion of the Coptis in many reſpects reſembles that of the Greeks, yet they bear an implacable hatred to them; and have generally as little regard for the Europeans; which proceeds in a great meaſure from the endeavours of thoſe of the Romiſh church to make converts of them; for they ſeldom diſtinguiſh between thoſe of different religions, but include all under the name of Franks, the name they give to Chriſtians in general.

Jews are very numerous in Egypt, and, as in times of paganiſm, they were afraid of drinking wine offered to idols; they ſtill have here all they drink made by their own people, ſealed up and ſent to them. This cuſtom they obſerve throughout all the eaſt. There is a particular ſect among them who live by themſelves, and have a ſeparate ſynagogue: theſe are the ancient eſſens, who are now called charaims. They are diſtinguiſhed by their regard to the five books of Moſes, which they ſtrictly obſerve according to the letter, without receiving any written traditions whatever.

In Egypt, the Turks are deeply tinctured with the doctrine of predeſtination, which not only inſpires them with courage, but makes them diſcover great magnanimity, when thrown from the height of power into a ſtate of poverty and diſtreſs, ſaying, It is the will of God. They indeed behave better in adverſity than in proſperity: for though perſons in high rank aſſume a becoming gravity, and confer favours in a very graceful manner, they are greedy of money; for nothing is to be done with them without a bribe; and they are apt to fancy that the greateſt villainies are expiated as ſoon as they have waſhed their hands and feet, which is their preparation for prayer. Religion is faſhionable among them; they pray in the moſt public places, and when on a viſit will call for water to waſh, and then perform their devotions; and yet their words generally paſs for nothing, either in their promiſes or profeſſions of friendſhip.

Opium is leſs uſed by them than formerly. The Arabs ſeldom drink wine or ſtrong liquors, and the common people pound leaves of green hemp, make them up into a pill, and ſwallow it, in order to render them chearful.

The pooreſt Mahometan thinks himſelf ſuperior to the richeſt Chriſtian; but the Arabs and people of the country behave with great civility; and, ſitting about the ſtranger, grow troubleſome, by being too curious and inquiſitive. The Turks indeed behave with great civility, either to obtain preſents, or to diſcover your deſigns, in which they are very artful. They treat their ſuperiors with the utmoſt decorum and reſpect, and one of great dignity readily holds the ſtirrup to another who is ſtill greater than himſelf.

Their ſalutation, as they paſs, is, by ſtretching out the right hand, bringing it to the breaſt, and a little inclining of the head. The extraordinary ſalute is kiſſing the hand, putting it to the head. When they viſit a ſuperior, they kiſs his hand; but if he be greatly their ſuperior, they kiſs the hem of his garment. When they take any thing from a ſuperior, or that is ſent by a ſuperior, they kiſs it, and put it to their foreheads; and they put their hand to their turban, when they promiſe to ſerve or protect you. The word made uſe of in theſe ſalutations is peace; but this ſimple word a Mahometan cannot be prevailed on to make uſe of to a Chriſtian. Joining the hands, and bowing the head ſeveral times to him ſaluted, is the Arab ſalutation.

The Egyptians are very frugal in their proviſions, as they do not often eat; and the tables of the great are of little expence, conſidering the number of their attendants, in which they are very extravagant; for they ſometimes have fifty or ſixty ſlaves, and many other ſervants.

The Turks, at their meals, make uſe of a low circular, or octangular ſtool, inſtead of a table, under it a coloured cloth is placed on the ground, and over it a kind of table cloth is ſpread, large enough to come into the lap of the gueſts. They give to people of condition a napkin before they eat, and another after they have done, previous to their waſhing. A copper diſh, tinned both within ſide and without, is put on the ſtool, and bread, pickles, ſallads, &c. are placed round it. Two or three diſhes are then ſerved up, to which the company either kneel, or ſit croſs-legged. They uſe no knives or forks; they employ their right hand only at meals, and tear the meat with it in a beaſtly manner, and the maſter of the houſe ſometimes throws large pieces to ſuch of the gueſts as he would pay an extraordinary compliment to. The entertainment conſiſts of two or three courſes, and coffee immediately ſucceeds. The ſecond conſiſts of pilu, ſoups, ſweet ragouts, ſtewed diſhes, pieces of meat cut ſmall and roaſted; and dulma, which is any kind of vegetable ſtuffed with forced meat. The inferior kind of ſervants, who are not ſlaves, eat what is left; but the ſlaves have a meal of the coarſeſt kind of food provided on purpoſe for them. The Arabs, for their own family uſe only a ſkin by way of table cloth, which they ſpread upon the ground; but when they have company, a coarſe woollen cloth is ſubſtituted; when whole ſheep and lambs, boiled or roaſted, are ſerved up; and as ſoon as one company has done, another falls to, till all is conſumed by the gueſts.

An Arab prince, it ſeems, will often dine in the ſtreet, before his door, and call to all that paſs, even beggars, and permit them to ſit down to the repaſt, for the Arabs, being great levellers, put all perſons on a footing with themſelves; and, by ſuch hoſpitable and generous behaviour, maintain their intereſt with the people; but the middle claſs among them, and the Coptis, live poorly.

At a Turkiſh viſit, a pipe is immediately brought, and coffee; if it is a viſit of ceremony, ſweetmeats with the coffee; afterwards a ſherbet; and then according to the quality of the perſon, incenſe and roſe-water, to perfume. Some of them have muſic at certain hours of the day, and in others a man tells ſome hiſtory, or an Arabian tale. Tradeſmen have often their proviſions brought to the coffee houſes, and they having little or nothing to do, ſpend whole days in them. If any one goes to the houſe or tent of an Arab, bread is immediately made, and they ſerve up ſour milk, fried eggs, and oil to dip the bread in, a ſalt cheeſe like curds, and other things of a like nature.

The women in Grand Cairo are obliged to ride on aſſes becauſe the men are weak enough to put confidence in an old prediction, which declares, that a woman on horſeback ſhall ſometime or other take that city. They are likewiſe obliged to have ſhort ſtirrups, which would be diſgraceful for a man riding on an aſs to make uſe of. Friday is the day appointed for women to go abroad, when they repair to the ſepulchres of their relations, to adorn them with boughs and flowers, to hang a lamp over them, and pour water upon their graves. Ladies of diſtinction are attended by many female ſlaves, who follow them all mounted upon aſſes. The women, in riding, wear yellow boots without ſoles.

Here are public bagnios for men and women: the women more particularly meet in theirs, where they freely chat of the current news, and converſe together without the leaſt reſerve.

The ſantos, or ſantonis, a kind of enthuſiaſts, are very much admired in Egypt. They are very numerous; ſome of them go intirely naked; others have a rag or ſkin of a beaſt round about their loins, for the ſake of decency. Some lead a ſolitary life in holes or caverns, others run begging about the city: theſe laſt are very troubleſome to every decent perſon who paſſes the ſtreets, particularly the Franks, who generally ride when they have occaſion to go to any diſtant part of the city: for theſe ſantos will take hold of the aſs's neck, and keep with you until you give them ſomething. One of theſe, who begs between Cairo and Boulack, with a brick or ſtone in his hand, will accept of nothing unleſs the donor puts it thereon: one of theſe fellows has been ſeen to run his head ſeveral times againſt a ſtone wall, for the ſake of two or three paras. Thoſe

ſantos who go intirely naked are eſteemed by the people, who ſay they are undoubtedly in a ſtate of innocence, otherwiſe they would know they were naked, and would aſk for clothes. The ſantos who beg on the banks of the Nile, between Roſetta and Cairo, wear their own hair. Moſt of them have got ſome favourite paſſage of the alcoran by heart, which they repeat in the ſtreets. Many of the tombs are covered with a building in form of a cupola. Theſe mauſoleums are erected at the expence of thoſe who moſt admired the ſanto in his life-time. When the followers of a ſanto cannot afford to build him a magnificent ſepulchre, they will, when carrying him to the grave, ſuddenly ſtop, then run backward, as though impelled by ſome external force; and as ſoon as they have (or rather pretend to have) recovered themſelves, they will feign to try again to get the corpſe to the grave, and ſuddenly run backward as before. After ſeveral pranks, they declare the holy man will not be buried in the common ground, but muſt have a mauſoleum erected over him. The populace believe this, and a collection is immediately made to defray the expence of building one.

The people in general are great believers in magic, divination, and fortune-telling; are fond of taliſmans, philtres, and charms; and firmly believe that the eyes of ſome particular perſons, commonly called evil eyes, have the power of doing great miſchief, by faſcination. This brings us to inquire into the firſt riſe of that raſcally people called gypſies, thoſe pretended fortune-tellers that infeſt moſt countries in Europe and Aſia, and who are generally held to be of Egyptian extraction, at leaſt the firſt of them were ſuch. They are called in Turkey Zinganees from their captain Zinganeus, who when Sultan Selimus made a conqueſt of Egypt about the year 1517, with ſeveral other Mamalukes, and as many native Egyptians as refuſed to ſubmit to the Turkiſh yoke, retired into the deſarts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile under the dominion of the Turks; and idle people frequently reſorting to them in hopes of participating in their plunder, they encreaſed at length to ſo formidable a body, that the Turks were glad to come to a treaty with them, wherein it was agreed they ſhould lay down their arms and be permitted to exerciſe any other callings with the ſame privileges other ſubjects enjoyed.

The Zinganees, however, having been long uſed to a vagabond rapacious way of living, and compoſed of a mixture of nations, who, during their depredations upon all mankind in the deſarts, had loſt all ſenſe of religion, and became averſe to the following any art or ſcience, began to have recourſe to their former ways of rapine and robbery; and though they were often forgiven by the Turks for fear of another inſurrection, yet it being found at length that they were not to be reclaimed, the government were compelled to baniſh the Zinganees their country, and a power was given to any man to kill a Zinganee, or make him his ſlave, if he was found in Egypt after a limited time; and this edict was ſo well executed, that a Zinganee was not to be ſeen in Egypt for ſeveral years after; at leaſt, any that dare profeſs themſelves ſuch, for it ſeems they agreed to diſperſe themſelves in ſmall parties into every country in the known world; and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult ſciences, or the black art, as it was called, was ſuppoſed to have arrived to great perfection; and which in that credulous age was in great vogue with people of all religions and perſuations: they thought that they could not pitch upon a more effectual way to gain a ſubſiſtence, and yet indulge that lazy wandering life they had been uſed to, than by ſetting up for a more than ordinary ſkill in foretelling future events; and as they had by a profligate life quite eradicated all principles of honour and conſcience, no doubt they had a view of ſupplying their neceſſities by other means when fortune-telling ſhould fail them.

The reaſon theſe people are ſtill tolerated in Turkey, may be, that they do there, at leaſt of late years, apply themſelves to ſome handicraft buſineſs, particularly the making of edge tools, which they are very excellent at; carrying their tents and utenſils upon aſſes, and uſually pitch their black camp near ſome great town, where by working, thieving or fortune-telling, they make a pretty good proviſion for their bellies, but do not much trouble themſelves about clothing or furniture: and when the people begin to grow weary of their pilfering tricks, they move off to ſome other part of the country. They have a prophecy, it ſeems, amongſt them, that they ſhall recover the dominion of Egypt again, and the Turkiſh empire after a certain period ſhall be deſtroyed, which Mr. Hill has given us in Engliſh verſe as follows:

Years over years ſhall roll,
Ages o'er ages ſlide,
Before the world's controul,
Shall check the creſcent's pride.

Baniſh'd from place to place,
Wide as the ocean's roar,
The mighty gypſy race
Shall viſit every ſhore.

But when the hundredth year
Shall three times doubled be,
Then ſhall an end appear
To all their ſlavery.

Then ſhall the warlike pow'rs
From diſtant climes return;
Egypt again be ours,
And Turkiſh turrets burn.

There is alſo in Egypt a very particular ſort of people called derviſes, who may be diſtinguiſhed into two or three claſſes. Thoſe that are in convents are a kind of religious order, and live retired; though ſome of thoſe travel with credit, and return to their convents. Some who aſſume this character live with their families, and follow their trades: theſe alſo appear to be a good kind of people. But there is a third ſort that travel about the country and beg, or rather oblige every body to give. They all wear an octagonal badge of white alabaſter, with a greeniſh caſt, on their girdles, and they have a high ſtiff cap without any ornament; the tarcomen wear the ſame, but with a white ſaſh about it, and a little more pointed. Except thoſe who live in convents, and others at a ſmall diſtance from Cairo, there are not many of theſe people in Egypt.

Before we quit this ſection, it will be proper to mention, that among the inhabitants of Egypt, above deſcribed, there are two ſorts of a peculiar kind, the firſt of whom are called the eſtabliſhed Bedouins or Bedwins, and the latter the Wandering Bedouins. The former live in villages, and are to be conſidered as peaſants of the country. The Wandering Bedouins lead the ſame life as the antient patriarchs, living under tents, upon the milk of their cattle, and ſhift their habitations for the convenience of paſture; they always encamp in places where they can conveniently come at water: ſome take up their reſidence near the mountains, and others retire to places before uninhabited. With reſpect to theſe people, it is ſaid, the golden age is ſtill in being: their cattle not only furniſh them with the moſt delicious repaſts, but alſo ſupply their other occaſions. The wool of their ſheep ſuffices to cloath them, as they make a ſtuff with it which defends them from the injuries of the weather. A celebrated French writer obſerves concerning them, that "they have no difference about religion, no wrangling doctors or divines; ſince they paſs their lives undiſturbed by the rage of oppoſite parties, who are always ready to murder one another. Theſe happy people have no tent encompaſſed with ditches, guarded by ſoldiers, and ſet apart for the confinement of priſoners of ſtate; nor do they make it criminal for their brother to think differently from themſelves reſpecting religious matters, every one having the liberty of addreſſing the deity in whatever language he pleaſes. A ſuit of law between two perſons never laſts above twenty-four hours, for the oldeſt man in the tribe gives his deciſion of the matter in queſtion on the ſpot. Theſe people are ignorant of edicts and new regulations concerning property; for never does a Bedouin go to bed with an hundred thouſand crowns in his pocket, and riſe not worth a penny. The moſt he loſes is a ſheep, which a wolf may run away with in the night. He pays no tax at coming into the world, nor any at going out." But notwithſtanding the panegyric of this writer, it is affirmed by others, (moſt probably the wandering tribes) that they frequently rob caravans, when they happen to be the ſtronger party. The principal men among them are called emirs and ſheiks.

SECT. III.

Giving a Deſcription of the Cities of ALEXANDRIA, ROSETTO, GRAND CAIRO, DAMIETA, and other remarkable Places in EGYPT.

THE city of Alexandria was ſo called from Alexander the Great, who, after his return from conſulting the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, built a city in the place where

Racotis ſtood, three hundred years before the birth of Chriſt. This city is called by the Turks Scanderia or Scanderoon, as among them Alexander is called Scander. It was once an opulent and elegant city, ſeated near the moſt weſterly branch of the Nile, where the ſea forms a moſt ſpacious haven reſembling a creſcent, in thirty-three degrees eleven minutes north latitude, and in thirty degrees thirty-nine minutes eaſt longitude.

Travellers inform us, that the port of Alexandria was formed by the iſle of Pharos which extended acroſs the mouth of the bay, and towards the weſt end was joined to the continent by a cauſeway and two bridges, ninety paces in length. On a rock encompaſſed by the ſea at the eaſt end of the iſland was the ancient Pharos, or light houſe, ſo famous in antiquity, that it was eſteemed one of the ſeven wonders of the world; and on the place where it ſtood is a caſtle called Pharillon. Nothing can be more beautiful, than to view from hence the mixture of antique and modern monuments in this city.

On paſſing the ſmalleſt caſtle, called the Little Pharillon, you ſee a row of great towers, joined together by the ruins of a thick wall. A ſingle obeliſk is of a ſufficient height to make itſelf remarked where the wall has fallen down. On turning a little farther you perceive the towers appear again, but only in a diſtant view. New Alexandria afterwards makes a figure with its minorets, and at a diſtance riſes Pompey's column, a moſt majeſtic monument: and the view is terminated by hills, towers, and a large ſquare building, in which a magazine of powder is depoſited.

The walls round the outſide of the old city are beautifully built of hewn ſtone, ſtrengthened by ſemi-circular towers twenty feet in diameter, and about one hundred and thirty feet diſtant from each other. At each of them are ſteps to aſcend up to the battlements, there being on the top of the walls a walk built on arches. The inner walls which appear to be built in the middle ages, are much ſtronger and higher than the others and are defended by large towers, which are alſo very high.

A fourth part of the city was taken up by the palace, with the buildings belonging to it, and within it was the muſeum, or academy, and a burial place of the kings, where the body of Alexander was depoſited in a gold coffin: but that being taken away it was put into one of glaſs, and was probably in that condition when Auguſtus taking a view of the corpſe, adorned it with a golden crown, and ſcattered flowers over it.

With reſpect to the ſtreet, which extended the whole length of the city, it is ſaid to have been a hundred feet wide, and had certainly many magnificent buildings, as appears from the granite columns ſtill remaining in ſeveral places. Among theſe was the Gymnaſium, or public ſchools, to which were porticos that extended above half a quarter of a mile. Theſe may have been where there are great ruins to the weſt of that ſtreet, and ſome large columns of red granite ſtill ſtanding. In this magnificent ſtreet was alſo probably the forum, or court of juſtice, which was perhaps erected where ſome pillars remain nearer the ſea, and are now to be ſeen.

But the moſt extraordinary remains of the ancient city are the ciſterns built under the houſes for receiving the water of the Nile, as they do at preſent. The canal of Canopus comes to the walls near Pompey's pillar, and has a paſſage under him. But the water is not only conveyed to the ciſterns from the canal on its entering the city, but from ſeveral diſtant parts of the canal, by paſſages under ground, to the higher parts of Alexandria. The materials of the old city have been carried away to build the new, ſo that there are only a few houſes, ſome moſques, and three convents within the old walls.

Among the moſques, is one called the moſque of a thouſand and one pillars. Dr. Pococke obſerved that it has four rows of pillars to the ſouth and weſt, and one row on the other ſides. This, it is ſaid, was a church dedicated to St. Mark, at which the patriarch reſided, it being near the gate, without which the Evangeliſt is ſaid to have ſuffered martyrdom. There is another great moſque, named St. Athanaſius, which was alſo doubtleſs a Chriſtian church. The Greeks, Latins, and Coptis have each a monaſtery in the old city; but ſome poor Arabs being always encamped within the walls, it is dangerous being abroad after ſun ſet.

All over the city are fragments of columns of beautiful marble, the remains of its ancient grandeur and magnificence. Among the reſt an obeliſk, formed of one ſingle piece of granite, riſes ſixty-three feet high; but two of its four faces are ſo diſfigured by time, that the hieroglyphics with which they were anciently covered can ſcarcely be ſeen. This is ſtill called the obeliſk of Cleopatra. Another lies near it broken. About a quarter of a mile to the ſouth of the walls ſtands Pompey's pillar on a ſmall eminence. As this is not mentioned by Strabo, it was probably erected after his time, and perhaps in honour of Titus or Adrian.

Near the pillar abovementioned are ſome fragments of granite columns four feet in diameter; and it appears that ſome magnificent building was erected there, and that this noble pillar was placed in the area before it. Indeed ſome Arabian hiſtorians ſay, that here was the palace of Julius Cæſar. This pillar is of granite, and, beſides the foundation, conſiſts of only three ſtones: the capital is ſuppoſed to be eight or nine feet deep, and is of the Corinthian order, the leaf appearing to be the plain-laurel or bay leaf, and a hole being on the top, it has been thought that a ſtatue was erected upon it: the ſhaft, including the upper torus of the baſe, is of one piece of granite marble, eighty-eight feet nine inches high, and nine feet in diameter: the pedeſtal, with part of the baſe, which are of a greyiſh ſtone reſembling flint, are twelve feet and a half high, and the foundation, which conſiſts of two tier of ſtones, is four feet nine inches; ſo that this pillar is an hundred and fourteen feet in height.

Three leagues from Alexandria are the ruins of an ancient temple in the water, with broken ſtatues of ſphynxes; and pieces of columns of yellow marble; and near it are the remains of other buildings, part of which appear to have been a grand portico, from there being many pieces of columns of grey and red granite; and from the order in which they lie, they ſeem to have belonged to a round temple. Moſt of them are three feet three inches in diameter, and fluted.

Theſe ruins are ſituated in a wide bay, in which is a little iſland joined to the continent by a chain of rocks; and on the ſhore of this bay are cavities in the rocks, uſed as agreeable retreats, where people may enjoy the cool air, and without being ſeen, ſee every thing that paſſes in the port. The natural grottos in theſe rocks gave the ancients the opportunity of forming them, by the aſſiſtance of the chiſſel, into places of pleaſure. Entire apartments are thus formed, and benches are cut for ſeats, where you may be ſecured from the wet, or bathe in a part of the grottos, into which the ſea riſes; and little harbours, ſheltered from all the winds, were formed on the outſide. There is a cavern generally called a temple, oppoſite the point of the peninſula that forms the port. The only entrance is a little opening, through which you paſs, lighted by flambeaux, and ſtooping for twenty paces, when you enter a pretty large ſquare hall. The cieling is ſmooth, but the bottom and ſides are covered with ſand, and with the excrements of bats and other animals that harbour there. A paſſage leads from hence into a round cavern, the top of which is cut in the form of an arch. Here four gates are oppoſite to each other, each adorned with an architrave, a cornice, and a pediment, with a creſcent on the top. One of theſe gates ſerves for an entrance, the others form each a niche, that may contain a kind of cheſt, ſaved out of the rock in hollowing it, and large enough to contain a dead body. We may hence perceive, that what in that country is eſteemed a temple, was probably the tomb of ſome great man, or perhaps of a ſovereign prince. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that farther on there are other ſtructures of the ſame kind, as there is the appearance of a gallery, which continues beyond this ſuppoſed temple.

A celebrated writer, in ſpeaking of New Alexandria, obſerves, that it may be juſtly denominated a poor orphan, who poſſeſſed no other inheritance but his father's venerable name. The prodigious extent of the antient city is contracted, in the new, to a ſmall neck of land, which ſeparates the two harbours. The moſt ſuperb temples are converted into plain moſques; magnificent palaces into ill-conſtructed houſes; an opulent and numerous people are ſucceeded by a few foreign traders, and a multitude of wretches who are the ſlaves of thoſe from whom they obtain a ſubſiſtence. This place, once celebrated for its commerce, is no longer any thing more than a place where people embark, and is ſo far from being a phœnix ſprung from its own aſhes, that it may with great propriety be deemed a reptile ſprung from the duſt and corruption with which the koran hath infeſted the whole country; but notwithſtanding the meanneſs of the buildings in general, they have placed a great variety of columns, in ſeveral houſes built round the courts on porticos: theſe columns were moſtly of granite, with which they adorned the antient city.

The decay of this city is principally owing to the diſcovery of the new way to the Eaſt Indies, by doubling the cape of Good Hope; for till then it was one of the chief marts to which the ſpices and valuable commodities of the Eaſt were brought, and diſperſed into all the countries of Europe from thence.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Jews, Turks, Coptis, Greeks, and Armenian Chriſtians, beſides a few European merchants, moſt of which are the French and Engliſh; the former, it ſeems, flatter themſelves with being treated with more reſpect, but the latter appear to have a better trade. The French maintain a conſul dependent on the conſul of Grand Cairo, and enjoy a flouriſhing trade. The Engliſh have alſo a conſul, and ſend every year a great number of Engliſh veſſels to Alexandria; but they are not always laden on the account of this nation.

With reſpect to the environs of Alexandria, they are very low; the only marks, by which the ſailors can know the coaſt, are, the tower of the Arabians, which lies thirty-ſix miles to the weſtward of the town, and the column of Pompey. This circumſtance often occaſions ſhips bound to Alexandria to go to Cyprus, or to Syria, when the weather is foggy. There are neither woods nor paſtures for a conſiderable diſtance round the town. The land is covered with ſand, and ſome few date-trees grow on it, but the fruit is very indifferent. An ingenious writer obſerves, "that it is really a matter of ſurpriſe that this ſpot ſhould be choſen for ſo great a capital to be built upon, where it is ſo difficult of acceſs for ſhips, and ſo deſtitute of wood, water, and all other neceſſaries of life. But it is much more to be wondered at, that the Ptolomies ſpent ſuch immenſe ſums to people this place, and to collect together in it all things that could be had in the world, in the greateſt abundance."

The late Marcotis lies to the ſouth of Alexandria: it is thirty miles long from eaſt to weſt, and twelve broad. It is dry about four or five months in the year, and receives its waters out of the Nile at the time of its overflowing. The town of the Arabs, called by the natives the caſtle Abuzir, is at the weſt end of this lake. It is, indeed, a ſquare earth, eighty feet high, and its fronts are each two hundred and fifty feet broad. It is built of fine free ſtone, and the walls are fourteen feet thick. About three quarters of a mile from this caſtle, is another tower, which is ſquare at top, and round below, and ſix miles from thence there is another to the weſtward, on the walls of which are the remains of an inſcription in Arabic: but all theſe buildings are in a very ruinous ſtate at preſent.

The city of Roſetta, is eſteemed one of the moſt pleaſant places in Egypt, and, being refreſhed by the winds which blow from the ſea, is extremely healthy. It is called by the Egyptians Raſchid, is ſituated twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, in thirty-one degrees five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-one degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude from London: it ſtands on the weſt ſide of the branch of the Nile, anciently called Bolbetinum, or the Bolbutic branch, about four miles from its mouth. It is nearly two miles in length, but only conſiſts of two or three long ſtreets: but the buildings are ſtately, and the houſes commodious. It is defended by two caſtles, one on each ſide of the branch of the Nile, by which merchandize is brought hither from Cairo. The fine country of Dolta on the other ſide of the Nile, and two beautiful iſlands a little below the town, afford a delightful proſpect; and to the north the country is agreeably improved by pleaſant gardens of citrons, oranges, lemons, and almoſt all kinds of fruits, and is variegated by groves of palm-trees, ſmall lakes, and fields of rice, which latter, when ripe, make a very beautiful appearance.

Here is a caſtle, about two miles north of the town, on the weſt ſide of the river. It is a ſquare building, with round towers at the four corners, having port-holes at the bottom of it, and ſome pieces of braſs cannon. It is built of brick caſed with ſtone, and is ſaid to have been erected about four hundred years. A little lower down, on the oppoſite ſide of the river, is a platform of guns; to the eaſt of which are ſalt lakes, where great quantities of ſalt are collected. A little nearer to the ſea, from the above caſtle, is another, whoſe walls, ordinance, and garriſon, are in a poor condition.

Somewhat below this ſecond caſtle, the Nile ſplits into two branches, one turning eaſt, and the other weſt, and forming what is called a bogaz or bar in their mouth, which is known by the name of Canopic. This bar is very dangerous to paſs over, eſpecially when the ſea is agitated by a northerly wind.

The water at Roſetta, though ſituated near the ſea, is in general very good, unleſs when the north wind blows ſtrong, or the Nile is at the loweſt, at which time it is brackiſh. The river here does not riſe above three or four feet; becauſe the banks are low, and the water riſing above them, ſpreads itſelf all over the adjacent country. The arm of the Nile, at Roſetta, is nearly of the ſame width as the Thames at Graveſend; but it leſſens by degrees, till it becomes ſo ſhallow in many places as to be very dangerous, owing to the difficulty of avoiding the flats.

An iſland of a triangular form, is near this part of the Nile; it is called by the Greeks Latimia, on account of the diviſion of the water here, by which two entrances are made at the mouth of the rivers. It is about a mile in circumference, and there are ſandy hillocks from eaſt to weſt along the middle of it. The iſland is a kind of moraſs towards the ſouth, but to the north it is ſandy.

A conſiderable manufactory of ſtriped and coarſe linen is carried on by the inhabitants of Roſetta; but the principal buſineſs of the place is the carriage of goods between this town and Cairo; for all European merchandize is brought hither by ſea from Alexandria, and ſent from thence in other boats to Cairo; and alſo that brought down the Nile from Cairo is here put into large boats, to be ſent to Alexandria. On this account the Europeans have their vice-conſuls and factors here to tranſact their buſineſs, and letters are regularly brought from Alexandria to be ſent by the boats from Cairo; but thoſe of great conſequence, which require diſpatch, are ſent by foot meſſengers acroſs the deſart which lies between Alexandria and Roſetta.

Grand Cairo, the capital of Egypt, at preſent conſiſts of Old and New Cairo, which are a mile diſtant from each other. It is ſituated about a mile from the eaſtern bank of the river Nile, and extends eaſtward near two miles to the neighbouring mountain. This city ſtands in middle Egypt, in thirty degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and in thirty-two degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude from London. It is about ſeven miles in circumference, and was much larger before the diſcovery of the Eaſt Indies by the way of the cape of Good Hope, it being then the center of trade, all ſpices of the Eaſt being brought to this city, and from thence to Europe.

The city of Grand Cairo may be ſaid to conſiſt of three towns or cities, namely, Old Cairo, which adjoins to it; Cairo, properly ſo called, and the port of Bulac. Old Cairo is at preſent reduced to a very ſmall compaſs, not being above two miles round; but it is the port for the boats that come from Upper Egypt, and ſome of the beys and European merchants have houſes here, to which they retire at the riſing of the Nile.

The Jews have a ſynagogue here, which nearly reſembles our churches, and is ſaid to have been built in its preſent form one thouſand ſix hundred years ago. They pretend that Jeremiah the prophet was on the very ſpot where they uſually read the law, and that they have a manuſcript of the bible written by Ezra; it is kept in a niche in the wall about ten feet high, before which a curtain is drawn, and lamps kept continually burning: this writing is eſteemed ſo ſacred, that none are permitted to touch it.

The ſtreets in Cairo, like thoſe in moſt of the Turkiſh cities are very narrow; and the wideſt extends the whole length of the place, but in Europe it would only be conſidered as a lane; and the others are ſo narrow, that the people frequently ſpread a light ſtuff acroſs the houſes, from one ſide of the ſtreet to the other, to defend them from the ſun. Moſt of the ſtreets, or at leaſt each end of every ward, is ſhut up with gates as ſoon as it grows dark; and guards of janiſſaries are placed at ſome of the principal ones, ſo that no idle people can lurk about them without being diſcovered. Several ſtreets conſiſt only of ſhops, without any houſes, which are alſo locked up at night, when the tradeſmen return home; and the ſhops of the ſame trade are commonly together, as well in the bereſtans, or exchange, as in the ſtreets. Perſons are appointed to ſweep and ſprinkle the ſtreets every day with water, eſpecially before the houſes of the better ſort; for being without any pavement, they are generally full of duſt.

The outſides of their houſes, like thoſe in Turkey, are without any kind of ornament: the lower part is built of ſtone, and above is a ſort of cage-work, ſometimes filled up with unburnt brick; and the windows which look into the ſtreets are ſecured with iron rails and curtains, in order to prevent the women from being ſeen. The inſides are equally plain, having no other embelliſhments than the neceſſary furniture for domeſtic uſes, except their ſaloons where they receive their friends and acquaintance. A perſon

ſon who viſited the houſe of a bey, gives the following deſcription of the fine ſaloon into which he was introduced. "It had, ſays he, a lobby before it. The grand room is an oblong ſquare, with an octagon marble pillar in the middle, inlaid on two ſides about eight feet high, with pannels of grey marble, each bordered with Moſaic work. The floor is covered with fine carpets; and the ſopha extends all round the room, having rich velvet cuſhions belonging to it."

A canal, which comes out of the Nile cloſe to Old Cairo, runs through the centre of the city. It has water during three months only, after which it is a mere dirty ditch. In the watery ſeaſon it forms ſeven or eight ſmall ponds in the city and its environs, waters the adjacent fields, and about nine miles from Cairo communicates with the Lake of Pilgrims.

After forming an idea of ſeveral ſquares or places about the city from a quarter to three quarters of a mile in compaſs, contrived ſo as to receive and retain the water of the Nile conveyed to them by the canal, as the river riſes, we ſhall have a pretty juſt notion of the ſeveral lakes that are about the city during great part of the year, when nothing can be imagined more beautiful; for they are ſurrounded by the beſt houſes in the city; and in the ſummer, when the Nile is high, are covered with fine boats and barges belonging to perſons of diſtinction, who ſpend the evenings with their ladies on the water, where concerts of muſic are never wanting, and ſometimes fireworks are added. All the houſes round are in a manner illuminated, and the windows filled with ſpectators. This pleaſing ſcene however, intirely vaniſhes when the waters are gone off, and nothing but mud appears. Yet even this is ſoon ſucceeded by the agreeable view of green corn, and afterwards of harveſt in the midſt of a great city, and in the very places where but a few months before the boats were ſailing.

Here are twelve churches and a convent belonging to the Coptis, who pretend that the holy family were in a cave in the church dedicated to St. Sergius. Their churches are commonly adorned with columns in the front; they have two ailes with galleries over them ſupported by pillars, and the ſpace for the altar is ſeparated by a partition, that in ſome of them is finely ornamented with carving and inlaid work of tortoiſeſhell and ivory. The Romans have an hoſpital belonging to the fathers of the Holy Land. Here are alſo about half a dozen moſques, among which one named Amarah is ſaid to have been a church, and is remarkable for having near four hundred columns, which, with their capitals, ſeem to have been collected from ſeveral buildings of great antiquity.

Though the city of Grand Cairo is very populous, yet the inhabitants of it are a mixture of various nations; ſuch as original Egyptians, or the Coptis Chriſtians; Arabs; people of Barbary and other weſtern parts of Africa; and ſome from Nubia; but the principal parts of the inhabitants are deſcended from the Mamalukes. Here are alſo a great number of Jews, a few Armenians, and ſome Greeks.

There are ſeveral very handſome and convenient bagnios in this city, which are reſorted to by great numbers of people: ſome viſit them on a religious account, to purify themſelves; while others go to them for refreſhment and diverſion; the latter are chiefly women, who, once or twice in a week, ſpend moſt of the day in them, and are glad of ſuch a pretence to be releaſed from their confinement. People of the firſt rank, to avoid intermixing with thoſe of inferior character, have bagnios in their own houſes.

Here are likewiſe many kanns, which they call okalas. Theſe are indifferent buildings round a court, and are commonly appropriated to the uſe of merchants of particular countries for the ſale of their reſpective commodities. There is one for thoſe of Nubia, and the black ſlaves they bring with them; and another for white ſlaves from Georgia. They have likewiſe ſeveral kanns at Boulac; in which all ſtrangers are at a very eaſy rate accommodated with a room.

There are, in Old Cairo, ſeveral ſquare courts encompaſſed with walls about fifteen feet high, built chiefly with brick; and ſtrengthened by ſemi-circular buttreſſes; theſe places are uſually called Joſeph's granaries. The houſes are filled with corn, and room only left to enter at the door. The grain is covered with mats, and the door faſtened only with wooden locks; but the inſpectors of the granaries, by putting a handful of clay on the locks, fix their ſeal thereto. The corn brought from Upper Egypt, and paid as a tax to the Grand Signor, is depoſited here, and diſtributed among the ſoldiers as a part of their pay. This granary, however, is not very antient, for it ſeems to have been built in the time of the Saracens.

At the north end of the city is a plain building for raiſing the water of the Nile to an aqueduct. The ſtructure is an hexagon, each ſide of which is near ninety feet in length, and about as many in height. The water flows into a reſervoir below, and is drawn up by five oxen, which turn ſo many Perſian wheels, that empty the water into the aqueduct. Theſe wheels are turned at the top of the building, to which is an aſcent on the outſide for the oxen to go up. Both this edifice and the aqueduct are built with free ſtone, in order to convey water to the caſtle. The aqueduct is ſupported by about two hundred and eighty-nine arches and piers of different dimenſions, the former being only from ten to fifteen feet wide. Theſe arches are low towards the caſtle-hill, where the water runs into a reſervoir, whence by means of ſeveral wheels placed over each other, it is raiſed up to the caſtle.

A pleaſant iſland named Roida, is oppoſite to Old Cairo; it is ſituated in the midſt of the Nile, and extends near a mile in length. Towards the north end is a village of the ſame name, and at the ſouth end is the Mikias, or houſe in which is the famous pillar for meaſuring the riſe of the Nile. This is fixed in a deep baſon, the bottom of which is on a level with the bed of the river, and the water paſſes through it. The pillar, which is placed under a dome ſupported by Corinthian columns, is divided into meaſures for obſerving the riſe of the waters, and is crowned with a Corinthian capital, and form the court that leads to the houſe is a deſcent to the Nile by ſteps, on which the common people believe that Moſes, after being expoſed on the banks of the river, was found by Pharaoh's daughter.

The ceremonies practiſed at opening the canal, are ſome of the moſt remarkable cuſtoms obſerved at Cairo. When the Nile begins to riſe, they caſt up a bank of earth acroſs the end of the canal near the river, and about the middle of Auguſt, when the water is riſen to a proper height, it is broke down with great rejoicings. Mr. Thevenot, who gives the moſt particular account of theſe ceremonies, went to Boulac, the port of all the boats that come up the river, and which ſome reckon a part of Grand Cairo, to ſee the preparations, when he obſerved ſeveral gallies lying in the river, in the ſterns of which were noble rooms, ſome of which were twelve or fourteen paces ſquare, and ſurrounded with rails and balluſters gilt and painted, and the floors covered with rich carpets and cuſhions.

About ſeven in the morning the baſha arrived in great ſtate; as he paſſed, a ſheep was killed in ſeveral places, and three or four more on the bank of the river. All the beys and great men of Cairo accompanied the baſha in his galley, and having ſailed as high as Old Cairo, he was ſaluted by the guns of the other veſſels which followed in order. The ſailors of the baſha's galley were of ſeveral colours, and worked with large red roſes, and the flags and ſtreamers in this and the other gallies made a very pretty appearance on the water: the trumpets and other muſic played as they paſſed, while the guns fired, and the people ſhouted, to expreſs their great joy. In this manner they moved gently along, till they came to the place where the bank was to be opened to let the water into the canal. Here the mob were waiting in crowds, and there being two paſteboard towers filled with fireworks, theſe were let off as the baſha paſſed; in the mean time the people broke down the bank to give the water a paſſage into the canal, and boat loads of ſweetmeats were thrown into the river, for which they jumped in and ſcrambled. The viceroy moved forward to his palace in the iſland of Roida, oppoſite to Cairo; and bonfires, illuminations, and fireworks were continued for three nights ſucceſſively. There were particularly two vaſt machines repreſenting a man and woman of gigantic ſtature placed on the river before the baſha's palace, which took up no leſs than two thouſand lamps to illuminate them; beſides all the gallies, barges, and other veſſels were hung full of lamps, and in them the muſic played, and fireworks with great and ſmall guns were continually let off. But the ceremonies are more uſually performed by land, when the baſha, attended by his guards, proceeds on horſeback along the canal, and coming to the end of it, diſmounts, ſtrikes the bank, takes horſe, and riding back, leaves ſeveral perſons to break it down, while great crowds follow him, ſinging and ſtriking each other with cudgels. The water at length flows in accompanied by a number of men and boys ſwimming. Fiteworks are played off, and all the while the canal is filling, it is covered with boats filled with young men, ſinging and playing on muſical inſtruments, to expreſs their joy for the fertility produced by this river to the country.

In

In this part of Egypt, is an ancient palace built by the ſeventh king, who was of the race of the Mamalukes, and lived about the year 1279. The entrance to the grand apartment is by a fine door ſomewhat in the Gothic taſte. In this room is a noble ſaloon in the form of a Greek croſs, with a cupola in the middle, and it is wainſcotted, or rather inlaid, ten feet high, in a very expenſive manner. Round the top, about two feet deep, are Arabic inſcriptions; then with two feet more it is covered with mother of pearl, and different kinds of fine marble, in the form of ſmall arches. Below this the wall is covered with pannels, ſome of the moſt beautiful marble, and others of mother of pearl; while all the pannels are ſurrounded with a border of Moſaic work, in azure and mother of pearl.

There are ſeveral magnificent moſques in New Cairo, particularly one on the north-eaſt of the town called Kubbeel-Azab, which is about ſixty feet ſquare, and has a very beautiful dome raiſed on a baſe of ſixteen ſides, in each of which is a window. It is caſed round with all the moſt beautiful kinds of marble, among which are ſeveral fine ſlabs of red and green porphyry. Theſe are all placed in pannels finely carved and gilt, and above is a ſort of frize covered with ſentences cut in large gilt characters, called the Comphe, in which they here antiently wrote the Arabic tongue. The walls above have Arabic inſcriptions in letters of gold. All over the moſque are hung a great number of glaſs lamps and oſtriches eggs: adjoining to this edifice are ſeveral apartments built for the prieſts; and alſo ſome very elegant ones for perſons of rank, who ſometimes come and reſide there. This great building is ſaid to have been erected by Jaafar, who conquered Egypt for Moezz, the califf. The window lattices both to their moſques and houſes are very elegant, being curiouſly manufactured either of iron, braſs, or wood. They are made of round bars let into each other, and forming ſmall ſquares, which are decorated with a variety of ornaments.

At the foot of the caſtle-hill there is a moſque which exceeds all the reſt, as well in the ſolidity of the building, as in its grandeur and magnificence, ſo as to ſtrike the beholder with admiration. It is very lofty, and erected in the form of an oblong ſquare, crowned with a cornice all round that projects a great way, and is adorned, after the Turkiſh manner, with a kind of groteſque carving. The entrance is inlaid with ſeveral kinds of marble, carved at the top.

The aſcent to it was by ſeveral ſteps; but theſe have been broken down, and the door cloſed up, becauſe, when public inſurrections have happened, the rebels have often taken ſhelter there.

Eaſtward of the town of Tailoun ſtands the caſtle of Cairo, ſaid to have been built by Saladin. It is ſeated on a rocky hill, and is walled round; but though it is very difficult of acceſs, it is ſo commanded by the hill Tabel Mochattham to the eaſt, as to be incapable of withſtanding an attack ſince the invention of cannon. The eaſtern entrance is called the Gate of the Janiſſaries, and the weſtern one the gate of the Arabs. The caſtle is about a mile in circumference; but yet it is an irregular building, and the principal part of it is in a very ruinous condition. At the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Moſaic work; but theſe apartments are now only uſed for weaving, embroidering, and preparing hangings and coverings, great quantities of which are annually ſent to Mecca by the caravan.

The eaſtern part of this caſtle ſtands on much higher ground than the reſt, and near a grand ſaloon called Joſeph's hall, from whence there is a delightful proſpect of Cairo, the pyramids, and all the neighbouring country. This, it is probable, was a terrace to the ſaloon, which is open on every ſide, except to the ſouth, and is adorned with large and beautiful columns of red granite, ſome of which have capitals of the Corinthian order; ſome are only marked out in lines like leaves, and many are only plain ſtones that do not much reſemble capitals. In the weſt part of the caſtle is the goal, which the common people think to be the priſon in which Joſeph was confined at the inſtigation of an adulterous woman.

A ſmall garriſon is kept here; and the men are lodged in large towers, which form an incloſure or court, on the ſouth ſide of which are the baſha's apartments; ſo that whenever he receives an order from the Porte to quit his government, a battery of four or five cannon is raiſed againſt them; which would ſoon demoliſh them, ſhould he offer any reſiſtance. Near the baſha's apartments are alſo thoſe of the great divan, where the beys aſſemble three times a week under the kaia, or prime miniſter of the baſha; and the latter ſometimes ſits in a room behind, that has a communication with ſome lattice-windows. A ſtranger may enter with the conſul's interpreter; and, being afterwards conducted to the baſha's coffee room, will be entertained by his ſervants with ſweetmeats and coffee. Here are to be ſeen ſeveral leathern ſhields, each almoſt an inch thick, with a javelin ſticking in them, wherewith it is ſaid they were pierced by one of the ſultans, and are kept as monuments of his ſtrength. The officers under the baſha have alſo noble apartments here.

Near the abovementioned apartments is the mint, where they coin their gold, and ſmall pieces of iron waſhed over with ſilver; which laſt are of the value of three farthings, and are called medines.

In this caſtle there is a well, which is much admired on account of its great depth, which is two hundred and forty-four feet; but it has two ſhafts that are not perpendicular, above one another, the firſt is one hundred and forty-eight feet long, and the other one hundred and ſixteen feet. It is generally called Joſeph's Well, not from the patriarch of that name, but from a grand viſir, who about ſeven hundred years ago had the care of the work under Sultan Mahomet; but the Arabians call it the Snail Well, becauſe it deſcends in a ſpiral line. The water of it can only be drank at the time of the inundation; after which it is brackiſh, like all other wells in the town. They draw the water up by means of a double wheel, and a double range of earthen jars. The oxen employed to turn the wheel go up the firſt ſhaft by a path which is cut in the rock quite round the well from top to bottom.

There are grottos, in many ſtories, all up the ſide of the rock upon which this caſtle is built; but ſeveral of them are now inacceſſible, though there is a way to others by a narrow terrace. Theſe are generally narrow rooms, eight or ten feet ſquare. Towards the brow of the hill, on the top, are two rooms, with holes on the top to admit the light; over which is an eminence, to which the great people often go to enjoy one of the fineſt proſpects in Egypt, ſince it commands a view of Cairo and all the country as far as the eye can reach. Over the ſouth cliff is a moſque, the inſide of which is painted all over with flowers on a red ground: here was interred the Sheik Duiſe, whoſe name is given both to the hill and the moſque: ſeveral of the ſheiks children and ſome of the ſons of baſhas are buried near it.

There is a kind of ancient ſuburb called Caraffa, to the ſouth of the caſtle: at the entrance are ſeveral magnificent tombs covered with domes, and ſaid to be the magnificent tombs of ſome Egyptian kings. The people in general ſuppoſe that they are the monuments of the califs, the relations of Mahomet, who conquered this country; and ſuch is the veneration for them, that they oblige Chriſtians and Jews to alight from their aſſes and camels to pay them reſpect, when they paſs this way. On an eminence, adjoining to Caraffa, is the great moſque of El Iman Shafee, antiently one of the four doctors of the law, who is held in great veneration among them, and whoſe ſepulchre is there. It is called Le Salchiah, from a title they gave Saladin who built it, together with a college and hoſpital.

There ſtill remains a matter of a very ſingular nature, to be related of this part of the country, which every traveller who paſſes through it takes notice of; as firſt, their way of hatching chickens in ovens. They put their eggs in ovens, ſays Thevenot, which are heated with ſo temperate a warmth, and imitates ſo well the natural heat, that chickens are formed and hatched in them: theſe ovens are under ground, and the hearth of them covered with cotton or flax to lay the eggs upon. There are twelve of theſe ovens together, ſix on a ſide, two ſtories on each ſide the paſſage, that is three ovens above and three below on each hand: they begin to heat the ovens about the middle of February, and continue to heat them about four months: they heat their ovens only with the hot aſhes of oxen, or camel's dung, which affords a ſmothering heat without any viſible fire; this they lay at the mouth and the farther end of the oven, changing it and putting in freſh dung every day: this they continue to do for ten days, and then lay in the eggs, ſometimes eight thouſand in an oven; after eight or ten days they pick out the good from the bad, which are diſcovered by holding them to a lamp, then they put out the fire, and having laid one half of the eggs in the upper ovens, they ſhut up all cloſe and let them lie about ten days longer, when the chickens are hatched; at which time it is very entertaining to ſee ſome of the chickens juſt putting forth their heads, others half out of the ſhell, and others quite free. Thunder occaſions abund-

ance of eggs to miſcarry; and at beſt, it is obſerved that there are few of them which have not ſome defect, and nice people think they can diſtinguiſh one of theſe pullets from another by their palates. It has been diſputed, it ſeems, whether this can be effected in any other country beſides Egypt, where the natural heat of the climate is thought to contribute much towards theſe productions; but M. Thevenot tells us, that the duke of Florence ſent for ſome of the Coptis (who only follow this buſineſs) and hatched chickens in Italy in the ſame manner, and ſince that time, the late learned and ingenious M. Reaumur, after many experiments, found it practicable in France: and in a work on that ſubject, which has been tranſlated into Engliſh, has ſhown the manner of doing it.

Before we leave Grand Cairo, it may not be improper to give an account of the grand pilgrimage made annually from that city to Mecca, at which time the grand Signor ſends thither a very coſtly preſent, ſaid to amount to one-third of the value of the revenues of his kingdom.

At the time appointed for the caravan to prepare for Mecca, the preſents are brought with great ſolemnity from the caſtle, through the city to the palace of the emir hadge, who is captain of the caravan of pilgrims, which our author had the opportunity of ſeeing performed. In the beginning of the proceſſion came the ſervants of the beys and lords of Cairo, followed by the chiaux, azapes, and janiſſaries; and after them the beys in perſon, of whom the emir hadge, and ſeveral other officers had rich coftans or coats on, preſented them by the baſha on this occaſion: then came the janiſſaries of the divan followed by men carrying four very long pieces of crimſon velvet, embroidered with Arabic letters of gold as large as one's finger, and others carried a large door-piece of velvet embroidered in the ſame manner: after theſe came a camel well harneſſed, carrying a great pavillion or tent of crimſon ſattin embroidered with gold, and ſhaped like a bell, with a great gilt ball on the top of it; then a little ſquare pavillion, carried by a man, and ſome other utenſils, which were all to be employed in hanging and adorning the caaba, or little temple of Mecca: after theſe great numbers of banners and colours were carried in proceſſion, all the ſantos with drums and muſic attending them; the people in the mean time preſſing and crowding to touch the ſacred utenſils, and thoſe that could not get near enough threw a piece of linen to touch them, holding one end in their hands that they might draw it back again; and it is not to be conceived with what devotion they would kiſs the thing that had touched but a rope employed in the ſacred preſent, which was to adorn the place they eſteem moſt holy.

Theſe ornaments being lodged at the palace of the emir hadge, two days after he went out of the town encamping near the city. The cavalcade on this occaſion was not very different from the former, only there were ſix field pieces, which the emir always carries with him on theſe expeditions: there were alſo a great many little children mounted on camels and horſes, who were the ſons of the emir's officers, and ſeveral camels loaden with proviſions for the journey. A multitude of ſantos in ſtrange antic habits, alſo followed dancing and ſcrewing themſelves into a thouſand ridiculous ſhapes and poſtures, like maſquers at a carnival, as our author expreſſes himſelf. At length came the bleſſed camel which carried the pavilion abovementioned, richly dreſſed out, with another to relieve him when he was weary.

It is wonderful, our author obſerves, to ſee the multitudes which come from all places to perform this pilgrimage, there being no leſs than five caravans of them, viz. That of Cairo, which conſiſts of Egyptians, and of all thoſe that come from Conſtantinople and the neighbourhood of it. That of Damaſcus, in which are all the pilgrims of Syria. That of the Magrebins, or thoſe who come from the weſtward, conſiſting of the natives of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco, who meet at Cairo, and thoſe of Perſia and India. Thoſe who come from Fez and Morocco undergo the greateſt fatigue, travelling by land over large deſarts, in which they employ a whole year, and one half of them uſually die in the journey. The caravan of Cairo, our author ſays, was very numerous when he was there: there being in it four beys or princes, and ſeveral other great lords, beſides an hundred thouſand other pilgrims, as was given out; but he underſtood afterwards they did not amount to a fifth part of that number. The emir hadge, or captain of the caravan, has uſually fifteen hundred camels to carry his baggage, and ſell to thoſe who loſe their own, for many of them die by the way; and he has five hundred camels alſo to carry water only.

The emir hadge having encamped ſome time cloſe to the city, removed twelve miles farther to the birque, being a great baſon or reſervatory of water, about twelve miles to the eaſtward of Cairo, and is the rendezvous of all the caravans. The emir hadge decamped from thence on the eighth of Auguſt, it being the cuſtom for the caravan of Cairo to ſet out ſeven and fifty days after the beginning of the ramadan, that they may be at Mecca at the time preſcribed: the next day, being the ninth of Auguſt, the caravan of Magrebins, who come from the weſtern part of Africa, ſet forward; theſe do not depend on the emir hadge of Cairo, but have a chief of their own. They travel chiefly in the night to avoid the heat, which is inſupportable, and when there is no moon they have men who carry torches, and either in their camps, or on the march, that infinite number of lights which are ſpread over the deſarts make a noble illumination, which is ſeen at a very great diſtance.

There are other reaſons for going this pilgrimage to Mecca beſides pure devotion: many go upon the account of trade, merchandize being brought thither from almoſt every part of the known world; and ſome go, it is ſaid, to eſcape the puniſhment of their crimes: for let a man have been guilty of the moſt notorious acts, he is never called in queſtion if he makes this journey afterwards; but obtains a general indemnity, and the character of a ſaint, on account of the fatigue and hazard he has undergone to ſee the holy place. But whatever may be the true inducement to the undertaking this journey, all perform it with abundance of ſeeming devotion, repeating or ſinging ſome verſes of the alcoran all the way they go; and beſtowing their charity according to their reſpective circumſtances: as to their behaviour when they arrive at the holy place, we have given an account of it already, in treating of the Perſian pilgrims.

About ſix weeks after the ſetting out of the caravan from Cairo, it being computed that they are ready to return, an aga marches from Cairo to guard the freſh proviſions which people ſend to their relations in the caravan; all which are ſealed up to be delivered to thoſe to whom they are directed. The aga has a great number of camels aſſigned him for this ſervice: and uſually meets the pilgrims half way, being very well paid for his trouble. The year our author was in Egypt, the caravan returned and encamped at the birque twelve miles from the city on the thirteenth of November, and the caravan of Magrebins arrived there the day before; ſeveral people came from Cairo to the birque to meet their friends and welcome them home; and upon theſe occaſions they ſalute and kiſs all they know five or ſix times; and indeed, there is nothing to be ſeen in the city but kiſſing and congratulations for five or ſix days ſucceſſively, or elſe people lamenting the death of their relations who died in the journey.

The pilgrims are forty-five days in their journey from Cairo to Mecca, and as many in returning, beſides the time they ſpend there; but they make very eaſy journeys, often ſtopping to unload and load their camels, of which many die as well as of the people. They find but little water in the way, and that exceeding bad, and freſh proviſions they meet with none but what they carry with them. What incommodes them moſt are the hot winds, which frequently ſuffocate or otherwiſe deſtroy them: in one day, it ſeems, there died ſeveral hundred of pilgrims by the hot winds in this journey; and not leſs then ſix thouſand belonging to the caravan of Cairo died by one misfortune or other. It is no uncommon thing, as our author relates, to hear a man ſinging ſome verſes of the alcoran, and in a moment ſee him drop down dead from his camel: and thoſe who return alive are ſo altered and emaciated that they can hardly be known by their friends: notwithſtanding which there is not a year but many women and children perform this pilgrimage.

Thoſe who have made this journey are called adgi or pilgrims, and are in great eſteem in the countries where they live ever after. The emir hadge amaſſes vaſt ſums in this command; for beſides his other profits he is entitled to the effects of all that die in the journey, of which perquiſite alone he made three hundred thouſand piaſtres in one year, there were ſo many of the pilgrims that died; he is alſo ſupreme judge of all the people under his charge during the expedition. The number of thoſe which compoſe the caravan ſeldom amounts to leſs than forty thouſand; but in times of peace and plenty it is often much greater. Every muſſulman is obliged to make at leaſt once in his life this grand pilgrimage to Mecca, the center of the Mahometan faith.

The city of Damieta, which is nearly oppoſite Roſetta, ſtands on the eaſtern branch of the Nile, between four and five miles from the mouth of the river. It is a very large place, but the houſes in general are indifferently built, and its principal inhabitants are fiſhermen and janiſſaries. It is encompaſſed by walls, except that part which fronts the river, and, at the north end of it is a fine large round tower built of hewn ſtone. It is reckoned to be moſt advantageouſly ſituated for trade, on account of its commodious harbour on the Mediterranean.

This city is ſuppoſed to contain about twenty-five thouſand inhabitants, without including its ſuburb on the other ſide of the Nile. Here are about four hundred Greek families, who are the principal merchants and traders in the city. They have a church, a biſhop, and the free liberty of exerciſing their religion except the article of ringing the bell. Beſides the Greeks, here, are many other ſtrangers of various nations and religions; but they are greatly reſtrained in the enjoyment of their national privileges, and are afraid of going into the ſtreets, eſpecially after dark, on account of the inſults they are liable to meet with from the Turkiſh ſoldiery, who have a natural antipathy to all ſtrangers: but they have a particular averſion to Europeans, which ſeems to be handed down to them by their forefathers, and to be occaſioned by the holy war, as this city was the principal ſcene of action, and where Lewis IX. was made priſoner. As a Chriſtian is known by his mien, ſtrangers dare not go out of the ſtreets they are accuſtomed to frequent; nor muſt any perſon appear in an European dreſs.

With reſpect to the trade of this place, that chiefly carried on here is the export of rice and coffee to all parts of Turky; and of the former, a contraband trade to Europe, which has been productive of tumults againſt the Chriſtians. They have alſo an import of tobacco and ſoap; the latter from the coaſt of Syria, and the former from Latichea.

At a ſmall diſtance from Damieta, and the ſouth-weſt of the lake called Marcotis, is the caſtle of the labyrinth, ſo called from a famous ancient labyrinth, of which we may take ſome notice when we come to treat of the ancient ſtate of Egypt. This antique edifice is about one hundred and ſixty-five feet long, and eighty broad. The portico is a very ruſtic work, and the principal part of it deſtroyed, being no where above ſix feet high; but the front is in a more ruinous condition than any other part of it. The upper ſtory, in the middle, is fallen down, and is almoſt intirely gone all the way from the breaking off. In its preſent ſtate, there are forty-four tiers of ſtone, each nine inches deep, and conſequently the whole is thirty-three feet high. This edifice, viewed all together, has the appearance of ſome antient palace, or other public ſtructure; but its remains are incapable of conveying an adequate idea of its original magnificence and grandeur.

Many ſtones are ſcattered about the plain near this building, eſpecially ſeveral round ones with holes in the middle; which ſeem to have compoſed the pillars that might have been about this edifice, and, by means of theſe holes, were probably faſtened to each other.

The town of Suez is the next principal place that attracts our attention; it is ſituated at the north end of the Red ſea, and is thought to be built on the ſpot where formerly ſtood the antient city of Arſinoe. It is a conſiderable ſea-port on the iſthmus, of its name, which joins Aſia and Africa, and is advantageouſly ſeated on a ſmall peninſula that juts into the utmoſt verge of the Red ſea, about ſixty-three miles ſouth-weſt of Cairo. The trade between the laſt mentioned place and this town is effected by ſhips belonging to private perſons at Cairo.

Southward of this town there is a large ſandy bank about two miles long, to the eaſt of which is a road to go out to the ſhipping; and when there is no wind, they draw the boats along by this bank. About a mile ſouth-weſt of it are the ſhips, three miles from the town, the deep water being on the weſt, where the ſhore is incloſed by high hills; but there are conſiderable ſhoals where the land is low, on the eaſt ſide.

Suez, is a ſmall town; but the houſes, moſques, quay, magazines, and other public edifices, are made of a moſt curious ſort of ſtone, conſiſting of a vaſt number of ſhells, ſo cloſely united by nature as to be inſeparable. Here are four moſques, all of which are very handſome buildings; and here is alſo a Greek church. Moſt of the inhabitants are Mahometans, there being only about ſixty Greek families, and a few Coptis. They fetch all the neceſſaries of life, and even pot herbs, from Cairo; for the country, near ſixty miles round, does not produce any thing. Water is likewiſe very ſcarce, inſomuch that they are obliged to get it from a place nine miles off, and pay two-pence per pail for it, though it is of a brackiſh quality.

This town is governed by a captain, whoſe buſineſs chiefly depends on the ſhips, and he has under him a caimacam (the ordinary governor of towns), who both together, or ſeparately, govern the affairs of the place. The caimacam generally reſides here, and the captain when the ſhips are in the port. They have a garriſon of about three hundred men, one half janiſſaries, and the reſt Arabs; and theſe laſt are commanded either by a civil officer of their own, ſtiled ſader, or by a ſheik. The harbour lies north and ſouth, is not large, and has very little water: when the tide has ebbed out, it is not above five feet deep.

As this harbour is only fit for ſmall ſhips, the larger ones, which are employed in bringing goods to Jedda and other parts, anchor in another harbour, about four miles and an half from the town. Many of their veſſels will carry from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and fifty tons. Some of them are pierced for thirty guns, but never mount more than two, and theſe are the beſt armed; for moſt of them have only two pedereros. They direct the ſhip by means of a pole ſtrongly faſtened to the rudder on the outſide, and placed in an inclined ſituation, not quite horizontally: a rope is faſtened at the end, which paſſes on both ſides through blocks faſtened to two thick tranſverſe pieces of wood, which are nailed to the two ends of a long and thick beam, placed abaft. The rope, being put through the blocks, is hung or faſtened on a peg which ſtands on that part of the ſtem where the helm is. On each ſide three men are placed, who muſt not leave this rope while the veſſel is under ſail; and muſt alter the direction of the helm, when required, by drawing at the rope. Theſe veſſels are but ill provided with ſailing tackle and trimmings; nor indeed do they require them ſo compleſe as in moſt other voyages, for they never ſail without a fair wind, and always keep along the ſhore. The harbour in which theſe veſſels lie at anchor is from five to eight fathom deep; they are ſheltered there by the mountains of Etaga from the eaſt wind; and when they are forced away by another wind, they run aſhore, without any damage, on the neighbouring ſandy beach.

The fortifications belonging to the town are very indifferent, ſince it has no other defence than twenty-two cannons and three culverins, all of which are in ſo wretched a condition, that they appear as if entirely uſeleſs.

The ruins of an old caſtle, ſuppoſed to have been formerly built by the French, are to be ſeen on an eminence at a ſmall diſtance from the town.

The Roman emperors and kings of Egypt made many attempts to cut a channel through the iſthmus of Suez, and join the two ſeas together; but all their efforts proved ineffectual. About three miles from the town, there is ſtill to be ſeen a deep ditch, which runs from north to ſouth, and is ſuppoſed to be a relic of that vain and impracticable undertaking.

We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the principal towns and villages ſituated up the Nile; and the firſt we meet with is called Gize, ſuppoſed to ſtand on a part of the ground where the ancient city of Memphis once ſtood. The town itſelf is tolerably large, but the houſes are very low, mean buildings; and its only ornaments conſiſt of four or five minarets or moſques, and ſome palm-trees. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making earthen pots and tiles; but they are ſo indifferently executed, as to produce but an inconſiderable advantage.

The village of Deiir-Etiin, is ſituated about a mile and a half to the ſouth of Old Cairo; here is a moſque and a Coptis convent. The houſes here are almoſt all built of clay, and covered with reeds. The greateſt ornament of this village, as well as moſt of the others, are the palm-trees, which are cultivated in great abundance. One end of this village is cloſe to the Nile, and the other extends towards the mountains.

The village of Dagjour, is a little diſtance from the above: it is remarkable for containing, in its neighbourhood many ſpacious moſques and ſeveral handſome pyramids.

Beneſoef, the next village we come to, is ſituated on the weſtern ſhore of the Nile: it is a kind of capital, about one hundred miles diſtant from Cairo, and the place of reſidence of a bey, who is the governor of it. There are in it ſeveral very large and elegant moſques.

Mount Kobzim, is ſituated to the north-eaſt of the laſt mentioned village, at the foot of which ſtands the convent of

of St. Antony; and at ſome diſtance are the mountains of Aſkar, where are ſeen the ruins of three monaſteries, namely, Deir-Berdet, Deir Bahſta, and Deir Anna.

The convent of St. Paul is not far diſtant from that of St. Antony. The Coptis call this the Tyger convent, from a ſuppoſition that thoſe animals made the tomb of that ſaint. The principal building is a quadrangle, but much leſs than that of St. Antony. The church is thirty-two feet long and fourteen broad, and is very light. The walls are ornamented with paintings, and on that part where the altar is fixed are the remains of a Greek inſcription, but the characters are illegible. The garden is planted with many fruit-trees, particularly vines; and the friars plant as many kitchen herbs here, as thoſe do who belong to the garden of St. Antony. Here are fourteen monks in this convent, five of whom are prieſts; two wear the angelic dreſs, and the reſt are lay-brothers. About forty yards from the monaſtery is a rock which ſupplies it with a large fountain of water.

Monſalut, is another village, on the ſame ſide the Nile with that of Beneſoef. It is a ſort of capital, whoſe moſques give it a beautiful appearance; and it is the ſee of a Coptis biſhop. The adjacent country abounds with a variety of fruit trees, and is in general very fertile.

Sionth, another village, contains ſeveral handſome moſques, and is the rendezvous of thoſe who go with the caravan that ſets out from hence to Nubia. This village is ſituated about two miles from the river, in a very pleaſant part of the country; and a large lake is by the ſide of it, which is filled from the Nile by a canal, over which there is a bridge of three high Gothic arches. The church is three miles from the village, among a number of hills, in which ſeveral grottos are cut. A caſhif, who is governor of the province, reſides here; and there is a biſhop, with about five hundred Chriſtians.

The large village of Aboutiteſhe, is ſituated on the ſame ſide of the Nile with Sionth. It is ſuppoſed to be the Hypſele of the antients; it is at preſent a biſhop's ſee, and has ſome moſques in it.

On the eaſt ſide, farther up the Nile, is the village of Akmin; which is very large, and adorned with ſeveral moſques. Here are the remains of two temples, conſiſting of ſtones twenty feet long and ten broad; all of which are painted, and full of hieroglyphical figures. Here is a Greek inſcription of four lines on one of the ſtones; but the firſt and laſt lines are almoſt totally, and the others partly defaced. Here is an hoſpital belonging to the Congregatio de propaganda Fide; and the Coptis have a convent here.

To the eaſtward of this village, at the foot of a mountain, is the monaſtery of St. Senodius. It is built of free ſtone, and of an oblong quadrangle; it is one hundred and thirty feet long, twenty feet broad, and fifty feet high, and a cornice goes quite round it. Its greateſt ſides have two rows of twenty-one windows each, all cloſed up; there are only nine windows in each row, on the other ſides; five doors were formerly on the weſt ſide, but they are now all cloſed up, and the entrance to the monaſtery is by a little double door on the ſouth ſide, the leaves of which are covered with iron plates. The church is in a very decayed ſtate; but there are ſtill fourteen pillars in it, ſome of ſtone, and the reſt of bricks, covered with gypſum, and which ſupport the cieling. The choir, which is preſerved, contains three altars, but hath not any thing remarkable in it. This convent is inhabited only by three monks, who have very wretched habitations. There is likewiſe a deep and wide well in it, whoſe water riſes and falls like the Nile, though the convent is above three miles from the river. However, this riſing and falling of the water (which the monks and Coptis conſider as a miracle wrought by Dioſcorus whilſt he ſtaid in this monaſtery) is occaſioned by a communication with a canal, whoſe water is ſupplied from the Nile, and ſo provides this well with it.

We come next to the town of Girge, or Tſihirſche, which is the capital of Upper Egypt, and the reſidence of the bey. It is about a quarter of a mile from the river, and tolerably large, being at leaſt two miles in circumference: the houſes are chiefly built of hard brick, and are pretty ſpacious; and here are ſeveral handſome Turkiſh moſques. It is alſo the ſee of a Coptis biſhop; and the fathers de propaganda Fide have an hoſpital here, where they maintain themſelves by their practice of phyſic, that renders them uſeful to the Turks. When the bey of Girge has any thing to communicate to the chief of the Arabs from the Divan at Cairo, he ſends them word that they are to come to him. They immediately ſend one of their number with two thouſand horſemen to a certain place deſtined for thoſe interviews: theſe troops form a ring round the bey, who is attended by a ſuite of twelve perſons only: and each returns to his own home after the interview is over.

On the eaſtern ſide of the Nile is the village of Gau, which was once very large, but a conſiderable part of it has been waſhed away by the overflowings of that river. Here are fourteen columns, full of hieroglyphics, preſerved ſtanding. At ſome diſtance from the village are many ſcattered coffins cut in ſtone, which the travellers make uſe of as troughs or ciſterns to water their horſes at. At the foot of the mountain are many quarries, the ſtones of which are white, and have a fine poliſh. There is alſo a coloſſal ſtatue of rock ſtone, but it is greatly diſfigured.

The village of Eridy is ſituated on the ſame ſide of the Nile, and about ſeven miles from Gau: it is the reſidence of a ſheik of the ſame name. This village is famous throughout Egypt on account of a ſnake, of which the people relate many ſtrange and miraculous ſtories; and ſome of them believe it to be the devil, baniſhed into the mountains of Upper Egypt by the angel Raphael. This ſerpent is kept by a ſheik, and has been in the poſſeſſion of his predeceſſors for a long time. Among other ſtrange ſtories concerning it, they tell us, that the ſheik would cut it in pieces at night, and be ſure to find it whole and ſound the next morning. But notwithſtanding the abſurd notions the people here entertain of this ſerpent, it is remarkable that they can handle theſe reptiles without receiving the leaſt injury, as we are aſſured by a celebrated writer, who, from the hiſtory of his travels while in Egypt, gives us the following account.

"I am now going, ſays he, to inform you of ſomething which I look upon as very curious; but I aſſure you the thing is ſo amazing, that had I not had ocular demonſtration of the fact, I would not preſume to relate it. One morning, as I was looking for ſomething in our warehouſes, I obſerved in ſeveral parts of them, the traces of ſerpents, which gave me ſome uneaſineſs, leſt at any time I ſhould be hurt by them. I conſulted our druggerman about it, who told me to make myſelf entirely eaſy, for he knew an Egyptian who could catch them by a charm. I communicated this to Mr. F. H. who, like me, wanted faith to believe that any mortal had this power. The druggerman ſent for the man; and as I ſuſpected he might bring tame ſerpents with him, and privately let them looſe, and then catch them again in our preſence; I propoſed that the charmer, before he began, ſhould be ſtript to his ſkin; which was agreed to be done. We led him into the court yard where the warehouſes ſtood; but before he went into either of them, he fixed his eyes towards the ſky, and muttered ſomething unintelligible to us; this done, he went into one of the warehouſes, and with a ſhort and ſlender ſtick of a date-tree, he had in his hand, he pointed to the roof, and uttered ſomething with a loud voice, at the ſame time ſtamping hard on the ground: as ſoon as he had done this, he told us, there had been ſerpents there, but they were gone. He then went into another warehouſe, and, after doing the ſame as he had done in the firſt, he ſaid, there was a ſerpent ſomewhere in the walls; which were of looſe ſtones, very thick, and much decayed. Here he repeated his charm; and preſently a very large ſerpent came out of the wall, and ſtopped; but the charmer, who ſtood in the middle of the warehouſe, uttered ſome more jargon with very great vehemence, and the ſerpent came to his feet; he took it up in his hand as unconcerned as though it had been only an eel. In the ſame manner he caught another among ſome ruins in the yard. We examined the ſerpents, and found they had their teeth; for I aſſure you, Sir, we were ſo much amazed, that we could hardly believe our eyes. We gave him thirty paras for his trouble, and he went away quite ſatisfied." The above relation is corroborated by the teſtimony of the learned Dr. Haſſelquiſt, who alſo travelled into Egypt, and tells us, that they take up the moſt poiſonous vipers with their bare hands, play with them, put them in their boſoms, and uſe a great many more tricks with them; and that he had frequently ſeen them handle vipers that were three or four feet long, and of the moſt horrid ſort. He adds hereto, "I inquired and examined whether they had cut out the vipers poiſonous teeth; but I have with my own eyes ſeen they do not: we may therefore conclude that there are to this day pſilli (that is, perſons who are capable of faſcinating or taming ſerpents) in Egypt; but what art they uſed, is not eaſily known.

known. Some people are very ſuperſtitious, and the generality believe this to be done by ſome ſupernatural power, which they obtain from inviſible beings. I do not know whether their power is to be aſcribed to good or evil; but I am perſuaded that they who underſtand it uſe many ſuperſtitions." The doctor then gives an inſtance of a woman who handled theſe noxious creatures with the greateſt familiarity, and without the leaſt harm happening to her, to the great conſternation of himſelf and his friends. But we ſhall have occaſion hereafter to ſpeak more particularly of this miraculous ſerpent, and detect the fraud practiſed with it, when we deſcribe the tomb of the pretended Turkiſh ſaint.

Near the village of Eridy, in the mountains, are ten or twelve ſepulchral caverns. There are alſo many heaps of ruins, which are the remains of the antient town of Irgy, according to the report of the Coptis.

Here is a ſmall village called Dandera, which is very pleaſantly ſituated, it being encompaſſed by continued rows of trees, which produce all the various fruits to be met with in Egypt. Nagadi is a large town, and, among other edifices, contains ſeveral ſpacious moſques; and a Coptis biſhop conſtantly reſides here. Camac, is a name given to a vaſt extenſive country to the eaſt of the Nile, where ſome conſiderable ruins of buildings, that were once ſpacious and magnificent, are ſeen in various places. Elnay is higher up the river, and is a large place, adorned with a very handſome moſque. It is the reſidence of an Arab ſheik, and is ſituated where the antient Lycopolis ſtood, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. Edfa or Edfou, is the antient Apollinopolis, and is ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Nile. Here is a fine monument of antiquity, which has been long converted by the Turks into a citadel.

The town of Eſſouan is likewiſe ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Nile, and is the antient Seyne, which was under the tropic of Cancer. It is a poor and ſmall place, with a ſort of fortreſs or rather barrack for janiſſaries, under their governor, who has the command of the country. In this town, as alſo in an iſland adjoining, are quarries of granite, and the remains of ſome antient buildings. The firſt cataract of the Nile begins here, above which is the iſland of Gieſiret Ell Heiff, the Philæ of the antients, which is a deſart, and quite covered with rocks of granite. The borders of this iſland are cut in the form of a walk on the rock; and there are abundance of colonades, buildings, and other magnificent and venerable antiquities within it.

The ruins of ſeveral grand edifices are to be ſeen at Debondi, as alſo at Hindau, Sahdaob, and Taffa, where Nubia begins, and Egypt ends. From thence up to Derri are many ſmall villages, in ſome of which ſeveral ruins of antiquity are to be ſeen.

The town of Derri is ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of the Nile, near the place where the river begins to direct its courſe towards the weſt. It is inhabited by a race of people called Barbarins, who are a poor and miſerable tribe, and live chiefly by plunder. The ſlope of the ſhore of the Nile here is in many places covered with lupines and radiſhes, the ſeed of which they make oil from. The people of Derri frequently croſs the Nile, in order to go to Eſſouan; but as they have no canoes, they ſupply the want of them in the manner deſcribed in a former ſection; beſides which they have the following: they put themſelves a ſtraddle upon a great piece of wood, after having placed their cloaths upon their heads in form of a turban. They alſo faſten to it their aſſagaye or dart; they afterwards make uſe of their arms as oars. By theſe methods they croſs the river without any danger from the crocodiles, or much difficulty or hazard to themſelves.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the Language, Arts, Trade and Commerce, Manufactures, Weights, Coins, Diſeaſes, &c. of the EGYPTIANS.

THE moſt antient language ſpoken in Egypt, that we have any account of, was the Coptic, which was generally uſed till Alexander the Great conquered this country, when he introduced the Greek, which for above nine hundred years afterwards, was the language moſt in uſe, and which prevailed till the Greeks were expelled by the Arabs; ſince which, the moſt univerſal has been the vulgar Arabic, or Arbeſk language. It is true, the Turkiſh, Coptic, and modern Greek, are ſtill ſpoken, but not ſo univerſally as the Arabic language.

The liberal or ingenious arts are principally in the hands of the Franks or Chriſtians, the genius of the Turks tending more to traffic. The Chriſtians only are ſilverſmiths and jewellers; and theſe have a pretty briſk trade, on account of the great demand for trinkets and trappings to adorn women and horſes; for the Mahometans are not allowed to keep plate in their houſes, nor are the men permitted to wear rings, unleſs they give a tenth part of what they are worth to the poor; and few of them are ſo fond of ornament as to purchaſe the privilege of appearing fine at ſo great an expence. The Turks of Conſtantinople far ſurpaſs thoſe who reſide here in every branch of work they attempt to execute.

The inhabitants in many of the villages on the banks of the Nile, are chiefly employed in making ſal ammoniac. This ſalt, it ſeems, is procured from the ſoot which ariſes from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables; but the dung of theſe animals is only fit to be burnt for that purpoſe during the firſt four months of the year, when they feed on freſh ſpring graſs, which in Egypt is a kind of trefoil or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat, it will be ineffectual. The dung of oxen, buffaloes, ſheep, goats, horſes, and aſſes, at the proper time, is as fit for this purpoſe as camels dung. The ſoot ariſing from the dung is put into glaſs veſſels, and theſe veſſels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at laſt with a very ſtrong fire for three ſucceſſive nights and days; after which, the ſmoke firſt ſhews itſelf, and in a ſhort time the ſalt appears, adhering to the glaſſes, and covers the whole opening by degrees. They break the glaſſes, and take out the ſalt in the ſame form and ſtate in which we receive it.

Their domeſtic trade chiefly conſiſts in ſupplying the lower parts of Egypt, from the Upper, with corn, pulſe of all ſorts, dates, &c. and ſupplying the upper parts from Delta with rice, ſalt, &c. Cairo is the general mart for all things imported into Egypt; but Indian linens, muſlins, callicoes, china-ware, &c. being brought the principal part of the way by land, bear a greater price here than in England.

The Turks prohibit the exportation of coffee and rice from Egypt, to any parts not under their government; however, great quantities of both are ſmuggled to many places. Flax is ſent to all parts of Turkey and Leghorn, and cotton is tranſported in great quantities to Marſeilles. Senna, caſſia, coloquintida, and a red dye called ſaffranoun, are exported from hence to ſeveral European countries.

The Egyptians import Engliſh, French, and Venetian cloths, ſilk from Leghorn and Venice, likewiſe drugs and dyes which Egypt does not produce: alſo coral and amber from various parts, raw ſilk from Syria, wool from Barbary, carpets from Aſia Minor, iron from Salonica, furs and copper utenſils from Conſtantinople, ſmall wares from France and Venice, lead and marble blocks from Italy, and tin from England. Beſides the above, they import and export to and from different places the following articles; namely: their imports are, Braſil wood, cochineal, cinnabar, vermillion, vitriol, quickſilver, antimony, orpiment, arſnic, and agaric; and their exports are, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, tamarinds, cinnamon, ſugar, indigo, opium, &c.

Linens are the principal manufactures of Egypt, which are not conſumed at home, great quantities of theſe being ſent to Turkey, France, Algiers, Italy, and other parts. Linen, woollen, and ſilk, are the three chief manufactures here. The ſilk is worked into large pieces for womens veils, and of ſome are made rich handkerchiefs worked with gold: many ſatinets and taffeties are made in Cairo, but both are inferior to thoſe of India; the wool is manufactured into carpets of different colours and ſizes, and various kinds of garments. The linen is made from flax which principally grows in the Delta: the threads are drawn from the diſtaff by letting the ſpindle hang down without being ſpun. The linen, however, when made, is not very fine, which ſeems to be principally owing to there not being a great demand for it in Egypt, as people of diſtinction wear a kind of fine light muſlin, which ſeems better adapted to ſo hot a climate. The chief place for making the linen is at Roſetta, which is in general cheap and white.

At Cairo, red leather is made, and a better ſort is prepared at Alexandria; yet the latter is far inferior to that which is made in Morocco. Pebbles are here finely poliſhed for ſnuff boxes, handles for knives, &c. They are done by a wheel, like jewellery-work, and are not to be rivalled any where.

A gentleman who reſided many years at Grand Cairo, and belonging to the factory there, has favoured us with the

the following account of the trade carried on by the Engliſh at this place:

"The goods we have to ſell here, ſays he, are conſigned to us by ſome eminent Turkey merchants in London. The principal articles are, woollens, lead, lead ore, tin, fire-arms, cutlery, hard-ware, optics, bob and chime clocks, alſo watches, made in a particular manner for the Turkey trade. We ſell our goods to ſome for ready money, and we barter with others for ſome of the following articles, viz. cocculus indicus, aſſafœtida, ſal ammoniac, aloes, myrrh, frankincenſe, ſagapenum, gum tragacanth, gum arabic, gum elemy, ſaſſafras, coffee, and other commodities.

"On our firſt ſettling here, and ſelling goods to the Mahometans, they would ſometimes bring them back, after having kept them a week, complain of defects when there were none, and inſiſt on having the money returned; but we were ſoon after inſtructed in what manner to deal with them. When we ſell any thing now to a Mahometan, as ſoon as the price is agreed on, which we will ſuppoſe is two hundred zermahoop chequins, we call in two Mahometans as witneſſes, and then take a handful of dirt, and put it upon the goods, ſaying at the ſame time, "We ſell you this dirt for two hundred zermahoop chequins:" if he replies, "I buy this dirt for two hundred zermahoop chequins," the bargain will then be like the laws of the Medes and Perſians, which alter not. Perhaps cuſtom only has eſtabliſhed this method; but be that as it may, the goods are never afterwards returned on our hands. When we have gum arabic, frankincenſe, myrrh, or cocculus indicus, to ſend to Chriſtendom, we always take care to have it garbelled firſt; but we, and all other Franks here, are obliged to employ a ſet of men called Garbellers, and no other, as this privilege is yearly purchaſed of the baſha for a certain ſum.

"Thoſe merchants who conſign goods to Cairo, ſhould be very careful to ſee them well and ſecurely packed or embaled. We had thirty barrels of tin in rods conſigned to us by a merchant in London; it came very ſafe to Alexandria, and was there unſhipped and put on board ſome veſſels for this place. In their paſſage up the Nile, the exceſſive heat of the ſun had ſuch an effect on the barrels, as to cauſe ſome of them to fall intirely to pieces, others loſt their hoops, and ſome their heads; which gave the poor pilfering ſailors, who work theſe veſſels, a fine opportunity of making a penny; which when the goods arrived at Boulac, we find they had not neglected; for out of every barrel damaged, they had taken ſome pounds weight of tin, and ſold it at different villages on the banks of the Nile. I would adviſe merchants who ſend goods to Cairo, not to have it put up in barrels, but in ſtrong caſes made of elm or oak, to the length of the rods, and have them well nailed up; were this done, there would ſcarce be a probability of an ounce being loſt; for I never heard of Nile ſailors forcing any packages open. Woollens ſhould be embaled as tight as poſſible, with a tarpaulin under the outſide canvas; for at the mouth of the Nile is a boughas, or mud-bank, on which ſometimes the germs run foul; but cloth packed up in the manner I deſcribe, may, in caſe of this accident, be got without damage into another germ.

It is uſual to pack up gold and ſilver ſtuffs in ſtout waxed cloth, and then put them in a ſtrong caſe. In and near Cairo, they make oil of the ſeeds of ſafflowers and ſell the greaves at twenty-ſix paras the quintal of five hundred rotolos; theſe greaves are uſed by the poor people for food. In Upper Egypt there are many plantations of ſugar-canes; the ſugar and molaſſes made there are ſent to a kan near Boulac, for ſale; the molaſſes are put into the ſkins of oxen, heifers, calves, and other animals, which appear like ſo many dead beaſts, when quite full.

Brokers, who are moſt of them Jews, conduct the chief part of the buſineſs: theſe will buy or ſell for their employers, no matter how, ſo that they get the brokerage. A native of Aleppo, who kept a ſhop in this city, ſold many pikes of woollen cloth, to a great Turk, for the cloathing of his ſervants, and to be given to the poor; and a few days after being deſired by the Turk to bring in his bill, replied, that, through the hurry of buſineſs, he had forgot to enter that tranſaction in his book; that, he perfectly remembered the rate per pike agreed on, but as to the number of pikes, he was totally at a loſs. The Turk deſired him to gueſs as near as he could; and the ſhop-keeper, ſuddenly recollecting himſelf, aſked the Turk if he had the liſting of the cloth by him; and was anſwered in the affirmative; then ſaid he, we can ſoon ſettle the matter by meaſuring that, which muſt be the ſame as the length of the cloth. The liſting was meaſured, and the ſhopkeeper was paid for as many pikes of cloth; but he groſsly impoſed on the Turk; for it was evident he made him pay twice as much as he ought, as all woollen cloth has two liſtings. The baſeneſs of this tranſaction was a few days after explained to the Turk; but the Aleppo knave had a friend who warned him of his danger, and adviſed him to decamp, which he immediately did.

We pack the drugs, &c. for Chriſtendom in large ſquare baſkets made of date-tree wood, which are called coffaſſes; we line them with coarſe blue linen, and cover them with ſkins of beaſts. During the Turkiſh lent, month, or moon Ramazan, we ſell more woollens than at any other time; for then the Turks, againſt the feaſt of Bairam, purchaſe great quantities for the new cloathing of themſelves and ſervants.

They make uſe of the following weights in Egypt; viz. A grain is the firſt and leaſt, four of which is a killat. Sixteen killats is a dram, of which all the Egyptian weights are compounded. One dram and a half is a mettigal, by which gold and ſilver lace is weighed. One hundred and forty-four drams is a rotolo, and is equal to one pound, four ounces, one dram, and eight-elevenths. Four hundred drams is an oke, by which weight ſhopkeepers ſell pepper, ſugar and other goods.

The quintals in Egypt are, one of thirty-ſix okes, others of one hundred and ten, one hundred and thirty three, one hundred and fifty, and one hundred and fifty-five rotolos. One pound avoirdupois is equal to one hundred and forty-two drams, twelve-fourteenths. One hundred weight to forty okes. One oke to two pounds, twelve ounces, four fifths. One hundred okes to two hundred and eighty pounds.

The coins current in Egypt are, burbers, medines, and ſequins. The burber is a copper piece of money about as big as a ſix-pence, twelve of which make a medine, which is a piece of iron ſilvered over, and about the ſize of a ſilver three-pence. The ſequin is of two ſorts; the one, called a funduclee, is of the value of one hundred and forty-ſix medines; the other, called a zermahoop, is worth one hundred and ten medines. Aſpers, though not coined in Egypt, are taken here, three going to a medine. Barbary ſequins and Spaniſh pieces likewiſe go here. In ſpeaking of great ſums, the inhabitants of Egypt always reckon by purſes, a purſe being twenty-five thouſand medines, or one hundred and twenty pounds ſterling.

The Turks begin their month which is lunar, at the time the moon firſt appears. The coptis month is thirty days: and every year they have five intercalary days, and every fourth year ſix. Their æra begins three hundred and two years after Chriſt, from the martyrdom of the ſaints in Egypt, in the reign of the emperor Diocleſian.

Caravans come from Tunis and Algiers to Cairo; beſides, there is one of the Barberines, from Sennar, who bring the goods of Ethiopia, and of ſeveral parts of Africa, as black ſlaves, gold duſt, elephants teeth, gums, oſtrich-feathers, muſk, ambergris, and ebony. One great caravan that arrives at Cairo, conſiſts of thoſe blacks who come from the country near the Iſle of Pheaſants, and paſs through Fez. Morocco, and Tripoli, being about eight months on their journey, and chiefly bring gold-duſt.

The principal inconveniencies and diſtempers people are ſubject to in this country, are, firſt, exceſſive heat, ſo intolerable, that a man knows not how to ſet about any buſineſs; and in the ſummer nights there is no ſleeping quietly for muſketoes, or gnats; there are always ſwarms of them buzzing about; the beſt remedy againſt them is to have a fine cloth tacked cloſe round the bed, but ſome of them will get in and torment a perſon notwithſtanding. Another inconvenience is the ſand, which inſinuates itſelf every where, inſomuch that you will find the bed-clothes full of it, and as hot as if they had been warmed with a pan of coals.

A pain in the ſtomach foreigners eſpecially are very ſubject to, which proceeds from their going open breaſted, which chills their bowels, and cauſes dangerous fevers and fluxes, eſpecially in autumn, when the river overflows the country.

Another diſtemper which reigns here is the ſwelling of the ſcrotum; and ſore eyes are almoſt univerſal in ſummer time, occaſioned by the ſcorching heat reflected from the ſand, and the duſt itſelf, which is very ſubtile and ſalt, and pernicious to the ſight. Our author relates, that a French merchant of his acquaintance loſt his ſight by it, as many of the country people do; and others were ſo afflicted with it, that they were in the extremeſt torture, crying out night and day, for a fortnight or three weeks together, and could

get no ſleep. You will hardly ſee any body abroad, in ſummer time, that is perfectly free from this diſtemper, and moſt of them with little ſlips of blue ſtuff hanging over their eyes. M. Thevenot ſays, he eſcaped ſore eyes himſelf, which he imputes to his waſhing them frequently with cold water.

The ſwelling of the legs, attended with ſharp pains, is another inconvenience many people ſuffer at Cairo, and when the water of the Nile begins to riſe, there are few people but are troubled with an inflammation, which runs over the whole body, and when they drink they feel ſharp pricking pains all over them, as if a hundred needles were run into them at once.

The plague generally viſits them once in ſeven years, during which time it is obſerved to take a tour round the Ottoman empire, but is ſometimes at Cairo two years together. All diſeaſes are more fatal in Egypt during the Hamchin, or hot winds, than at any other time, and they generally begin about the ſeventh of April, and laſt fifty days. They bring abundance of ſand into the town, which gets into the chambers, trunks, and boxes, let them be never ſo cloſe; and many of the people, who travel with the caravans at this time of the year, periſh by theſe winds. As ſoon as the hot winds ceaſe, and the dews begin to fall, by ſome, or, as others ſay, when the Nile begins to riſe, all diſtempers, even the plague itſelf, ceaſes to be mortal; ſo that this noble river conſtantly brings health and plenty with it, when it overflows the country, and may well be the cauſe of that annual joy they expreſs on its riſing to a certain height.

As for phyſicians or remedies, the Mahometans in Egypt ſcarce uſe any, adhering immoveably to their doctrine of fate; and, therefore, when the plague is in a family, they viſit their neighbours as at other times, and do not ſcruple to wear the clothes of a man that died of it.

SECT. V.

Containing a Deſcription of the EGYPTIAN Pyramids, Catacombs, and Mummies, &c.

NEAR Cairo we meet with thoſe extraordinary monuments, the pyramids, which were formerly ranked among the ſeven wonders of the world, and cannot now be viewed without admiration. Theſe are ſituated upon the ſolid rock, at the foot of the high mountains that accompany the Nile in its courſe, and ſeparate Egypt from Libya. Their architecture, both on the inſide and without, is extremely different with reſpect to diſtribution, materials, and grandeur. Some of theſe are open, others are ruined, and moſt of them are incloſed; but all have been injured by time. The immenſe quantity of materials uſed in conſtructing them renders it impoſſible for them all to have been built at the ſame time, and thoſe that were laſt erected greatly exceed the firſt in magnificence.

Theſe pyramids are the works of the remoteſt antiquity, and even more early than the times of the moſt antient hiſtorians whoſe writings have been tranſmitted to us, the very epocha of their beginning being loſt at the time when the firſt Greek philoſophers travelled into Egypt. It is not improbable that the invention of pyramids was owing to the ignorance of the people in having no other method of covering a great circumference, before the art of arching and employing columns to ſupport a roof were invented. It is indeed a mortifying conſideration, that the moſt durable works in architecture have been owing to ignorance. Thus the famous aqueducts of the antients, the remains of which are the wonder and admiration of the preſent times, were owing to their not knowing that water would riſe up nearly to the ſame height as its ſource.

It is the opinion of the common people, that the pyramids, the vaſt palaces, and the temples, whoſe remains fill the ſpectators with amazement, were built by giants; and, indeed, it has been ſuppoſed, that men ſome thouſand years ago were much larger than at preſent; but theſe opinions are fully confuted by the height of the entrances of the caves from whence they have taken ſtones for theſe purpoſes, by the narrowneſs of the paſſages of the pyramids, and by the height of the doors of the moſt antient ſtructures.

As the principal pyramids, being ſituated three or four leagues to the weſt of Cairo, near the place where the city of Memphis is ſuppoſed to have ſtood, they are commonly called, The pyramids of Memphis. They ſtand on a rocky plain, eighty feet perpendicular above the level of the ground overflowed by the Nile; and it appears that this rock, not being every-where level, has been ſmoothed by the chiſſel. It is remarkable, that this rock is almoſt covered by the flying ſand brought by the wind from the adjacent mountains; and that in this ſand are a great number of ſhells, and thoſe of oyſters petrified, which is the more ſurpriſing, as this plain of ſolid rock is never overflowed by the Nile, which, beſides, has no ſhell-fiſh throughout its whole courſe. Here are alſo found the beautiful flint-ſtones which, on account of the ſingularity of their colours, are thought much more valuable than agate, and of which the people of Cairo make handles for knives, and ſnuff-boxes.

Four of the pyramids more particularly deſerve the attention of the curious; beſides theſe, there are ſeven or eight others, but theſe laſt are not to be compared with the former, eſpecially as they are in a very ruinous condition. The four principal are nearly upon the ſame diagonal line, at about four hundred paces diſtant from each other; and their faces exactly correſpond to the four cardinal points.

The two moſt northerly are the largeſt; and Mr. Greaves, who meaſured the bottom of the firſt, found that it was exactly ſix hundred and ninety-three Engliſh feet ſquare, and that its perpendicular height is five hundred feet; but if it be taken as the pyramid aſcends inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the baſe.

It may be proper here to obſerve, that the ſquare of Lincoln's-inn-fields is ſaid to have been formed by Inigo Jones of the ſize of this pyramid, which if placed in that ſquare, would on all ſides reach to the houſes. This pyramid is aſcended on the outſide by ſteps, which run round the pyramid; the number of them has, however, been very differently related; but they are between two hundred and ſeven and two hundred and twelve in number, and from two feet and a half to four feet high, and are broad in proportion to their height.

The external part of the pyramid is chiefly built of great ſquare ſtones, cut from the rock which extends along the Nile, where to this day may be ſeen the caves from whence they were taken. The ſize of the ſtones is unequal; but they have all the figure of a priſm, that they may lie perfectly cloſe. The architect has only obſerved the pyramidical figure, without troubling himſelf about the regularity of the ſteps; and it appears that the inequality of the ſtones, which differ four, five, and even ten inches, is the reaſon why ſo many travellers who have counted them, always differ with reſpect to number. Theſe kinds of ſteps were not deſigned for aſcending and deſcending, and therefore regularity was no farther ſought than was neceſſary for the general ſhape of the pyramid and the facility of the work. It appears that the external lays are ſolely compacted by the weight of the ſtones, without mortar, lead, or cramps of any metal; but in the body of the pyramid they have uſed a mortar compoſed of lime, earth, and clay At its four corners it is eaſily perceived that the lower ſtones are placed on the rock, without any other foundation; but beyond them, quite to the middle of each face, the wind has formed a ſlope of ſand, which on the north ſide riſes ſo high as to afford a commodious aſcent to the entrance of the pyramid, which is about forty-eight feet in height.

When you aſcend to the entrance, you diſcharge a piſtol to frighten away the bats, and then two Arabs, whom you are obliged to have for your attendants, enter and remove the ſand, which almoſt ſtops up the paſſage. You then ſtrip yourſelf to your ſhirt, on account of the exceſſive heat conſtantly felt in the pyramid, and in this condition enter the paſſage, each of the company having a wax candle in his hand; for the torches are not lighted till you are in the chambers, for fear of cauſing too much ſmoke. This paſſage runs downwards ninety-two feet and a half, and is very ſteep; but at the farther end of it is an opening ſo ſmall, that it is barely a foot and a half high, and two feet in breadth; yet through this hole you are obliged to paſs; but the traveller, inſtead of creeping, commonly lays himſelf down, and each of the two Arabs that went before take one of his legs, and thus drag him over the ſand and duſt through the paſſage.

After having paſſed this ſtrait, which is luckily no more than two ells long, you enter a pretty large place, where travellers commonly take ſome refreſhment to give them courage to proceed farther.

All theſe paſſages, except the fourth, are three feet and a half ſquare, and lined on the four ſides by great blocks of white marble, ſo poliſhed, that this, with the acclivity

of

of the way, would render them impaſſable, were it not for little holes cut for reſting the feet in. It coſts great trouble to advance forward, and if you make a falſe ſtep, you will ſlide backwards to the place from whence you ſet out; but by obſerving theſe holes you proceed commodiouſly enough, though you muſt ſtoop till you come to the end of the ſecond paſſage, which is a hundred and ten feet in length: you then come to a reſting-place, on the right hand of which is an opening into a kind of well, in which nothing is to be found but bats that are upwards of a foot long.

The third paſſage, begins at this reſting place: it is a hundred and twenty-four feet in length, and runs horizontally in a ſtraight line to the inferior chamber. The height of this gallery is twenty-ſix feet, and the breadth ſix, with benches on each ſide of poliſhed ſtone. Before the chamber are ſome ſtones with which the way is embarraſſed; but having ſurmounted this difficulty, you enter a chamber which is alſo covered with ſtones. This chamber is lined with granite, finely poliſhed; but at preſent extremely black with the ſmoke of the torches uſed in examining its various parts.

After viſiting the lower chamber, you return to the reſting-place, and aſcend upwards by faſtening your feet as before, till coming to the end of the fourth gallery you meet with a little platform. You muſt then begin to climb again, but ſoon finding a new opening, where you may ſtand upright, you contemplate a little room, which is at firſt no more than a palm's breadth larger than the galleries, but afterwards enlarges itſelf on both ſides; and at length, ſtooping for the laſt time, you paſs the remainder of the fifth gallery, that leads in a horizontal line to the upper chamber. This is a very noble room in the center of the pyramid, at an equal diſtance from all the ſides, and almoſt exactly between the baſis and the top. The floor, ſides, and roof, are all formed of vaſt blocks of granite marble. There are but ſix ranges of ſtone from the bottom to the top; and thoſe which cover it are of a ſtupendous height, like ſo many huge beams lying flat, and traverſing the room, nine of them forming the cieling. This hall is ſomething more than thirty-four feet in length; it is ſeventeen feet broad, and nineteen feet and a half in height.

On the left ſide is what is generally ſuppoſed to be a coffin, formed of one entire piece of granite marble, and uncovered at the top; and on being ſtruck with a key, ſounds like a bell. This is ſaid to be the tomb of Cheops, king of Egypt, whom Diodorus calls Chemnis. Its form is like that of an altar, hollowed within, and the ſtone is ſmooth and plain without any relief. The exterior ſurface contains ſeven feet three inches and an half in length, three feet, three inches, and three quarters in depth, and as much in breadth. The hollow part within is little more than ſix feet long, and two feet broad. It is common for people to diſcharge a piſtol in this room, which makes a noiſe reſembling thunder. Perſons go out by the ſame way they entered; and the traveller has no ſooner quitted the pyramid, than he wraps himſelf up warm, and drinks a glaſs of ſome ſpirituous liquor, to preſerve himſelf from a pleuriſy, occaſioned by the ſudden tranſition from an extremely hot to a temperate air.

When the perſon has regained his natural heat, he aſcends the pyramid, in order to enjoy a delightful proſpect of the ſurrounding country. The way to aſcend it is by the north-eaſt corner; and when the ſteps are high, or are broken, the perſon muſt ſearch for a convenient place where the ſteps are entire, or a high ſtep is mouldered, ſo as to facilitate the aſcent. The top does not end in a point, but in a little flat or ſquare, conſiſting of nine ſtones, beſides two at the angles that are wanting. Abundance of people, who have viſited the pyramid at different times, and were willing to tranſmit to poſterity the memorial of their being here, have inſcribed their names on the top, in the entrance, and in the chambers of it.

It has been affirmed by ſeveral travellers, that a man who ſtands on the top of this pyramid, could not ſhoot an arrow farther than the bottom, but it muſt neceſſarily fall upon the ſteps; however, it is very certain, that a good bow and a ſtrong arm will ſend an arrow beyond them. There is as little juſtice in the remark, that theſe pyramids caſt no ſhadows. In ſummer-time, it is true, and for near three quarters of a year, the pyramids caſt no ſhadows at noon; but every morning and evening in the year, and at noon in winter, they certainly caſt a ſhadow proportionable to their bulk; and Thales, the Miletian, according to Pliny and Laertius, took the height of theſe pillars by their ſhadows about two thouſand years ago.

The ſecond pyramid appears on approaching it, even higher than the firſt, which is owing to its being placed in a more elevated ſituation, for they are in other reſpects both of the ſame ſize, only the ſecond is ſo well cloſed, that there is not the leaſt ſign of its ever having been opened; and it is coated on the four ſides with granite, ſo well joined and poliſhed, that the aſcending it would ſcarcely be attempted by the boldeſt man living. On the north and weſt ſides are two very ſtately and celebrated pieces of architecture, about thirty feet deep, and one thouſand four hundred feet long, cut out of the rock in a perpendicular, and ſquared with the chiſſel; which, it is ſuppoſed, were deſigned as lodgings for the Egyptian prieſts.

The ruins of a temple are to be ſeen on the eaſtern ſide of this pyramid, the ſtones of which are ſix feet broad, and as many deep, moſt of them ſixteen or ſeventeen, and ſome twenty-two feet in length. The whole building was an hundred and ſixty feet in depth, and an hundred and eighty in front.

At a ſmall diſtance from theſe pyramids, and about a quarter of a mile from the river, is a monſtrous figure, called a ſphinx, the face of which repreſents that of a beautiful woman, and the body that of a lion. This extraordinary figure is ſaid to have been the ſepulchre of king Amaſis. It is of one entire ſtone, ſmooth and poliſhed, and was cut out of the ſolid rock; and Dr. Pococke obſerves, that what ſome have thought joinings of the ſtones, are only veins of the rock. The lower part of the neck, or beginning of the breaſt, is thirty-three feet wide, and twenty thick to the back; and thence to a large hole in the back ſeventy-three feet, and from thence to the tail thirty feet. Beſides the above mentioned hole in the back, there is another on the top of the head, by which it is conjectured the prieſts entered to deliver their oracles. The ſand is raiſed about it to ſuch a height, that the top of the back can only be ſeen. Some people have taken great pains to break off part of the noſe of this figure, and thereby very much diſfigured this celebrated monument of antiquity.

The third pyramid is ſituated on a riſing ground, about two hundred yards from the ſecond, and is ſaid to have been built by Mycherinus, the ſon of Cheops, and ſucceſſor of Cephrenes. It is cloſed like the ſecond, and is without any coating. It meaſures about three hundred feet on every ſide, and, though leſs than the other two, is ſaid greatly to excel them in the beauty of its workmanſhip. On the outſide of this pyramid was likewiſe a temple, which was alſo compoſed of ſtones of a prodigious ſize, and is more diſtinguiſhable in its ruins than the other.

The next pyramid to be mentioned, which is the fourth, is an hundred feet leſs than the third, and alſo without coating; it is cloſed, and reſembles the others, but had no temple: it has however, one ſingularity, which is, its ſummit being terminated by a ſingle ſtone that is very large, and ſeems to have ſerved as a pedeſtal. It is ſituated a little more to the weſt, and out of the line of the others. Theſe four great pyramids are ſurrounded by others that are ſmaller, which are in a very ruinous condition, and have been for the moſt part opened.

The pyramids of Soccotra, ſo called from a mean village of that name, are at near ten miles diſtance from thoſe laſt mentioned. Theſe extend from north to ſouth, and are ſituated at the foot of the mountains, in a plain that ſeems formed by nature, for the uſe to which it is applied, it not being of great extent, but ſo high that it is never overflowed by the Nile; and there is great reaſon to believe that the celebrated city of Memphis extended almoſt to this ſpot.

The pyramid, among theſe, which riſes above the reſt, is called the great pyramid to the north. On meaſuring this ſtructure, it was found that the eaſt ſide extended ſix hundred and ninety feet, and the north ſide ſeven hundred and ten. The perpendicular height is three hundred and forty-five feet. It has one hundred and fifty-ſix ſteps from two to three feet in height, and is built of the ſame kind of free-ſtone as the others, but was caſed with a fine hard-ſtone, which is ſtill remaining in ſeveral parts of the ſtructure, though a great deal has fallen down. About one-third of the way up is an entrance three feet five inches wide, and four feet two inches deep. The ſtones within are of the height and breadth of the entrance, and about five feet in length. Mr. Norden and his companions entered this paſſage, which is ſteep, and has alſo holes cut as reſts for the feet. Having paſſed through it, they entered a room twenty-two feet and a half long, and eleven feet ten inches wide. At the height of ten feet ſix inches a range of ſtones project five inches inwards on each ſide,

and in the ſame manner twelve tires project one farther than the other till they meet at the top. To the weſt of this room is another that reſembles it: theſe rooms are formed of ſmooth white ſtones, ſo large, that there are only three or four of them in breadth, and ſeven of them in length.

There is another, at the diſtance of a mile to the ſouth-eaſt, called the great pyramid to the ſouth, which at the bottom is about ſix hundred feet ſquare. It is built within of good hewn ſtone, and ſeems to have been caſed all the way up.

About two miles to the eaſt of the laſt great pyramid, and on a lower ground, is one built of unburnt brick, which ſeems to have been made of the mud of the Nile, it being a ſandy black clay, with ſome pebbles and ſhells in it, and mixed up with chopped ſtraw, in order to bind the clay together, as unburnt bricks are at preſent uſually made in Egypt and other parts of the eaſt. Some of theſe bricks are thirteen inches and a half long, ſix inches and a half broad, and four inches thick; but others were fifteen inches long, ſeven broad, and four inches three quarters in thickneſs, but were not laid ſo as to bind each other. This pyramid extends two hundred and ten feet on the weſt ſide, and is one hundred and fifty feet high; and at the top is forty-three feet by thirty-five. It ſeems to have been built with five degrees, each being ten feet broad, and thirty deep, yet the aſcent is eaſy on account of the bricks having crumbled away through length of time.

Theſe pyramids are ſuppoſed by many, to have been built by the Iſraelites, which is confirmed by Joſephus, who ſays, that when time had extinguiſhed the memory of the benefits of Joſeph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, they uſed the Iſraelites with great rigour, waſting them by ſeveral labours. They were ordered to cut canals for the river Nile, to raiſe walls and caſt up banks to hinder the inundation of that river, and that they oppreſſed them alſo with erecting thoſe fabricks of the pyramids, and compelling them to learn many mechanical arts. But Mr. Greaves thinks it a ſufficient confutation of this account, that the pyramids are built of ſtone, and not of brick, in making whereof the Iſraelites were employed. But though the Iſraelites might, a little before their departure from Egypt, be employed in making bricks, methinks it does by no means follow, that they were not empolyed in any other works. And when is it more likely that the Egyptian kings ſhould undertake theſe vaſt ſtructures, than when they had ſo many hundred thouſand ſlaves in their dominions, whom they ſeemed under a neceſſity of employing conſtantly in ſuch works as theſe to prevent an inſurrection? beſides, it has ſome weight with me, that this was the general opinion, ſo long ſince as Joſephus wrote, for had it been much later, the time of their being erected would not, in that age, have been ſo difficult to diſcover.

The time when theſe pyramids were built is not leſs uncertain than the founders names; for nothing can be more precarious than the Egyptian chronology, where we find a ſucceſſion of kings for fifty thouſand years; and they pretend to enumerate no leſs than three hundred and thirty kings, who reigned before king Mœris. Mr. Greaves has taken an infinite deal of pains to aſcertain the time of their erection, and concludes at length, that they were built between the time of the Iſraelites going out of Egypt, and the building of Solomon's temple, being a ſpace of four hundred and eighty years. But we cannot help inclining ſtill to believe that they were built by the Iſraelites, whom the kings of Egypt employed in theſe ſtupendous works, on a politic account, rather than for any oſtentation of their power and grandeur, as ſome writers imagine: not but that there might be ſome other inducements to the erecting them, beſides the keeping a mutinous people in action, who, upon the leaſt reſpite from their labours ſeemed ready to break out into rebellion. That they were actually employed in laborious works, we have the beſt authority we can have, both from ſacred and profane writers. And as there were no leſs than ſix hundred thouſand of theſe labourers, beſides women and children, as it appears there were at their leaving Egypt, when can we aſſign a properer time for erecting theſe vaſt ſtructures, than when they dwelt in this kingdom? their being employed in general in preparing materials for building, by the kings of Egypt, of which we have ſuch undoubted teſtimonies, carries a much ſtronger preſumption that they were employed in the erecting theſe fabrics, than the account of their making bricks does, that they were never concerned in any other work, but brick-making. Beſides a leſs body of men than the Iſraelites were, would have made but a ſlow progreſs in ſuch mighty buildings: and the reaſon the dimenſions of the Egyptian pyramids exceed any other ſtructures that ever were in the world is, becauſe never any other prince employed ſo prodigious a number of labourers, or had equal reaſon for doing it. Another reaſon why we are inclined to believe they are as antient as the time of the Iſraelites being in Egypt is, that no profane author is able to aſſign the time of their erection; but we leave every man to his own conjectures.

Many perſons have thought that the pyramids were erected as ſepulchres for the kings of Egypt; but if this was the caſe, they would ſurely have provided a better entrance, and not made it neceſſary to drag the corpſe through long, narrow, and intricate paſſages before it could be placed in its tomb: and it ſeems improbable that in the firſt pyramid eleven acres of ground ſhould be covered with blocks of ſolid ſtone for ſo great a height, merely for the ſake of a room or two of no extraordinary ſize, in which a coffin was to ſtand. Dr. Shaw is of the ſame opinion, that the great cheſt of granite marble found in the upper chamber of the pyramid, was probably intended for ſome religious uſe, it being of a different form from the ſtone coffins found in Egypt, which are conſtantly adorned with ſacred characters, and made with a kind of pedeſtal at the feet; for the mummies always ſtand upright, where time or accident have not diſturbed them; but this cheſt lies flat upon the floor, and conſequently wants that dignity of poſture, which, ſays Dr. Shaw, we may ſuppoſe this wiſe nation knew to be peculiar, and therefore would be very ſcrupulous of denying, to the human body. Upon the whole, then, in ſo ſymbolical a religion as that of the antient Egyptians, it is not improbable that the pyramidical form might convey ſome ſacred meaning; and perhaps the pyramids themſelves might be objects repreſenting the deity, and to which they offered their adorations; juſt as the Paphian Venus was, according to Tacitus, not of a human, but of a pyramidical form; as is alſo the black ſtone worſhipped by the Gentoos of India, under the name of Jaggernaut.

We ſhall now proceed to give an account of the catacombs, or mummy-pits, and Egyptian mummies, which are to be ſeen in the ſame plain in which theſe laſt pyramids are placed, the entrance into which is by a kind of wells, about four feet ſquare, and twenty feet deep, cut through a ſlaty rock, covered with ſand, which being moved by the wind, ſometimes fills up theſe entrances. However, ſome of them are caſed as far as the depth of the ſand with large unburnt bricks. People are uſually let down with ropes, when being got to the bottom, they find a paſſage five feet wide, and about fifty feet in length, filled up very high with ſand, and having got to the end of it turn down another paſſage to the left hand about ſix feet high, on one ſide of which are little rooms, with benches about two feet above the floor, and on the other ſide are narrow cells juſt big enough to receive a large coffin. At the end of this alley is another, which is narrower, and on each ſide are niches that ſeem deſigned for coffins placed upright. This paſſage leads to rooms in the form of an oblong ſquare, filled with the remains of mummies. Our author obſerves, that here the inferior perſons of a family were probably depoſited, while the heads of the families were placed in the niches. Each family had originally, perhaps, its burial-place; and as the family increaſed, they branched out theſe ſepulchral grottos, that every deſcendant might have a ſeparate place for their remains.

There are found in theſe catacombs the reliques of embalmed bodies, ſwathes ſcattered up and down, and ſometimes coffins ſtanding upright and entire, made of ſycamore or Pharaoh's fig-tree, that have continued in theſe ſubterraneous apartments above three thouſand years, though the wood is to appearance ſpongy and porous. The upper part of the coffin is commonly ſhaped like a head, with a face painted upon it; the reſt is a continued trunk, and the end for the feet is made broad and flat for it to ſtand upright in the repoſitory. Other coffins are made of ſtone, and they are generally adorned with carved work repreſenting hieroglyphical figures of various animals.

On opening the coffins the bodies appear wrapped up in a linen ſhroud, upon which are faſtened ſeveral linen ſcrolls painted with hieroglyphic characters. Theſe ſcrolls commonly run down the belly and ſides, or are fixed on the knees and legs. On a kind of linen headpiece, which covers the face, the countenance of the perſon is repreſented in gold, or painted: but theſe paintings are very much decayed by time. The whole body is ſwathed by fillets or narrow bandages of linen wrapped round in ſo curious

curious a manner, with ſo many windings and ſo often upon each other, that it is ſuppoſed a corpſe has ſeldom leſs than a thouſand ells of filletting. Thoſe eſpecially about the head and face are laid on with ſuch ſurpriſing neatneſs, that there may be plainly perceived ſomething of the ſhape of the eyes and mouth.

The learned and ingenious Dr. Pococke brought a mummy to England, which was in a coffin made of wood, the ſeams of which were filled up with linen and fine plaſter. Four folds of cloth were over the head, and the upper one painted blue. Beneath theſe was a compoſition about half an inch thick of gum and cloth burnt by the heat of the things applied to it, and over the ſkin was a coat of gum, or bitumen, of the thickneſs of a wafer. The back part of the head was filled with bitumen, which had been poured in at the noſe, and had penetrated even into the bone of the ſkull. The body was bound round with a bandage of linen tape about three quarters of an inch broad, under which were four folds of cloth, then a ſwathe two inches broad, and under that eight different bandages of the ſame breadth laid acroſs from the ſhoulders to the hips on the other ſide: under this was a cruſt of linen about an inch thick, burnt almoſt to aſhes, but ſticking together by means of the gums with which it had been ſmeared. The arms were laid acroſs the breaſt, the right hand over the left, and both lying towards the face. From the hips to the feet, were eight bandages twelve inches broad, and under theſe were bandages an inch thick conſumed by time, and the heat of the drugs; but the outer bandages did not appear to have been ſmeared with gums. The coffin in which the body was put was formed of two pieces of wood hollowed ſo as to receive it, and being put together were faſtened with broad pegs in the top fixed in holes in the lower part. This coffin was in the ſhape of an human body, as bound up after its being embalmed; and both the coffin and body wrapped up in linen, were painted and covered with a thin plaſter.

One of the catacombs is appropriated for the birds and other animals worſhipped by the antient Egyptians; for when they happened to find them dead they embalmed them, and wrapped them up with the ſame care as the human bodies. The catacomb is about thirty feet deep, and has the ſame kind of entrance, only the paſſage from it is about eight feet wide, and almoſt filled with ſand. It is alſo much more magnificent than the others. The birds are depoſited in earthen vaſes, covered over and ſtopped cloſe with mortar. In one of the irregular apartments are large jars that might be for bigger animals. In ſhort, the birds were embalmed by dipping them in gums and aromatic drugs, and bound up, like the human bodies, with many folds of linen.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with a deſcription of that famous building called the Labyrinth, at a place called the town of Caroon, near the city of Memphis, which is ſaid to have been much more ſurpriſing than the pyramids. It was built, according to Herodotus, by the twelve kings of Egypt, when the government was divided into twelve parts, as ſo many places for them to meet in, and tranſact the affairs of ſtate and religion. This was ſo extraordinary a building, that Dœdalus the famous Athenian artificer, came to Egypt on purpoſe to ſee it, and formed the labyrinth in Crete for king Minos on the model of this. The ſame hiſtorian thus deſcribes it: "This labyrinth has twelve ſaloons or covered courts, with gates oppoſite to each other, ſix towards the ſouth, and ſix towards the north in continued lines. They are ſurrounded by the ſame outward wall. The apartments are on two floors, the one under ground, and the other over them, and are three thouſand in all, each floor conſiſting of one thouſand five hundred. Thoſe above ground I myſelf have ſeen and gone through, ſo that I ſpeak from my own knowledge; but thoſe beneath the ſepulchres of the kings, and of the ſacred crocodiles, the rulers of the Egyptians were by no means willing to exhibit. The upper apartments are greater than any other human works; for the outlets at the top, and the various windings through the ſaloons, gave me infinite ſurprize, as I paſſed from a ſaloon into apartments, and from apartments into bed-chambers, and into other rooms out of the bed-chambers, and from apartments into ſaloons. The roof of the whole is ſtone as well as the walls. The latter are adorned with ſculpture: each ſaloon has a periſtyle of white ſtones admirably joined together. Quite cloſe to the line where the labyrinth terminates, is a pyramid of two hundred and forty feet, on which large animals are engraven, and the entrance into it is under-ground." Little, however, is now to be ſeen of theſe boaſted pieces of art, but heaps of ruins, broken columns, ſhattered walls, and entablatures. Among the reſt, is the foundation of an oblong ſquare building formed of a reddiſh ſtone or marble. Some ſemicircular pilaſters are placed upon it, and the remains of the edifice above are of brick plaſtered over.

It is the opinion of Diodorus Siculus, and ſeveral other antient hiſtorians, that this ſtructure was abſolutely a ſepulchre in which many of the Egyptian kings, particularly thoſe who are ſuppoſed to have founded it, were interred; and this opinion appears the more probable, as thoſe monarchs prided themſelves in being depoſited in pyramids and other magnificent ſtructures, after their deaths.

Hiſtorians mention, that among the bodies of deceaſed men, which had been preſerved through many ages, and were actually entire in the time of Auguſtus, was that of Alexander the Great. They farther tell us, that Auguſtus, when in Egypt, had the curioſity to viſit the tomb of that mighty conqueror, and ſaw therein the body in a ſhrine of glaſs ſubſtituted in the room of one of gold, which had been taken away by Seleucus.

SECT. VI.

Treating of the Ruins ſtill to be ſeen of ſeveral cities of EGYPT, famous in antient Times; particularly BUSIRIS, HELIOPOLIS, ANTINOPOLIS; ſeveral remarkable Antiquities; a more particular Account of the miraculous Serpent Heredy; alſo a Deſcription of the Ruins of TENTYRA, THEBES, &c. with other Cities and Places of UPPER and LOWER EGYPT.

SOME of the ruins of the cities and temples of Egypt, like thoſe of Palmyra and Balbec, raiſe our ideas of their antient magnificence and grandeur; while others only ſhew the places where the moſt ſplendid cities, &c. once ſtood; the vaſt length of time ſince they were built having levelled them with the duſt, and only left a few ſcattered monuments of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures as teſtimonials of the truth of hiſtory, and as ſpecimens of the architecture of the early ages before it was improved, and carried to perfection by the Greeks. Thoſe of the laſt kind, and which are moſt imperfect, ſhall take the firſt place here.

The village of Baalbait, a little to the northward of Cairo, is ſituated on one of thoſe artificial eminences on which probably ſtood Buſiris, a city celebrated for its temple dedicated to Iſis: here are the remains of a temple, whoſe materials are the moſt coſtly of any in Egypt. The temple appears, from theſe ruins, to have been about two hundred feet long and one hundred broad, and, at about one hundred feet diſtance, it is encompaſſed by a mound raiſed to keep out the Nile. The outſide of this ſtructure was of grey granite, and the inſides and columns of red, the capitals being the head of Iſis: there ſeem to have been four rows of twelve columns each in the temple. But what moſt commands the attention and admiration of the curious is, the exquiſite beauty of the ſculpture; for though the figures are only about four feet high, there is ſomething ſo fine, and ſo divine in the mien of the deities and prieſts, that exceeds imagination. But the columns are frequently cut into mill-ſtones by the natives, who are conſtantly employed in deſtroying theſe fragments of antiquity.

To the north eaſt of Cairo are the ſmall remains of Heliopolis, or the City of the Sun, ſituated on the borders of the Delta, which is the Or of the Scriptures, and is now called Matarſa. It was a city of great antiquity, and famous for the worſhip of the ſun. They alſo worſhipped a bull, which was kept here under the name of Mnevis. A large mound encompaſſes the whole, the antient ſcite being about a mile long, and half a mile broad. Here are the remains of a temple, ſeveral ſphynxes, and an obeliſk near ſeventy feet high. The prieſts of Heliopolis were the moſt famous of all Egypt for the ſtudy of philoſophy and aſtronomy; and were the firſt that computed time by years, of three hundred and ſixty-five days. They had here a ſort of college conſiſting of a great number of rooms. Herodotus came to this place to be inſtructed in the Egyptian learning; and Strabo, when here, was ſhewn the apartments of Plato and Eudoxus. Near this city was a famous obſervatory, which received its name from Eudoxus, who was a great aſtronomer, and ſtudied that ſcience here for many years. There is great reaſon to think that the territory about Heliopolis is the land of Goſhen, called alſo Rameſes in Scripture; eſpecially as the children of Iſrael went by Rameſes the firſt ſtation, on their departure from Egypt; the country being near Memphis, where it is probable Pharaoh reſided at that time.

We read in hiſtory, that Seſoſtris erected, in Heliopolis, two obeliſks of extreme hard ſtone, brought from the quarries of Syene, at the extremity of Egypt, which were each one hundred and eighty feet high, and of one piece of granite. They were cut with a deſign to acquaint poſterity with the extent of his power, and the number of nations he had conquered. Auguſtus cauſed one of theſe obeliſks to be tranſported to Rome, and placed in the Campus Martius. He durſt not venture upon a ſecond, which was near the palace of Heliopolis, and of a prodigious ſize, made in the reign of king Rameſes, who it is ſaid employed twenty thouſand men in cutting it. This obeliſk muſt be conſidered as one of the moſt valuable monuments which now remain of Egyptian antiquity. It was reſpected even by Cambyſes, at the time when that furious prince put all to fire and ſword in Egypt, and who neither ſpared temples, nor thoſe ſuperb monuments, whoſe ruins are ſtill the admiration of travellers. This prince, after having made himſelf maſter of Heliopolis, gave up the whole town to the flames; but when he ſaw the fire approaching to this obeliſk, he ordered it immediately to be extinguiſhed. It was afterwards brought to Rome by Conſtans, the ſon of Conſtantine, and placed in the Circus, with immenſe labour and expence. It was afterwards thrown down, but re-eſtabliſhed by the care of pope Sixtus V.

The village of Matare is ſituated at a ſmall diſtance to the ſouth of the above city. It is ſaid the holy family lay for ſome time concealed here when they came into Egypt; and they add, that being in danger from ſome bad people, a tree opened, and became hollow to receive and ſhelter them.

More to the eaſt are the remains of an oblong ſquare edifice of white hewn ſtone plaſtered over, with a kind of baſe and plainth ranging round. Near it is a kind of ruſtic building that ſeems to have been a gate. At length appear the remains of the grand ſtructure itſelf, which is now called the caſtle of Caroon. It had a portico of ruſtic work, which is now no where above ſix feet high, and the front is more ruinous than any other part. On the other ſides are forty tiers of ſtone, each nine inches deep, and conſequently it is there thirty-three feet high; it has ſigns of a cornice ranging round with ornaments of ſculpture. There are four rooms in the length of this building, with the doors crowned with double cornices, and over each a kind of falſe door ornamented in the ſame manner; on the ſides of the walls are ſeveral niches, and many ſtones are ſcattered about the plain, of ſome of which the ſhafts of the columns appear to have been compoſed.

The ruins of the city of Antinopolis lie a little farther to the ſouth, where antiently was a town called Baſa; Antinous, who accompanied Hadrian into Egypt, being drowned there, that emperor built this city, and named it Antinopolis, in alluſion to his favourite, to whom he inſtituted games and divine honours. It was about four miles in circumference, and on the part where it ſtood is now a town called Enſineh. Some remains of this antient city are ſtill to be ſeen, particularly a beautiful gate, of which the front is almoſt entire; and behind it are four pillars, together with as many columns and their capitals, the fronts being fluted. Beyond this gate is an avenue with one hundred and thirty pilaſters on each ſide, but they are all in a very bad condition. At the end of this avenue ſtands the column of Alexander Severus, the Roman emperor; the fuſts, which is built of five pieces of ſtone, is thirty-two feet long, and has a proportionable diameter. The firſt piece and the capital is ornamented with foliage; the pedeſtal is ſquare, twelve feet high, and five broad. On one ſide of it is a Greek inſcription, but the greateſt part of it is ſo defaced as to be entirely unintelligible. Near this pedeſtal is another, on which alſo are the remains of a Greek inſcription. About one hundred yards from this laſt is a triumphal arch almoſt entire. The fronts are forty-eight feet wide, and the ſides twenty-four in length. It has three gates, the two outermoſt of which are ſeven feet wide, and twenty high; and the centre one, which is the largeſt, is ſixteen feet wide, and thirty feet high. Oppoſite each of the four ſides of this triumphal arch was a colonade, or range of pillars of red granite, of which nothing remain but ſome broken pillars.

In this part of Egypt alſo ſtood Cynopolis, or, The City of Dogs, in which Anubis was worſhipped; and dogs were held in great eſteem, a certain food being allotted to them. It is ſaid the riſe of this was owing to Anubis, a companion of Oſiris, who wore the dog's-ſkin for armour, as an emblem of his courage; as Macedon, his other companion, wore the ſkin of a wolf, on which account it is conjectured theſe animals came to be worſhipped.

Several other cities alſo ornamented this part of the Egyptian country, called, Heptanomis, or Middle Egypt; namely, 1. Acanthus, where was a temple of Oſiris, and a wood of Thebaic Acantha, that produced gums, from which, it is probable, the city might have received its name. 2. Heracleopolis, or the city of Hercules, in an iſland made by a canal running from the Nile. 3. Nicopolis, which ſtood in the lower part of this iſland, to the north. 4. Ariſinoe, on a branch of the Nile, which ran into the lake Mœris, about fifty miles ſouth-weſt of Memphis, and twelve miles and a half from the lake. It was firſt called the city of Crocodiles, becauſe the inhabitants worſhipped that animal. It is conjectured that this city was about four miles in circumference, and had a canal on every ſide. Some of its ruins are ſtill to be ſeen near the province now called Fayoum. 5. Oxyrynchus, ſo called from a fiſh of that name worſhipped all over Egypt, but principally in this place, where a temple was erected to that deity. 6. Hermopolis, or the temple of Mercury, now the village of Archo-Mountain. This city was ſituated about two miles from the river, and was irregular in its form, being about a mile long, and half a mile broad. Here is ſtill to be ſeen the grand portico of an antient temple, conſiſting of twelve pillars, ſix in a row, and nine feet in diameter. About three miles ſouth-weſt of theſe ruins was the antient caſtle of Hermopolis, where they took cuſtom for all commodities brought from the city of Thebes. 7. On the eaſt ſide of the river ſtood Anucropolis, or the city of Anchors; ſo called from a neighbouring quarry, out of which were cut ſtone anchors. 8. Aphroditopolis, or the city of Venus, the inhabitants of which paid particular adoration to a white cow. 9. Coreeſura, ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Nile. 10. New Babylon, ſuppoſed to have ſtood on Mount Jehuſi, at the ſouth end of Old Cairo, where many ruins are ſtill to be ſeen.

To the ſouth of Hermopolis is a mountain called Shebat el Koſſeri, in the ſide of which are ſome remarkable antiquities. After aſcending the mountain for about two hours, you arrive at a gate which leads into a great ſaloon, ſupported by hexagonal pillars cut out of the ſolid rock. The walls are adorned with paintings, which are ſtill plainly to be diſtinguiſhed, and the gold that was employed glitters on all ſides. There are openings leading to other apartments; but thoſe are filled up with rubbiſh. There is another apartment above, to which you may arrive, though with great difficulty, by climbing up on the outſide. It is ſmaller than the firſt, and has no pillars, but is painted like the other. On each ſide of the ſecond grotto is a tomb of the ſame ſtone with the mountain, with which they both form a continued body. One is open, and the other cloſed, but almoſt buried in the ſand. This upper cavern had alſo a communication with other apartments; but thoſe are alſo cloſed up, like ſome of the others.

Gawa Kiebra is a little farther to the ſouth: here ſtill remains a beautiful portico of a temple, containing eighteen pillars in three rows: theſe have a ſingular kind of capital, and their ſhafts are enriched with hieroglyphics, executed in a maſterly manner. This temple appears to have been extremely magnificent, not only from the grandeur of the portico, but from the vaſt ſtones which formed the walls, one of which was found to be twenty-one feet long, eight broad, and four deep; and another thirty feet long, and five broad. At ſome diſtance behind the portico is a ſtone ſhaped like the top of an obeliſk, which is adorned with hieroglyphics, and has on one ſide of it a niche as if for a ſtatue.

There is at ſome diſtance to the ſouth the grotto of the famous ſerpent called Heredy, where is the tomb of a pretended Turkiſh ſaint, adorned with a cupola raiſed above the mountain. The Arabs affirm, that this ſaint, who was named Heredy, dying in this place, was buried here; and that, by a particular favour of the Almighty, he was transformed into a ſerpent that never dies, but heals diſeaſes, and beſtows favours on all who implore his aid. Of this ſerpent both Dr. Pococke and Mr. Norden have given a very particular account, and perfectly agree in the particulars they relate of it; and therefore we ſhall give an account of it here, as this can hardly fail of being acceptable to the curious reader, who will doubtleſs be inclined to entertain a very mean opinion of the people who could be deceived by this pious fraud; but abſurd as it is, it is not more ſo than the vulgar belief among the ancient Romans, atteſted by very creditable authors, of Æſculapius entering into a ſerpent, and under that form being brought to Rome and curing a peſtilence in that city.

It ſeems this miraculous ſerpent pays great reſpect to particular

particular perſons, and is more propitious to the great lords than to the poor: for if a governor be attacked by any diſorder, the ſerpent has the complaiſance to ſuffer himſelf to be carried to his houſe; but a perſon of the common rank muſt not only make a vow to recompenſe him for his trouble, but ſend a ſpotleſs virgin on the important embaſſy: for the fair alone can have any influence on him; and if her virtue ſhould be the leaſt ſullied, he would be inexorable. On her entering into his preſence, ſhe makes him a compliment, and, with the moſt humble ſubmiſſion intreats him to ſuffer himſelf to be carried to the perſon who wants his aſſiſtance.

The ſerpent, who can refuſe nothing to female virtue, begins at firſt with moving its tail; the virgin redoubles her intreaties, and at length the reptile ſprings up to her neck, places itſelf in her boſom, and there remains quiet, while it is carried in ſtate in the midſt of loud acclamations, to the houſe of the perſon who diſpatched the ambaſſadreſs. No ſooner is it brought into the room, than the patient begins to find himſelf relieved. Yet this miraculous phyſician does not withdraw; for he is very willing to remain ſome hours with the patient, if during the whole time they take care to regale his prieſts, who never leave him.

All this is performed to admiration, provided no Chriſtian or other unbeliever comes in, whoſe preſence, it is pretended, would intirely mar the plot; for this ſagacious ſerpent, on perceiving him, would immediately diſappear. The prieſts would ſearch for him in vain, and it would be impoſſible to find him: for were he carried to the other ſide of the Nile, he would return inviſibly to his dwelling in the tomb. The Arabs even boldly aſſert, that were he cut in pieces, the parts would inſtantly join again; and that nothing can put a period to his life, being deſtined to be immortal.

The Chriſtians, who ought to claim a degree of wiſdom ſuperior to the Arabs, have even the folly to believe that this pretended ſaint is the devil himſelf, whom God has permitted to miſlead theſe blind and ignorant people; and in this belief they are confirmed by a tradition, that to this place the angel Raphael baniſhed the devil Aſmodi, whom in Tobit viii. 3. he is ſaid to ſend into Egypt. On which an author of credit makes the following reflection:

"I am perſuaded," ſays he, "that both the Arabs and theſe Chriſtians offend againſt the rules of reaſon. Before we conſider a thing as miraculous or ſuperſtitious, it is neceſſary to examine whether the fact itſelf be true; whether the circumſtances are ſuch as are pretended, and whether no fraud is uſed. I agree that the ſerpent is there, but it cannot be immortal; he undoubtedly dies like other ſerpents, and the prieſts who draw a profit from him ſubſtitute another of the ſame kind in his room. Were they indeed to cut the ſerpent in pieces, and were the parts ſeen to join again, it might be eſteemed a proof of its immortality; but they can never be brought to this: and when the emir of Akmim ordered them to make this trial in his preſence, the prieſts excuſed themſelves from the experiment.

"Is there any thing eaſier than to make a tame ſerpent obey certain ſigns? The virginity of the ambaſſadreſs is ſecured by her being ſo young as to be free from ſuſpicion; and ſerpents are known to be attracted by certain odours and herbs, with which the girl may be rubbed; at leaſt ſhe is adorned with chaplets and garlands of flowers, in which they take care not to forget ſuch as are agreeable to the ſerpent. In ſhort, if it be aſked how it is poſſible that it ſhould diſappear from the ſight of ſo many people, I anſwer, that it is ſufficient to conceive that theſe prieſts are excellent jugglers, and there will be no difficulty in imagining them capable of conveying away the ſerpent in the preſence of a great number of ſpectators, without the moſt attentive and quick-ſighted being able to perceive it: whoever has ſeen the tricks daily played by the mountebanks in the great ſquare before the caſtle of Cairo, muſt have been ſtruck with feats much more remarkable than this." If to all this be added the account travellers give us of the dancing-ſerpents, and other particulars relating to thoſe reptiles, in Indoſtan, every thing myſterious in the affair will vaniſh, and the whole muſt appear to be an arrant impoſture.

We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the antient ſtate of Upper Egypt, or Thebais, and alſo an account of the ruins and remaining antiquities in that part of the country.

The city of Tentyra was ſituated ſtill farther up the Nile, the inhabitants of which paid extraordinary adorations to Venus and Iſis, to each of whom they built a temple. From the many heaps of ruins ſeen here, the city appears to have been of great extent, and to have been much frequented ſince it was in its ancient ſplendor. People ſeem to have lived even in the temples, and ſeveral houſes have been built of unburnt brick on the top of the great temple, which is two hundred feet long, and forty-five broad. The principal remains of the ancient buildings are near each other; theſe are two gates and four temples.

The grand temple already mentioned appears to be that of Iſis, and ſeems entire, only the apartments which appear to have been built at the top are deſtroyed, and ſix or ſeven of the rooms which have been formed below are filled up. There is an aſcent to the top by ten flights of ſteps. The pillars are adorned with large capitals of the head of Iſis, each capital having four faces, one on each ſide, and over them are compartments in baſſo relievo, finely executed, and in a noble taſte. At the end of the grand room are four ſtories of hieroglyphics in ſeven compartments, each of which has two or three human figures, but ſome of them are defaced. There are likewiſe four ſtories of hieroglyphics on the outſide, and it is not improbable that before the ground was raiſed there were five both within and without. On the outſide of the ſouth end are five coloſſal figures, and two more beautiful than the reſt ſtand at each corner. Round the top of the edifice are ſeveral ſpouts, with an ornament over them repreſenting the head and ſhoulders of the ſphynx before-mentioned.

The ruins of the ancient city of Thebes, being the moſt conſiderable in Egypt, and generally known by the name of The antiquities of Carnack and Luxerien, two villages ſituated among thoſe ruins of antiquity, we ſhall now give our readers a particular deſcription of them.

The city of Thebes extended on both ſides the river, and according to ſome authors, was built by Oſiris, and according to others by Buſiris II. who appointed its circuit, adorned it with magnificent buildings, and rendered it the moſt opulent city upon earth. It was originally called Dioſpolis, or the city of Jupiter, and afterwards obtained the name of Thebes. Diodorus Siculus obſerves, "that not only this king, but many of his ſucceſſors, improved the city with preſents of gold and ſilver, with ivory, and a multitude of coloſſal ſtatues; and that no city under the ſun was ſo adorned with obeliſks of one entire ſtone. The buildings erected here by the antients have remained to modern times; but the gold and ſilver, the ivory, and precious ſtones, were carried away by the Perſians when Cambyſes ſet fire to the temples of Egypt. It is ſaid that the Perſians having transferred this opulence to Aſia, and having carried artiſts with them from Egypt, built the magnificent palaces of Perſepolis, Suſa, and others in Media. It is added, that the riches of Egypt were at that time ſo great, that after the plundering and burning, there were taken above three hundred talents of gold, and two thouſand three hundred talents of ſilver, from among the ruins."

There were four temples admirable in beauty and greatneſs, the moſt antient of which, according to Diodorus Siculus, was in circuit thirteen ſtadia, and forty-five cubits in height, with a wall of twenty-four feet broad. The ornaments and offerings within were agreeable to this magnificence, both in value and workmanſhip. The ruins of the above temple are ſtill to be ſeen, and it is computed to have been about half a mile in circumference. It has eight grand entrances, to three of which were avenues of a great length between ſphynxes, two of them having ſixty of theſe ſtatues on each ſide. Having paſſed between theſe at one of the entrances, you come to four grand gates at a conſiderable diſtance behind each other in a direct line to the temple. They are about thirty-five feet deep, one hundred and fifty in length, and, before the ground was raiſed, muſt have been from ſixty to ſixty-five feet high. Theſe ſtructures leſſen every way like a pyramid, from the bottom to the top: the firſt is of red granite finely poliſhed, and beautifully adorned on the outſide with hieroglyphics, in four ſeries from the top downwards, and three on the inſide, in each of which are the figures of two men finely executed, and bigger than the life. Farther on each ſide are coloſſal figures, about fifteen feet high, with hieroglyphics under them; and in this laſt manner the gates are adorned, but without the compartments.

Dr. Pococke, who viewed theſe venerable ruins, obſerves, that on each of theſe gates there ſeem to have been coloſſal ſtatues. On the outſide of the firſt, on one ſide, is a ſtatue of red granite, and on the other a ſtatue of a kind of granite that ſeems compoſed of ſmall pebbles. On meaſuring the head of one of them, it was found to be five feet ſix inches in length. The next gate is much ruined, and has

has only two ſtories of coloſſal figures to the ſouth, and one to the north. The third gate is covered all round with hieroglyphics and coloſſal figures of men; and here are the remains of a ſtatue of white marble, the head of which has a ſerpent on its caſque. This head is four feet and a half from the top to the lower part of the neck. The fourth gate is a heap of ruins; and before the main building is a large pond, that was probably a reſervoir of the water of the Nile for the uſe of the temple. From thoſe gates walls had been built, that extended to the other gates, as well to encloſe particular courts between the gates and the temple, as to form the entire incloſure of the building.

There is another ſuperb entrance about one hundred and fifty paces to the weſt, with the ſame kind of avenue of ſphynxes; and all the reſt have the appearance of extraordinary magnificence. The grand entrance to the weſt is forty feet broad, the bottom part being a ſolid wall of the ſame thickneſs. Within this is a large open court, having on each ſide, at the firſt entrance, a terrace of eighty feet broad. In the front of the entrance are two ſmall windows; but the upper ſtory is in many parts ſo ruined, that at a diſtance it has the appearance of battlements. The walk between the two terraces leads to the inner part of the temple, and is adorned on each ſide with a grand colonade of pillars above forty feet high, and eight feet diameter, with large capital vaſes, like a baſe, only worked with ſome figures in lines. At the farther end of theſe pillars are two coloſſal ſtatues of red granite on pedeſtals four feet wide, and ſix long, but the heads are broken off, and the ſtatues much disfigured and mutilated.

Our author ſays, that notwithſtanding the wall of the inner temple is greatly ruined, it has in its preſent ſtate more grandeur and magnificence than in any other building he ever ſaw. The door is very high, and yet in a juſt proportion; and the walls on each ſide are beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics and the figures of men, in ſix compartments, above nine feet high, and twelve wide, every compartment having the figure of three men in it.

There appear, on entering the inner temple, ſixteen rows of pillars one way, and eighteen another; thoſe in the two middle rows are eleven feet in diameter, and the others eight, with capitals of ſquare ſtone. The temple was higher above the middle rows than in the other parts, and had a kind of windows over the ſpace between every two pillars, with twelve lattices of ſtone in each. Both within and without the temple are hieroglyphics, and other repreſentations. Carved repreſentations of battles and chariots, one of which is drawn by ſtags, are ſtill to be ſeen on the outſide to the north, which was beautified in a very grand manner.

There is on each ſide of the grand entrance into the eaſt end of the temple, an obeliſk upwards of ſixty-five feet high and ſix ſquare, having only one column of hieroglyphics. Farther to the eaſt are two obeliſks, ſeven feet ſix inches ſquare, and ſeventy-three feet high; but one of them is fallen down: they are all of red granite, and theſe two laſt have three columns of hieroglyphics all the way down. At a little diſtance from theſe obeliſks are two walls, ſeparated by an entrance in the middle, and on the weſt ſide of them are coloſſal buſts.

Continuing along the middle to the eaſt, you come to a ſmall room of red granite; and on each ſide of the temple are ſeveral apartments, ſome of which might probably have been appropriated to the uſe of the prieſts, and others adapted for the beaſts they kept for ſacrifice. About one hundred and ſixty feet to the eaſt, is a large building which conſiſts of ſeveral ſmall apartments on each ſide of a ſpacious colonade, and ſeems as if adapted for the uſe of the officers of the temple. To the north of this are ruins of buildings, with a grand gate before them, which ſeems originally to have led to the temple. Among the reſt, are the remains of a temple, which appear to have been one hundred and ſeventy-five feet in diameter, and to have been of a round form.

The following are the principal hieroglyphics now to be ſeen on the gates of the abovementioned temple: on one, a man offers the deity, in each hand, a vaſe like a chocolate diſh, having on each arm ſomething reſembling a folded napkin. In another, one ſeems to offer himſelf to two deities, which might probably be the ſun and moon. A man likewiſe offers ſomething like apples to one on a throne, four deities being on thrones above, as on another floor. A bird like a hawk on a pillar ſomewhat reſembling the Corinthian order. A peacock on another. A man ſtanding before four monkies, which are on two floors; and three trees on a pedeſtal. Theſe figures are all entire, for they could not eaſily be disfigured, being cut in granite.

Here are alſo the remains of ſeveral other temples, whoſe ruins are ſcattered ſeveral miles round; among theſe, one of them, from the ſituation of its fragments, appears to have been round, and in diameter near one hundred and ſeventy-five feet.

A very elegant temple once ſtood about four miles eaſt of Carnack; but the whole of it is totally deſtroyed, except the grand gate, which is entire, and near it is a ſphynx about four feet long. And about a mile to the north of Carnack is a kind of ſtreet, on each ſide of which is a rocky ground about ten feet high; in theſe rocks are cut many rooms, and ſupported with pillars. Being contrived as excellent ſecurities againſt the inclemency of the weather, they are therefore ſuppoſed to have ſerved inſtead of houſes in the very earlieſt times.

After paſſing through ſeveral vallies, where the mountains riſe to a great height, the traveller comes to a round opening like an amphitheatre, and, aſcending it by a narrow ſteep paſſage, arrives at a mountainous place called Bribah-el-Maluke, the ſepulchres of the kings of Thebes, which are formed in the rocks. The vales, in which are theſe grottos, are covered with rough ſtones, that have probably rotted from above. It is about one hundred feet wide, between high precipices, in which grottos are cut in a moſt beautiful manner. Long galleries, or paſſages are formed under the mountains, out of a cloſe white free-ſtone that cuts like chalk, and is as ſmooth as the fineſt ſtucco work. There are generally four or five of theſe galleries one within another, from thirty to fifty feet long, and from ten to fifteen feet high, leading to a ſpacious room, in which is the king's tomb, or coffin, with his figure cut in relief on the lid: in one of the galleries the picture of the king is painted at full length. Both the cieling and ſides of the rooms are cut with hieroglyphics of birds and beaſts, ſome of them painted, being as freſh as if they were but juſt finiſhed, though they muſt be above two thouſand years old. One of theſe ſepulchres is moſt beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics cut in the ſtone, and painted.

The entrance into this, which has a deſcent, is cut through the rock, and for thirteen feet is open at the top: then for eight more the cieling inclines, anſwering to the deſcent under it. The galleries have hieroglyphics carved on each ſide, firſt on a kind of compartments next to the cieling, in the manner of a frize. Below them are carved figures repreſenting mummies, and under there are hieroglyphics all down the ſides, divided by lines into different columns. In the middle of the cieling are the figures of men with ſtars on each ſide. The king's tomb is of one ſtone of red granite, ſeven feet nine inches high, eleven feet eight inches long, and above ſix feet broad, the cover being made to ſhut into it; and on it is cut the figure of the king in mezzo relievo, with an hieroglyphical inſcription, which may be ſome account of the monarch. This room is adorned with hieroglyphics in different columns, with figures of men, hawks, and bulls. In the great room is the ſtatue of a man holding a ſceptre in his hand, and on the cieling is painted a large figure of a man holding a particular kind of ſceptre, with wings hanging lower than his feet, and covering his whole body. On each ſide of the entrance are four men cut in the ſtone above the natural ſize, with the heads of hawks and other animals, of different ſpecies.

To the ſouthward of theſe mountains are two very extenſive apartments: to one of them is a deſcent of ten ſteps to a ſpacious area cut in the rock, which leads to a room ſupported by ſquare pillars, alſo cut out of the ſolid rock; and beyond it is a long room ſupported by pillars on each ſide. All the apartments are adorned with hieroglyphics; but they are in ſome places black and ſcaled, as if damaged by fire. Beyond theſe rooms are apartments, to which there is a deſcent of ſeveral ſteps to the right; and one part leads to a gallery cut round the rock, which has apartments on one ſide, and in them are holes cut perpendicularly down to other apartments below, where there are doors and openings, and probably as many rooms as above. One would imagine, ſays Dr. Pococke, that theſe were the habitations of the living, and that they were cut under thoſe of the kings of Thebes, if they were not themſelves palaces, to which thoſe princes retired to avoid the heat, when it was moſt intenſe.

Other apartments are cut in a ſmall hill near the appearance of a grand entrance under the mountains: the way to which is through a valley, that ſeems to have been divided by walls or mounds into four parts; one of them is dug much deeper than the reſt, and was probably a reſervoir of the water of the Nile, and the others extend towards ſome remains of old buildings.

To

To the weſt is a room that has a well-turned arch, and appears to have been uſed as a Chriſtian church; for the hieroglyphics, which are in ſmall columns, and extremely well cut, have been covered with plaſter, on which is painted Chriſt encompaſſed with a glory.

To the ſouth-eaſt are the ruins of a large temple, and at a diſtance from it the ruins of a pyramidal gate, and of a very large coloſſal ſtatue, broke off about the middle of the trunk. It is twenty-one feet broad at the ſhoulders; from the top of the head to the bottom of the neck is eleven feet; and the ear is three feet long.

Two rows of ſquare pillars are in the firſt court of the temple; on each ſide of which is a ſtatue, but their heads are broke off. Each of theſe ſtatues has the lituus in one hand, and the flagellum or whip in the other, as is commonly ſeen in the ſtatues of Oſiris. In the ſecond court are the remains of two coloſſal ſtatues ſitting; they are of black granite, and the head of one of them, which lies on the ground, is three feet five inches in length.

Many pillars belonging to the temple are ſtill ſtanding, and many others are deſtroyed. Two ſorts of pillars are obſerved in this edifice, one more beautiful than the other. Their thickneſs and ſolidity give them at a diſtance a noble appearance, and on approaching them the eye is entertained with the hieroglyphics; and when you are near them their colours have a fine effect. This ſort of painting has neither ſhade nor degradation. The figures are encruſted with it like painting in enamel; and it is ſaid to ſurpaſs in ſtrength every thing ſeen of the kind, it being ſuperior in beauty to the al-freſco and Moſaic work, with the advantage of being more durable. It is ſurpriſing to ſee, how the gold, ultra marine, and other colours have preſerved their luſtre to the preſent time.

Beſides the antiquities already mentioned, at a conſiderable diſtance from the temple, are what are called the coloſſal ſtatues of Memnon, which front the Nile. The firſt appears to repreſent a man ſitting, and the other a woman in the ſame poſture; and they are both fifty feet high from the baſes of the pedeſtals to the top of their heads. They are ſeated upon ſtones fifteen feet in height, and as many in breadth; but the back part of each ſtone is higher than the fore part by a foot and a half, and they are placed on plain pedeſtals five feet high. The ſtatue to the north has been broken off at the middle, and has been built up with five tier of ſtones; but the other is of one ſingle ſtone: the feet have the toes broken off, and the features are mouldered away by time. The ſides of their ſeats are covered with hieroglyphics; on the pedeſtal of the ſtatue, which has been broken, is a Greek epigram; and on their inſteps and legs are ſeveral Greek and Latin inſcriptions, ſome of them epigrams in honour of Memnon; but moſt of them are teſtimonies of thoſe who have heard his ſound; for one of them has been thought the famous ſtatue of Memnon, which at the firſt and ſecond hour, it is pretended, uttered a ſound, occaſioned by the rays of the ſun ſtriking upon it, like the breaking of the ſtring of a harp, when it was wound up.

Not far from theſe ſtatues are the ruins of ſeveral others, particularly one of yellow granite almoſt entire, and from the top of the head to the thigh, was twelve feet in length.

Near two miles from Carnack is a ſmall village called Luxurien, built on a part of the antient Thebes. On the eaſt end of the river, adjoining to this village, are the remains of a large and magnificent temple, which was alſo a part of the ancient Thebes, and is called by Diodorus the ſepulchre of Oſymandus: it is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river, to the ſouth of the antiquities juſt deſcribed. On approaching it you come to two obeliſks, which are probably the fineſt in the world; they are at preſent ſixty feet high, and might be ſeventy or eighty, according as the ground has riſen, which is certainly a great deal: they are ſeven feet and a half ſquare, and at bottom might be eight feet. The hieroglyphics extend in three columns down each ſide, and are cut with a flat bottom an inch and a half deep, and the granite has perfectly retained its poliſh, which is as fine as can be imagined. On the top of each ſide a perſon ſits on a throne, and another offers him ſomething on his knees. Theſe figures are likewiſe below. Lower down are three hawks, then three bulls, and at the diſtance of about every foot is an owl. There are alſo monkies, heads of camels, hares, dogs, ſerpents, birds, inſects, and other creatures.

There is at a ſmall diſtance from the above, a pyramidal gate, two hundred feet long, and at preſent fifty-four above the ground. On each ſide of the entrance is a coloſſal ſtatue, which riſes thirteen feet and a half above the ſurface of the earth, though the ſhoulders are only three feet and a half above the ground. In the front of the pyramidal gate are windows and ſculpture, particularly a perſon ſeated on a throne, holding out one hand, in which he has a ſcepter or a ſtaff, and is ſurrounded by others in poſtures of adoration. On the other ſide a man is repreſented in a car, galloping and ſhooting with a bow, and followed by many chariots. This may have a relation to the wars of this king againſt the Bactrians. Within this gate is a court almoſt filled with cottages, with ſome pillars that once formed part of a colonade, beyond which was another gate now in ruins, and beyond that another court, which had a large and beautiful altar in the middle, and the hiſtory of the king was cut all round on the walls. The pillars in this court are forty feet high; but the work in the capitals, inſtead of being in relief, is only cut out in lines. The walls of the rooms are adorned with ſculpture, among which a deity is repreſented carried by eighteen men in a kind of boat preceded and followed by a perſon holding a particular enſign. Here are alſo a perſon ſitting, and another kneeling to him, with inſtruments of muſic, a man leading four bulls with a ſtring, and men kneeling who have in their hands the heads of hawks.

Beſides thoſe abovementioned, the following cities, ſituated on this ſide of the Nile, were contained in this part of Egypt; namely, 1. Lycopolis, or The City of Wolves, ſo called from the inhabitants of it paying an extraordinary reſpect to that animal. 2. Hypſele, about a mile to the weſt of the Nile. 3. Ptolemais, ſaid by Ptolemy to be the largeſt of them all. It had a government eſtabliſhed after the Greek manner, ſo that it was probably rebuilt under the Ptolemies, and had its name from them. 4. Abydus, originally famous for having in it the magnificent palace of Memnon. In Strabo's time it was a very ſmall place, and is now a village called El Berbi, or the Temple. 5. Little Dioſpolis, or the City of Jupiter. 6. Hermonthis, a city in which Apollo and Jupiter were worſhipped, and the capital of a province of that name. It was between three and four miles round, and ſituated in the midſt of a long plain. The ruins of the temple of Apollo are ſtill to be ſeen; but ſo imperfect as not to convey any idea of the form or magnificence of that ſtructure. Here are two walls of free-ſtone, which are nine feet aſunder; the height of theſe walls is fifteen feet, and the length thirty-ſix. On the top of one of them are the remains of a cornice, below which there is a globe, ſupported by two fiſh-like lampreys. 7. Aphroditopolis, that is, The City of Venus. 8. Latopolis, in which was the temple of Pallas, where both that deity and the fiſh latus were worſhipped. The principal part of the temple is ſtill ſtanding, and is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke; "The capitals of the pillars are ſomewhat like the Corinthian; within the temple are three ſtories of hieroglyphics of men about three feet high, and at one end the loweſt figures are as big as life, one of which has the head of an ibis." 9. Crocoditopolis, or the City of Crocodiles, ſo called, according to Strabo, from that animal being the particular object worſhipped by the inhabitants. 10. Apollinopolis, where was antiently a magnificent temple, ſome remains of which are ſtill extant; but the interior parts cannot be entered, they being quite filled up with earth and rubbiſh. Its front, in breadth, was one hundred and eighteen feet: the ſides one hundred and ſixty-nine feet long, and its height ſeventy feet. There is now a ſmall village called Utfu on the ruins of the city. 11. The city of Elephantine ſtood on an iſland of the ſame name. The iſland is about a mile long, and a quarter of a mile broad to the ſouth, ending in a point at the north. There was a temple at Cnuphis on this iſland, and a nilometer to meaſure the riſe of the Nile. Here are ſtill the remains of a temple, before which is a ſtatue, ſitting with the hands acroſs on the breaſt, and a lituus in each hand: the ſtatue is about eight feet high.

12. The city of Philæ ſtood about twelve miles from Elephantine, in an iſland of the ſame name, not above half a mile long, and a quarter broad. The iſland was deemed ſacred, from an opinion that Oſiris was buried there; and the ruins of a magnificent temple are ſtill to be ſeen. It was called a Temple of the Hawk, from the inhabitants worſhipping that bird, the figure of which is cut among the hieroglyphics in ſeveral parts. It was built with free-ſtone, and ſituated on the weſt ſide of the iſland. The outer court of the temple was of conſiderable length, and on each ſide of it are ſtill remaining a row of pillars, ornamented with a variety of capitals. On the outſide of the inner court are large coloſſal figures, and within are ſeveral beautiful pillars, ornamented with capitals wrought in baſſo relievo. The ſouth part of the entrance is ter-

minated by a wall, at which are two obeliſks raiſed on very handſome pedeſtals; and on each ſide of the entrance to the eaſt is an obeliſk of red granite.

The appearance of the country about this iſland is very romantic; the eaſt ſide of it is all rocks; and on the weſt the hills are either ſandy, or of black rocks. The rocks of granite croſs the Nile; and in three different places, at ſome diſtance from one another, divide the ſtream into three parts, making three falls at each of them. Here are ſeveral large cataracts, the moſt conſiderable of which appears to be that deſcribed by Strabo, who ſays, "It is a rocky height in the middle of the river; the upper part of it is ſmooth, ſo as the water can run on it, but ends in a precipice down which the water falls."

Going down from the iſland of Philæ, and on the eaſt ſide of the Nile, ſtands Syene, built on very high rocks, oppoſite the ſouth end of Elephantine. Its ruins are ſtill to be ſeen on the height over Aſwanan, exactly under the tropic of Cancer. Pliny mentions this place, and particularly the antient forts here, as being ſituated in a peninſula; and it is conjectured by modern travellers, that the granite pillars in that neighbourhood are the remains of ſome antient temple. Strabo tells us, that here was a garriſon of three Roman cohorts. The ſame hiſtorian alſo deſcribes an obſervatory here, built over a famous well, for making aſtonominical obſervations.

The granite quarries are to the ſouth-eaſt of the ruins of Seyne; all the country, the iſlands, and ſome parts of the bed of the Nile, being red granite, which is the ſtone mentioned by Herodotus. The quarries are not worked in deep, but the ſtone is hewn out of the ſides of the low hills. Dr. Pococke ſays, "they ſeem to have worked in round the ſtone with a narrow tool, and when the ſtones were almoſt ſeparated, there is reaſon to think they forced them out of their beds with large wedges, of which there are evident ſigns in all parts of the quarries."

The city of Ombos ſtood farther to the ſouth of Seyne; it is now a village, called Com-Ombo, where a great heap of ruins are ſtill to be ſeen of an old temple. On ſome of the pillars, which are a few feet above the ground, are many beautiful hieroglyphics; but the chief parts of the building are ſo buried in the earth, that no judgment can be formed either of the ſhape or magnificence of the building in its original ſtate.

Not the leaſt remains are at this time to be ſeen of the city of Elethya, or Lucina, famous for a temple ſacred to that goddeſs.

The laſt city we have to mention in this diviſion of the country, is Cnuphis, ſo called, according to Strabo, from a god of that name which the inhabitants worſhipped.

Lower Egypt forms a kind of iſland, and in ſhape reſembles a triangle, or Δ, from whence it received the name of Delta, the fourth letter in the Greek alphabet. It extended from Heptanouris to the Mediterranean ſea, and contained not only that part which is encompaſſed by the arms of the Nile, but alſo Marcotis and Alexandria, with its dependencies to the weſt; and to the eaſt, Caſiotis and Auguſtamnica, with ſome other territories towards Arabia.

This diviſion begins where the Nile is ſeparated into two large canals, through which it empties itſelf into the Mediterranean. The eaſtern mouth is called the Peluſian, and the weſtern the Canopic, from two cities in their neighbourhood, formerly Peluſium and Canopus, called now Damieta and Roſetta; but there are five ſmaller branches between theſe two large ones.

Several conſiderable places were formerly near the lake Maxcotis, but there are no veſtiges of them now to be ſeen.

The famous city of Alexandria (which we have already deſcribed) ſtood between the lake and the Canopic branch of the Nile: the Ptolemies made it the place of their reſidence, and the capital of all Egypt, after the death of Alexander its founder.

Several other cities were at a ſmall diſtance from Alexandria, particularly Nicopolis, Eleuſis, and Canopus. The latter of theſe was ſituated near the ſea-ſide, about thirteen miles from Alexandria. It is ſaid to have been built by the Spartans on their return from the Trojan war, and to have taken its name from Canopus, the pilot of Menelaus, who was buried there. In the centre of this city ſtood the temple of Serapis, beſides which ſeveral obeliſks were in different parts of it, but not the leaſt part of them is now remaining.

Several other cities antiently ſtood between the ſea and the canal that runs from Alexandria to Canopus, as alſo to the ſouth and weſt of the laſt mentioned place. The cities of Mitelis, Naucratis, and Sais, were likewiſe between the Peluſian and Canopic branches; the latter of theſe was once the metropolis of Lower Egypt, and ſuppoſed by ſome to be the Sin of the Scriptures. Here was a famous temple dedicated to Minerva, and near it was the aſylum of Oſiris, where he was ſuppoſed to have been buried; for, according to the Egyptian mythology, Iſis depoſited ſeveral coffins in different places, that his body might not be diſcovered by Typhon.

The cities of Cabaſa and Brutus ſtood to the north of Sais, the latter of which was famous for having in it the temples of Diana, Apollo, and Latona.

There are many other cities, beſides the above mentioned, in this part of Delta; but we know nothing more than their names, which have been handed down to us by the antients, there not being the leaſt trace of any of them now remaining.

The following remarkable cities once ſtood on the eaſt-ſide of the Delta, where Egypt was bounded by Arabia Petræa and Paleſtine; namely, 1. Barbartus, on the moſt eaſtern part of the Nile, where was a magnificent temple dedicated to Diana, whom the Egyptians called Bubaſtus. 2. Onias, ſituated higher on the river, and which had its name from a Hebrew prieſt, who had obtained it of a king of Egypt, and built a temple there in oppoſition to that of Jeruſalem. According to Joſephus, Onias was influenced to build this temple, by a great faith he had conſtantly placed in a propheey of Eſaias, who, ſix hundred years before, had foretold that a temple ſhould be built in Egypt by a Jew, to the honour of the moſt high God.

Mount Caſius ſtood at a ſmall diſtance from theſe cities; and here, according to Ptolemy, was a town of the ſame name. Strabo ſays, it has a magnificent temple dedicated to Jupiter Caſius; but what rendered it moſt remarkable, was, that it contained the ſepulchre of Pompey, who was buried in this ſandy hill, which runs into the ſea, and ſeems to be the place now called by mariners Tenere. Near this place Pompey was treacherouſly murdered by the command of Ptolemy. He was buried by Cordus, a Roman ſoldier; and a ſuperb monument was afterwards erected to his memory, which was repaired and beautified by the emperor Adrian.

The lake Sirbonis, which ſeparates Egypt from Syria, is a little to the eaſt of Mount Caſius. The antient Egyptians called it the place of Typhon's exit; and the poets feign, that Typhon lay under it: for in thoſe times it was ſuppoſed to be a place of great ſecurity. It was then twenty-five miles long, but narrow, and incloſed by hills of ſand on each ſide.

Several other cities formerly ſtood near the lake Sirbonis and the Red ſea, but there are not any remains of them now to be ſeen. We ſhall therefore conclude this account of the antient ſtate and antiquities of Egypt, by obſerving, from Diodorus Siculus, it originally contained eighteen thouſand cities, the chief of which was Thebes: Memphis ſucceeded to Thebes, and at laſt Alexandria to Memphis; as Cairo has ſince done to Alexandria; in which city there were four thouſand palaces, as many baths, four hundred ſquares, and forty thouſand Jews that paid tribute when it was taken by the Saracens.

SECT. VII.

Of the Ancient Hiſtory of EGYPT, including alſo its Government, Laws, Soldiery, Artificers, Arts and Sciences, Huſbandry, &c.

IT will not be expected that we ſhould dwell long upon the antient hiſtory of this country, our buſineſs being chiefly with the modern; we ſhall, however, give a ſhort view of it, which we preſume may be acceptable to moſt of our readers.

The Egyptians are certainly a very antient nation, though far from being ſo antient as they would repreſent themſelves, when they give us a catalogue of their princes, ſome of whom, according to their fabulous account, muſt have lived ſeveral thouſand years before the creation. But if, as it is obſerved by ſome writers, the Egyptians, by years, did not mean the periodical revolution of the ſun, but only of the moon, their chronology, in that caſe, might be conſiſtent with reaſon and truth; but otherwiſe, as hath been long ſince remarked of the Chineſe and other people, who run up their original ſo very high, it confutes itſelf, as no tolerable account or hiſtory is given us of theſe pretended times, but on the contrary, the invention of all arts and ſciences, even agriculture, were introduced among them about the time mentioned in our hiſtories;

hiſtories; which could not poſſibly have been the caſe, had the world been as old as they ſuggeſt; for it cannot be conceived how men could live any time in a regular ſociety without theſe arts.

That this country was early planted is very evident; but the hiſtory of its antient ſtate is ſo inveloped in obſcurity, or diſguiſed by fables, that it cannot in the leaſt be depended on. We cannot with certainty affirm, as ſome have ventured to do, that Menes, or Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, and grandſon of Noah, who reigned in the year of the world 1816, and 2188 years before Chriſt, was the founder of the Egyptian monarchy, becauſe it is very difficult to ſhew who were the firſt planters of almoſt any nation in the univerſe: it is ſufficient that it appears, that this and ſeveral of the neighbouring nations were planted ſoon after the diſperſion of the people at the building of the tower of Babel. But it is obſervable, that all writers, antient and modern, republican, as well as the advocates for monarchy, agree, that the firſt plantations or ſettlements were made and conducted by ſome great captain or ſovereign who had the ſupreme command of his followers by virtue of his birthright, and that a republican form of government was not known in the firſt ages of the world. But to return from this digreſſion. Cham, the ſon of Noah, is generally held to be the ſame with Jupiter Ammon; and Miſraim, his grandſon, the ſame with Oſiris, the great deity of the Egyptians; and from him, it is ſaid, deſcended that race of monarchs, who had the general denomination of Pharaohs; but from whom or how the word Pharaoh came to be the ſtyle of their kings, I find no ſatisfactory reaſon given.

There are reckoned about ſixty princes of the line of theſe Pharaohs, and they reigned, as it is ſaid, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion to the year of the world 3435, when Pharaoh Pſamnitichus, the ſecond monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the reign of Darius, being upwards of one hundred years, when it revolted from that crown, and became an independent kingdom again, A. M. 3600, (Amyrteus being their firſt king after that revolt), in which ſtate it continued about fifty years, when Ochus, king of Perſia, recovered the dominion of it again; and it remained ſubject to the Perſian monarchs till Alexander the Great defeated Darius, when it fell under the power of that prince, with the reſt of the provinces of the Perſian empire.

After the death of Alexander, A. M. 3641, Ptolemy, the ſon of Lagus, or, as others inſinuate, the ſon of Philip of Macedon, and conſequently half brother of Alexander, found means to ſeat himſelf in the throne of Egypt, and render it an independent kingdom once again, whoſe ſucceſſors, the kings of Egypt, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies; in which line it continued between two and three hundred years, the laſt ſovereign being the famous Cleopatra, wife and ſiſter to Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, and miſtreſs to Julius Cæſar and Mark Antony ſucceſſively. This was about the year of the world 3925.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy, collected the Alexandrian library, ſaid to conſiſt of ſeven hundred thouſand volumes; and the ſame prince cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into Greek, but whether by ſeventy-two interpreters, and in the manner as is commonly related, is juſtly queſtioned. The Ptolemies ſometimes extended their dominion over a great part of Syria, and were frequently at war with the kings of Syria, in which they met with various ſucceſs.

After the death of Cleopatra, this kingdom fell under the power of the Romans, and was uſually governed by a gentleman of Rome, it being thought too hazardous to truſt ſo conſiderable a command with a ſenator. When it was made a province of the empire, it was looked upon as the emperor's peculiar, and afterwards made an entire dioceſe of itſelf, ſubordinate to the Præfectus Prætorio Orientis; and while it was under the dominion of the Romans, the nation in general embraced Chriſtianity.

Egypt remained a Roman province till the reign of Heraclius, the emperor of Conſtantinople, when the people, being diſguſted with their governors, called in Omar the third caliph of the Saracens, and ſubmitted themſelves to the Mahometan power, being about the year of our Lord 640. But ſurely the adminiſtration of the Greek emperors muſt be very grievous, which could induce a Chriſtian nation to make choice of a Saracen for their ſovereign.

The caliphs of Babylon were ſovereigns here till about the year 870, when the Egyptians ſet up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were ſubject; but the governors of the provinces, or ſultans under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, ſoon wreſted the civil power out of the hands of their caliphs, or high-prieſts, leaving them only a ſhadow of ſovereignty.

About the year 1160, Aſſareddin, or Saracon, general of Norraddin, the Saracen ſultan of Damaſcus, ſubdued the kingdom of Egypt, and uſurped the dominion of it, being ſucceeded in this kingdom by his ſon Saladin, who reduced alſo the kingdom of Damaſcus, Meſopotamia and Paleſtine under his power, and about the year 1190, took Jeruſalem from the Chriſtians. It was this prince who eſtabliſhed a body of troops in Egypt like the preſent janiſſaries, compoſed of the ſons of Chriſtians taken in war, or purchaſed of the Tartars, to whom they gave the name of Mamalukes, which, it is ſaid, ſignifies no more than ſlaves, which, among the forces of the Mahometan princes, is looked upon as a title of great honour, as it expreſſes their being devoted in a peculiar manner to the ſervice of their ſovereign, and conſequently they are entitled to greater privileges than other ſubjects. The poſterity of Aſſareddin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the Mamalukes depoſed Elmutan, as they had done his father Melech Aſſalach ſome years before, and ſet one of their own officers upon the throne. The firſt king of the race of the Mamalukes being Turquemenius, theſe Mamaluke ſultans were engaged in continual wars with the Chriſtians in Syria and Paleſtine, till Araphus the ſixth ſultan entirely diſpoſſeſſed the Chriſtians of the Holy Land; the ninth ſultan Melechnaſſor ſubdued the iſland of Cyprus and made it tributary to Egypt.

About the year 1501, Campſon Gaurus the fifteenth ſultan of the Mamalukes, entering into an alliance with Iſmael the ſophi of Perſia, againſt Selimus the third emperor, and tenth king of the Ottoman family, the confederates received ſeveral memorable defeats: and Tonombeius II. who ſucceeded Campſon Gaurus, was depoſed and murdered by Selimus, and according to ſome accounts, hanged up at the gates of Grand Cairo. Gazelle, one of the grandees of the Mamalukes maintained a war for ſome time againſt Selimus, but was at length defeated, and Egypt made a province of the Ottoman empire.

The Mamaluke ſultans were always choſen by a majority of Mamalukes out of their own body, who were ſo jealous of the kingdom's being made hereditary, that they ſcarce ever elected the ſon of the preceding ſultan; and if the choice ever happened to fall upon ſuch a one, they were ſo apprehenſive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never reſted till they depoſed him.

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they have always governed it by a viceroy, ſtyled the baſha of Grand Cairo: but as Egypt is ſubdivided into ſeveral inferior governments, theſe governors we perceive are not ſent from Conſtantinople, or appointed by the viceroy, but are natives of Egypt, and ſeem to be veſted with ſovereign power in their reſpective diſtricts, and to have the command of the militia of the ſeveral provinces; and are many of them of the race of the Mamalukes. It is true, the viceroy has a conſiderable body of ſpahis and janiſſaries about Cairo to keep them in awe; and every one of theſe petty princes, it is ſaid, is obliged to mount the viceroy's guard in his turn, with a body of the national troops.

There is a perpetual jealouſy between the Turkiſh baſha and theſe Egyptian royalets; ſometimes the baſha will take upon him to depoſe one of them, and perhaps take his head; and there are inſtances on the other hand, where they have depoſed the baſha, and compelled the Porte to ſend them another more acceptable to them: and the Grand Signor has thought fit to humour them in it, rather than hazard the revolt of ſo rich a province, which is now eſteemed the granary of Conſtantinople, as it was antiently of Rome; for this is a ſoil ſo fertilized by the Nile, that it is not in the power of the Turks, it ſeems, to render it barren. But one great reaſon of its continuing to be manured is, that they are yet governed by their own princes, and have an inheritance in their lands, which are privileges very few of the ſubjects of Turkey enjoy beſides: neither dare the Turkiſh government overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt: inſomuch that except what the viceroy and his creatures illegally extort from them, the whole revenue raiſed by the government, does not amount to a million of our money, of which two thirds are ſpent within the kingdom, and not more than one third comes into the Grand Signor's treaſury. But we ſhall treat more particularly on this ſubject when we come to give an account of the government of Egypt, at the

the close of this section; and as we have given above a sketch of the antient history of the Egyptians, till they became subject to the Turks, it may be necessary here to subjoin the most remarkable particulars we have been able to collect, relative to their antient government and laws.

The Egyptians were the first people who rightly understood the rules of government. A nation so grave and serious, immediately perceived, that the true end of politics is to make life easy, and a people happy.

The kingdom was hereditary; but according to Diodorus, the Egyptian princes conducted themselves in a different manner from what is usually seen in other monarchies, where the prince acknowledges no other rule of his actions, but his arbitrary will and pleasures. But here kings were under greater restraints from the laws, than their subjects. They had some particular ones digested by a former monarch that composed part of those books, which the Egyptians call sacred. Thus every thing being settled by antient custom, they never sought to live in a different way from their ancestors.

No slave, or foreigner, was admitted into the immediate service of the prince; such a post was too important to be intrusted to any persons, except those who were the most distinguished by their birth, and had received the most excellent education; to the end, that as they had the liberty of approaching the king's person, day and night, he might, from men so qualified, hear nothing which was unbecoming the royal majesty, or have any sentiments instilled into him, but such as were of a noble and generous kind. For, adds Diodorus, it is very rarely seen, that kings fly out into any vicious excess, unless those who approach them approve their irregularities, or serve as instruments to their passions.

The kings of Egypt freely permitted, not only the quality and proportion of their eatables and liquids to be prescribed them (a thing customary in Egypt, the inhabitants of which were all sober, and whose air inspired frugality) but even that all their hours, and almost every action should be under the regulation of the laws.

In the morning at day-break, when the head is clearest, and the thoughts least perplexed, they read the several letters they received, to form a more just and distinct idea of the affairs which were to come under their consideration that day.

As soon as they were dressed, they went to the daily sacrifice performed in the temple, where, surrounded with their whole court, and the victims placed before the altar, they assisted at the prayer pronounced aloud by the high-priest, in which he asked of the gods, health and all other blessings for the king, because he governed his people with clemency and justice, and made the laws of his kingdom the rule and standard of his actions. The high-priest entered into a long detail of his virtues; observing that he was religious to the gods, affable to men, moderate, just, magnanimous, sincere, an enemy to falshood; liberal, master of his passions; punishing crimes with the utmost lenity, but boundless in rewarding merit. He next spoke of the faults which kings might be guilty of; but supposed at the same time, that they never committed any, except by surprize or ignorance: and loaded with imprecations such of their ministers as gave them ill council, and suppressed or disguised the truth. Such were their methods of conveying instruction to their kings. It was thought that reproaches would only sour their tempers, and that the most effectual method to inspire them with virtue, would be to point out to them their duty in praises conformable to the sense of the laws, and pronounced in a solemn manner before the gods. After the prayers and sacrifices were ended, the councils and actions of great men were read to the king out of the sacred books, in order that he might govern his dominions according to their maxims, and maintain the laws which had made his predecessors and their subjects so happy.

We have already observed, that the quantity, as well as quality, of both eatables and liquids, were prescribed by the laws, to the king; his table was covered with nothing but the most common meats; because eating, in Egypt, was designed not to tickle the palate, but to satisfy the cravings of nature. One would have concluded (observes the historian) that these rules had been laid down by some able physician, who was attentive only to the health of the prince, rather than the legislature. The same simplicity prevailed in all other things; and we read in Plutarch, of a temple in Thebes, which had one of its pillars inscribed with imprecations against that king who first introduced profusion and luxury into Egypt.

The principal duty of kings, and their most essential function, is the administering justice to their subjects. Accordingly the kings of Egypt cultivated more immediately this duty, convinced that thereupon depended not only the ease and comfort of the several individuals, but the happiness of the state, which would be an herd of robbers, rather than a kingdom, should the weak be unprotected, and the powerful enabled, by their riches and influence, to commit crimes with impunity. Thirty judges were selected out of the principal cities, to form a body, or assembly for judging the whole kingdom. The prince, in filling these vacancies, chose such as were most renowned for their honesty: and put at their head him who was most distinguished for his knowledge and love of the laws, and was held in the most universal esteem. By his bounty they had revenues assigned to them, to the end that, being freed from domestic cares, they might devote their whole time to the execution of the laws. Thus honourably subsisting by the generosity of the prince, they administered justice gratuitously to the people, who have a natural right to it; among whom it ought to have a free circulation, and, in some sense, among the poor more than the rich, because the latter find a support within themselves; whereas the very condition of the former exposes them to more injuries, and therefore calls louder for the protection of the laws.

To guard against surprize, affairs were transacted by writing in the assemblies of these judges. That species of eloquence (a false kind) was dreaded, which dazzles the mind, and moves the passions. Truth could not be expressed with too much plainness, as it was to have the only sway in judgments, because in that alone the rich and poor, the powerful and weak, the learned and the ignorant, were to find relief and security. The president of this senate wore a collar of gold, set with precious stones, at which hung a figure represented blind, this being called the emblem of truth. When the president put the collar on, it was understood as a signal to enter upon business. He touched the party with it who was to gain his cause; and this was the form of passing sentence.

With respect to the laws of the Egyptians, the most excellent circumstance in them was, that every individual, from his infancy, was nurtured in the strict observance of them. A new custom in Egypt was a kind of miracle. All things there ran in the old channel; and the exactness with which little matters were adhered to, preserved those of more importance; and indeed, no nation ever preserved their laws and customs longer than the Egyptians.

Wilful murder was punished with death, whatever might be the condition of the murdered person; whether he was free-born or otherwise. Herein the humanity and equity of the Egyptians, was superior to that of the Romans, who gave the master an absolute power, as to life and death, over his slave. The emperor Adrian, indeed, abolished this law, from an opinion that an abuse of this nature ought to be reformed, let its antiquity or authority be ever so great.

Perjury was also punished with death, because that crime attacks both the gods, whose majesty is trampled upon, by invoking their name to a false oath, and men in breaking the strongest tie of human society, viz. sincerity and honesty.

The false accuser was sentenced to undergo the punishment which the person accused was to have suffered, had the accusation been proved.

He who neglected, or refused to save a man's life, when attacked, if it was in his power to assist him, was punished as rigorously as the assassin. But if the unfortunate person could not be succoured, the offender was at least to be impeached, and penalties were decreed for any neglect of this kind. Thus the subjects were a guard and protection to one another, and the whole body of the community united against the designs of the bad.

No man was allowed to be useless to the state; but every man was obliged to enter his name and place of abode in a public register, that remained in the hands of a magistrate, and to annex his profession, and in what manner he lived. If such a one gave a false account of himself, he was immediately put to death. The wisest and best regulated states, as Athens and Rome, ever found insuperable difficulties in contriving a just medium to restrain on one hand, the cruelty of the creditor in the exaction of his loan; and on the other, the knavery of the debtor, who refused or neglected to pay his debts. Now Egypt took a wise course on this occasion; and without doing any injury to the personal liberty of its inhabitants, or ruining their families, pursued the debtor with incessant fears of infamy from his dishonesty. No man was permitted to borrow money without pawning to the creditor the body of

his father, which every Egyptian embalmed with great care, and kept reverentially in his houſe, and therefore might be eaſily moved from one place to another. But it was equally impious and infamous not to redeem ſoon ſo precious a pledge; and he who died without having diſcharged his duty, was deprived of the cuſtomary honours paid to the dead.

Polygamy was allowed in Egypt, except to prieſts, who could marry but one woman. Whatever was the condition of the woman, whether ſhe was free or a ſlave, her children were deemed free and legitimate.

One cuſtom that was practiſed in Egypt, ſhewed the profound darkneſs into which ſuch nations, as were moſt celebrated for their wiſdom, have been plunged; and this was the marriage of brothers with ſiſters, which was not only authorized by the laws, but even, in ſome meaſure, was a part of their religion, from the example and practice of ſuch of their gods as had been the moſt antiently and univerſally adored in Egypt; that is, Oſiris and Iſis.

A very great reſpect was there paid to old age. The young were obliged to riſe up for the old, and on every occaſion to reſign to them the moſt honourable ſeat. The Spartans borrowed this law from the Egyptians.

The virtue in the higheſt eſteem among the Egyptians was gratitude. The glory which has been given them of being the moſt grateful of all men, ſhews that they were the beſt formed of any nation for ſocial life. Benefits are the bands of concord, both public and private. He who acknowledges favours loves to do good to others; and in banithing ingratitude, the pleaſure of doing good remains ſo pure and engaging, that it is impoſſible for a man to be inſenſible of it. But no kind of gratitude gave the Egyptians a more pleaſing ſatisfaction, than that which was paid to their kings. Princes, whilſt living, were by them honoured as ſo many viſible repreſentations of the Deity; and after their death were mourned as the fathers of their country. Theſe ſentiments of reſpect and tenderneſs proceeded from a ſtrong perſuaſion, that the Divinity itſelf had placed them upon the throne, as he diſtinguiſhed them ſo greatly from all other mortals; and that kings bore the moſt noble characteriſtics of the Supreme Being, as the power and will of doing good to others were united in their perſons.

We have already obſerved, in our account of the Egyptian mummies, that it was cuſtomary, particularly with the more opulent, to preſerve the bodies of their deceaſed relations, or ſuch perſons for whom they had a peculiar regard and veneration; the method of doing which, is thus deſcribed by a late author. "In the preparing of them, ſo as to keep them from putrefaction, they drew out the brains at the noſtrils, and ſupplied their place with preſervative ſpices; then cutting up the belly with an Ethiopian ſtone, and extracting the bowels, they cleanſed the inſide with wine; and ſtuffing the ſame with a compoſition of caſſia, myrrh, and other odours, they cloſed it again. The poorer ſort of people effected the like with bitumen, and the juice of cedars, which, by the extreme bitterneſs and ſiccative faculty, not only immediately ſubdued the cauſe of interior corruptions, but have preſerved them from putrefaction above three thouſand years." The ſeeing the bodies of their anceſtors they had preſerved, recalled to mind thoſe virtues for which the public had honoured them; and they were excited to love thoſe laws which ſuch excellent perſons had left for their ſecurity. We find, that part of theſe ceremonies were performed in the funeral honours done to Joſeph in Egypt.

Among the heathens, it was a conſolation to a dying man, to leave a good name behind him; and they imagined that this is the only human bleſſing of which death cannot deprive us. But the antient Egyptians would not ſuffer praiſes to be indiſcriminately beſtowed on all deceaſed perſons. This honour was to be obtained only from the public voice. The aſſembly of the judges met on the other ſide of the lake, which they croſſed in a boat. He who ſat at the helm was called Charon in the Egyptian language; and this firſt gave the hint to Orpheus, who had been in Egypt; and, after him, to the other Greeks, to invent the fiction of Charon's boat.

As ſoon as a man was dead, he was brought to his trial. The public accuſer was heard. If he proved the deceaſed had led a bad life, his memory was condemned, and he was deprived of burial. The people were affected with laws, which extended even beyond the grave; and every one, ſtruck with the diſgrace that was inflicted on the dead perſon, was afraid to reflect diſhonour on his own memory, and that of his family. But if the deceaſed perſon was convicted of any crime, he was interred in a diſhonourable manner.

There was a ſtill more aſtoniſhing circumſtance in this public inqueſt on the dead; namely, that the throne itſelf was no protection from it. Kings were ſpared during their lives, becauſe the public peace was concerned in this forbearance; but their quality did not exempt them from the judgment paſſed upon the dead; and even ſome of them were deprived of ſepulture. This cuſtom was imitated by the Iſraelities. We ſee in Scripture, that bad kings were not interred in the monuments of their more worthy anceſtors. This practice ſuggeſted to princes, that if their dignity placed them out of the reach of man's judgment, while they were alive, they would at laſt be liable to it, when death ſhould reduce them to a level with their ſubjects.

When a favourable judgment was pronounced on a deceaſed perſon, the next thing was to proceed to the ceremonies of interment. In this panegyric, no mention was made of his birth, becauſe every Egyptian was deemed noble. No praiſes were conſidered as juſt or true, but ſuch as related to the perſonal merit of the deceaſed. He was applauded for having received an excellent education in his younger years; and, in his more advanced age, for having cultivated piety towards the gods, juſtice towards men, gentleneſs, modeſty, moderation, and all other virtues which conſtitute the good man. Then all the people ſhouted, and beſtowed the higheſt eulogiums on the deceaſed, as one who would be received for ever into the ſociety of the virtuous in the kingdom of Pluto.

We ſhall now proceed to give ſome account of the military men, artificers, arts and ſciences, huſbandmen, &c. of the antient Egyptians.

Among the antient inhabitants of Egypt, the profeſſion of arms was in great repute. After the ſacerdotal families, the moſt illuſtrious, as with us, were thoſe devoted to a military life. They were not only diſtinguiſhed by honours, but by ample liberalities. Every ſoldier was allowed an aroura, that is, a piece of arable land, very nearly anſwering to half a French acre, exempt from all tax or tribute. Beſides this privilege, each ſoldier received a daily allowance of five pounds of bread, two of fleſh, and a pint of wine. This allowance was ſufficient to ſupport part of their family. Such an indulgence made them more affectionate to the perſon of their prince, and the intereſts of their country, and more reſolute in the defence of both; and, as Diodorus obſerves, it was thought inconſiſtent with good policy, and even common ſenſe, to commit the defence of a country to men who had no intereſt in its preſervation.

Four hundred thouſand ſoldiers were kept in continual pay (all natives of Egypt) and trained up in the exacteſt diſcipline. They were inured to the fatigues of war, by a ſevere and rigorous education. There is an art of forming the body as well as the mind. This art, loſt by our ſloth, was well known to the antients, and eſpecially the Egyptians.

Foot, horſe, and chariot races, were performed in Egypt with wonderful agility, and the world could not ſhew better horſemen than the Egyptians. The Scripture, in ſeveral places, ſpeaks advantageouſly of their cavalry.

Military laws were eaſily preſerved in Egypt, becauſe ſons received them from their fathers; the profeſſion of war, as all others, being tranſmitted from father to ſon. Thoſe who fled in battle, or diſcovered any ſigns of cowardice, were only diſtinguiſhed by ſome particular mark of ignominy, it being thought more adviſeable to reſtrain them by motives of honour, than by the terrors of puniſhment.

But notwithſtanding this, we will not pretend to ſay that the Egyptians were a warlike people. It is of little advantage to have regular and well paid troops; to have armies exerciſed in peace, and employed only in mock fights; it is war alone, and real combats, which form the ſoldier. Egypt loved peace, becauſe it loved juſtice, and maintained ſoldiers only for its ſecurity. Its inhabitants, content with a country which abounded in all things, had no ambitious dreams of conqueſt. The Egyptians extended their reputation in a very different manner, by ſending colonies into all parts of the world, and with them laws and politeneſs. They triumphed by the wiſdom of their counſels, and the ſuperiority of their knowledge; and this empire of the mind appeared more noble and glorious to them, than that which is atchieved by arms and conqueſt.

The Egyptians had an inventive genius, and turned it

to profitable ſpeculations. Their Mercuries filled Egypt with wonderful inventions, and left it almoſt ignorant of nothing which could accompliſh the mind, or procure eaſe and happineſs. The diſcoverers of any uſeful invention received both living and dead, rewards equal to their profitable labours. It is this that conſecrated the books of their two Mercuries, and ſtamped them with a divine authority. The firſt libraries were in Egypt; and the titles they bore, inſpired the reader with an eager deſire to enter them, and dive into the ſecrets they contained. They are called the Office for the Diſeaſes of the Soul; and that very juſtly, becauſe the ſoul was there cured of ignorance, the moſt dangerous, and the parent of all other maladies.

As their country was level, and the air of it always ſerene, and unclouded, they were ſome of the firſt who obſerved the courſes of the planets. Theſe obſervations led them to regulate the year from the courſe of the ſun; for, as Diodorus obſerves, their year, from the moſt remote antiquity, was compoſed of 365 days, and ſix hours. To adjuſt the property of their lands, which were every year covered by the overflowing of the Nile, they were obliged to have recourſe to ſurveys; and this firſt taught them geometry. They were great obſervers of nature, which in a climate ſo ſerene, and under ſo intenſe a ſun, was vigorous and fruitful.

By this ſtudy and application, they invented, or improved, the ſcience of phyſick. The ſick were not abandoned to the arbitrary will and caprice of the phyſician: he was obliged to follow fixed rules, which were the obſervations of old and experienced practitioners, and written in the ſacred books. While theſe rules were obſerved, the phyſician was not anſwerable for the ſucceſs; otherwiſe a miſcarriage coſt him his life. This law checked indeed the temerity of empirics; but then it might prevent new diſcoveries, and keep the art from attaining to its juſt perfection. Every phyſician, if Herodotus may be credited, confined his practice to the cure of one diſeaſe only; one was for the eyes, another for the teeth, and ſo on.

What we have ſaid of the pyramids, the labyrinth, and that infinite number of obeliſks, temples, and palaces, whoſe precious remains ſtill ſtrike with admiration, and in which were diſplayed the magnificence of the princes who raiſed them, the ſkill of the workmen, the riches of the ornaments diffuſed over every part of them, and the juſt proportion and beautiful ſymmetry of the parts in which their greateſt beauty conſiſted; works in many of which the livelineſs of the colours remain to this day, in ſpite of the rude hand of time, which commonly deadens or deſtroys them: all this, we ſay, ſhews the perfection to which architecture, painting, ſculpture, and all other arts had arrived in Egypt.

The Egyptians entertained but a mean opinion of that ſort of exerciſe, which did not contribute to invigorate the body, or improve health; nor of muſic, which they conſidered as a uſeleſs and dangerous diverſion, and only fit to enervate the mind.

Huſbandmen, ſhepherds and artificers, formed the three claſſes of lower life in Egypt, but were nevertheleſs had in very great eſteem, particularly huſbandmen and ſhepherds. The body politic requires a ſuperiority and ſubordination of its ſeveral members; for as in the natural body, the eye may be ſaid to hold the firſt rank; yet its luſtre does not dart contempt upon the feet, the hands, or even on thoſe parts which are leſs honourable. In like manner, among the Egyptians, the prieſts, ſoldiers, and ſcholars were diſtinguiſhed by particular honours; but all profeſſions to the meaneſt, had their ſhare in public eſteem, becauſe the deſpiſing any man, whoſe labours, however mean, were uſeful to the ſtate, was thought a crime.

A better reaſon than the foregoing might have inſpired them at firſt, with theſe ſentiments of equity and moderation, which they ſo long preſerved. As they all deſcended from Cham, their common father, the memory of their origin occurring freſh to the minds of all in thoſe firſt ages, eſtabliſhed among them a kind of equality, and ſtamped, in their opinion, a nobility on every perſon derived from the common ſtock. Indeed, the difference of conditions, and the contempt with which perſons of the loweſt rank are treated, are owing merely to the diſtance from the common root; which makes us forget, that the meaneſt plebeian, when his deſcent is traced back to the ſource, is equally noble with thoſe of the moſt elevated rank and titles.

Be that as it will, no profeſſion in Egypt was conſidered as groveling and ſordid. By this means, arts were raiſed to the higheſt perfection. The honour which cheriſhed them, mixed with every thought and care for their improvement. Every man had his way of life aſſigned him by the laws, and it was perpetuated from father to ſon. Two profeſſions at one time, or a change of that which a man was born to, were never allowed. By this means, men became more able and expert in employments, which they had always exerciſed from their infancy; and every man adding his own experience to that of his anceſtors, was more capable of attaining perfection in his particular art. Beſides, this wholeſome inſtitution, which had been eſtabliſhed antiently throughout Egypt, extinguiſhed all irregular ambition; and taught every man to ſit down contented with his condition, without aſpiring to one more elevated, from intereſt, vain glory, or levity.

From this ſource flowed numberleſs inventions for the improvement of all the arts, and for rendering life more commodious, and trade more eaſy. We could ſcarcely believe that Diodorus was in earneſt in what he relates concerning the Egyptian induſtry; namely, that theſe people had found out a way, by an artificial fecundity, to hatch eggs, without the ſitting of the hen; but all modern travellers have put this beyond a doubt; and we have already given an account of the methods made uſe of for this purpoſe.

With reſpect to their ſoil and produce, we ſhall treat only of ſome plants peculiar to Egypt, and of the abundance of corn which it produced.

The papyrus is a plant, from the root of which ſhoot out a great many triangular ſtalks, to the height of ſix or ſeven cubits. The antients wrote at firſt upon palm-leaves; next on the inſide of the bark of trees, from whence the word liber, or book, is derived: after that, upon tables covered over with wax, on which the characters were impreſſed with an inſtrument called Stylus, ſharp-pointed at one end to write with, and flat at the other to efface what had been written; which gave occaſion to the following expreſſion of Horace: "Oft turn your ſtile, if you deſire to write things that will bear a ſecond reading;" which intimates that a good performance is not to be expected without many corrections.

At laſt the uſe of paper was introduced; and this was made of the bark of papyrus, divided into thin flakes, or leaves, which were very proper for writing; and this papyrus was likewiſe called biblus. Pliny calls it a wonderful invention; ſo uſeful to life, that it preſerves the memory of great actions, and immortalizes thoſe who atchieved them. Varro aſcribes this invention to Alexander the Great, when he built Alexandria; but he had only the merit of making paper more common; for the invention was of much greater antiquity. The ſame Pliny adds, that Eumenco, king of Pergamus, ſubſtituted parchment inſtead of paper, in emulation of Ptolemy king of Egypt, whoſe library he was ambitious to excel by his invention, which carried the advantage over paper. It was called pergamenum from Pergamus, whoſe kings had the honour of the invention. All the antient manuſcripts are either upon parchment or vellum, and a great deal finer than the common parchment. The plant papyrus was likewiſe uſed for ſails, tackling, cloaths, coverlets, &c.

Linum, flax, is a plant whoſe bark, full of fibres and ſtrings, is uſeful in making fine linen. The method of making this linen in Egypt was wonderful, and carried to ſuch perfection, that the threads which were drawn out of them were allowed to be too ſmall for the obſervation of the ſharpeſt eye. Prieſts were always habited in linen, and never in woollen, and not only the prieſts, but all perſons of diſtinction, wore linen cloaths. This flax formed a conſiderable branch of the Egyptian trade, and great quantities of it were exported into foreign countries: a great number of hands, eſpecially women, were employed in the making of it.

Another kind of flax was called Byſſus: this was exceeding fine and ſmall, and often received a purple dye. It was very dear, and none but rich and wealthy perſons could afford to wear it. Pliny, who gives the firſt place to the aſbeſton or aſbeſtinum (the combuſtible flax), places the byſſus in the next rank, and ſays, that it ſerved as an ornament to the ladies. It appears from the Holy Scriptures, that cloth of this fine flax was brought from Egypt.

Another plant in great requeſt with the Egyptians was the Lotus, or Lote-tree, whoſe berries ſerved them in former times for bread. There was another Lotus in Africa, which gave its name to the Lotophagi, or Lote-eaters, becauſe they lived upon the fruit of this tree, which had ſo delicious a taſte, if Homer may be credited, that it made the eaters of it forget all the ſweets of their native country, as Ulyſſes found to his coſt, in his return from Troy.

It

It may be ſaid, that the Egyptian pulſe and fruits were excellent; and might, as Pliny obſerves, have ſufficed ſingly for the nouriſhment of the inhabitants; ſuch was their excellent quality, and ſo great their plenty. And, indeed, working men lived then almoſt upon nothing elſe, as appears from thoſe who were employed in building the pyramids.

Beſides theſe rural riches, the Nile, from its fiſh, and the fatneſs it gave to the ſoil for the feeding of cattle, furniſhed the tables of the Egyptians with the moſt exquiſite fiſh of every kind, and the moſt ſucculent fleſh. This it was which made the Iſraelites ſo deeply regret the loſs of Egypt, when they found themſelves in the dreary deſart. "Who," ſay they, in a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſeditious tone, "ſhall give us fleſh to eat? we remember the fiſh, which we did eat in Egypt freely; the cucumbers and melons, and the leeks, and the onions, and the garlick: we ſat by the fleſh-pots, and we did eat bread to the full."

But the great and matchleſs wealth of Egypt aroſe from its corn, which, even in an almoſt univerſal famine, enabled it to ſupport all the neighbouring nations, as it particularly did under Joſeph's adminiſtration. In later ages, it was the reſource and certain granary of Rome and Conſtantinople.

SECT. VIII.

Of the preſent Political, Military, and Civil Government of EGYPT.

THIS is the moſt conſiderable government belonging to the Grand Signor. It is veſted in a baſha, twenty-four beys, and ſeven corps of different troops, without the conſent of whom the baſha cannot act. He begins his viceroyſhip with the month of September, which is the firſt in the Coptic calendar; and the Grand Signor ſends his order every year towards that time, by virtue of which he is either confirmed in his poſt, or diſmiſſed from it. His reſidence is in the caſtle of Cairo; and he holds a divan, or privy council, three times a week, viz. Sundays, Tueſdays, and Thurſdays; at which the beys and ajas, or heads of the abovementioned troops, always aſſiſt and give their attendance.

The number of beys, though fixed at twenty-four, is never complete: the baſha, who has a right to appoint them, turns the ſalary of thoſe who are wanting, to his own account. This ſalary is five hundred aſpers, or about fifteen ſhillings per day; and in caſe they have ſome campaigns for the good of the country, it is double that ſum. The dignity of bey is purchaſed, and thirty purſes is generally the price paid for it.

The caſe is nearly the ſame with the militia, or land-forces, who are ſeldom found to exceed half their proper number; only with this difference, that the officers appropriate to their own uſe the pay of thoſe that are wanting, though not without making ſome ſuitable acknowledgment to the baſha for conniving at the deficiency of the troops ordered to be provided.

The janiſſaries and Arabs are the two only corps of troops which ſerve on foot; the reſt being horſemen, and are called jumalis, tufckgis, ſherekfas, mettefaracas, and ſhaous. The janiſſaries are ſuppoſed to form a body of twelve thouſand, the Arabs one of eight thouſand, and the horſe twenty thouſand; ſo that the whole number ſhould be forty thouſand; but they ſeldom amount to above half the number for the reaſon before aſſigned. The foot ſoldiers form the garriſon in the caſtle and city of Cairo, the mettefaracas hold the other caſtles, ſuch as Alexandria, Roſetta, &c. The jumelis, tufckgis, and ſherekfas, are diſtributed all over the kingdom, to ſerve the beys and governors of provinces; and the ſhaous are appointed to keep a watchful eye over the Grand Signor's chargeable revenues.

This country is divided into a number of provinces, called caſheflis. The governors of them are called caſhefs; and thoſe who poſſeſs villages, meltezens. Theſe are obliged to obey the commands of the divan and baſha at Cairo. Each meltezen, or owner of a village, muſt either have ſold or given his right to another forty days before his death. In default of this the whole becomes the property of the Grand Signor, in conſequence of his right to confiſcate all the poſſeſſions of his ſubjects, who are in his ſervice at the time of their deceaſe.

The troops, as well as the power, are veſted in the beys, and there is always one amongſt them who takes ſome degree of authority above the others, and raiſes their jealouſy by that means; but he only retains this ſituation till his enemies have found a ſtronger party than his own. The government of thoſe who thus elevate themſelves above the reſt is ſhort, and their end often proves tragical; we are told by Dr. Pococke, that neither the baſha, nor any of the beys, ſcruple taking off their enemies by poiſon or the dagger, particularly by the former; of which he gives the following inſtance: "A baſha knowing that the bey whom he would willingly diſpatch was jealous of his deſigns, ordered his ſervant, when he came to viſit him, to pour his own coffee, and that of the bey's, out of the ſame pot. The bey, ſeeing this, concluded that it could not be poiſoned, and drank it off; but the ſlave, on his giving the coffee to the baſha, made a falſe ſtep, as he was ordered, and ſpilt it on the floor; upon which the bey perceived the baſha's treachery when it was too late to prevent the miſchievous effects of it."

The baſha generally grows rich when any inteſtine wars ariſe, partly becauſe the diſunion among the troops throws ſome of the power back into his own hands, and partly becauſe a conſiderable ſhare of the eſtates of thoſe who are killed in battle, or are afterwards proclaimed enemies of the ſtate, becomes his property. But the moſt conſiderable branch of his revenue ariſes from the peſtilence that ſo frequently rages in Egypt; inſomuch that during the three or four months it commonly laſts, it produces ſo great an income, that a ſingle day may bring in two or three hundred thouſand crowns, by the deaths of thoſe who are poſſeſſed of large villages. By the laws of the Ottoman empire, thoſe lands never revert to the Grand Signor, but a conſiderable part of them fall to the ſhare of the baſha, to which he is entitled by virtue of his commiſſion; and theſe frequently amount to immenſe ſums, eſpecially as, by the rapid deaths, with which the purchaſers are often ſnatched away one after another, he is enabled to ſell the ſame eſtate to three or four different perſons in one week; ſince the death of the purchaſer extinguiſhes the property in every land purchaſe.

In treating of the political conſtitution of Egypt, a celebrated writer remarks, that "notwithſtanding Egypt is ſubject to the Grand Signor, yet we may ſay it properly belongs to the Mamalukes, or ſlaves, moſt of whom are Georgians or Circaſſians. The Turks who carry on the trade with thoſe ſlaves, force them to abjure their religion before they bring them into Egypt. All the beys, and eſpecially all the officers of the troops, are renegadoes: and it is reckoned extraordinary to ſee a Turk raiſed to any great military poſt. They go into the ſervice of the renegadoes, who partly to get rid of the expence of feeding them, obtain from them the pay of a janiſſary or a horſeman; in a word, all the ſeven corps of troops conſiſt merely of the life-guards of theſe renegadoes. There are thayas of the janiſſaries, who have a guard of four hundred men about them, beſides thoſe whom they keep in their villages. The renegadoes inherit equal ſhares of their maſters eſtates with the children; and it has been obſerved, that the latter being brought up to a voluptuous life, ſoon ſpend their inheritance, and are reduced to ſuch wretched circumſtances, as to have recourſe to their own ſlaves, and beg of them for ſubſiſtence, or even permiſſion to ſerve them. It may be juſtly ſaid, that in no country whatever ſuch vaſt changes happen in families as in Egypt."

The Grand Signor's revenues in Egypt conſiſt of three branches, which ariſe from the lands, the cuſtoms, and the poll-tax on Chriſtians and Jews. All the villages in Egypt pay a certain yearly rent to the Grand Signor; and this is the haſna, or treaſure, that is ſent every year to Conſtantinople. How eaſy the levy is, may be concluded from the ſum which is raiſed, amounting only to ſix thouſand purſes, each of twenty-five thouſand medines, or about one hundred and twenty pounds ſterling; out of this, corn, flour, oil, and the like, are ſent yearly to Mecca, and twelve thouſand ſoldiers are paid, which reduces the treaſure to one thouſand two hundred purſes. After other deductions, for the conveyance of the water of the Nile to their lands, preſerving the public canals, repairing the caſtles, ſupplying the ſeraglio, and ſtoring the arſenal, the whole of this treaſure carried to Conſtantinople does not commonly amount to more than two hundred purſes in ſpecie, or about twenty-four thouſand pounds ſterling. The cuſtoms are farmed; and the perſons that pay this poll-tax (which is called the harach, and levied only on Chriſtians and Jews) are only men after they arrive at the age of ſixteen.

Not only the political, but civil government of this kingdom is firſt veſted in the baſha, whoſe prime miniſter is called caia, and generally holds the divan. The baſha

preſerve

preſerves a dignity not inferior to that of the Grand Signor. He always ſits behind a lattice at the end of the divan, and ſeldom aſſiſts in perſon, except on very particular occaſions, ſuch as reading ſome order from the Porte, or the like. When he goes abroad, he is always attended by one of the great officers, called a druggerman aga, who is not only an interpreter, but more eſpecially acts as maſter of the ceremonies; and he is always eſcorted by a body of the guards, like the Grand Signor.

The divan is held at the baſſa's palace at Cairo, three times a week; viz. on Sunday, Tueſday, and Thurſday. This grand council aſſemble in a ſpacious and magnificent halt, which hath a noble ſquare, or court before it, where the members of it parade with all their retinue, and make ſuch a ſplendid appearance with their ſervants and horſes, richly dreſſed and capariſoned, and glittering with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, that it is ſaid to exceed even the pomp of the Grand Signor at Conſtantinople. According to ancient records, we are informed that Sultan Selim, having told his divan at Cairo, and in the ſtately hall of the royal palace of the Egyptian monarchs, forbad the then baſha, and all his ſucceſſors, to meet any more in that magnificent apartment, leſt the ſight of ſo much grandeur and opulence, joined to the noble appearance of the divan, ſhould inſpire them with a deſire of ſhaking off their allegiance to the Porte, and of making themſelves abſolute maſters of Egypt: ſo that this hall, where the divan now meets, is quite different from that of the antient Egyptian kings; nor is there any thing in it worthy of obſervation, except ſeven deal planks, each about half an inch thick, and cloſely faſtened together with an arrow, which, it is ſaid, that ſultan ſhot through them. Theſe are kept ſuſpended over the place where the caſſa ſits, as a monument of the above-mentioned monarch's extraordinary ſtrength.

Egypt is ſubdivided into ſeveral provinces, ſome of which are under the direction of governors, called ſangiacs; other diviſions of it are governed by Arab ſheiks, or chiefs, all of whom are annually choſen by the divan, on the 29th of Auguſt, which is the firſt day of the coptic year. The buſineſs of theſe officers is to collect the revenue belonging to the Grand Signor, and keep the people under the reſpective juriſdictions in proper order.

Grand Cairo, and the country north of it, are under the protection of the janiſſaries; and the Arabs guard the country round the city. An officer called the walla, conſtantly patroles about the city, eſpecially at night; his office anſwers to that of the Turkiſh ſoubaſha. He takes into cuſtody all diſorderly perſons, or ſuch as cannot give a ſatisfactory account of themſelves; and, if they are not protected by the janiſaries, frequently puniſhes them as he pleaſes. The meteſſib is another diſtinguiſhed officer belonging to the city, whoſe buſineſs it is to inſpect all weights and meaſures, and ſee that their ſtandard is juſt and legal.

Another great officer is the teſterdar, who is lord high treaſurer of the tribute paid out of the lands to the Grand Signor. He is choſen annually by the Porte; but uſually retains his office during life, except in caſe of miſbehaviour, or breach of truſt.

The officer called the emir hadge, or prince of the pilgrims that go to Mecca, is alſo choſen annually; but in order to make amends for the great expence he muſt neceſſarily be at the firſt year for his equipage, he is generally continued two years in his office. If he be a perſon of abilities, and has great intereſt at the Porte, he then continues much longer, though rarely more than ſix years, for if they conduct the caravan ſeven years, the Grand Signor preſents them with a collar of gold. Their perſons are eſteemed ſacred; and ſhould they in any reſpect deviate from the conduct they ought to preſerve, they are not ſubject to any other puniſhment than degradation from their office. He has the command over the eſtates that belong to Mecca. If he behaves well during his adminiſtration, it procures him the general eſteem and affection of the whole country. The perquiſites of his office, excluſive of what he is allowed by the Porte, conſiſt in being intitled to one tenth of the effects of pilgrims who die on their journey.

The adminiſtration of juſtice here, nearly reſembles that in moſt other parts of the Grand Signor's dominions. A cadiliſkier (whoſe office is much like that of lord high chancellor) is ſent annually to Grand Cairo from Conſtantinople: appeals are made to him from the cadis; and, at his arrival, many cauſes of importance are brought before him. His houſe is in the place of juſtice; and he has his deputy who is called nakib. There are eight cadis in different parts of Cairo, and an officer in every ward, called kabandi, who is ſomething like a notary-public; for all obligations that are deemed valid, muſt be drawn by him. The cadiliſkier ſends the cadis from Cairo to moſt other towns, and one of the officers is ſent annually from Conſtantinople to Gize, Damietta, Roſetta, and Alexandria.

The people here apply themſelves greatly to the ſtudy of the law, which is written in the pureſt language, ſuch as is ſpoken at Damaſcus. They have a ſaying, that "the law cuts the ſword, but the ſword cannot cut the law;" for, however atrocious the offence may be, the Grand Signor himſelf cannot inflict any puniſhment on a perſon of that profeſſion.

One thing much to be admired in the adminiſtration of juſtice here, is, that all cauſes are immediately decided, as ſoon as the parties make application to thoſe in whoſe power it is to determine them. Many cauſes here, are brought before leading men, who finally decide the matter, without having any reference to a magiſtrate.

With reſpect to the puniſhments inflicted on offenders in Egypt, they are proportioned to the offences committed. Thoſe guilty of murder are puniſhed with death; but in trifling matters, they either give them the baſtinado, or elſe ſeverely whip them. They are particularly ſevere in the puniſhment of bakers for making their bread deficient; as alſo to butchers, for ſelling their meat either ſhort of weight, or ſo ſtale as not to be wholeſome. We have a particular account of theſe latter puniſhments, given by a perſon who lately travelled through moſt parts of this kingdom, which we ſhall preſent our readers in his own words:

"The puniſhment inflicted on bakers in this country, for making their bread deficient in weight, is, I think, ſevere and cruel; for though I cannot excuſe ſo barbarous an impoſition on the labouring part of the community, yet I would by all means limit the puniſhment within the bounds of humanity. When found guilty of the firſt offence, the overſeer of the bakers, (who is the examiner, and only perſon who tries them) immediately orders the delinquent to be ſeverely baſtinadoed; which is, beating them on the ſoles of their feet with a large ſtick; for the ſecond, they are more ſeverely puniſhed in the ſame manner; and, for the third, without any other proceſs than the above officer's order, they are ſometimes put in their own oven, when hot, where they are ſuffered to periſh, being burnt to death; which puniſhment I ſaw executed."

"The puniſhment of the butchers in this country (the ſame writer informs us) who are detected in ſelling meat either ſtale or deficient in weight, is no leſs extraordinary than that of the bakers, though not ſo cruel or ſevere; and as I mean rather to acquaint you more particularly with facts I have had ocular demonſtration of, than relations culled from other travellers, ſuch as dancing camels, &c. vouched by many, and which, after the moſt ſtrict enquiry among the natives, I could never learn the leaſt intimation of, from the oldeſt inhabitants of Cairo; ſo you may be aſſured the following is a fact, of which alſo I was an eye-witneſs. A butcher in the neighbourhood where I reſided, was detected, by the examining officer, of being guilty of this crime, and without any other form of trial than the order of the officer, was immediately nailed by one of his ears to the poſt of his own door; his noſe pierced, and one end of a wire, about ſix inches long, faſtened to it; at the other end of which, a piece of his ſtinking meat was fixed. In this ſituation he was obliged to continue four hours."

It is a privilege belonging to the relations or deſcendants of Mahomet (called in Arabia, ſheriff or noble, and by the Turks, emir or prince) to be exempt from appearing before any judge but their own chief, who is himſelf a relation of Mahomet, and is called neckilelſheriff. They are ſo much eſteemed, that though any one of the military bodies will puniſh them if guilty of any miſdemeanor, yet they firſt take off their green turban, out of reſpect to their character, and then ſubject them to equal puniſhments with others; and when they are puniſhed by their own magiſtrates, the like ceremonies are alſo uſed.

Notwithſtanding the baſha, his beys, and the military officers, adminiſter juſtice in ſome caſes, yet they themſelves pay little regard to the laws of equity. The military officers in particular, enrich themſelves by various oppreſſions of the people, eſpecially of the richer ſort, whom they either artfully enliſt, or pretend to have enliſted, under ſome of their bodies; by which they fleece them while alive, and ſeize on the beſt part of their effects after they are dead. The baſha connives at all theſe abuſes, either as being

being a ſharer of the ſpoils, or out of fear of diſobliging ſuch a powerful body, by diſcountenancing or ſuppreſſing them.

Proceedings of this arbitrary nature are exerciſed by the military more or leſs over the kingdom, eſpecially among the Arabian ſheiks, from whom they extort the moſt exorbitant contributions, under the ſpecious name of tribute for protecting them. The janiſſaries are ſo bent upon this point, that they keep an exact regiſter of all the various eſtates, trades, and occupations in the kingdom; of all the rich and poor; of the different ways by which they have extorted any ſums from them; and are ever concerting new methods whereby to renew their oppreſſions on the people.

Theſe cruel extortions extend in like manner to the Europeans, and other trading nations: as the janiſſaries are never at a loſs to quarrel with them, ſometimes about their dreſs, at others about their behaviour, as not paying them a proper reſpect, or for admitting ſome of their Mahometan women into their quarters by night. Thus they extort money under ſuch pretences, whether real or falſe; for there is no method of avoiding their reſentment, but by quick ſubmiſſion, and ſome anſwerable atonement, as ſpeedy as valuable, according to one of their favourite adages, that "the egg of to-day is preferable to the chicken of to-morrow." But, of all nations, that of the Jews is moſt hated, deſpiſed, and oppreſſed by this tyrannical government, under which they are dwindled to a very inconſiderable number, except at Cairo, and reduced to the loweſt poverty; though they were once intruſted with ſome of the moſt important poſts of the ſtate, and were at the ſame time very numerous and rich.

The people who inhabit the upper part of the kingdom are ſtill more wretched, as they are not only equally oppreſſed by their rapacious governors, but frequently expoſed to the inroads and dreadful ravages of the Arabian theiks, who take all opportunities of plundering the poor villagers, by way of repriſal, for the hardſhips they ſuffer from their petty tyrants and oppreſſors.

Upon the whole, the government of Egypt, from the tyranny thus exerciſed by one degree of people over another, may be ſaid to be at leaſt equally oppreſſive with that under the power of the moſt deſpotic prince. The rich plunder the poor, who, in defence of themſelves make repriſals wherever they are to be met with. Thus inſurrections frequently happen, the conſequences of which are not only the loſs of property, but of lives; for the poorer ſort, when urged by neceſſity, become deſperate, and wreak their revenge on thoſe that have oppreſſed them; for, when plundered of their wealth, they are ſeldom at a loſs for means to expreſs their reſentment of the injuries they ſuſtain.

SECT. IX.

Containing a Deſcription of the Deſart, chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the Provinces, or Kingdoms of ZAARA or ZAHARA, BILEDULGERID, and TOMBUTO; with an Account of its Situation, Extent, Diviſions and Provinces, Towns, Villages, Inhabitants, their Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Manners, Diet, Marriages, Funerals, &c.

THE deſart of Zaara is a vaſt inhoſpitable tract of land, which ſtretches itſelf from the Atlantic ocean on the weſt, to the kingdom and deſarts of Barca and Nubia on the eaſt, and from the river Senegal on the ſouth, to Biledulgerid on the north; that is, from the eighth degree weſt, to the twenty-ſixth of eaſt longitude, and from the fifteenth degree of eaſt latitude to the tropic of Cancer, comprehending from eaſt to weſt, a ſpace of at leaſt fifteen hundred miles in length; and in breadth, from north to ſouth about five hundred.

The Arabs divide this immenſe tract of land into three general diſtricts. Cahel, Zahara, and Aſgar, that is, the ſandy, ſtony, and marſhy deſarts, according to the nature of the ſoil; but later geographers divide this country into ſeven provinces, which are Zanaga, Zuenziga, Targa or Havr, Lempta or Iguidi, Bardoa, Bornou, and Gaoga.

As this country is covered with burning ſands, the ſoil cannot be ſuppoſed to be fertile, though that ſituated on the northern banks of the Senegal being watered, peopled, and cultivated, produces corn, rice, millet, and a variety of fruits, but little more perhaps is reaped than is ſufficient for the uſe of the inhabitants, except dates.

Camels and other cattle are common here, but this country is moſt remarkable for a ſpecies of domeſtic animal called adimnaim, of which there is great plenty. This is a kind of ſheep, about the ſize of an aſs, with long hanging ears: the females have horns, but not the males, and the wool is ſhort, but ſoft and fine. This animal is ſo ſtrong that it can eaſily carry a man for ſeveral miles, and ſo gentle that it never refuſes a burthen. The miſeries to which the inhabitants of this parched, ſandy, and barren deſart are expoſed, are increaſed by incredible multitudes of lions, tygers, wolves, and other ſavage animals, with which it is infeſted.

That the reader may have as diſtinct an account of this great tract of country as poſſible, we ſhall deſcribe the different provinces and deſarts into which it is divided. Beginning at the ſouth, the province of Zanaga extends from the Senegal on the ſouth, to the province of Suz on the north; it is bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the weſt, and by the territories of Seram, Sunda, and Zuenziga on the eaſt. It contains the two deſarts Azvo and Tugguzza or Taggoſt. The laſt of theſe produces a prodigious quantity of rock ſalt, which is conveyed hence into all the adjacent countries, and is uſed in the deſart chiefly to moiſten the mouth parched with the ſultry heat, and to preſerve the gums againſt a ſcorbutic diſorder to which the natives are very liable.

If the ſummer proves dry, travelling is here extremely fatiguing and dangerous; ſcarce a drop of water being to be ſeen for thirty leagues together; and when any is found it is ſo brackiſh, as to be equally unwholeſome and unpalatable. Nor do the cattle fare better, the barren earth not yielding ſo much as a blade of graſs, or any thing for their ſuſtenance, which obliges the paſſengers to carry not only proviſions for themſelves, but for their beaſts of burthen. Beſides the country being flat and ſandy, without mountains, woods, rivers, lakes, or any object to direct their courſe, it would be impoſſible to avoid loſing their way, were it not for the flight of certain birds, who are obſerved to go and return at certain ſtated periods. They are alſo guided by the courſe of the ſun by day, and by the ſtars by night; which laſt is probably the uſual time of travelling here, as well as in the deſarts of Arabia. Yet it is certain, that every part of theſe deſarts is not equally inhoſpitable, as they are allowed to be inhabited by ſeveral different nations, particularly by the Berviches, Ludayers, Duleyns, and Zenequi, ſome of which are ſo numerous as to raiſe fifteen or twenty thouſand men; there are alſo a variety of Arab tribes no leſs numerous, potent, and warlike, and conſequently they find lands capable of providing them and their cattle with ſubſiſtence.

Zuenziga is, if poſſible, a more dry and barren province than Zanaga; and we are told, that of large caravans that paſs through this country, ſeldom half the number, either of men or beaſts, ever return; moſt of them dying of thirſt, hunger, fatigue, or under the whirlwinds of ſand with which they are overwhelmed: but this we cannot give entire credit to.

Many beautiful horſes are bred in this diſtrict; and the inhabitants are ſuch expert horſemen and warriors, that they are become formidable to the princes of Barbary, who ſtudy to keep on good terms with them; nor are they leſs dreaded by the negroes, whom they ſeize on all occaſions, and ſell to the people of Fez and Morocco; and when the negroes get any of them in their power, they cut them in pieces by way of retaliation.

Targa is ſaid to be leſs barren, dry, and ſultry than either of the former provinces, it having a variety of good wells of freſh water dug deep in the ground, and the ſand produces graſs and ſeveral vegetables fit for food: the climate is healthful, and great quantities of manna are gathered here, which they ſell to their neighbours.

The province of Lempta, which lies to the eaſt of Targa, travellers find no leſs dangerous than any of the former, on account of the exceſſive heat of the ſun reflecting from the ſand, the ſcarcity of water, the whirlwinds of ſand, and the barbarity of the people, who endeavour to rob and plunder all that come in their way. Through this inhoſpitable region caravans paſs from Conſtantia, and other towns of Algiers and Tunis, to Nigritia, though equally in danger of periſhing by thirſt, hunger, and the ſword; but their attachment to commerce, and the advantages they reap from it, make them encounter theſe hazards with the utmoſt fortitude.

The province of Bardoa ſtretches from the ſixteenth to the twenty-ſecond degree of eaſt longitude. The inhabitants, who are named Bardoaits, have no towns but live in tents on the plunder of merchants and paſſengers. Near the mountains, which form the northern barriers between this province and Tripoli, ſtands the town of Kala, where are kept ſome fairs, to which the merchants reſort from

every part of Zahara, and the nations bordering upon the Mediterranean ſea, with the wealth of their ſeveral countries. The ſoil is in general dry, barren, and produces no commodities that merit particular notice.

The kingdom or province of Bornou extends from the twelfth to the twenty-ſecond degree of eaſt longitude, and from the ſeventeenth to the twenty-firſt degree of north latitude. The northern part reſembles in barrenneſs the other provinces of Zahara; but all the reſt, which is the greater part, is well watered by ſprings and rivers, that fall with a dreadful noiſe from the mountains, and render the country fertile in corn, graſs, and fruits. Both the eaſtern and weſtern frontiers are inhabited by a people of a roving diſpoſition, who live in tents, and are ſaid to enjoy every thing in common, no ſuch thing as property being known among them. Theſe frontiers are divided into mountains and vallies, covered with flocks of cattle, and fields of rice and millet; timber, fruit-trees, and cotton, alſo grow on many of the mountains.

The people of this province, as we before obſerved, live in tents or cabins, which are placed together in the form of a circle, and in the centre is a ſpacious area, in which they keep their cattle. As they frequently remove from one place to another, they are conſequently under diſagreeable apprehenſions from robbers and wild beaſts; and, in order to guard againſt any ſurprize from either, they always keep centinels without the tents, who, if any danger appears, give an immediate alarm, which is circulated throughout the encampment, and every perſon able to bear arms, defends his own habitation.

The poorer part of the natives, who are chiefly ſhepherds and huſbandmen, go almoſt naked in hot weather, wearing only a ſhort apron before, which reaches to their knees; but the better ſort wear a large ſhirt made of black linen, and faſtened round the middle by a ſaſh. Their heads are covered with a red bonnet or cap edged with white cotton; and they wear ſandals of Morocco leather, which riſe to the calf of the leg. Both ſexes wear ear-rings and pendants, as alſo rings on their fingers, and bracelets on their arms. The men let their hair hang low, but the women tie it up in a knot, and ornament in in proportion to their ſtation and quality. During the winter they are warmly cloathed with the ſofteſt ſheep ſkins, of which they alſo form their bed cloaths.

Cakes made of millet are their chief food, and their uſual drink is milk or whey. They have wheat and barley, but they are ſo averſe from ſtaying long in a place, that it is ſeldom reaped by the hands that ſow it. They ſit croſs-legged at their meals, on a mat made of Morocco leather or palm-leaves, and the diſhes that contain their food are made of copper or ivory. They waſh after their meals, and then regale themſelves by drinking coffee, and ſmoaking tobacco. They eat but two meals a day, one a little after ſun riſe, and the other a little before ſun ſet; and the women are not permitted to eat with the men.

Their male children are circumciſed at the age of fourteen: after which they may marry as ſoon as they can purchaſe a wife. They who have many daughters conſider them as a capital eſtate, for when any ſuitor offers himſelf, he muſt make conſiderable preſents to the parents, as his ſucceſs principally depends on that. They form a judgment of the ſuitor's affections by his liberality; and however well the parties may like each other, the parents of the girl will not deliver her up, till they are ſatisfied with the preſent made by the intended huſband. If he does not approve of his wife after ſhe is delivered to him by her parents, he may return her back to them; but he is obliged, in that caſe, to forfeit the preſents made previous to their marriage.

On the death of a perſon, the neareſt relation alarms the whole camp, who immediately aſſemble round the tent of the deceaſed, and teſtify their ſorrow indiſcriminately by the moſt lamentable ſhrieks. This continues for ſome time, when the body of the deceaſed is waſhed, and placed on a ſtool, to be publickly viewed till the grave is made, when he is carried to it, attended by his relations, and the principal people of the camp. After the ceremony, an entertainment is provided by the relations of the deceaſed for the attendants.

In the ſouthern parts of this province are ſeveral good towns, inhabited by people particularly diſtinguiſhed for their politeneſs and hoſpitality; and among them are many artificers and merchants of various nations, and of all complexions. It is ſaid that the government is in general monarchical, and that the king reſides at Bornou, the capital of the province, but his palace is a very mean building: and only remarkable for its furniture, the principal part of which is of ſolid gold, as are likewiſe his ſtirrups and ſpurs, with the bit and ornaments of his bridles: whence it may be conjectured, that a great trade is carried on here in that article with foreign countries, or that gold is produced either in this, or ſome of the neighbouring kingdoms.

Beſides Bornou, the capital of this province, there are ſaid to be the towns of Amozen, Sagra, and Samegonda, all of them to the northward of the metropolis, and, to the eaſtward, thoſe of Sama and Nabrina, but as the very exiſtence of theſe towns is queſtioned by theſe writers, therefore no account can be given of them.

The laſt and moſt eaſtern provinces of the deſart of Zahara is called by the natives Gaoga, and is reckoned to be upwards of five hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and three hundred in breadth from eaſt to weſt, extending itſelf from the nineteenth to the twenty-eighth degree of eaſt longitude, and from the twelfth to the twenty-ſecond degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the eaſt, by Nubia; on the weſt, by Bornou; on the north, by part of the ſame province; and, on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Gorham, from which the river Senegal ſeparates it.

This is for the moſt part an exceeding mountainous country, and the inhabitants are little better than ſavages. They go almoſt naked, and their chief ſubſiſtence ariſes from their cattle: but they ſometimes obtain a conſiderable booty by plundering travellers. They live in ſmall wretched huts, made of ſo light a conſtruction, that they frequently take fire, and the whole village formed of them is totally conſumed.

Gaoga, is the chief and only city in this province: it is ſituated on the north ſide of the lake of the ſame name, in fifteen degrees forty minutes north latitude, and twenty-five degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, but it is ſo wretched a place, and the inhabitants are ſo rude and illiterate, that travellers have not thought it worthy of a particular deſcription.

We ſhall now take notice of the learning, poetry, and muſic, of the natives of the deſart of Zaara; their method of making war, ſkill in horſemanſhip, and their riding upon the back of an oſtrich, &c.

The learning of the Moors and Arabs of the deſarts, is ſo extremely limited, that few of them are able to read Arabic or any other language; yet ſome of them have a tolerable notion of aſtronomy, and talk with the preciſion of an European ſcholar upon the ſtars, their number, ſituation, and diviſion into conſtellations. The clear and ſerene ſky in which they live has greatly aſſiſted their obſervations, an advantage they have improved by a warm imagination and a happy memory: their ſyſtem of aſtronomy is, however, ſo replete with fable and abſurdity, that it is in general difficult to comprehend their meaning: yet, with all their ignorance, they ſeem formed by nature for liberal ſentiments, and with a taſte for the polite arts, as their eſſays in poetry and muſic, which are far from being contemptible, ſeem to indicate. Thoſe who are acquainted with the genius of the oriental tongues, from which theirs is derived, have been highly delighted with their ſongs, ſung in recitative, accompanied by a kind of guittar, which they are extremely fond of.

It might be imagined, from the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of their muſic, that theſe people cannot be very warlike; but if we may judge from ſome of their maxims, they are far from being puſillanimous. "Can any thing, ſay they, be more daſtardly, than to kill a man before you approach him near enough to be diſtinguiſhed." Hence they never attack an enemy till they come within the length of their lances, and then retiring to a proper diſtance, throw them, or ſhoot their arrows, with ſurpriſing dexterity. They fight chiefly on horſeback with ſhort ſtirrups, and by raiſing themſelves high in the ſaddle, ſtrike with greater force. They never draw up their cavalry in long lines and extended wings, but in ſmall detached ſquadrons, by which means they are leſs liable to be broke or thrown into confuſion; and when ſuch an accident happens, are more eaſily rallied. The agility of their horſes, and their own ſkill in riding, give them great advantages by attacking in all quarters, wheeling off, and returning to the charge with amazing dexterity and quickneſs.

We are told, that they ſometimes mount the oſtrich. Mr. Adamſon ſays, that ſome of thoſe he had ſeen among the burning ſands on the north ſide of the Senegal, are incredibly large, ſwift, and ſtrong. Two boys were mounted upon the back of one of theſe gigantic fowls not full grown, with which weight it ran ſeveral miles with a velocity exceeding belief, and the ſwiftneſs of the fleeteſt courſer. To try the ſtrength of an exceeding large oſtrich.

oſtrich, the gentlemen abovementioned had two ſtout men mounted upon his back, when their weight appeared by no means diſproportioned to his ability, as it was far from retarding its progreſs. At firſt the bird went a pretty high trot; but when he was heated he extended his wings, as it were to catch the wind, to which his ſwiftneſs ſeemed indeed equal. "Every body, ſays he, muſt have ſeen a partridge run, and conſequently muſt know there is no man whatever able to keep pace with it; and it is eaſy to imagine, that if its ſteps were longer, its ſpeed would be greatly augmented. The oſtrich moves like the partridge, but with the advantage of a long ſtep, and great aſſiſtance from its wings; and I am ſatisfied, thoſe I am ſpeaking of would have diſtanced the fleeteſt race horſes in England." Whence, we may remark, that if they could be tamed and broke in the ſame manner as a horſe, we might eaſily judge of their utility.

The natives of this country are in general fond of long journies and excurſions into remote parts on affairs of trade and commerce, in which reſpect they are ſo indefatigable, that no hazard is too great, where profit is the motive. Theſe expeditions being undertaken in large caravans, in which their goods and neceſſaries are carried on camels, they are able to make head againſt any oppoſition they may meet with on the road, and ſeldom return without rich ladings of gold, ivory, gum, oſtrich feathers, camel's hair, ſlaves, and other commodities, which they ſell to the Europeans, or to the merchants of Fez or Morocco. As no road or path can be preſerved in theſe ſandy deſarts, they are directed in their courſe by the flight of certain birds. The zealous and devout Mahometans conſider theſe as guides ſent by their prophet to direct them in their way; and it is ſaid, they never preſume to undertake a journey of any conſiderable length without their direction.

The kingdom of Tombuto, which borders on the province of Zuenziga, is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt on both ſides the Niger; and, though little known, is ſaid to be of great extent. It took its name from Tombuto its capital, which ſtands in the latitude of fourteen degrees thirty-two minutes, and in the longitude of two degrees twenty-five minutes eaſt from London.

The houſes in the town, as well as thoſe in the circumjacent country, are built of a bell form, and only compoſed of hurdles plaiſtered over with loam; but here is a handſome moſque built with ſtone and lime. The royal palace is likewiſe built with the ſame durable materials, after a deſign drawn and executed by an excellent artiſt of Granada, who was driven hither when the Moors were expelled from Spain. There are ſome other tolerable ſtructures, beſides thoſe abovementioned.

Many weavers of cotton reſide in the city of Tombuto, and mechanics are more encouraged there than in any part of Africa. European cloths are brought hither from Barbary and the coaſt of Guiney. Markets and public fairs are held for the ſale of them, to which the women reſort with their faces vailed. Some of the native inhabitants and ſtrangers who reſide in the city are ſo rich, that the king thinks it not beneath the dignity of his rank to enter into an alliance with them.

This country is very fertile, being well watered by the river Senegal, which runs through it; and when that river overflows, the water is conveyed by ſluices to Tombuto. Beſides this, there are many ſprings, the water of which is exceeding good. Here are all kinds of grain, graſs, cattle, milk, butter, and all the neceſſaries of life, except ſalt, which they procure by land carriage from Tagara, which is about five hundred miles diſtant, and is ſo highly valued, that eighty ducats are given for a camel load of it.

The monarch of this country, when he goes abroad, rides upon a camel richly capariſoned, all the furniture ſhining with burniſhed gold, and his horſe is led after him by one of his principal officers. He likwiſe rides upon a camel in war; but all his ſoldiers are mounted on horſes. His attendants conſiſt of three thouſand horſemen, and a prodigious number of foot, who, beſides other arms, have poiſoned arrows. They have frequent ſkirmiſhes with thoſe who refuſe to pay tribute, and when a conqueſt is obtained, the captives are ſold to the merchants of Tombuto. Their horſes are chiefly brought from Barbary, for thoſe bred in the country are ſo few, and at the ſame time ſo ſmall, that they are only uſed on very trifling occaſions. The king, however, is always well provided with theſe beaſts; for when a merchant comes there with horſes, he orders the beſt of them to be picked out for him, and never ſcruples to pay whatever price the merchant demands. He has in his poſſeſſion a prodigious quantity of gold plate, and the whole court is ſaid to eat out of gold veſſels; ſilver, or any other metal being ſeldom uſed.

The king has the moſt profound homage and reſpect paid him by all his ſubjects; and when any ſtranger, or ambaſſador from other princes obtains an audience of him, he muſt fall proſtrate before him, and ſhew his ſubmiſſion, by taking up the duſt with his hands, and ſprinkling it over his head and ſhoulders. This ceremony is particularly obſerved by all who never had the honour before.

This prince has ſuch a natural antipathy to the Jews, that he has ſtrictly prohibited their being admitted into the city; and if a merchant is known to traffic with them, he is ſubjected to a heavy penalty. The king's taſte for literature is ſaid to appear from the great number of doctors, judges, and prieſts, whom he maintains at a great expence in the capital, furniſhing them with great convenience for ſtudy.

Manuſcripts from Barbary are brought hither, and ſold as the moſt valuable merchandize; and ſome traders are affirmed to have amaſſed immenſe wealth by confining themſelves to this literary traffic, which the monarch encourages with a princely ſpirit, taſte, and generoſity. Notwithſtanding all which, learning has made but little progreſs, except about the court, it having produced no viſible alteration in the manners of the people.

The inhabitants are in general mild and gentle in their diſpoſition, frugal in their œconomy, induſtrious in the diſcharge of their ſeveral employments, and chearful in the hours of relaxation, which they devote to ſinging, dancing, and merriment of various kinds.

Great quantities of European cloth are brought hither by the Barbary and Tripoli merchants; beſides which, the latter alſo bring glaſs beads, coral, paper, copper baſons, and other like wares. The articles exported from hence are gold, ſlaves, oſtrich feathers, ſena, and dates.

Inſtead of coin, they uſe bits of gold, ſix of which weigh an ounce: they have alſo ſhells brought from Perſia, four hundred of which are eſtimated at the value of a ducat: theſe latter they uſe in purchaſing articles of ſmall price.

There are neither gardens nor orchards without the ſuburbs of Tombuto. The gentry here place the higheſt mark of ſtate and dignity in keeping a great number of ſlaves; but their careleſſneſs frequently produces the moſt dreadful calamities: ſince by their means the whole town is often in flames; for the houſes, being built of combuſtible materials, catch fire upon the moſt trivial accident.

There is a large town to the ſouth of Tombuto, called Cobra, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Senegal. There is a judge appointed by the king to decide all controverſies; but the people have the liberty of appealing from his deciſion to the ſovereign. The buildings are much the ſame as thoſe of the capital, and the inhabitants are no leſs mild and ſociable, though not quite ſo temperate in their living: they are ſubject to many diſeaſes, that carry off numbers, which is ſuppoſed to be owing to the heterogeneous qualities of their food, which is uſually compoſed of fleſh, fiſh, milk, butter, oil, and wine; beſides which, they addict themſelves to ſpirituous liquors, and ſometimes drink them to great exceſs.

The province of Biledulgerid received its name from the Arabic Biled-el-gerid, ſignifying the land of dates, on account of the great quantity of that fruit which is peculiar to this country, and ſo plentiful as to ſupply the neighbouring kingdoms. Some geographers affirm, that this province was antiently known to the Greeks and Romans by the name of Numidia, and that it was then divided into two large provinces, whoſe inhabitants were diſtinguiſhed by the names of Maſcelyans and Maſſylians, the latter of which were ſituated eaſtward of the former. It is almoſt of a ſquare form, and extends above eighty leagues every way, or from twenty-eight degrees thirty minutes to thirty-two degrees fifty-minutes north latitude, and from five degrees thirty minutes to eleven degrees fifty minutes eaſt longitude; and is bounded on the eaſt by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from the kingdom of Tripoli and part of Gudamis, on the weſt by the countries of Zeb and Mezeb, and on the ſouth by the province of Verghela: this is all that can with propriety be comprehended within the juſt limits of Biledulgerid, though it is uſual to include all the countries here mentioned as its frontiers, under that name.

Biledulgerid is mountainous, ſandy, and barren, throughout, producing little beſides dates, which grow here in ſuch plenty, that the face of half the country is covered with trees bearing that fruit. The climate is hot and unhealthy, the people lean, ſwarthy, with ſhrivelled complexions, and their eyes inflamed, owing to the reflexion of the ſun-

beams

beams from the white hard ſoil; and the ſhowers of duſt and ſand driven by the high winds that blow here at certain ſeaſons with ſuch violence, as ſometimes to bury under it both men and cattle.

Eating dates is ſaid to occaſion an inveterate ſcurvy in the gums of the inhabitants, which frequently makes all their teeth drop out, and ſometimes ſpreads over their whole bodies, by which means they are rendered unhappy and extremely loathſome. In other reſpects the natives are ſound, vigorous, and healthy; and many of them live without ſickneſs to a good old age, though they diſcover a furrowed countenance, ſhrivelled ſkin, and hoary locks very early in life, and before infirmity, decrepitude, or any decay of their faculties begin to appear.

The plague, which makes ſuch havock in Barbary, is in a manner unknown at Biledulgerid; though the countries are contiguous, and there is a conſtant intercourſe between the inhabitants at all ſeaſons. This is alſo the caſe with the ſmall pox, which in other hot counties is no leſs contagious and fatal than the plague.

The people of this country are repreſented as ſavage, treacherous, and thieviſh, conſiſting of a mixture of old Africans and Arabs. The former live with great regularity in villages, compoſed of a number of ſmall huts, and the latter in tents, ranging from place to place in queſt of food and plunder. There is not a town in the whole country beſides Touſera and Tonſera worthy of notice; nor is it leſs deſtitute of rivers, there being in all this large territory ſcarce a ſingle ſtream worth mentioning, or that is not dried up for ſeveral months together.

In Biledulgerid, the Arabs, who value themſelves on their being ſuperior in birth and talents to the primitive inhabitants, are perfectly free and independent, and frequently enter into the ſervice of the neighbouring princes who are at war. They are fond of hunting, particularly the oſtrich, of which they make great advantage, for they eat the fleſh, exchange their feathers for corn, pulſe, and other things they want, uſe the talons as pendants for their ears and other ornaments; their fat is eſteemed a medicine of ſingular virtue, and they convert their ſkins into pouches and knapſacks; ſo that no part of the animal is left unemployed in ſome uſeful purpoſe. The Arabs likewiſe live upon the fleſh of camels and goats, and drink either the broth in which it is boiled or camels milk, for they ſeldom taſte water, that which is good being generally more ſcarce than milk itſelf. They have ſome horſes which they uſe in the chace, where people of rank are attended by negro ſlaves; and thoſe of inferior fortune by their women, who are no leſs obſequious than the ſlaves themſelves, looking after the horſes, and performing the moſt ſervile and laborious buſineſs.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; they have nevertheleſs ſchools to which all the boys of diſtinction are ſent in order to be inſtructed in that kind of knowledge which is moſt in repute, and are raiſed from thence to the dignity of judges or prieſts, in proportion to their genius and the proficiency they have made in their ſtudies. Some addict themſelves to poetry, for which many of the natives of this country ſhew a very early genius; and it is not uncommon to ſee a perſon merit the higheſt diſtinctions by means of this talent, which, conſidering the rude ignorance of the people in general, they ſometimes carry to an amazing pitch of ſweetneſs and ſublimity. Their invention is ſurpriſingly fertile, and they particularly excel in fables and parables. A few of them purſue the mechanic arts: but the people in general deſpiſe them as mean and ſervile: and where any of them engage in the employments of huſbandry, their wives and ſlaves commonly do all the labour.

Touſera, which De Liſle has placed within the limits of Biledulgerid, ſtands on the confines of Tunis, in thirty-two degrees twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees twenty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude from London. Of this city Marmol has given us the following account: that it was built by the Romans, and fortified with high walls, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen. The Mahometans, on their entering this country, plundered and deſtroyed the city on account of the reſiſtance made by the inhabitants, and thus all its noble ſtructures were demoliſhed, the preſent buildings conſiſting only of low and mean huts. Here they have fairs at certain ſeaſons, to which the merchants of the ſurrounding countries reſort. Through the center of the town runs a river, by which the Arabs and Africans are ſeparated, each poſſeſſing a certain quarter, the one to the ſouth, and the other to the north, enjoying different privileges, though all are equally the inhabitants of the ſame city. They are even continually at war with each other, and make incurſions acroſs the river with all the rancour and animoſity of declared enemies; but when endeavours are made to bring them under a foreign government, they will then frequently unite againſt the common foe.

About ninety miles north-weſt of Tonſera, in thirty-three degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and nine degrees three minutes eaſt longitude, was ſituated the city of Capſa, which was almoſt a Roman city, and was formerly ſurrounded with high walls, towers, &c. but they were almoſt totally demoliſhed by the Arabs; but the walls of the citadel are ſtill ſtanding, which are built of large ſquare ſtones, and are thirty feet thick, and one hundred and fifty in height. It was once a very populous city, and contained many ſtately moſques, and other magnificent ſtructures; but it is now very poorly inhabited, and the people are greatly oppreſſed under the Tuniſian government. In the center of the city is an incloſed fountain, the water of which is hot, and ſerves not only to bathe in, but, when cool, to drink. The adjacent country is fertile, and abounds with palm, citron, olive, and other fruit trees; but the climate is very unwholſome, and the inconvenience the inhabitants labour under on that account makes them naturally of a peeviſh and churliſh temper. Both ſexes go well cloathed, except about their feet, on which they wear large coarſe ſhoes made of the ſkins of wild beaſts, but ſo much out of form, that they not only diſfigure them, but are alſo exceedingly inconvenient; ſo that they are obliged to lay them aſide, and travel barefooted, when they are on a journey that requires expedition.

We cannot, with propriety, take leave of the continent of Africa, without, in the firſt place, giving the opinions of the learned concerning the reaſon of the dark complexion of the negroes, who chiefly inhabit this quarter of the globe. And, ſecondly, introducing ſome obſervations, together with objections and anſwers, relative to the ſlave trade, in order to prove that it is abſolutely inconſiſtent with, and even contrary to ſound policy, as well as abhorrent to humanity, reaſon, and juſtice: with ſome hints to thoſe who are not to be moved by ſuch arguments; for the better treatment of ſlaves during their paſſage from Africa to America, and on the plantations of the latter, for the benefit of both.

A learned author, in treating of the deep-black which tinges the complexions of the negroes, ſays, "The cauſe of this ſingularity has been the ſubject of much inquiry, which has given riſe to a variety of ſyſtems. Some have abſurdly ſuppoſed that the negroes, being the deſcendants from Cain, have had this mark of infamy ſtamped upon them, as a puniſhment for the fratricide of their anceſtor. If it were ſo, it muſt be allowed that his poſterity has made a ſevere atonement for his crime, and that the blood of the pacific Abel has been thoroughly avenged by his poſterity."

It was long the opinion of the Chriſtians in general, (ſays Mr. Salmon) and perhaps of the Jews before them, that all men were white till after the flood; but that Ham, the ſecond ſon of Noah, was converted from a white man, to a black man by his father's curſing him; and that Africa, falling to the lot of this ſon, all his poſterity who poſſeſſed this part of the world, have remained black ever ſince.

But that this curſe of Noah's was not the occaſion of ſuch a change of complexion is pretty evident; for firſt, the poſterity of Cham, or Ham, if they poſſeſſed Africa, are not all black. The entire northern coaſt, from Egypt to the empire of Fez incluſive, and for ſeveral hundred miles to the ſouthward, even as far as the tropic of Cancer, if not further, are not black, any more than thoſe who inhabit to the ſouthward of the tropic of Capricorn.

2. The people, in ſome parts of Aſia, particularly in the peninſula of India, on this ſide the river Ganges, and who are ſuppoſed to be the poſterity of Seth, the favourite ſon, are full as black within the tropic of Cancer, as any of the negroes in Africa: nor is there, in the inland country of India, at a diſtance from the coaſt, a ſingle perſon to be found that is not black; at leaſt I never met with one, though I travelled ſome hundred miles in that country, and reſided ſome time in it. It has been reported, indeed, that there are no blacks out of Africa; but probably thoſe writers who aſſert this, had their information from ſuch merchants or ſeamen, as had viſited only the coaſt of India; where, 'tis true, there is a tawny mingled breed; but even there the greateſt numbers of the natives are black, who lie within the tropic of Cancer. Indeed the Indian blacks have not the flat noſes, and thick lips, or the ſhort frizzled hair of the negroes. But theſe, I think, have never been reckoned part of Noah's curſe.

Another

Another reaſon aſſigned for the blackneſs of the negroes, is the heat of the climate, their country being ſituated within the torrid zone. But neither can this be admitted as the ſole reaſon of it, for great part of the continent of America alſo lies within the torrid zone; and yet there never was a black man there, till the Europeans tranſported them thither from Africa.

Others have ſuggeſted, that the people of Africa, being of a tawny complexion, between black and white originally, and not able to make themſelves as white as their northern neighbours, took great pains to make themſelves black, as a more deſirable colour than the olive: that they accordingly rubbed over their bodies with oil or greaſe, mixed with ſoot, or ſome other black ingredients; and thereby contributed to render their complexions darker than they were originally; and that the women afterwards, ſeeing nothing elſe but black men, brought black children into the world; and theſe ſtrengthen their opinions by ſome very notable facts. It is obſerved by all travellers, that the negroes greaſe or anoint themſelves and their children, continually from the hour they are born; and many of them mix black ingredients with the ointment; that the Caffres and Hottentots, beyond the tropic of Cancer, who are not naturally of ſo dark a complexion as the negroes nearer the line, do actually darken their ſkins pretty much, by rubbing them with fat and ſoot.

Others obſerve, that not only the complexions, but the very features, hair, make and ſtature of people differ, as the country and climate differs, wherein they were ſeverally born; and as to the negroes in particular, their hair, their lips and noſes, are not at all like thoſe of Aſia or Europe, or even thoſe who live in the north of Africa. The Scythians, of old, and the Tartars and Laplanders, at preſent, are of a very different make from the people of the ſouthern parts of Europe or Aſia: the Tartars are remarkable for their olive complexion, ſquat make, flat faces, and little eyes ſet deep in their heads. In ſome countries the people are tall, in others ſhort; and not only the perſons, but the very genius and temper of men differ, as the ſoil and climate differ where they were born. The Spaniards are grave and ſedate, mighty ſlow and circumſpect in their actions; while the French are gay and airy, perpetually dancing and ſinging: and this difference, no doubt, proceeds from the ſoil and ſituation of the reſpective countries; for, tranſplant any people from one country to another, they will alter or degenerate into the ſame kind of men, in a few generations, as the former inhabitants were. If the Spaniards and French were to change countries, they would, in a few generations, alter their perſons and humours; the French would be Spaniards, and the Spaniards French.

Did not every body ſee a remarkable difference between the French and the Engliſh, when the French firſt came over hither? and yet, in two or three generations, it was impoſſible to diſtinguiſh the one from the other. And ſo I take it to be in complexions, as well as in features and humours: blacks, in a few generations, would become white, if brought over hither; and poſſibly white men might become black, or very near it, if they were planted a few generations in the heart of Africa, eſpecially if pains were taken to make them ſo, by rubbing their children with greaſe and ſoot from the time they were born, as the Africans do.

To ſum up all: the ſun, no doubt, goes a great way towards the darkening the complexion of the people that inhabit the torrid zone; but then the ſoil they live upon, the pains they take to make their children ſtill blacker, and their women converſing altogether, or chiefly with black men, every one of theſe may contribute ſomething towards making them ſo exceeding black; for the ſun alone, it is certain, will not do it; or the people, who live within the torrid zone in America, would be equally black. And, as to Noah's curſing his ſon Ham, it is evident, this can be of no weight; for, as I have obſerved already, great part of the people of Africa (the country his poſterity are ſuppoſed to inherit) are not black: and the people of the Eaſt-Indies, who are ſuppoſed to be the deſcendants of Seth, the favourite ſon, are as black as any of the negroes of Africa; though, it is true, their hair is long, and their features much more engaging than thoſe of the African negroes.

If it be ſtill doubted, whether the alteration of climate or ſoil will have any effect upon the features as well as complexion, we may remember, that the Turks, Perſians, Indians, and Chineſe, all came originally from Tartary (at leaſt the ſovereigns and governing parts of thoſe empires); and yet they do not at all reſemble the Tartars from whence they deſcended, at this day, but the people of thoſe countries they reſpectively poſſeſſed to the ſouthward

of them, which, I believe, will be admitted to amount to a demonſtration of what has been advanced on this head."

To this may be added, that whatever may be the original and radical cauſe of that variety of complexion in the human ſpecies, it is agreed, that this complexion is owing to a gelatinous ſubſtance that is lodged between the cuticle and the ſkin. This ſubſtance is blackiſh in negroes, brown in olive-coloured or ſwarthy people, white in Europeans, and diverſified with reddiſh ſpots in thoſe who have extremely light or red hair. Anatomy hath diſcovered, that, in negroes, the ſubſtance of the brain is blackiſh, that the pineal gland is intirely black, and their blood is of a much deeper red than that of white people. Their ſkin is always hotter, and their pulſe quicker. The reaſon of their hair being curled, is becauſe, having to penetrate through a net work of a more denſe and tenacious ſubſtance, it becomes twiſted, and cannot be lengthened out. The ſweat of the negro diffuſes a ſtrong and diſagreeable odour, becauſe it is impregnated with that thick, rancid fluid which hath been long lodged, and ſlowly oozes out between the cuticle and the ſkin. This ſubſtance is ſo palpable, that one may diſtinguiſh in it, with a microſcope, a ſediment, formed in little blackiſh globules. Hence it happens that the linen cloth which wipes off the perſpiration of a negro, when copious, is tinged with it.

We ſhall now offer ſome remarks and obſervations relative to the African ſlaves, of which it has been publicly aſſerted, that they are equally incapable of reaſon and virtue. We hope, that what we are going to advance on this ſubject will ſet the matter right, and convince every diſcerning perſon, that ſuch an opinion is altogether erroneous and unjuſt.

In the year 1752, an Engliſh ſhip that traded to Guiney was obliged to leave the ſurgeon behind, whoſe bad ſtate of health did not permit him to continue at ſea. Murray (for that was his name) was there endeavouring to recover his health, when a Dutch ſhip drew near the coaſt, put in irons the blacks whom curioſity had brought to the ſhore, and immediately ſet ſail.

After this tranſaction, thoſe who took the part of theſe unhappy people, incenſed at ſo baſe a treachery, inſtantly ran to Cudjoe (a black at whoſe houſe Murray lodged) who ſtopped them at his door, and aſked them what they were in ſearch of? "the white man who is with you," replied they, "who ſhould be put to death, becauſe his brethren have carried off ours." The generous hoſt anſwered, "The Europeans who have carried off our countrymen, are barbarians; kill them whenever you can find them. But he who lodges with me is a good man; my houſe is his fortreſs; I am his ſoldier, and I will defend him. Before you can get at him, you ſhall paſs over my body. O my friends, what juſt man would ever enter my doors, if I had ſuffered my habitation to be ſtained with the blood of an innocent man?" This diſcourſe appeaſed the rage of the blacks; they retired, aſhamed of the deſign that had brought them thither; and ſome days after acknowledged to Murray himſelf, how happy they were that they had not committed a crime which would have ſtung them with remorſe as long as they lived.

From the above circumſtance it is very reaſonable to conclude, that the firſt impreſſions which the Africans receive in the new world, determines them either to good or bad actions. Repeated experience confirms the truth of this obſervation; for thoſe who fall to the ſhare of a humane maſter, willingly eſpouſe his intereſts. They inſenſibly adopt the ſpirit and manners of the place where they are fixed. This attachment is ſometimes exalted into heroiſm. We ſhall here give a remarkable inſtance of this.

A Portugueſe ſlave, who had fled into the woods, having learnt that his old maſter had been taken up for an aſſaſſination, came into the court of juſtice, and acknowledged himſelf guilty of the fact: ſuffered himſelf to be put in priſon inſtead of his maſter; brought falſe though judicial proofs of his pretended crime, and ſuffered death inſtead of the guilty perſon. Actions of a leſs heroical nature, though not uncommon, have touched the hearts of ſome coloniſts. Several would readily ſay as Sir William Gooch, governor of Virginia, did, when he was blamed for returning the ſalutation of a black; "I ſhould be very ſorry that a ſlave ſhould ſurpaſs me in politeneſs."

It is a melancholy conſideration, that many writers have proſtituted their abilities to juſtify policy which morality condemns. Be that as it may, it would be unpardonable in us, at a period when ſo many errors are boldly inculcated, to conceal any truth that is intereſting to humanity. If whatever we have hitherto advanced hath ſeemingly tended only to alleviate the burden of ſlavery, the reaſon

recover their independence, would live in quiet, upon the ſame manual labours, that would be then free and advantageous to them. The vaſſals of Denmark, and others in the dominions of the empreſs of Ruſſia, who have lately been made free, have not abandoned their ploughs, or relaxed in their labour, ſince they have obtained that indulgence.

Notwithſtanding the ſeveral nations concerned in the African trade are equally intereſted in preſerving the ſlaves in their paſſage, yet they do not all attend to it with the ſame care. They all feed them with beans, mixed with the ſame quantity of rice, but they differ in their manner of treating them in other reſpects. The Engliſh, Dutch, and Danes, keep the men conſtantly in irons, and frequently hand-cuff the women. The ſmall number of hands they have on board their ſhips, obliges them to this ſeverity. The French, who have great numbers, allow them more liberty. Three or four days after their departure, they take off all their fetters. All theſe nations, eſpecially the Engliſh, are too negligent with regard to the intercourſe between the ſailors and the women ſlaves. This irregularity occaſions the death of three-fourths of thoſe whom the Guinea voyage deſtroys every year. None but the Portugueſe, during their paſſage, are ſecured againſt revolts, and other calamities. This advantage is a conſequence of the care they take to man their veſſels only with the negroes, to whom they have given their freedom. The ſlaves, encouraged by the converſation and condition of their countrymen, form a tolerably favourable idea of the deſtiny that awaits them. The quietneſs of their behaviour induces the Portugueſe to grant the two ſexes the happineſs of living together; which indulgence would be productive of the greateſt inconveniences if allowed in other veſſels.

The Guiney negroes in general, and thoſe born in the iſlands, as well male as female, have the yaws once in their lives; it is a diſeaſe they muſt neceſſarily paſs through; but there is no inſtance of any of them being attacked with it a ſecond time, after having been radically cured. The Europeans ſeldom or ever catch this diſorder, notwithſtanding the frequent and daily connection they have with the negroe women. Theſe women ſuckle the children of the white people, but do not give them the diſorder. How is it poſſible to reconcile theſe facts (which are inconteſtable) with the ſentiments which phyſicians have adopted with regard to the nature of the yaws? May it not be allowed that the ſemen, the blood and ſkin of the negroes, are ſuſceptible of a virus peculiar to their ſpecies? Perhaps, the cauſe of this diſorder is owing to that which occaſions their colour; one difference is frequently productive of another; and there is no being or quality in nature, that exiſts abſolutely detached from others.

Be the cauſe or nature of this diſorder what it may, it is however evident, from the moſt accurate and undeniable calculations, that one-ſeventh part of the blacks that are imported into America from Guiney, die there every year. Fourteen hundred thouſand unhappy beings, who are now in the European colonies in the new world, are the unfortunate remains of nine millions of ſlaves that have been conveyed thither. This dreadful deſtruction cannot be the effect of the climate, which is nearly the ſame as that of Africa, much leſs of the diſorders, to which, in the opinion of all obſervers, but few fall a ſacrifice.

It may naturally be ſuppoſed that this great mortality muſt originate from the manner in which theſe ſlaves are governed; and might not an error of this nature be corrected? The firſt ſtep neceſſary in this reformation would be to attend minutely to the natural and moral ſtate of man. Thoſe who go to purchaſe blacks on the coaſts of ſavage nations: thoſe who convey them to America, and eſpecially thoſe who direct their labours, often think themſelves obliged, from their ſituation, and frequently too for the ſake of their own ſafety, to oppreſs thoſe wretched men. The ſoul of theſe managers of ſlaves, loſt to all ſenſe of compaſſion, is ignorant of every motive to enſure obedience but thoſe of fear or ſeverity, and theſe they exerciſe with all the harſhneſs of a temporary authority. If the proprietors of plantations would ceaſe to regard the care of their ſlaves as an occupation below them, and conſider it as an office to which it is their duty to attend, they would ſoon diſcard theſe errors that ariſe from a ſpirit of cruelty. The hiſtory of all mankind will ſhew them, that in order to render ſlavery uſeful, it is at leaſt neceſſary to make it eaſy; that force does not prevent the rebellion of the mind; that it is the maſter's intereſt that the ſlaves ſhould be attached to life; and that from the moment he no longer fears to die, nothing is to be expected from him.

"Many abuſes would be reformed, if the principle of enlightened reaſon, derived from the ſentiments of humanity, had its proper influence. Men would acknowledge the neceſſity of lodging, cloathing, and giving proper food to beings condemned to the moſt painful bondage that ever has exiſted, ſince the infamous origin of ſlavery. They would be ſenſible that it is naturally impoſſible that thoſe who reap no advantage from their own labours, can have the ſame underſtanding, the ſame œconomy, the ſame activity, and the ſame ſtrength, as the man who enjoys the produce of his own induſtry. That political moderation would gradually take place, which conſiſts in leſſening of labour, alleviating puniſhment, and rendering to man part of his rights, in order to reap with greater certainty the benefit of thoſe duties that are impoſed upon him. The preſervation of a great number of ſlaves, whom diſorders, occaſioned by vexation or regret, deprive the colonies of, would naturally flow from ſo wiſe a regulation. Far from aggravating the yoke that oppreſſes them, every kind of attention ſhould be given to make it eaſy, and, by favouring a natural taſte that ſeems peculiar to the negroes, to diſſipate even the idea of their preſent ſituation.

"It may be obſerved, that the organs of the negroes are extremely ſenſible of the powers of muſic. Their ear is ſo true, that, in their dances, the tune of a ſong makes them ſpring up an hundred at once, ſtriking the earth at the ſame inſtant. Enchanted, as it were, with the voice of a ſinger, or the tone of a ſtringed inſtrument, a vibration of the air is the ſpirit that actuates all the bodies of theſe men; a ſound agitates, tranſports, and throws them into extaſies. In their common labours, the motion of their arms, or of their feet, is always in cadence. At all their employments they ſing, and ſeem always as if they were dancing. Muſic animates their courage, and rouſes them from their indolence. The marks of this extreme ſenſibility to harmony, are viſible in all the muſcles of their bodies, which are always naked. Being poets and muſicians by nature, they make the words ſubſervient to the muſic, by a licence they arbitrarily aſſume, by lengthening or ſhortening them, in order to accommodate them to an air that pleaſes them.

"Whenever any object or incident ſtrikes a negro, he inſtantly makes it the ſubject of a ſong. In all ages, this has been the origin of poetry. Three or four words, which are alternately repeated by the ſinger, and the general chorus, ſometimes conſtitute the whole poem. Five or ſix bars of muſic compoſe the whole length of the ſong. What appears to be a ſingular circumſtance, is, that the ſame air, though merely a continual repetition of the ſame tones, takes intire poſſeſſion of them, and makes them work or dance for ſeveral hours; neither they, nor even the white men, are diſguſted with that tedious uniformity which theſe repetitions might naturally occaſion. This particular attachment is owing to the warmth and expreſſion which they introduce into their ſongs.

"Their airs are generally double time. None of them tend to inſpire them with pride. Thoſe intended to excite tenderneſs, promote rather a kind of languor. Even thoſe which are moſt lively, carry in them a certain expreſſion of melancholy. This is the higheſt entertainment to minds of great ſenſibility. So ſtrong an inclination for muſic might become a powerful motive to action under the direction of ſkilful hands. Feſtivals, games, and rewards might on this account be eſtabliſhed among them. Theſe amuſements, conducted with judgment, would prevent that ſtupidity ſo common among ſlaves, eaſe their labours, and preſerve them from that conſtant melancholy which conſumes them, and ſhortens their days.

"After having provided for the preſervation of the blacks exported from Africa, the welfare of thoſe who are born in the places whither they are conveyed would then be conſidered. The negroes are not averſe to the propagation of their ſpecies, even in the chains of ſlavery. But the cruelty of their maſters effectually prevents them from complying with this great end of nature. Such hard labour is required from negroe women, both before and after their pregnancy, that their children are either abortive, or live but a ſhort time after delivery. Mothers, rendered deſperate by the puniſhments which the weakneſs of their condition expoſes them to, ſometimes ſnatch their children from the cradle, in order to ſtrangle them in their arms, and ſacrifice them with a fury mingled with a ſpirit of revenge and compaſſion, that they may not become the property of their cruel maſters. This barbarity, the horror of which muſt be wholly imputed to the Europeans, will perhaps convince them of their error; ſo that their ſenſibility may be rouſed, and engage them to pay a greater

attention

attention to their true intereſts, as well as the dictates of humanity. They will find, that by committing ſuch outrages on the common rights of mankind, they injure themſelves; and they will at leaſt ceaſe to be the executioners, if they will not become the benefactors of their ſlaves.

"Thus the Europeans, urged by theſe cogent motives, will perhaps reſolve to liberate thoſe mothers who ſhall have brought up a conſiderable number of children to the age of ſix years. The allurements of liberty are the moſt powerful that can influence the human heart. The negro women, animated by the hope of ſo great a bleſſing, to which all would aſpire, and few would be able to obtain, would make neglect and infamy be ſucceeded by a virtuous ambition to bring up children, eſpecially when freedom and tranquillity would be ſecured to them by the number and preſervation of their offspring."

CHAP. IX.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

AFRICAN ISLANDS;

OF WHICH

ZOCATRA, BABELMANDEL, MADAGASCAR, THE COMORA ISLES, BOURBON, AND MAURITIUS, ARE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN, AND THE REST IN THE ATLANTIC.

SECT. I.

Treating of the ISLAND of MAURITIUS, or the ISLE of FRANCE, its Boundaries and Extent, Rivers, Harbours, Product, Animals, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS iſland lies in the Indian ocean, between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of ſouth latitude, and in ſifty-eight degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude from London, about one hundred leagues to the eaſt of Madagaſcar. It was early diſcovered by the Portugueſe; after them, the Dutch took poſſeſſion of it in 1598, and ſettled on the ſouth ſhore, but abandoned it after they became poſſeſſed of the Cape of Good Hope: they gave it the name of Mauritius in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It remained uninhabited after the Dutch quitted it, till the French in 1720 landed on it.

Mauritius is reckoned to be about forty-five leagues in circumference. The form is oval; and from the many high mountains torrents of freſh water ruſh down with great impetuoſity, and form various rapid rivers and rivulets, which are foul near where they fall, particularly in the rainy ſeaſon, but grow clearer as they run farther from the mountains, and are tranſparent as cryſtal before they diſembogue themſelves into the ſea. A French officer, who made the circuit of the iſland in 1770, during the dry ſeaſon, croſſed twenty-four rivers flowing with freſh water, but none of them are navigable for ſloops above a muſquet ſhot from their mouth. One of theſe rivers, which is named Anguilles, flows from ſprings of a ferruginous quality, which covers the water with an oil.

According to the meaſurement of the Abbe de Caille, the iſle of France is, in its greateſt diameter, thirty-one thouſand eight hundred and ninety fathoms from north to ſouth, and twenty-two thouſand one hundred and twenty-four from eaſt to weſt: its ſuperficial content is four hundred and thirty-two thouſand ſix hundred and eighty acres, of one hundred perches the acre, and twenty feet the perch. The country is hilly, and in ſome parts mountainous, covered with thick woods. The iſland is almoſt entirely encircled, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, by a belt of rocks; and in the parts where this defence fails, the coaſt is formed of rocks high and inacceſſible.

The wind generally blows from the ſouth-eaſt; but when the ſun is in the northern hemiſphere, particularly in the months of May and June, it commonly blows from the north-weſt. The hotteſt months are thoſe of November and December, but the air is then tempered with plentiful rains, yet dreadful hurricanes viſit the iſland at that ſeaſon. On account of the continued ſtorms, all navigation is at a ſtand from December till April. While a hurricane laſts, it is uſual for the wind to go quite the circle of the horizon, after which a perfect calm ſucceeds. A very fatal hurricane happened in 1760. Theſe tempeſts deſtroy a great number of rats, graſhoppers, and ants, with which this iſland is infeſted.

This iſland contains two ports, the principal of which is to the ſouth-eaſt, where the Dutch ſettlement formerly was, the remains of the building belonging to which are ſtill to be ſeen. This port may be entered before the wind; but it is very difficult to get out of it, as the gales generally blow to the ſouth-eaſt. The other port, named port Louis, is ſituated to the north-weſt, and is ſmaller than the former; a ſhip may go in or out of it large before the wind, which induced the French to fix their principal ſettlement here, although ſituated in the moſt diſagreeable part of the iſland.

The town, called alſo the camp, and which has ſcarcely the appearance of a market town, is built with tolerable regularity at the bottom of the port, and at the opening of a valley which is about three quarters of a league long, and eight hundred or one thouſand yards wide. It conſiſts of wooden houſes of one ſtory high, and is defended towards the ſea by a fort, called fort Blanco, and a battery. This harbour is greatly obſtructed by hulks of ſhips, which having been long ſince ſunk there, form each an iſland, which is every day increaſed by the madrepores growing round them.

There are only three churches in the iſland, one at port Louis, the ſecond at the ſouth-eaſt part, and the third and handſomeſt at a ſettlement called Pamplemouſſe. The two firſt are ſmaller than the churches of a country village. Indeed, another church was built at port Louis upon a very commodious and elegant plan, but the roof being too much raiſed, the walls were inſufficient to bear its weight, and reſiſt the force of the hurricanes; what remains of it is now uſed as a ſtorehouſe, of which there are but few in the iſland, and the greater part of them are built of wood, a material by no means proper for public buildings here, where the ſtrongeſt beams will only laſt forty years, if the worms do not deſtroy them ſooner.

It has been remarked by a late writer, that every thing in this iſland differs from what is ſeen in Europe, even the herbage of the country. The ſoil is almoſt every where of a reddiſh colour, and mixed with veins of iron, which are frequently found near the ſurface, in the form of grain, the ſize of a pea. In the drier parts, eſpecially near the town, the ground is very hard. It reſembles pipe clay; and, to make trenches, they ſometimes cut it with axes, as they do lead. As ſoon as it rains, it becomes ſoft and ſticky,

ſticky, notwithſtanding which, they have not yet been able to make it into bricks. There is no real ſand in the ſoil, but the ground is every where rocky, except where artificial means have been uſed to make it otherwiſe. The rocky ſubſtances in general are of an iron grey colour, contain a great deal of iron ore, and vitrify in the fire. The whole iſland is ſurrounded with mad repares, a kind of vegetation of ſtone, formed like a plant or ſhrub: theſe are ſo numerous, that the rocks ſeem formed of them only.

With reſpect to the natural productions of this iſland, the firſt we ſhall mention is a turf, which grows in beds near the ſea-ſhore: it is very thick and elaſtic; its leaf is very ſmall, and ſo ſharp-pointed as to prick people's cloaths. The cattle will not touch this herb, but love to browſe upon a kind of dogs graſs, which grows in many parts, and puts out little hard branches from the joints. The beſt herb, however, is one that grows on the windward ſide of the iſland: it has pretty large blades, or rather leaves, and is green and tender all the year. Here is likewiſe a ſhrub that yields a kind of fruit whoſe huſk might be turned to ſingular advantage. A prickly aſparagus; a mallow with ſmall leaves; a thiſtle with yellow flowers, which yield ſeeds that are poiſonous; a bad ſcented gilliflower; ſweet baſil, which is of a healing quality; and a kind of ſweet-ſcented lilly.

The vel antier is a plant whoſe odour is quite agreeable at a diſtance; leſs ſo, as you approach it, and perfectly nauſeous when you come near it; and here is a kind of bramble that bears a nut, the kernel of which is bitter, but efficacious in many diſorders. The plants called raquettes, which bear yellow flowers, are uſed in making hedges, on account of their ſharp prickles.

Here is a very pretty ſhrub called bois de demoiſelle, or lady-wood; others that reſemble the box-tree, and that bear a great affinity to the cork-tree. Balm ſhrubs and a baſtard kind of potatoe are common; as is panier graſs, which ſerves for phyſic and cloathing, for it is uſed medicinally, and likewiſe to make thread. Here are likewiſe many other ſhrubs, which have not as yet particular names aſſigned them, but go under the general denomination of liaimes or rattans; theſe twine round the trees in a ſurprizing manner, and ſecure them from the violence of the hurricanes; of the bark of theſe they make ſtrong cords, which are tougher and more ſerviceable than thoſe made of bark.

The mapou-tree, is as penetrable to a knife as a turnip, but it is of a poiſonous nature. The baſtard cinnamon-tree is large; its timber reſembles that of the walnut-tree, and its wood is much valued by cabinet makers. The iron wood and ſtinking wood trees are common, as are likewiſe the ſandal wood tree, the vacoaer ſmall palm, the latanier, the mangrove, which is a very large kind of fern, and grows in the ſand of the ſea.

The real or black ebony tree, grows very high and thick, has a bark of a dark colour; and the leaves which reſemble thoſe of myrtle, are of a deep green. The ebony trees, after being cut down, are buried under the ground for ſome time, which it is ſaid improves the jetty black. The wood, being very fine and beautiful, is uſed in various Moſaic inlaid works, and toys; the qualities are, being hard, heavy, of an admirable black, and bearing a high poliſh. The ebony of this iſland is reckoned the fineſt in the world: but ſince the Europeans have diſcovered ſo many methods of giving other hard woods a beautiful black colour, and an elegant poliſh, this wood is on that account not quite ſo much in requeſt as formerly.

Many vegetable productions, which have been brought into this iſland by order of government, tranſplanted by private perſons, or imported by the deſire of ſome of the ſettled inhabitants, have greatly increaſed. Theſe are diſtinguiſhed under four claſſes; namely, 1. The plants, which, being once ſown afterwards grow ſpontaneouſly by reſowing themſelves, and thus become naturalized. 2. Articles of cultivation. 3. The produce of the kitchen garden. 4. The produce of the flower garden.

Thoſe of the firſt claſs, conſiſt of a kind of indigo, purſlain, water-creſſes, dandelion, wormwood, mullen; the bulruſh, which is green for about five months in the year; white graſs, which was introduced firſt of all for forage, but none of the cattle will eat it, and its increaſe is now ſo great, that it may juſtly be deemed one of the plagues of huſbandry; the brette, a ſpecies of the morell, with a prickly leaf, but pleaſant of taſte, and of a purgative nature; there are two ſpecies of the brette, one of which is ſerved up at table in the manner of ſpinach, and the other is uſed as a medicine.

The caſſau root is one of the plants which are the objects of cultivation. It was tranſplanted hither from America, and grows in great plenty; it is of great ſervice in ſubſiſting the negroes, who are allowed three pounds of it daily. Maiz or Turkiſh, and mamoe, are common; as are wheat, rice, millet, fatague, a fine kind of graſs brought from Madagaſcar, and tobacco; but the latter is very indifferent. Vegetables, it has been obſerved, in general degenerate here; and that they who wiſh to have them tolerable good, are obliged to be ſupplied with freſh ſeed from the cape of Good Hope, or Europe, and experiments have been made, but without ſucceſs, to propagate ſainfoin, trefoil, hemp, flax, and hops.

The vegetables of the third claſs which are propagated and grow here, are, leeks and onions, celery, lettuce, endive, fennel, parſley, cauliflowers, cabbage, burnet, garden purſlain, ſage, aſparagus, carrots, parſneps, turneps, ſaſſafras, radiſhes, beet-roots, European potatoes very ſmall, Indian potatoes very large, ſaffron, ginger, piſtachio-nuts, chives; alſo cherville, ſorrel, garden creſſes, ſpinach, ſtrawberries, pomegranates, pine-apples, pepper, gourds, cucumbers, water melons, melons, pumpkins, artichoaks, French beans, and peas.

With reſpect to the flower gardens, attempts have been made to cultivate a variety of flowers here, but they have never ſucceeded; the only productions from Europe being the tuberoſe, lark's foot, large daiſy of China, and a ſmall ſpecies of pinks. The African exotics are the flowering ſhrub, called belle immortelle, or immortal beauty of the cape; a reed which bears a group of leaves, white in the inſide, and violet coloured without; a kind of tulip, bearing but two leaves, which always adhere to the ground. Theſe flowers are all without ſmell; and even thoſe tranſplanted from Europe, when cultivated here, loſe their agreeable fragrancy. And it has been remarked in general, that no plants bear flowers here of a pleaſant ſmell.

Among thoſe which flouriſh here, are, aloes, roſe-trees, jaſſmines, myrtles, a flower called the ſhoe-maker flower; the poincillade, a kind of bramble; jalop flowers, the vine of Madagaſcar, which is only a rattan, with which cradles are made, but it bears a yellow flower. The franchipanier, an inferior kind of jaſſmine, the Indian ilac, and the mongris, which has ſome reſemblance both to the jaſſmine and the orange tree.

Here are found ſome oak, pine, fir, cherry, apricot, medlar, apple, pear, olive, fig, and mulberry-trees; but they are in general much degenerated with reſpect to ſize, many of the fruit trees only bloſſom, and ſcarce bear any fruit, unleſs we except the peach tree, which produces ſome fruit, and the vines tranſplanted hither bear grapes, but a kind of white louſe is very deſtructive to both. The cotton tree, ſugar-cane, and coffee-tree, ſucceed tolerably well. The polehe is a tree that affords a pleaſant ſhade; and the bambou is uſeful in various domeſtic matters. The banana is very common, and the blacks are exceedingly fond of its fruit. They are treated with it in great plenty every new-year's day; and they uſually count their years of ſorrow and ſervitude by the number of banana feaſts they have regaled at. The badamier yields a kind of almond; the avacat ſerves as a ſweetmeat; the jaca tree furniſhes a large fruit, which is rather agreeable to the taſte. The gonyavo tree is a kind of medlar; and the jamroe tree reſembles a roſe tree, but bears a ſmall fruit of a ſweetiſh, but inſipid taſte.

Orange and citron trees abound here, though the fruits of each are but indifferently taſted. The cocoa-trees, however, produce nuts which are very delicious. Date, palm, ſago, &c. are found here, but in no great perfection. The tamarind tree has a beautiful head; its leaves are ſpread during the day, but cloſed at night, like moſt other leguminous plants: its pod contains a mucilage, which makes excellent lemonade. It may be remarked upon the whole, that the exotics of Africa, are beſt calculated for tranſplanting hither, as the climate of this iſland is rather too cold for Aſiatic vegetables, and too hot for thoſe of Europe.

As to the animals of the iſland of Mauritius, the only quadrupedes natural to it are monkies and rats. The monkies are of a middling ſize, of a reddiſh grey caſt, with long tails. They frequently go in droves, and pillage the houſes. When they are on the ſcout, they depute one of their number to aſcend the higheſt tree, or the point of a rock; and if any danger is apprehended, he cries out to alarm the reſt, when they all immediately decamp: this watchman has ſometimes been unfortunate enough to be ſhot by the ſailors.

This iſland has always been peſtered with great numbers of rats, inſomuch that the Dutch are ſaid to have abandoned it on that account. They are much the ſame as thoſe of Europe, from whence it is ſuppoſed they were originally brought. The havock theſe animals make here

is almoſt incredible, particularly to the corn and fruits; and we are told, that a whole field of maize has been known to be deſtroyed by them in a ſingle night.

The feathered race are not very numerous, or in great variety in this iſland. But among them is one called corbigeaux, which is reckoned the beſt game they have; but they are very difficult to catch. Parrots are tolerably plentiful, but none very handſome. There is alſo a ſpecies of the paroquets; they are about the ſize of ſparrows, and have green bodies, with grey heads. Another of their birds is called by the natives pailleneus, and by the Engliſh the tropic bird. Of theſe there are two ſorts, one of which is all white, and the other variegated, having the body white, the beak black, and the tail and claws red. They build their neſts in the woods, but are generally found near the ſea, and are ſo familiar, that they are eaſily caught. The woods abound with blackbirds, which are a kind of game greatly admired by the natives. There are alſo two kinds of pigeons, one of which, though pleaſant to the taſte, is of ſo bad a quality, that they who eat of them are thrown into ſtrong convulſions.

Great numbers of toalouroux are found near the ſea-ſide; theſe are a kind of amphibious crab that make burrows under ground, like moles; they run very faſt; and will ſnap their claws by way of defence, when attacked.

The moſt extraordinary creature here is that called bernard l'hermite; it is a kind of lobſter, whoſe hinder part is not provided with a ſhell; but it inſtinctively lodges itſelf in empty ſhells which it finds on the ſhore. They run together in great numbers, each with its houſe after it, which, as it advances in growth, it abandons for a larger one.

Inſects are extremely numerous in this iſland, the moſt deſtructive among which are the graſshoppers, which ſometimes light upon a field like a a fall of ſnow, when they eat up the verdure in the courſe of a night. Ants are equally miſchievous in houſes, where they prey upon every kind of proviſion, which it is difficult to ſecure from them. Here are likewiſe waſps, ſpiders, various kinds of flies, centipedes, and lizards. Moths, or ſmall butterflies, ſo infeſt the houſes after dark, that they are obliged to put their candles into glaſs cylinders. Theſe flies draw into the houſes a very beautiful lizard: it is about five inches long, and has bright and ſparkling eyes; it climbs along the walls, and lives upon flies and other inſects: they are not in the leaſt miſchievous; but, on the contrary, ſo tame, that if ſugar is thrown on the ground, they will immediately come and take it. But the greateſt enemy to theſe inſects is the ſpider, ſome of which have bodies as big as a nut, with large paws covered with hair. Their webs are ſo ſtrong that even ſmall birds are ſometimes caught in them. They are particularly ſerviceable in deſtroying the centipedes and waſps.

An inſect called formicaleo, proves very deſtructive to the ants here; and another, named canerelas, is equally ſo, of which there are three ſorts: the moſt common are about the ſize of a cockchafer, of a reddiſh brown: another of them is flat, and of a grey colour. They are very deſtructive to furniture and books; and the houſes are greatly annoyed with them in wet weather.

It is obſerved by a late celebrated writer, that the temperature of this climate is ſo favourable to the propagation of inſects, that in a ſhort time the fruits would be eaten up by them, and the iſland itſelf become uninhabited, were it not that moſt of the fruits of theſe meridional countries are cloathed with a thick rind, and afterwards with a ſkin, a very hard ſhell, and an aromatic bark, like the orange or citron; inſomuch that the flies can introduce their eggs into very few of them. Many of theſe noxious animals are at perpetual war with each other. The formicaleos lay ſnares for the ants; the green fly pierces the canerelas; the lizard hunts the butterfly; the ſpiders ſpread nets for every inſect that flies; and the hurricane, which rages once a year, annihilates not only a great part of the prey, but of the devourers alſo.

The animals of the quadruped kind, brought into this iſland from other countries, and which may be called domeſtic, are horſes, oxen, ſheep, and hogs. The horſes are very ſmall, and ſo dear, that a common one cannot be purchaſed for leſs than a hundred piſtoles. Here is one ſort of oxen, of the Madagaſcar breed; but they are not ſo good as thoſe from Europe, nor will the cows of that breed give half the quantity of milk. The pork is at leaſt equal in quality to that of Europe; but it will not receive the ſalt, on account of the peculiar acidity of that article. The ſheep are large and fat, but they are apt to loſe their wool.

Great numbers of wild goats, hogs, hares, and ſtags are in theſe woods. The latter are particularly numerous; and as their fleſh is exceeding good from the beginning of April to the end of Auguſt, they therefore afford a very ample ſupply of food for the natives.

Their poultry conſiſts of various kinds; but the moſt common are ducks and fowls, the former of which were brought from Manila, and the latter from Europe. They have alſo a ſmall ſpecies of fowl from China, whoſe fleſh is exceeding delicate. The wild fowl are pintatoes, Chineſe pheaſants, pigeons, and three ſorts of partridges: theſe birds, the better to ſecure themſelves from being deſtroyed by the rats, always rooſt on the tops of trees.

They have a very beautiful ſmall bird, called the titmouſe, which has a number of white ſpots on the wings. There is alſo another from Bengal, called the cardinal, ſome of the plumage is of a party coloured grey; but the head, neck, and belly, at a certain time of the year, is of a lively red.

The martin is the moſt propagating bird in this iſland, and in ſize, colour, and aptitude to talk, greatly reſembles the Engliſh ſtarling. It will perch upon, and peck at beaſts without fear; but its chief prey is the graſshopper, which it purſues with an unwearied perſeverance. They always fly in pairs, and conſtantly aſſemble at ſun ſet in very conſiderable flocks. The ſhooting of them is prohibited, though their fleſh is very indifferent eating.

In this iſland are two ſorts of birds brought from the cape, one of which is called the gardeners friend. It is of a brown colour, about the ſize of a large ſparrow, and lives upon worms, ſnails, and ſmall ſerpents, which it not only eats when preſſed by hunger, but collects an ample ſtore of, by ſticking them on the prickles of the hedges. The other cape-bird is much like the Engliſh ſky-lark, and is the only feathered inhabitant of this iſland that is heard to ſing. They were firſt brought here as curioſities; but ſome of them eſcaped to the woods; where they bred ſo faſt, that there are now great numbers of them.

Here are two ſorts of foreign fiſh; one of which is the Chineſe gold fiſh; theſe thrive equally well as in their own climate; but as they increaſe in bulk, they loſe their beauty. The other is called Gourami, and was imported from Batavia. It is a freſh water fiſh, about the ſize of a ſalmon; but the taſte of it is far ſuperior; and in India it is preferred to any other kind of fiſh.

It has been ſeveral times attempted to introduce frogs into this country, that they might eat the eggs which the muſquetoes lay on the ſtanding water; but every attempt has proved unſucceſsful, either from the difference of climate, or ſome other unknown cauſe.

Mr. Buffon takes notice of an animal of a very ſingular nature, which he calls the great Madagaſcar bat; but as it is common not only to that iſland, but to the iſlands of Bourbon and Mauritius, and there are great numbers of them in the latter, we ſhall here deſcribe it; previous to which, we obſerve, that the bats ſeen in Great Britain are inoffenſive, and, from their ſize, incapable of injuring mankind: being alſo not ſufficiently numerous to incommode them; but the race of bats here are truly formidable: a ſingle one is a dangerous enemy; but when they unite in flocks, they become really dreadful. Deſmarchais ſays, that if the inhabitants of the African coaſt were to eat animals of the bat kind, as they do in the Eaſt Indies, they would never want a ſupply of proviſions. Here are ſuch numbers of them, that when they fly they obſcure the ſetting ſun: early in the morning they are ſeen ſticking upon the tops of trees, and clinging together in great heaps. The Europeans often amuſe themſelves in ſhooting them; and the negroes are expert in killing them; but they would not eat them if they were ready to periſh with hunger, as they always regard the bat with horror.

It is about a foot long from the tip of the noſe to the inſertion of the tail; and its extent, from the tip of one wing to that of the other, is about four feet. It has large canine teeth: that is to ſay, four cutting teeth above, and four below. The noſe is black and ſharp, the ears large and naked, and the talons crooked, ſtrong, and compreſſed ſideways; but it is without a tail. Theſe animals differ in colour, ſome being of a bright red, others brown, and a third ſort of a dark, duſky colour. It reſembles the common bat in its internal formation, the ſhape of its wings, and manner of its flying. When theſe creatures repoſe, they ſtick themſelves on the tops of the talleſt trees, and hang with their heads downward; but at other times they frequently ſettle upon animals, and even upon man himſelf. They devour indiſcriminately fruits, fleſh, and inſects; and are, in particular, ſo extremely fond of the juice of the palm tree, that they will ſometimes intoxicate themſelves with it, till they drop to the ground. At night they may be heard in the foreſts, at the diſtance of more than

than two miles, with a moſt horrible din; but they uſually retire at the approach of day. Nothing is ſafe from the depredations of theſe noxious creatures: they deſtroy fowls and domeſtic animals, if they are not properly ſecured, and frequently faſten upon the inhabitants themſelves, attacking them in the face, and inflicting very terrible wounds.

The firſt mentioned author obſerves, that it is probable the antients took their idea of harpies from thoſe fierce and voracious creatures, as they both ſeem to concur in many parts of the deſcription, being equally cruel, deformed, uncleanly, and greedy. That notwithſtanding their diſagreeable nature, the Indians eat theſe animals, and ſay the fleſh is very good, eſpecially at particular times of the year, when they have more fat than uſual; and even ſome of the French here, and in the iſle of Bourbon, have brought themſelves to uſe them, in order to give a reliſh to their bouillons; but negroes, as we obſerved before, hold them in the utmoſt abhorrence, and will not touch them upon any account. Perſons have been attacked by theſe creatures, and have ſometimes paſſed from a ſound ſleep into eternity; for the bat is ſo dextrous a bleeder, as to inſinuate its ſharp pointed tongue into a vein unperceived, and to ſuck the blood till it is ſatiated, at the ſame time fanning with its wings, and agitating the air, which, in hot regions, lulls the perſon attacked by them into a ſtill ſounder ſleep. It is therefore dangerous to be in any reſpect expoſed to the incurſions of theſe noxious animals, and eſpecially to repoſe in the open air.

About the month of September, whales are often ſeen to the windward of this iſland; but they are ſmaller than in the northern ſeas; the negroes have a method of harpooning them. The vicille is a blackiſh fiſh, and their fleſh in ſome meaſure reſembles the cod fiſh, in taſte and make. Sea cows are ſometimes caught, and their fleſh taſtes much like that of beef. The fiſh caught on the windward ſide of the iſland is unwholſome.

The moſt eſteemed fiſh for eating here is a kind of turbot called the water pullet, the fat of which is green, and exceeding delicious. The hog fiſh has a head like a pike, and upon its back are ſeven points, as large as its body, the pricks of which are very venomous; a membrane, ſtreaked with brown ſtripes, and reſembling the wing of a bat, unites them. Many of the fiſh near this iſland are of a poiſonous quality, particularly the white ones, with a large belly and great head, ſuch as the captain and caranguee; and it may be obſerved reſpecting the reſt, that the ſmaller the fiſh, the greater the danger.

There is alſo a fiſh called the paroquet, from its near reſemblance to the bird of that name; they alſo, like them, go together in numbers. It is green, hath a yellow head, and a kind of white crooked beak. Their eels are of the conger kind, furniſh but bad food, and are very dangerous to thoſe who attempt to bathe in the creeks where they are found, being capable of killing any perſon they attack. They are in general eight feet in length, to the full as thick as a man's leg, and exceedingly voracious.

Lobſters, cray-fiſh, and crabs, are found in great plenty here; the two former are of a fine blue colour, marbled with black; and the latter is principally grey. One ſpecies hath the eyes in two long tubes, like teleſcopes, which, when not in uſe, are depoſited in groves along the ſide of the ſhell. Among the ſhell-fiſh, here is one of a very ſingular nature, for the uſual order ſeems to be reverſed; the animal is on the outſide of the ſhell, and the whole appearing as a ſhapeleſs maſs, ſoft and membranous; in the middle of which is a ſingle bone, or ſhell, ſmooth and arched. The tulier, an enormous fiſh of the oyſter kind, is common here; the ſhell of which is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt of any to be met with in the ocean.

Having thus given an account of the vegetables and animals, both natural and imported, and likewiſe the marine productions of this iſland, we ſhall next give a deſcription of the different inhabitants, their cuſtoms, manners, treatment of their ſlaves, &c.

The iſland of Mauritius, when firſt diſcovered, was uninhabited. The firſt French people who eſtabliſhed themſelves here, were a few huſbandmen from the iſle of Bourbon. Theſe people were ſimple in their manners, induſtrious in their callings, and hoſpitable in their behaviour. When the importance of this iſland was known, from its ſituation in the courſe from Europe to the Eaſt Indies, many perſons came to ſettle here, particularly ſeveral who were ſent by the French Eaſt India Company. Theſe, by their tyrannical and avaricious behaviour, ſoon became exceeding offenſive to the people in general; commerce employed their thoughts, but they had not the leaſt idea of humanity; they ſuppoſed they came ſo far to get money, not to do good; and, inſtead of clearing the lands for the purpoſes of agriculture, they cleared them to erect dwelling houſes and warehouſes, which they might ſell at an exorbitant price to new ſettlers. Complaints were indeed made of their arbitrary proceedings, but the complaints were too inconſiderable to obtain redreſs, and the aggreſſors too great to be puniſhed.

After this, many ſea-faring people ſettled here, who hoped to gain great advantages from the commerce carrying on between Europe and India; but neither the manners or morals were in the leaſt mended by theſe newcomers.

The French Eaſt India Company ſoon afterwards ſent a military force hither, commanded by officers whoſe families were very good, while their pockets were but low. Theſe, having more pride than money, did not chuſe to keep company with the merchants or clerks, becauſe they were ſordid; with the planters, becauſe they were mean; nor with the ſailors, becauſe they were brutiſh; ſo they aſſociated with each other; and hence remained as poor in this iſland, as they had been in Old France, from whence they ſet out.

Some time afterwards, ſome of the king's troops touched here, and ſeveral of them became ſettlers; but theſe entertained a ſovereign contempt for the troops of the company, and the reſt of the inhabitants; and this diſlike was retained and augmented, by the diſdain the other parties expreſſed towards them.

Some miſſionaries of the order of St. Lazarus, were the next ſettlers; when all the endeavours of theſe were to reign as uncontrouled over the minds, as the company's principal ſervants did over the lives and properties of the inhabitants.

Then followed a ſucceſſion of ſcheming merchants, who introduced monopolies, and all the chicanery of trade; and at length, to complete this heterogeneous mixture, the late war (which commenced in 1756) occaſioned the ſcum of Europe and Aſia to emigrate to the iſle of France; bankrupts, ruined libertines, thieves, proſtitutes, and wretches of every caſt, driven by their crimes from the former, or by the bad ſucceſs of the French arms from the latter, ſought refuge here. On the arrival of this ſet of men, the complaints, both general and particular, of the inhabitants, were increaſed; every character was traduced with an Aſiatic ingenuity, hitherto unknown to the calumniators of Europe. No woman was now looked upon as chaſte, nor any man as honeſt; all confidence and eſteem were at an end. Thus they thought to reduce all mankind to their own level, by vilifying all without diſtinction.

At length, in 1765, the French Eaſt India company yielded up to the king this iſland, but little benefit ſeems to have been derived from this change; the inhabitants appear to be neither wealthy nor happy. An ingenious French officer, who reſided there upwards of a twelvemonth, gives no favourable idea of the ſtate of ſociety in this ſecluded ſpot. "Diſcord, (ſays he) reigns all over the iſland, and has entirely extirpated that love of ſociety, which might be expected to prevail among Frenchmen baniſhed to a deſart, ſurrounded by the ſeas, and at the end of the world. Each man is diſcontented; each man wants to get a fortune, and to leave the place. To hear them talk, one would think the iſland would be once more uninhabited, every man declaring he will go away next year; and ſome of them have held this intention for thirty years paſt, yet remain to make the ſame declaration the year enſuing." European goods are dearer at the iſle of France than in India, and Indian goods dearer than in Europe.

There are but few married people in the town, but thoſe men who live upon their plantations marry: the women ſeldom go to town but to a ball, or to confeſs at Eaſter. They are moſt paſſionately fond of dancing. The women are rather pale, but well made, and in general handſome. They have naturally a good flow of wit and ſpirits, and if better educated, would be moſt agreeable companions; but many are ſo ignorant as to be unable to read. At their meetings they are reſerved and ſilent. Each woman brings with her ſome ſecret pretenſions, either from the fortune, the employ, or the birth of the huſband; others reckon upon their youth or their beauty. An European looks with diſdain upon a Creole, who as often looks upon the European as an adventurer. The women here are not celebrated for their chaſtity; but, ſays our author, they are, in my opinion, far more deſerving than the men, by whom they are neglected for the black ſlaves. Such of the women

women as are really virtuous, are highly to be commended, as it is by no means owing to their education that they are ſo. They have at once to combat with the heat of the climate, the indifference of their huſbands, and the prodigality and ardour of young officers, ſkilled in ſeduction, and regardleſs of repulſe. In other reſpects they have very many good qualities: they are domeſtic, ſober, very rarely drinking any thing but water, and neat in their apparel to an extreme. The dreſs moſt common here, is of muſlin, trimmed with roſe-coloured taffety.

They are extravagantly fond of their children, who run about the houſe naked ſoon after they are born; are never put in ſwaddling cloaths, but are frequently bathed, eat fruit as they think proper, live without care and without ſtudy, and ſoon grow ſtrong and robuſt. The puberty of both ſexes makes a very early appearance. Girls marry at eleven years of age. The children are ſuffered to exerciſe their caprices upon the poor ſlaves to a degree of tyranny beyond all bounds. So that their depravity is only equalled by their ignorance. Indeed, the principal people ſend their children very young to France for education, from whence they return with vices, perhaps more amiable, but ſtill more dangerous, than they before poſſeſſed.

On this iſland are ſcarcely four hundred planters. There are about an hundred women of condition, ten only of whom live in the town. The evening is their time of viſiting, and for want of converſation they game, or ſoon grow tired of each other. At eight o'clock the evening gun fires, and every body goes home on hearing that ſignal.

Indians, or negroes, are the black inhabitants of this iſland. The Indians are Malabars, or Malayans, who come from Pondicherry in the Eaſt Indies, in order to article themſelves as ſervants, for a certain term of years. They are almoſt all of handicraft trades; are ſober and thriſty, but laſcivious, and live in a ſuburb called the Camp of the Blacks. They are clad in long muſlin gowns, wear a turban on their heads, have gold rings in their ears, and ſilver bracelets on their wriſts. Some few, who are not fond of farming work, engage themſelves as running footmen to the principal and richeſt people. Theſe being equipped with a handſome cane, and a poniard at the girdle, affect great ſtate, and deliver the moſt trivial meſſages with ſuch air of profound reſpect, as to make a truly farcical appearance.

The negroes are brought from Madagaſcar, where a ſlave may be bought for a barrel of powder, for a few muſkets, linen, or eſpecially piaſtres. The greateſt price paid is 50 crowns (7l. 10s.) or rarely ſo much. Theſe are neither ſo black, nor ſo badly featured, as the natives of Guinea; but reſemble the Europeans in their features, and in their complexion incline to a copper colour. They are in general active, ingenious, grateful for favours, and faithful when well uſed; and have a quicker ſenſe of an injury done to any one they love, than of any perſonal inſult to themſelves. After having been purchaſed at Madagaſcar, they are landed, with only a rag about their loins, at the Iſle of France, where, being ſold, it frequently happens that huſbands, wives, brothers, ſiſters, friends, lovers, &c. are cruelly torn aſunder, and, bidding each other a long farewell, are driven in the greateſt anguiſh to the reſpective plantations for which they are bought. Some, upon theſe occaſions, have been known to become frantic and deſperate, and afterwards hang or poiſon themſelves, which is to be imputed to the terrors they conceive from the apprehenſions of the dreadful fate to which they imagine they are doomed; for it is a prevailing notion with ſome tribes of the Madagaſcar negroes, that the white people intend eating their fleſh, making red urine of their blood, and gunpowder of their bones; nor are theſe ſtrange ideas to be wondered at, when we conſider the innumerable barbarities of the whites, which have given occaſion to ſuggeſt them. They frequently ſecrete themſelves in the woods, where they are hunted by parties of ſoldiers, and by other negroes, with dogs. Some of the inhabitants form parties of pleaſure for this purpoſe, and put up a negro as they would a wild beaſt; and if they cannot hunt him down, will ſhoot him, like any wild animal; then his head is cut off, and brought in triumph to town upon a ſtick, the unexampled trophy of the moſt atrocious cruelty.

Theſe deſerters are called Maron-negroes, who, being ſheltered by immenſe foreſts, ſometimes collect into a troop of two or three hundred. When a woman in any of theſe parties, is delivered of a child, it is immediately killed, leſt their retreat ſhould be diſcovered by its cries. And when any of theſe negroes are taken without being hunted, his ſentence for the firſt offence is to be ſeverely flogged, and to loſe an ear; for the ſecond, to be ſtill more ſeverely whipped, and ham-ſtrung; but the third offence is puniſhed with death, which is executed by hanging or breaking on the wheel.

Some of theſe ſlaves have been baptized, but that hath given no encouragement to others to become Chriſtians; for thoſe who are baptized are no better uſed than thoſe who are not; as the religious ſentiments of the negroes are not ſo much attended to, as the intereſt of the planter to whom they belong.

As to the commerce of this iſland, the inhabitants of it receive moſt of their utenſils from China, their apparel from India, their ſlaves from Madagaſcar, moſt of the articles of provender which they conſume from the Cape of Good Hope, their money from Spain; their laws and governments from France; their follies from various nations both white and black; and their vices, at the head of which ſtand inhumanity and avarice, from the devil, the arch enemy of mankind.

Trade here is greatly clogged by their paper currency, which is payable in France, at ſix months after ſight, but at the beſt rate of exchange it bears thirty-three per cent. diſcount, frequently fifty per cent. Ready money in this iſland is reckoned to produce thirty-three per cent. in eighteen months.

A learned writer has obſerved concerning this iſland, that notwithſtanding the depravity of its inhabitants and the inconvenience of the climate, it is of the utmoſt political conſequence, and is at preſent one of the fineſt, as it always was one of the moſt important and improveable ſpots upon the globe. Admiral Boſcawen in 1748, with ſix line of battle ſhips, made an hoſtile viſit to it; but found it to be ſo well defended both by nature and art, that he did not venture to attack it; and no attempt has been ſince made to wreſt from the French this valuable ſettlement, which renders the Britiſh poſſeſſions in Aſia inſecure.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of the Iſle of BOURBON and the COMORA Iſlands.

THE iſland of Bourbon, which lies in twenty-one degrees ſouth latitude, and fifty-four degrees eaſt longitude, was firſt diſcovered in 1545, by a Portugueſe, named Maſcarenhas, who called it by his own name; however, he made no ſettlement. It ſoon after became a place of refuge for pirates, who cohabited with negro women from Madagaſcar. They fixed here about the year 1657. The French India company had a factory and a governor. The pirates gradually decreaſed in number whilſt the French were augmented by the frequent arrival of their countrymen from Madagaſcar. The laſt of theſe pirates, whoſe name was Adam, died at the age of an hundred and four years.

At a diſtance the iſland appears like a part of a ſphere, with very high mountains, the land of which is cultivated to the height of eight hundred toiſes. Here are three inacceſſible pikes, which are reckoned one thouſand ſix hundred perpendicular toiſes to the ſummit. The whole iſland is ſixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It is only forty leagues to the leeward of the iſle of France, and a veſſel can go from thence to Bourbon in a day, but a month is frequently ſpent in returning. In this iſland is a volcano.

The principal place in Bourbon, is St. Dennis, the reſidence of the governor and council. As the ſhore here is very ſteep, and the ſea rolls with a great ſurf, ſo that no veſſel can come to the land, a draw-bridge has been contrived for unloading of ſhips, which projects more than fourſcore feet over the ſea, and is ſuſtained by iron chains. At the end of this bridge is fixed a rope ladder, which thoſe who would land muſt climb. This is the only place in the whole iſland where any one can land without firſt jumping into the ſea.

St. Paul, another town on the iſland, is ſituated on the ſide of a great lake of freſh water, of which a port probably might be made. When the wind blows into the bay of St. Paul, there is no getting out of it; and if a veſſel ſhould run aſhore, ſhe muſt infallibly be loſt, the ſea breaking upon a very high ſand. The want of a harbour is an inconvenience which admits of no remedy, and greatly leſſens the value and importance of this fruitful and healthy ſpot.

Sixty thouſand blacks are reckoned to live in Bourbon, and five thouſand white inhabitants. It is thrice as populous as the iſland of France, on which it depends for its export traffic. It is alſo much better cultivated, having produced twenty thouſand quintals of corn, and as much coffee, beſides rice and other proviſions for home conſumption. Herds of oxen are not ſcarce here. The French king pays fifteen livres per cent. for corn (thirteen ſhillings ſterling) and the inhabitants ſell a quintal of coffee for forty-five livres (one pound nineteen ſhillings ſterling) in piaſtres, and ſeventy livres in paper.

This iſland abounds in all kinds of refreſhments, and the air is particularly excellent. The French Eaſt India ſhips touch here to take in water and proviſions; for the roads are good for ſhipping, but there is no harbour in the whole iſland. Here is plenty of good wood and water, and the face of the country is beautifully diverſified with hills and dales, paſtures and woods, and watered by excellent ſprings and rivulets. In one of the mountains there is a ſmall volcano, which diſcharges fire, and fills the neighbourhood with a bituminous matter; and the flames are perceivable, in the night time, at twenty-five leagues diſtance.

The ſoil of Bourbon is more ſandy than that of the Mauritius; and is mixed, at ſome diſtance from land, with the ſame kind of ſmall pebbles with which the ſea is covered; from which it appears, that either the iſland has riſen out of the ocean, or the ſea has withdrawn itſelf. Some of the trees here are fit for building veſſels. The ſhrub that bears coffee, the tamariſk, the cocoa tree, the tree from whence benzoin diſtils, the cotton, aloe, and ebony tree are produced here. The black ebony is leſs eſteemed than the yellow; and the wild coffee which is very plentiful, is exceeding good. Many of the trees and plants produce odoriferous gums; and here are plenty of oranges, lemons, tobacco, palms, white pepper, &c. This iſland likewiſe abounds with black cattle, hogs, goats and boars, the fleſh of which is admirable, on account of their feeding on tortoiſes; many kinds of fowls, pigeons, turtle-doves, parrots, &c. The ſurrounding ſeas and interſecting rivers, rivulets, &c. ſupply the inhabitants with abundance of fiſh; and on the ſhore are found great quantities of ambergris, corals, and beautiful ſhells. Here are no crocodiles, ſnakes, muſketoes, or any of thoſe vermin, or other venomous creatures, which in moſt other parts of the torrid zone are ſo exceedingly troubleſome.

The beſt animal found here, whether for taſte or wholſomeneſs, is the land tortoiſe; and the moſt agreeable fruit is the anana. The tortoiſe is of the ſame figure with thoſe of Europe, but of a very different ſize. They ſay it lives a prodigious number of years, that ſeveral ages are required to bring it to its full growth, and that it can live ſeveral months without food. They have kept ſome young ones in the iſland, which have increaſed only a few inches in bulk at the end of twenty years.

The anana is a fruit of an oblong form, and of the bigneſs of a melon; it is covered with ſhort leaves, diſpoſed very much in the ſame manner as the diviſions of a pine apple, and it is crowned with a tuft of leaves ſomething longer; it grows on a plant reſembling an artichoak, and has the taſte of ſeveral fruits, but that of a quince more than any other.

There is in this iſland a very ſingular kind of bat, which one might call the flying fox, ſince it very much reſembles this animal in ſize, hair, head, ears, and even teeth. The female hath two teats, and, under each wing, a bag to carry her young in. The length of the wings is about four feet from one extremity to the other. The fleſh of them is ſo delicious to the taſte, that the people go a hunting for them with the ſame eagerneſs as we ſhoot for partridges in Europe.

Of late years, vines have been ſucceſsfully planted here, and now conſiderable quantities of different wines are annually produced; but the greateſt inconveniences here ariſe from the terrible hurricanes and ſtorms, which are not only exceeding violent, but very frequent; hence ſhipwrecks are common, and the moſt horrid devaſtations become familiar to the eye.

A French writer obſerves, that though this iſland is in many reſpects agreeable, it does not come near to the beauty of the coaſts of Java and Sumatra; plains, which are covered with orange, cocoa, and other fruit trees, with a number of rivulets that water them, hills adorned with delightful groves, foreſts for evergreen, and the moſt charming and ſplendid towns and villages.

With reſpect to the original inhabitants of this iſland, we are told by a French officer, who viſited both this and the iſle of France, that the manners of the firſt inhabitants of the iſle of Bourbon were very ſimple; the greater number of the houſes were not made to ſhut; a lock, was a curioſity. Some people even put their money in a tortoiſe ſhell over their door. They dreſſed in blue cloth, went barefooted, and lived upon rice and coffee; they imported but little from Europe: content to live without luxury, they conſequently lived without want. They joined to this moderation the virtues that ever attend it; good faith in commerce, and generoſity in their proceedings. As ſoon as a ſtranger appeared, the inhabitants came to him, invited him to their houſes, and entertained him with the moſt generous hoſpitality. The ſame writer obſerves, that the laſt war in the Indies made an alteration in their manners. In this war the volunteers of Bourbon diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their bravery; but the ſtuffs of Aſia, and the military diſtinctions of France, thereby got footing in the iſland. The children, richer than their parents, required to be treated with greater reſpect. The attention of the fathers being chiefly fixed upon their ſons, they ſend them to France, from whence they ſeldom return: hence it is that in this iſland there are more than five hundred marriageable girls, who are likely to die without huſbands. They have now no enjoyment of an unnoticed good fortune, but ſeek in Europe pleaſures and honours, in exchange for domeſtic happineſs, and the quiet and ſimplicity of a country life.

The Comora iſlands are five in number, the largeſt of which gives name to the whole; the other four are diſtinguiſhed by the names of Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazeja, and Johanna. Theſe iſlands lie oppoſite the ſhore of Zanguebar, and north of the great iſland of Madagaſcar, and in twelve degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude.

Comora is the moſt northerly of theſe iſlands; and though the moſt conſiderable in point of ſize, is in all other reſpects the moſt inſignificant, for it has no ſafe harbour for ſhips; and the natives are ſo untractable and uncivilized, that no Europeans have ventured to ſtop here for a conſiderable time. For this perhaps they have a ſufficient reaſon, as it was too common for the Portugueſe, eſpecially at their firſt landing here, to take advantage of the ſimplicity of the inhabitants unacquainted with arms, and incapable of defence, for they not only robbed them of their property, and committed the moſt dreadful outrages, but alſo made them captives, and frequently diveſted them of every earthly enjoyment, by forcing them on board their ſhips, and then ſelling them for ſlaves. This may have given them a traditional averſion to ſtrangers in general, and particularly to Europeans; and it is not improbable, that the revenge they might take on the next who viſited them, without diſtinguiſhing the innocent from the guilty, may have gained them the inhoſpitable character which they ſtill retain, and have occaſioned them to look with abhorrence on thoſe who had proved themſelves ſtrangers to the common dictates of humanity.

Mayotta, is ſaid to be rather low, but to abound with proviſions and fruit. The French commodore Beaulieu, in the narrative of his expedition to the Eaſt Indies, informs us, that it is cool, moiſt, covered with verdure, and inhabited all along the ſea ſhore. "The tide (ſays he) carried us weſtward all along the coaſt, to a point where we came in ſight of a ſhip; upon which I ſent out our long-boat with ten muſqueteers, who brought me word, that it was a veſſel of forty tons bound for Mecca, and that the captain taking us for Dutch ſhips, had run all the goods on ſhore. The captain of this veſſel ſhewed me two letters, one from an Engliſh commander called Martin, and another from captain Banner, to inform their countrymen, that they had taken in refreſhments at that place; eſpecially fruit; that they had found no water; and that linen cloth and paper were proper commodities for that place; adding that care ought to be taken, not to diſoblige the inhabitants, who, though they appeared friendly, were able to do them a great deal of miſchief.

"The road being ſurrounded with rocks, the Arabian maſter adviſed me not to attempt landing without fetching a pilot from the ſhore, and accordingly I ſent my boat along with him, and in the afternoon he returned with two of the inhabitants, who, before ſun-ſet brought our ſhip ſafe to an anchor. I then ſent the Arabian maſter back to his own ſhip, with full aſſurances of the innocence of our deſigns, and the friendly diſpoſition of the French, together with a letter to the ſame purpoſe, to the king of the iſland, addreſſed in Spaniſh.

"The king afterwards ſent ſome of his chief favourites to aſſure us of his friendſhip, and readineſs to ſupply with whatever the country afforded. Upon this, I ſent him

him a preſent of a ſilver hilted hanger, a couple of very handſome knives, a ream of paper, and a looking-glaſs, which he received with pleaſure; and, in return, ſent me a young kid and ſome fruit. I at the ſame time deſired the Arabian captain, who was then on ſhore, to buy me ſome proviſions, promiſing to ſend ſuch commodities as were proper to be given in exchange. Upon this, the captain ſent me word, that the inhabitants of the iſland were of ſuch a particular humour, that they would not conclude a bargain of the value of half a rial in a day's time; and would not buy a yard of cloth, without calling together all their neighbours and relations to fix the price they ſhould give for it. I was alſo informed, that the inhabitants were ſo overſtocked with rials, that they ſet no value on them, having obtained a great quantity from a Portugueſe carrack which had been caſt away upon that iſland about three years before.

"Having, on the next day, obſerved two ſhips belonging to that country, I had the captains brought on board, when they informed me, that they came from the iſland of Mayotta, that they were laden with rice and dried fiſh, and were bound for Monbaze. The next day they ſupplied me with as much rice, peaſe, and hung-beef, as would ſerve us for ſome months; of which I was very glad, as I could buy nothing of the inhabitants without infinite loſs of time. Beſides, I began to ſuſpect their honeſty; for the day before, when we were ſounding, in order to come to an anchor, ſome of them made a ſignal for us to come over a place where we obſerved a long ridge of rocks; whence I preſumed, the advantage they had made by the ſhipwreck of the Portugueſe carrack, had tempted them to wiſh us the ſame fate; and as I alſo found the water brackiſh, we left the place, and purſued our voyage."

Angazeja is inhabited by Moors, who trade with different parts of the continent, and moſt of the iſlands to the eaſtward, in cattle, fruits, and the other commodities of the iſland, exchanging them for callicoes and other cotton cloths. The bread uſed in this iſland is of the kernel of the cocoa-nut, boiled or broiled, and ſpread over with honey: their drink is palm wine, a juice extracted from the ſugar cane, and ſuffered to ferment, or the milk of the cocoa-nut.

They never let their women be ſeen by ſtrangers, without permiſſion from one of the chiefs, or an order to ſee them, which the ſtranger brings with him. Many of them write and read Arabic with great facility; and ſome of them underſtand the Portugueſe, which they learn from their intercourſe with Mozambique, whither they trade in veſſels of forty tons burden. The houſes are built of ſtone, and lime made of calcined oyſter ſhells, with which the walls and roofs are plaſtered in a very elegant manner, and the roofs and windows are covered with palm leaves, which ſerve as a defence againſt rain, and the ſcorching heat of the ſun. The conſtitution of this iſland is purely ariſtocratical, being under the government of the lords.

Mohilla, is an iſland very ſeldom viſited, not only from the diſlike the inhabitants have to ſtrangers, but alſo from there not being any convenient place for the reception of ſhips. It is under the direction of a ſultan, whoſe children, whether male or female, ſhare in his authority, and govern in quality of viceroys in different parts of the iſland. All, however, bear the title of ſultans, though they are, in ſome reſpects, ſubordinate to the authority of the father: each has his guards, his crown, ſceptre, and all the enſigns and pageantry of majeſty, together with a brilliant court and numerous houſhold. The ſultan never goes abroad without being attended by twenty of the principal perſons in the iſland; upon which occaſion, his dreſs is a long robe of ſtriped callico, hanging from his ſhoulders to his heels, with a turban on his head. The people in general wear looſe callico gowns, and are continually chewing areka, or betel, in the manner of the Eaſt-Indians, to whom they have a near affinity in their cuſtoms.

Johanna, as we hinted above, is the moſt frequented, and beſt known to Europeans, of all the Comora iſlands, on account of the ſafety of its road, and the civil diſpoſition of its inhabitants; which, together with the fineneſs of the country, have induced the ſhips from Europe to touch here for refreſhments in their paſſage to Bombay and the Malabar coaſts of India. This iſland lies in twelve degrees twenty minutes ſouth latitude, is thirty miles long, fifteen broad, and about ninety in circumference. Though ſome parts of it are exceeding mountainous, yet it is in general a very beautiful and fertile ſpot. The ſoil is naturally very good; and, from its being well watered by rivers, produces abundance of the chief neceſſaries of life.

When ſhips approach this iſland, they anchor in the road on the weſt ſide of it, where the hills, covered with evergreens, ending in a delightful valley, form the moſt pleaſing landſcape that the imagination can paint. The ſailors uſually pitch a tent on ſhore for the reception of the ſick, when, ſuch is the excellence of the climate, that thoſe ever ſo much diſabled with that dreadful diſorder the ſcurvy, generally recover their health with ſurpriſing ſpeed; which is probably as much owing to the ſalubrious influence of the earth, as to the variety of excellent refreſhments with which the country abounds. Nevertheleſs the common ſailors, who arrive hither in health, are ſometimes in danger by their intemperance in eating the delicious fruits the iſland affords, of laying the foundation of diſtempers which break out when they go again to ſea. It has alſo been ſaid, that lying aſhore is prejudicial to them, on account of the moiſt vapours diffuſed from the neighbouring hills; but it is probable that their not being ſufficiently ſcreened from the keenneſs of the night air, and the damps which ariſe from the earth, expoſe them to the greateſt danger.

The ingenious Mr. Groſe, and another Engliſh gentleman, by their account of a walk taken by them on this iſland the day after their arrival, have given us an opportunity of conveying to our readers a deſcription of its beauties and natural productions; which we ſhall ſet down in their own words: "As we ſet out pretty early in the morning, ſays the writer, we made ſhift to penetrate about five miles into the country before the ſun began to be any ways troubleſome; and this was no ſmall ſtretch, conſidering the mountainous way we had to go. We had fowling pieces with us, and the view of excellent ſport in ſhooting, could we have reached the place where we perceived the game to lay; but we could not conquer the aſcent of the hills, though we endeavoured to ſcamble up them on our hands and knees: we were obliged, therefore, to reſt ſatisfied with what ſmall birds preſented themſelves in the vallies and hills that were paſſable. We made our breakfaſt on pine-apples, and the milk of cocoa-nuts, which ſerved to quench our thirſt. About noon, coming to a beautiful piece of water, we ſeated ourſelves in the ſhade by the banks of it, to make a ſecond meal, as well as to enjoy the tinkling of ſeveral little ſprings and natural caſcades that fell from the rocks, and, according to their diſtance, ſeemed to ſound a gradation of notes, ſo as to form a kind of agreeable water muſic.

"The orange and lime-trees, which ſtood in great number about that ſpot of ground, bending under the weight of their fruit, diffuſed a moſt fragrant odour. There were alſo pine-apples which grew wild, of eleven and thirteen inches in circumference, of a much richer flavour than thoſe I afterwards met with in India. Our guides too made us diſtinguiſh a number of goyava, and eſpecially plumb-trees, the ſize of whoſe fruit is about that of a damaſcene, and leaves a pleaſant reliſh on the palate for ſome minutes after it is eaten. All theſe growing promiſcuouſly, and without the leaſt arrangement or order, combined with the falls of water, and the ſtupendous height of the ſurrounding hills, covered with trees and verdure, and in their various breaks and projections exhibiting the boldeſt ſtrokes of nature, altogether compoſed what might without exaggeration, be called a terreſtrial paradiſe, compared to which the fineſt gardens in Europe, with their ſtatues, artificial caſcades, compartments, and all the refinements of human invention would appear poor indeed! here it was impoſſible for art to add any thing, but what would rather ſpoil than adorn the ſcenery.

"It was not then without regret that we quitted ſo charming a ſpot, after having feaſted our eyes with the beauties of it; to which it may be mentioned, as no inconſiderable addition, that there was no fear of wild beaſts or venomous creatures mixed with our pleaſure, the iſland being ſo happy as to produce none. We returned then to our tent, well paid for the ſlight fatigue we had undergone in this little excurſion."

They have, beſides the fruit already mentioned, and many others common in the Indies, particularly a remarkable ſort of ſweet oranges of a ſmall ſize, not exceeding that of a common apricot, but filled with a juice that has a much more delicious flavour than the larger ſort generally imported here from Portugal, under the name of China oranges; and their being gathered ripe and freſh from the tree, renders their taſte more agreeable.

A great number of monkeys of different kinds and ſizes are in the woods; and alſo a beaſt about the bigneſs of a common monkey, with a head nearly reſembling that of a fox; it has a lively piercing eye, its coat is woolly, and generally of a mouſe colour; and its tail, which is about

three feet long, is variegated with circles of black, within an inch of each other, quite to the end; the natives call it a mocawk, and when taken young it ſoon grows exceeding tame: the country alſo abounds with ſquirrels, which are generally large and ſhy; but neither of an agreeable colour or well ſhaped.

The principal cattle in this iſland are oxen, which are very numerous, and of a middling ſize; like thoſe in the Eaſt Indies, they are remarkable for differing from ours in having a large fleſhy excreſcence between their neck and back, which, when kept in pickle for ſome time, is generally preferred either to tongue or udder, it taſting like firm marrow; and their fleſh is extremely ſweet.

Fowls are here extremely good and fat; but our author obſerves, that he had no opportunity of taſting their game, of which they are ſaid to have great variety; for as the natives are very indifferent ſportſmen, either with net or gun, very few of them are caught.

The ſea abounds with fiſh of different ſorts, which they are very expert at catching. Among the reſt, they have a particular ſpecies called the parrot-fiſh, which is beautified with the livelieſt colours that can be imagined; it is about three feet and a half in length, and thick in proportion; it takes its name from the form of its mouth, which is hooked like the bill of a parrot; the fins are blue, as are alſo the eyes, which are very ſprightly, and have a yellow iris; the ſcales are very large, and there are two rows of ſtrong teeth in the mouth, with which it breakes open muſcles and oyſters. The fleſh of this fiſh is very firm, and is eſteemed delicious eating. They have likewiſe ſome flat fiſh that nearly reſemble the turbot; and alſo thornbacks, mullets, and ſeveral other ſorts.

The inhabitants of this iſland are in general tall of ſtature, ſtrong, and well proportioned; they have piercing eyes, long black hair, lips ſomewhat thick, and their complexions in general are of a colour between olive and black; but their women are rather more clumſily made than the other ſex.

The dreſs of the common people is only a ſkull-cap of any ſort of ſtuff, and a coarſe wrapper round their loins; but thoſe of ſuperior rank have a kind of wide-ſleeved ſhirt hanging over a pair of long drawers, and a waiſtcoat, which is either thick or thin, according to the ſeaſon; few wear turbans, except thoſe of high rank: theſe are alſo uſually diſtinguiſhed by the nails of their fingers and toes, which they ſuffer to grow to an immoderate length, and tinge them with alihenna, a yellowiſh red, furniſhed by a ſhrub that grows in the marſhy places of the iſland. They uſually carry large knives, or poniards, which are ſtuck in a ſaſh they wear round their waiſts, ſome of them have ſilver or agate handles, but they have commonly carved wooden ones.

The women wear a ſhort jacket and petticoat, with a ſort of looſe gown, and a vail to cover their faces. They uſually adorn their arms and wriſts with a number of bracelets made of ſilver, pewter, copper, iron, and glaſs, according to their rank and circumſtances. Their fingers and toes, and the ſmall of their legs, are likewiſe decked with chains and rings. Their ears are ſtuck ſo full of mock jewels, and ornaments of metal, that the lobes are in particular greatly dilated and weighed down, which, from their infancy, they are taught to conſider as a ſingular embelliſhment.

Children of both ſexes are ſuffered to go ſtark naked from the time of their birth till they are ſeven or eight years old; which proceeds leſs from any conſideration of the heat of the climate, than from phyſical reaſons; for they imagine that infants are more apt to be hurt by heat than by cold, and that the free acceſs of the air to every part of the body is nutritious and more favourable to their growth, than their being heated by ſwathing and cloaths, which deprive them of a hardineſs conducive to health; and in caſe of any diſpoſition to deformity, obſtruct the free courſe of nature which ſtrives to free itſelf from any imperfections. By this means they are alſo preſerved from the galling and chafing of cloaths, which frequently occaſion ſuch crying and ſtrainings as terminate in ruptures, if not carefully attended to.

The ſoil of this iſland is ſo naturally fertile, as to produce every thing they covet for food; ſo their conſtitutional indolence keeps them ſatisfied, without any attempts to improve it by tillage or cultivation. They chiefly ſubſiſt on milk and vegetables, both which they poſſeſs in great plenty and perfection. Inſtead of oil and vinegar to their ſallads, which are of the lettuce kind, they uſe a liquid which has ſome reſemblance to our treacle, and is a preparation of the juice yielded from the cocoa-nut tree, by inciſion.

Theſe people ſpeak a corrupt Arabic, mixed with the Zanguebar tongue of the oppoſite part of the continent, from whence the Comora iſlands were probably firſt peopled: but thoſe of the faireſt complexion, who are generally of the beſt rank, or at leaſt the moſt eſteemed amongſt them, derive their colour partly from the Arab mixture, and partly from their communication with Europeans, which was formerly much more common than it has been of late years.

In their manners, they ſtill retain much of the ſimplicity of uncultivated nature. The mildneſs of the climate renders them indolent, and prone to venery. They frequently make uſe of the liberty granted them by their religion, which is that of Mahometaniſm, of divorcing their wives upon ſlight pretences, for the ſake of novelty; they have uſually two or three of them, and may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Though they are forward to beg whatever they like, they are far from being thieviſh. They treat the Engliſh in a very friendly manner, not merely from a principle of intereſt and convenience, though this has doubtleſs ſome influence, but alſo from a ſenſe of gratitude, for the effectual aſſiſtance they formerly received from them in their wars with the Mohillans, and from their being aſſured, by frequent intercourſe with them, that they have no intention to invade their country or liberty, of which they retain a ſtrong jealouſy againſt the Portugueſe and other European nations; but chiefly place their ſafety in the inacceſſibility of their mountains, which nature has formed as an impenetrable barrier and defence of the inland country againſt invaders.

The lower ſort of people have huts, ſomewhat reſembling our barns, the ſides being formed of reeds tied together, and plaſtered over with a mixture of clay and cow-dung; and the roofs are thatched with cocoa-leaves. That man who has a houſe erected with ſtone and mud, is accounted very great.

With reſpect to the town, or more properly the village of Johanna, it is compoſed of about two hundred houſes and huts together. Thoſe houſes, which are of ſtone, belong to the chief, who is honoured with the title of king of Johanna, and to the principal men of the country. Their hut buildings are very low, and only of one ſtory high. The houſe in which the king reſides, is built, like the reſt, of ſtone and mud, and does not appear much better than a common alms-houſe, it being wretchedly furniſhed, and aukwardly hung with pieces of coarſe chintz, with here and there a ſmall looking-glaſs. The people here ſuffer ſtrangers to come familiarly into their firſt apartment, but ſet apart all the others for the uſe of their families.

Notwithſtanding the above-mentioned inferiority in point of ſtate and grandeur, in compariſon of what is ſeen in more extenſive and civilized kingdoms, yet the title of king is juſtly given to the chief of this iſland, he having all the eſſentials of royalty, and unlimited power over his ſubjects, both in temporals and ſpirituals, together with ſeventy-three villages, and near 30,000 inhabitants under his dominion. He reſides, for the moſt part, about nine miles up in the country, ſeldom coming down to what they call the lower Town, by the ſea-ſide, except when the European ſhips are lying there, at which times a very numerous retinue accompanies him.

The king generally goes on board the veſſels which arrive on the coaſt, when he expreſſes a great deſire of learning the name of every thing that is new to him; and as he has obtained a tolerable ſmattering of the Engliſh tongue, he is very inquiſitive in relation to our wars in Europe, and is particularly pleaſed with the civility of the Engliſh captains, who regale him in the beſt manner they can, after the European faſhion, and ſalute him, both on his arrival and departure, with a diſcharge of five guns. This is a ceremony he is exceedingly fond of, as it is a mark of reſpect that gives him an air of importance, and tends to increaſe, or at leaſt preſerve the eſteem of his ſubjects. His attendants, however, are far from ſtanding ſo much upon ceremony as their ſovereign, and have a forward way of begging any thing they fancy, and if they are refuſed, ſeem greatly diſſatisfied.

On the arrival of any ſhip, the captain is obliged to obtain a licenſe from the prince, for dealing with the natives, eſpecially for the more conſiderable articles of refreſhment, ſuch as oxen and goats; and alſo for wooding, watering, and landing the men. But this permiſſion is purchaſed

purchaſed at a reaſonable expence, conſiſting of a few preſents, as a little gun-powder, a few muſkets, ſome yards of ſcarlet cloth, or other trifling articles of the manufacture of Europe.

When a ſhip caſts anchor in the road, it is preſently ſurrounded by a number of canoes, the people hurrying aboard with refreſhments of the produce of the iſlands; and it is diverting enough to obſerve the confuſion and ſtrife among the rowers, all of whom exert their utmoſt endeavour to get firſt to their market the ſhip. When the ſea runs high, they are ſometimes overſet, but this is attended with no danger, on account of their being excellent ſwimmers, and therefore they only loſe their little cargoes of greens and fruit.

Moſt of their canoes are balanced on each ſide without leaguers, formed of two poles each, with one acroſs to prevent their overſetting, which has ſome reſemblance to the flying proas we have before deſcribed, and which are uſed in the Eaſt Indies. They uſe paddles inſtead of oars; and both ends of theſe veſſels are formed for cutting the water, without any diſtinction of head and ſtern, and conſequently they can ſail backwards and forwards without tacking about. Their large boats, called panguays, are raiſed ſome feet above the ſides with reeds, and branches of trees, well bound together with ſmall cord, and afterwards made water-proof with a kind of bitumen or reſinous ſubſtance. The maſt (for few of them have more than one) carries a ſail or two, made either of the leaves of a cocoa-tree, or of ſheer-graſs matted together; and in theſe boats they will venture out at ſea for the ſpace of three or four weeks, and ſometimes a longer time.

It was common for the natives, ſome years ago, when they came off to the ſhips with cocoa-nuts, plantains, fowls, &c. to deal entirely by way of barter, for handkerchiefs, rags, glaſs bottles, bits of iron, and almoſt every article, without regard to money; but they now begin to know its value, and will part with only the moſt inconſiderable articles in the former manner; for if we want to purchaſe cattle, fowls, or cowries, they deſire to be paid either in ſpecie, fire-arms, or gun-powder. They have likewiſe fallen upon a method of ſoliciting thoſe who come thither, particularly all paſſengers, to contribute a dollar or two towards improving their navigation, which they carry on with the African continent; and, by way of perſuaſive examples, produce ſeveral liſts of perſons who have ſubſcribed for that purpoſe; ſo that they ſometimes collect thirty or forty dollars a ſhip from thoſe who touch here; and they generally make it a point for the captains to ſign, and leave with them, a certificate of good uſage, when they quit the place.

Before we conclude this ſection, we ſhall, for the entertainment of our readers, give an account of the manner in which the iſland of Johanna became ſubject to the preſent race of kings, which we have been favoured with by Mr. Groſe, who was a conſiderable time in this iſland, and to whom we are indebted for many curious particulars relating to it.

"The grandfather of the preſent king, ſays our author, was an Arab, or Mooriſh trader to Moſambique, where, in a quarrel with a Portugueſe, with whom he was dealing for ſlaves, he killed him, and being obliged inſtantly to fly, put to ſea in the firſt boat he could ſeize on the ſhore, when the firſt land he made was Johanna, where, meeting with an hoſpitable reception, he remained ſome years in obſcurity, till an Arabian veſſel being driven in there by ſtreſs of weather, he made himſelf known to his countrymen, and procured them all the relief the place afforded. In the mean while he had perfectly learned the language, was become acquainted with the manners of the inhabitants, and was ſo pleaſed with the fertility and pleaſantneſs of the country, that he not only laid aſide all thoughts of leaving it, but formed a ſcheme to raiſe himſelf to the ſovereignty of it, in which he was greatly countenanced and aſſiſted by the Arabs, his countrymen, who, from the advantages they hoped to derive from the event, came readily into his views.

"In the proſecution of his plan, he did not proceed to any violent methods, but made himſelf neceſſary to the natives by inſtructing them in the uſe of arms, before unknown to them, particularly the lance, which thoſe of any diſtinction amongſt them now handle with great dexterity. This, with his teaching them other methods of war, which theſe ſimple ſavages were before ignorant of, proved of ſingular advantage to them, by enabling them to repulſe the inhabitants of the neighbouring iſlands, eſpecially thoſe of Mohilla, with whom they were conſtantly at variance, ſometimes invading, and at others being invaded by them. This acquired him ſuch reſpect and authority, that, ſoon availing himſelf of it, he cauſed himſelf to be elected their chief, or king, and to be inveſted with deſpotic power. In obtaining this point, he proceeded by degrees, and made uſe of all his art; but he had no ſooner gained the ſummit of his ambition, than he gave them reaſon to repent of their credulity and confidence; for having not only ſtrengthened himſelf by calling in ſome of his countrymen, with their families, but chuſing for his guards the moſt bold and enterpriſing of the natives, he was ſoon in a condition to eſtabliſh an arbitary government. Such as endeavoured to oppoſe him in his pretenſions and innovations, he forced from their families, and ſold for ſlaves to the Arabs; who, on this alteration, reſorted more than ever to the iſland, for the ſake of trade, which they ſtill continue. In ſhort, he ſucceeded ſo entirely, as to ſurmount all oppoſition, and to bequeath the peaceable ſovereignty to his ſon, who was about forty-three years of age at the death of his father, when he obtained the peaceable poſſeſſion of the kingdom, which he alſo enjoyed during his life, and leaving two ſons at his death, the eldeſt of whom was king of the iſland in the year 1756."

SECT. III.

Of the Iſland of MADAGASCAR, its Name, Situation, and Extent; the Face of the Country; alſo its Provinces, principal Rivers, and the Natural Hiſtory of the Iſland; together with a Deſcription of the Perſons, Manners, Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Marriages, Funerals, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THIS iſland, which is the moſt extenſive of any in Africa, and one of the largeſt in the univerſe, is called by the natives Madacaſc: but the Portugueſe, who firſt diſcovered it, gave it the name of St. Laurence; the French call it l'Iſle Dauphin, or the Dauphin's iſland; and the Nubian geographers, Perſians, and Arabs, call it Serandib. It is ſituated between the twelfth and twenty-ſixth degrees of ſouth latitude, and between the forty-fourth and fifty-firſt degrees of eaſt longitude from London, about forty leagues to the eaſt of the continent of Africa, it being about a thouſand miles in length from north to ſouth, and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. Its ſouthernmoſt end, which leans towards the Cape of Good Hope, is the broadeſt; for towards the north it grows much narrower, and terminates in a point.

At a diſtance from the ſea are many high and ſteep mountains, yet it abounds in ſpacious plains that have excellent paſture, and has ſeveral large foreſts always green, in which lemons, pomegranates, and a variety of other fruits grow wild.

Madagaſcar is interſected and its coaſts divided by rivers which have their ſource in the inland parts, and diſcharge themſelves into the ſea. The bays and gulphs are innumerable, and in general abound with good roads and harbours, ſo that the iſland might be rendered extremely beneficial. The French always claim the honour of having firſt diſcovered the maritime countries between the bay of Antongil and the bay of St. Auguſtine, although the Portugueſe, in all their voyages to the Eaſt-Indies, have conſtantly, ſince the year 1506, anchored in this iſland, and improved their diſcoveries; and the Dutch have followed the example of the Portugueze; and it muſt be allowed, that the French have penetrated farther into the country than either of the two former.

Modern geographers divide this iſland into twenty-eight provinces, or countries, which form ſo many diſtinct people and governments; namely, 1. Anoſſi, or Carcauſſi. 2. Manatengha, or Manampam. 3. The valley of Amboule. 4. Vohitſbang. 5. Itomampo. 6. Icondre. 7. Vatemanahon. 8. Anachimouſſi. 9. Eringdrane. 10. Vohits-Anghombe. 11. Manacarongha. 12. Matatan. 13. Antavaree. 14. Ghallemboulow. 15. Tanletari. 16. Sahaveh. 17. Voulovilou. 18. Andovouche. 19. Manghabei. 20. Adeimou. 21. Mandrerei. 22. Ampatre. 23. Caramboule. 24. Mahaſalle. 25. Houlouve. 26. Sivah. 27. Ivorodhcoe. 28. Machicore.

There are a great number of rivers in this iſland, the principal of which are, Franchere, Aconere, Imanhal, Manambatou, Manhaſio, Harangazavac, Fantac, Samau, in the province of Anoſſi.

Manampani, in the province of Manatengha.

Manatengha, Aviboul, Andraghinta, Sandravivangna, Manambondreu, Maſſianac, Mananghare, in the province of Vohitſbang.

Itomampo, Iongainon, Maropie, Mangharae: theſe run through

through the provinces of Itomampo, Icondre, Vatemanaon, Caramboule, and Anachimouſſi.

Mananghare, waters the provinces of Manacarongha and Matatan.

Avibabe and Sacavil, water the provinces of Antavaree and Anachimouſſi.

Mananghorou, Mananſatra, Morimbo, Sumiame, Mananghare, run along the coaſt from Tametavi to the bay of Antogil.

Mandrerei, waters the provinces of Ampatre, Manghabei, and Caramboule.

Ionghelahe, waters the provinces of Mahafalle, Houlouve, Sivah, and Ivorongheoc.

Onghalahe, Ranoumene, Ranoumaninthi, Sahaurrnha, Soumaudo, Manatangh, and Manſiatre, run through and water the province of Machicore.

Anoſſi, or Carcauſſi; or, as ſome writers have called it, Androbeizahæ, extends from the province of Manatangha to the river Mandrerei. Crocodiles ſwarm in all parts of this province, and indeed they are to be found in all the rivers of the iſland. A lake is found at the head of the principal river, called Franchere. The name of this lake is Ambone; it is half a league over, and has ſufficient depth for any ſhip, if the mouth was conſtantly open, which might very eaſily be effected. The cape which runs out from the river Franchere is by the French called cape St. Romain, but by the natives Ranevate. When the cape is paſſed, the coaſt forms a fine bay in the ſhape of a croſs, as the land projects into the middle of it, and forms a peninſula called Tholangare. Fort Dauphin lies to the north of this peninſula, and port Dauphin over againſt it; and hence the French call this Dauphin's bay. The entrance is rocky and dangerous; but within it there is a ſecure harbour for either ſhipping or boats. A ſmall iſland, called by the French St. Clare, lies near, and forms another convenient harbour. This province includes ſeveral other leſs conſiderable peninſulas and ſmaller iſlands on the coaſt. The country, upon the whole, is beautiful, abounds in fruit-trees, is fertile in paſtures for cattle, and, with proper culture, might be made to produce not only the neceſſaries, but even the luxuries of life. It is ſurrounded by mountains, finely diverſified with hillocks and plains.

Beſides villages and hamlets, this province contains eight towns, namely, Franchere, Imanhal, Cocombes, Andravaule, Ambonetana, Moromamou, Imours, Marofontonts, and Fananghæ.

At ſome leagues diſtance from fort Dauphin the Portugueſe had formerly a fort, on the ſummit of a high rock, and ſeveral incloſures that furniſhed them with all ſorts of proviſions; but the neighbouring natives at length maſſacred them all.

The mountains in this province are covered with trees and ſhrubs, and the French have often dug here in expectation of finding gold, but have always been diſappointed. They have indeed ſometimes found ſtones in the rivers, and alſo yellow clay, intermixed with black and white ſpangles, the latter ſhining like ſilver; theſe they carefully pounded and waſhed, but the ſeparated matter proved much too light. Some writers, nevertheleſs, affirm, that the Portugueſe, by digging here, formerly found gold, and that the places where they dug had been filled up by the natives, after they had expelled thoſe invaders.

Here are two ſorts of inhabitants in this province, namely, whites and negroes. The whites are deſcended from ſome Arabs, who ſettled here upwards of 200 years ago; and the negroes are the original inhabitants of the country.

The whites are divided into three claſſes or degrees, viz. Rohandrians, Anaçandrians, and Andtzatſi.

The negroes are divided into four claſſes or degrees, viz. Voadziri, Lohavohits, Antſoa, and Andeves.

The chiefs and kings are choſen from among the Rohandrian whites, who are the nobles. The Anaçandrians are of the blood of the Rohandrians, but it is by a degenerate mode, or, in other words, they are the illegitimate offspring, or the deſcendants of the illegitimate offspring of the kings, princes, and nobles of the Rohandrian race. Both theſe claſſes enjoy the privilege of killing cattle, which in Madagaſcar is conſidered as a very great honour.

The loweſt claſs of the whites are the Andzatſi, who are the illegitimate deſcendants of the Anacandrians. The people of this claſs are in general fiſhermen, and are not permitted to kill any living creature except chickens, and the fiſh they catch.

The people above-mentioned are rather of a copper colour, their hair hanging down in ringlets, but they are generally diſtinguiſhed by the name of whites.

The negroes of the firſt or Voadziri claſs are the moſt powerful and rich, being maſters of ſeveral villages: they deſcended from the original lords of the country, though they are at preſent, and have been for a conſiderable time, ſubordinate to the whites. They are permitted to kill cattle, if no white happens to be in the village; but they muſt not aſpire to that honour, if a white is near at hand.

The ſecond claſs, called Lohavohits, are chiefs, but are notwithſtanding inferior to the Voadziri; as theſe latter are lords of diſtricts, and Lohavohits only of ſingle villages. Theſe are likewiſe, when abſent from the whites, permitted to kill beaſts for their own uſe.

The third claſs of people, called the Antſoa, are the legitimate offspring of the Lohavohits.

The Andeves, or people of the fourth claſs, are conſidered in a deſpicable or mean light, the term itſelf, by which they are denominated, implying "loſt men," and as ſuch they may be conſidered, ſince they are either ſlaves made by the fortune of war, or the children of ſlaves. In times of famine, or ſcarcity, if the maſters of the Andeves cannot or will not ſupport them, the latter have the privilege of changing maſters, and giving themſelves to be the ſlaves of others; but freedom is a thing they never can obtain, till death releaſes them from their tyrants. Others may vary their circumſtances by induſtry, and gain an acceſſion of wealth by fortunate contingencies, but the unhappy Andeves have no alternative, nor any hope beyond the idea of ſlavery.

Manatengha is well watered by rivers, but nothing particularly remarkable is mentioned concerning this province.

Amboule is a valley, in which there is a variety of ſprings, which it receives from the mountains of Encælidæ, Hiela, and Manghaze. In the midſt of this pleaſant valley ſtands the large town of Amboule, which is populous in itſelf, and the circumjacent territories abound in cattle, plants and fruits, particularly white yams, and the herb ſeſame, whoſe ſeed, when compreſſed, produces the oil menachil, and the cattle are here remarkably fat and fine.

This province produces iron; and near the town of Amboule is a hot ſpring of mineral water which is deemed exceedingly efficacious in the gout. The people of this diſtrict are principally employed in manufacturing weapons and domeſtic utenſils with iron and ſteel. They are licentious and diſhoneſt in their diſpoſitions; ſo that this diſtrict is deemed the retreat of the roguiſh and lazy, who eſcape from other provinces, and run hither in order to herd with ſuch whoſe characters reſemble their own. This province contains only about eight hundred perſons, the men of which are deemed the beſt ſoldiers in the iſland. It is ſubject to a rabertau, or great lord, who is very rich, particularly in cattle, and governs in a very arbitrary manner. Subordinate to this rabertau is another, who rules over a little diſtrict called Izame.

Vohitſbang extends from the river Manatengha to the river Mananghare, and ſtretches up the country to the river Itomampo. The ſea coaſt of this province is mountainous, and covered with thickets, and the plain parts are fertile, and abound in honey, ſugar-canes, yams, rice, and other ſorts of grain: iron mines are alſo found here.

With reſpect to the inhabitants of this part, they are black, with long thick curled hair, extremely quarrelſome, vindictive, cruel and treacherous: they are alſo great thieves, and pay ſo little regard to humanity in their robberies, that they frequently ſteal the wives, children, and ſervants of their neareſt relations, and ſell them for ſlaves. They have conceived an implacable hatred to the white natives, as they are poſſeſſed with a notion, that the latter have the power to bewitch them, and what belongs to them, and to ſend diſeaſes and death among them and their cattle. Their garments are made of the bark of a tree called frautraſtanou, and thoſe brought from Matatan are made of another bark called avo. Their arms are a heavy dart, and a wooden ſhield covered with an ox's hide: theſe people ſometimes travel into the provinces of Anoſſi and Ampatre.

Itomampo is only about three leagues in length, and narrow in proportion: it is ſituated in a valley ſurrounded by high mountains; and the beſt ſteel in the iſland is prepared in this province.

Icondre is alſo a very ſmall and mountainons province. Its boundaries on the north-eaſt are high hills, which di-

vide it from Itomampo. On the south are the counties of Vatemanahon and Machicore; and the hills and woods adjoining to various provinces are the other boundaries.

Vatemanahon adjoins to Icondre; but the whole race of the inhabitants of this province having been extirpated and destroyed by the wars, it is at present uninhabited.

Anachimoussi is said to be four days journey in extent, and is principally bounded by mountains or rivers. This province is extremely populous, finely watered, and exceedingly fertile in cattle, yams, rice, and every other necessary of life. The people of this province formerly became very rich and powerful by the assistance of the French, in the wars carried on by them against the neighbouring provinces. The title of its prince is decan or dian panohahe.

Eringdrane is a fine flat country, of great extent, and divided into two districts, namely, greater and lesser, which separation the river Mangharae occasions.

Vohits Anghombe is divided from that of Eringdrane by the river Mananfatra, which river has its source in the last mentioned province.

These two provinces, we are told, are uncommonly fertile, and so exceedingly populous, that Eringdrane can send into the field thirty thousand, and Vohits Anghombe one hundred thousand fighting men. In both these provinces, the towns and houses surpass in beauty those of any other. Iron, steel, and all the necessaries of life abound here. Cloaths are made of the rind of banana-trees, and these garments are almost as fine as silk, and are preferred to it by the natives, though they can likewise make silk. The people of these fertile provinces, however, are at perpetual variance with one another.

Manacarongha is situated on the sea-coast, the inland parts being bounded either by rivers or mountains. The river Mananghare, which waters this province, is formed by the conflux of these rivers, viz. the Itomampo, Iongainon, and Mangharae, besides many small rivulets that run down from the mountains, and which all uniting, lose their respective names, and take that of Mananghare. This river afterwards separates, and disembogues itself into the sea, by seven mouths, none of which are navigable, nor is the river itself, though a very wide one, on account of the rocks in them.

Matatan is situated near a river that bears the same name, which hath its source in the adjacent mountains, and discharges itself into the sea by two mouths, seven leagues distant from each other, and by which a large and delightful island is formed.

Sugar canes, honey, yams, and cattle, abound in this province, which is watered by many rivers, in which are great quantities of fish. Sugar-canes grow in such plenty, that many ships might be loaded yearly, could the natives be brought to make sugar, and were they furnished with proper implements.

Polygamy is allowed to the chiefs of this country, and their wives, which are generally about twenty in number, live in separate apartments in an inclosed place, surrounded by palisadoes, like a large town; and the punishment of death is inflicted on any person who presumes to enter it.

Antavaree is watered by many streams, some of which have their source in the Red mountains, which are the north-western boundary of the province.

Ghallemboulou surrounds a bay of the same name, which is very extensive, with a good road for boats behind the rocks, but extremely dangerous. The village of Ratsmalone, called St. Matthew by the Europeans, lies upon the coast of this province.

Tometavi, situated on a bay or gulph of the same name, is tolerably fertile, and well watered.

Saheveh is also situated upon a gulph of the same name: this gulph is of a great depth, the bottom is sandy and good, but the excessive high winds render the bay unsafe.

Voulovilou is near cape Long-Point, and, being well watered, is exceeding fertile. In this province are some rocks which project a considerable way into the sea, between which there is a fine harbour.

Andovouche is a maritime province, containing many gulphs, bays, harbours, &c. particularly the bay of Antonghil, formerly called Manyhabee by the inhabitants of the country. It is situated lengthways to the north, and is about eighteen miles wide. At the end of the bay stands an island extremely high above water; it is about six miles in circuit, covered with the most delightful verdure, and abounding in all kinds of grain, plants, fruits, bananas, honey, fowls, &c. Besides this island, there are some rocks, and three or four other small islands, in the middle of the bay from the entrance to the north-east side; some of these are covered with wood, and others sown with rice.

The province of Manghabei, which contains many populous villages, borders on the before-mentioned bay. On the north side of the river stands a large town called by the Portuguese St. Angelo. Advancing deep in the bay, on the left hand, stands another, called Spakenburg, built by the Dutch, in 1595, in their first voyage to the East-Indies, containing, in the inclosure, about two hundred houses. The coast here is covered with forests of high trees, for several miles in length, and the interior part of the country is full of bamboos, or a kind of thick cane called bambuvocilau. The soil itself is good and fat, and properly mellowed by the frequent showers of rain. The meadows are rich in pasture, though the inhabitants are never rich in cattle, the greatest stock of the most wealthy not amounting to above twenty head.

The mountains are peculiarly fruitful, and the towns, in this part, are erected with great regularity and solidity, and even exhibit some signs of taste in the choice of situation, as they are either built on pleasant eminences, or by the sides of rivers. They are strongly palisadoed round, and have only two gates or entries, one for the usual goings in and out, and the other towards the woods, to facilitate their retreat to those places of refuge and safety, when surprized by their enemies, or when too weak to resist them.

The people in this province are in general fairer than the whites of Matatan; their hair is long, and hanging down; they are free, liberal, and hospitable to strangers, and are not addicted to murder and theft. They are fond of singing and dancing; their dances have rather an immodest tendency, and love is the only subject of their songs.

Adcimou is so small and inconsiderable a province, as to be scarce worth mentioning by geographers or travellers.

Mandrerei is partly watered by the river of the same name, and partly by other streams. This river, which, near its source, divides the provinces of Anossi and Ampatre, runs like a torrent, with great rapidity; it rises in the same mountain with that of Itomampo, and runs a great way to the south-west, receiving several other rivers and streams in its course, till at length it empties itself into the South-sea.

Ampatre lies along the sea-coast, is sixty miles in length and between thirty and forty in breadth, from the sea to Machicore. As there is no river in this province, water is very scarce, and can only be had from a few marshes here and there. It is supposed that Mr. Drury, when upon the following occasion he mentions the great scarcity of water, alludes to this country, which he calls Anterndroe, the name given it by the natives. "This employment, says he, of attending the cattle, was agreeable to me, except in excessive hot weather, when it was a great fatigue to drive them several miles to water, at least every other day; but, in the colder season we had no occasion to observe that practice, for the dew falls so plentifully in the night, that we find it sufficient to drive them into the grass about break of day; and even the inhabitants of this part of the country of Anterndroe, who have no water near them, go into the fields in a morning, with two wooden platters and a tub, and in less than an hour will collect about eight or ten gallons of dew water, which is very good while fresh, but will turn sour, and disagreeable to the taste, in a day or two."

Caramboule is but a small province, being not above twenty miles in length, and ten in breadth. The sea bounds it to the south, and towards the west there is a gulph, which is denominated the bay of Caramboule; and this bay or gulf runs greatly from the west towards the east, and thereby divides this province from that of Ampatre. The country of Caramboule is in general dry and barren, notwithstanding which there are some good pastures, and many herds both of tame and wild cattle. They have cotton and some silk, which the inhabitants make into apparel.

Mahefalle is situated more to the north-west, on the sea side, and extends as far as the salt river, called by the Portuguese Sacalite. This river flows from the country of Houlouve, and turns into a gulf, an accustomed anchoring-place of the Portuguese, but the French never frequent it.

Houlouve extends about two days journey up the country. This province begins at the mouth of the salt river above-mentioned.

Sivah extends about twelve miles along the coast of the island.

Ivoronheoc,

Ivoronheoc, or the country of the bay of St. Auguſtine, is ſituated near the river Ionghelahe, which receives the waters of three ſmall rivers, namely, Orandumainthi, Onghelamaſſey, and Sacamare, beſides many rivulets.

Machicore is of great extent, and of equal length with the river Ionghelahe. It is upwards of two hundred miles from eaſt-north-eaſt to weſt-ſouth-weſt, the ſame from eaſt to weſt, and about one hundred and fifty from north to ſouth, that is, from the river Ionghelahe to the provinces of Mahefalle and Ampatre.

Some years ago this country was laid waſte, and ruined by war, the inhabitants living concealed in woods, for fear of their enemies, and ſubſiſting upon roots only, or the fleſh of wild cattle. Previous to that time, ſeveral of the before-mentioned provinces were under the ſovereignty of one lord, called Decan or Dian Baluralen, or lord of an hundred thouſand parks; in the life-time of this prince, theſe countries enjoyed a profound peace, and flouriſhed in exceſs of riches and pleaſure, but, upon his death, a war broke out between his ſons, which was carried on with ſo much fury and animoſity, that it ended in the ruin of themſelves and the country.

In the gulfs belonging to, or near the coaſts of Madagaſcar, are ſeveral iſlands. The firſt we ſhall take notice of is the iſland of St. Mary; or, as the natives and Madagaſcrians call it, Noſſi Ibrahim, or the iſle of Abraham, which lies in ſeventeen degrees ſouth latitude, about two leagues from the ſhore of Madagaſcar, and oppoſite the mouth of the river Mananghare. It is about fifty miles in length, from north to ſouth, and almoſt ten from eaſt to weſt. It is ſurrounded by rocks, over which canoes may paſs when the ſea is high; but at low tide they are ſcarcely covered with a foot of water, which renders the coaſt in general dangerous, and only acceſſible for ſhipping at particular places. Various beautiful ſhells, and great quantities of white coral, abound about this iſland. The whole is interſected and watered by many rivers, rivulets, and running ſprings, which give fertility to the ſoil, and beauty to the ſcene; enriched on every ſide by plantations of rice, yams, millet, fruit, vegetables, &c. The air is extremely moiſt: for there is hardly a day in the year but it rains ſome time within the twenty-four hours, and it often rains a week together, without intermiſſion. The cattle are fat and good: ambergris is found about the eaſtern ſhore; and the iſland abounds with various gums, particularly that excellent one called tacamahaca.

Since the French were ſettled on the iſland of St. Mary, it became much more populous than before: nor dare the neighbouring Madagaſcrians now ſet a foot on the iſland, though they formerly uſed to carry fire and ſword amongſt the poor natives, and were a great ſcourge to them. At preſent there are ten or twelve villages, and near a thouſand inhabitants, who employ themſelves chiefly in cultivating rice, yams, peas, beans, &c. They are likewiſe very fond of a fiſh called hourils, which they catch either by nets or hooks, and eat or ſell them, as their neceſſities require. Their religion is paganiſm, intermixed with ſome particles of judaiſm; and though none of them have been known to become proſelytes, yet they keep on good terms with Chriſtians.

Southward of the iſland of St. Mary is a ſmall iſland, ſeparated by a narrow channel, not above three fathoms over, ſo rich, fertile and abundant, that the inhabitants of St. Mary ſend their cattle hither to fatten, and lay out large plantations of rice, corn, roots and fruits, notwithſtanding which they have not thought proper to plant any colony in it. This is probably the ſame iſland which Flacourt places in the bottom of the bay of Antogil, which he highly praiſes for its beauty and fertility, as well as for the ſafety of its harbour, which, during the early voyages of the Dutch to the Eaſt Indies, was much frequented by them.

In nineteen degrees fifteen minutes ſouth latitude, and about twenty-two leagues to the eaſtward of Madagaſcar, is ſituated the uninhabited iſland of Diego Rodriguer.

The iſlands called by the Portugueſe Illas Primieras; and four other iſlands called Angoras, are ſituated in the ſixteenth degree ſouth latitude, but theſe iſlands contain nothing in them deſerving a particular deſcription.

Several ſmall iſlands, called Utiques, are placed by Le Croix oppoſite to cape St. Sebaſtian, on the coaſt of Safola, and under the latitude of twenty-four degrees nine minutes from the continent; yet theſe we have reaſon to believe to be the little cluſter of iſlands which ſtand off St. Sebaſtian, on the north-weſt end of Madagaſcar, eaſt of the Comora iſlands; they produce rice, millet, and great abundance of cattle; there is alſo ambergris found on the ſea-coaſt, which the people collect and export to different parts of the continent; but the moſt valuable commodity of thoſe iſlands is a pearl fiſhery, which might turn to good account, if the natives underſtood their virtue, and did not ſpoil their colour and tranſparency, by boiling the oyſters in which they find the pearls.

This iſland is inhabited by negroes, who reſemble thoſe of Madagaſcar both in perſon and dreſs, if the bit of rag or lamber tied round their middle, merits that denomination. Their religion is paganiſm, with ſome faint gleams of judaiſm; and they are exceedingly ſuperſtitious, being extremely fond of attending to predictions, though their lives are uſually rendered unhappy thereby, as, indeed, how can it be otherwiſe, anxiouſly agitated as they are between the hope of poſſeſſing ſome certain good, or on the contrary, that ſome dreadful evil will aſſuredly befal them?

There are a number of ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of Madagaſcar, from the fifth to the fortieth degree of latitude; but a deſcription of them cannot be expected, as they are all uninhabited.

Under the latitude of eight, and ninety degrees eaſt longitude, lies the iſland of Diego Garcia. Near two degrees ſouth of this ſtand three ſmall iſlands, called Bromdens; and directly ſouth of them, about three degrees, ſtands the iſland of Rodrique, or Roderigo, between the continent and Madagaſcar, not very far diſtant from the Comora iſlands.

Under the twenty-ninth degree of ſouth latitude, ſtands the iſland of Ramareires, about three degrees eaſt ſouth-eaſt of Mauritius; a little beyond which is the iſland of John of Liſbon, in twenty-ſix degrees ſouth latitude, and in the ſame longitude with the iſle of Bourbon.

There lies an iſland, in latitude thirty-two, and longitude ſeventy-ſix, which was diſcovered by the Dutch, who never gave any name to it. To the ſouth of this, between latitude thirty-ſeven and thirty-eight, are two other iſlands, one of which is called Amſterdam, and the other St. Paul, but neither of them contain any thing that merits particular attention.

To the north of the cape of Good Hope, are three ſmall iſlands, called by the Dutch, Roben Eiland, Daſſen Eiland, and Frans Eiland. The firſt of theſe is alſo called Rabbet iſland, from the prodigious numbers of thoſe animals that burrow on the ſhore: it is very ſmall, being not more than two leagues in circuit. The ſecond is called Deer iſland, by its being inhabited by great numbers of deer. It is imagined that theſe creatures were brought hither by Spitſbergen, in the year 1601. The Engliſh and Dutch afterwards brought hither ſome ſheep, which have alſo greatly increaſed, though not in proportion to the deer, which are ſo numerous as to cover the principal part of the iſland. The ſheep here grow to an amazing ſize, and their tails are from thirty to forty pounds weight. It is ſurpriſing how theſe animals procure a ſubſiſtence, or what could induce the people to bring them here, as the iſland, which is ſandy, produces nothing but a few flowers and briars; it muſt, therefore, have had a very unpromiſing appearance for the breeding or fattening of cattle, though the event, by the peculiar care of Providence, has anſwered the expectations of thoſe who were induced to try the experiment. What ſtill increaſes our aſtoniſhment is, that it wants freſh water; which circumſtance alone, it might have been imagined, would have ruined the whole project. But to proceed to the natural hiſtory of this iſland.

Gold, ſilver, copper, tin, and iron, are found in Madagaſcar, of which the natives make razors, lances, hatchets, and other inſtruments. Here are alſo ſeveral ſorts of precious ſtones, as topazes, amethyſts, agates, and ſeveral ſorts of jaſpers; frankincenſe and benzoin are found in abundance; and ambergris is gathered on the ſea coaſt.

Beſides the lemon and pomegranate trees already mentioned, they have, among the fruit, palmettos, plantains, bananas, tamarinds, a currant which grows on a tree and not on a buſh as in Europe, and is very pleaſant to the taſte. Here are alſo ſugar canes, vats, barley, and rice. They have a large tree which bears a kind of a plumb, which, when ripe, is black, and of the ſize of a cherry, and on the inſide are little ſtones like thoſe of grapes; this tree has thorns two inches long. They have alſo a very tall tree, the leaf of which reſembles that of the pear-tree; it has a fruit ſpeckled like the ſparrow's egg, and of the ſame ſize; it is full of ſeeds, and of a ſweet juice, eſteemed a certain cure for fluxes. They have a kind of nut which ſmells of all ſorts of ſpices; it is as large as a nutmeg, but browner,

browner, and more round. Pepper grows here in ſmall quantities, no care being taken to cultivate it; this pepper grows in cluſters upon ſhrubs that trail upon the ground.

In this iſland is a tree, whoſe leaves and tender ſprigs ſting like nettles, but the root is of great uſe where there is a ſcarcity of water, which is the caſe in many parts of the country; for it retains a great deal of juice, which is extracted by beating the root in a wooden mortar, and preſſing out the liquor; and of the bark of this tree they make ropes. Here is likewiſe wood proper for building, as alſo cedar and ebony, but none fit for maſts.

Several ſorts of graſs of different colours grow in the plains, to a much greater height than any in England: the natives never cut any for hay; for before the old is withered, new graſs ſprings up under it; but they commonly burn the old graſs.

Tobacco grows there, which is ſmoaked in reeds or ſhells. The natives are alſo fond of ſmoaking a plant, to which they give the name of jermanghler; this plant grows about five feet high, bearing a long and ſlender leaf, and a pod which contains about a dozen ſeeds like hemp-ſeed. The natives mix the leaves and ſeeds together, and lay them three or four days in the ſun, till they are very dry and fit to be ſmoaked; but it ſtrongly intoxicates the people; their eyes, after ſmoaking it, look red and fiery, their aſpect fierce and wild; and they are even more active, bold, and vigorous, while the effect continues; but thoſe who uſe it much, are weak and diſpirited whenever they are not intoxicated.

The ſoil is indeed ſo fertile, that it produces two crops in a year of every thing, except ſugar-canes, which muſt be left two years ſtanding, that they may grow to a proper ſize and maturity.

Their oxen are prodigiouſly large, and yet ſo nimble and unruly, that they will leap very high fences: they are beautifully coloured, ſome of them being ſtreaked like a tyger; others are black, with white ſpots, and ſome are white with black ſpots. They have a protuberance between their ſhoulders, which has ſome reſemblance to that of a camel, and conſiſts of fat and fleſh; ſome of theſe excreſcences are ſaid to weigh between three and fourſcore pounds. The cows do not give ſo much milk as ours in England, nor will they ever ſuffer themſelves to be milked till the calf has firſt ſucked; ſo that they keep a calf for every cow till ſhe is again with calf, for they ſeldom miſs a ſeaſon.

Here are ſome ſheep with heavy tails, and alſo goats; but they keep no tame hogs, theſe being ſufficiently numerous in the country, and ſo very miſchievous to the plantations of potatoes, and other roots, that they are forced to ſet traps to catch them. They have alſo wild dogs, and foxes, which are very fierce, and ſometimes will attack a man; but there are no lions, tygers, or any other ferocious animals in the iſland, except wild boars, which have two horns near the noſe, like prickles, and their ſkin is almoſt impenetrable.

Here are excellent fowls, with plenty of turtle-doves, partridges, pigeons, ducks, teal and other wild fowl in the woods.

In Madagaſcar, bees are very numerous, and great quantities of honey are found in the woods. The natives alſo keep bee-hives; for they not only eat the honey, but make a palatable liquor of it, called toack, which has a conſiderable ſpirit, and of which they frequently drink till they are intoxicated. This is the common liquor drank at entertainments.

In this iſland are two or three kinds of ſilk, which are found in plenty in almoſt every part of it, ſome of a browniſh colour, and one ſort white, the outſide of which is full of ſmall pointed prickles. The cone is about three inches long, ſhaped like a ninepin, and at the top is found a ſmall hole, out of which a blackiſh worm is ſometimes ſeen to creep; but we have no account of its changing its form in the manner of the common ſilk-worms, though it probably becomes a flying inſect. There are, however, no mulberry trees in the iſland, and theſe worms and ſilk are found on three or four different ſorts of trees, adhering to the thick branches or trunk. The people pull out the cone on their knees, tearing it to pieces with their hands, and then ſpin it with a ſpindle made of bone, and a rock-ſtaff; after which they weave it, and wear it round their waiſt, as a garment.

There is a tree called roſeer in ſome parts of the country, which is of great uſe to the lower, or middling ſort of people, from its furniſhing materials for a cloth to wear round their waiſt. The leaf reſembles that of a cocoa-tree, but is longer by two feet, and bears a plumb almoſt like a damaſcene. They take away the outer bark, and peel entirely off the inner, which is white, and beat it with a ſtick which is ſoft and pliable. It then reſembles a long, white, thin ſhaving. After this they ſoak it in water, then ſplit it into threads, which they tie together, and weave it into cloth.

In this iſland are ſeveral kinds of river and other birds, known in the language of the country by the general name of Vourou; but they are much leſs than thoſe of Europe; the eggs of the hens not being larger than thoſe of pigeons. Here are many pheaſants, which are of the ſame kind as thoſe in England; but there is a particular ſort, that have violet feathers, and a red beak. Here are likewiſe ſmall paroquets, and ſome of a dark red; but theſe laſt are very ſcarce. Small green finches, that whiſtle and imitate the ſongs of other birds; wild turkies; black, white, and grey eagles, with fine plumage; wild ſtorks, with creſts on their heads; common teal, and a particular ſort, with red legs and claws, called halives; pelicans; black and white herons; water wag-tails, &c. Samba is a bird whoſe feathers are as red as fire. Vourouchontſi are white birds, that follow the cattle, and feed upon the flies and beetles found on them; they are generally very lean, and ill-taſted. Voula is a river bird, with a long and white beak; it is about the ſize of a pelican, and its fleſh is tolerably good eating. Taliva is alſo a river bird, about the ſize of a hen, with violet plumage, with red and black feet. Heretac is a bird with a red creſt on his head, and has black feathers, and feet like a teal. Takia is a bird, whoſe wings, feet, and beak, are black; it is about the ſize of a blackbird, and has but one ſimple note, from which it receives its name; for it is continually calling takia; as our cuckow in England, from its note being expreſſive of that ſound, is ſo called.

They catch great numbers of lobſters and craw-fiſh, excellent turtles, eels, the ſword-fiſh, the ſea hedge-hog, and many kinds of fiſh common to other countries in the ſame climate. There are many aligators in the river.

In this iſland are a great variety of inſects and reptiles. The famocantraton, or breaſt-leaper, is an extraordinary but dangerous inſect. It is about the ſize of a ſmall lizard, and fixes itſelf, as if clued, to the barks of trees, with its mouth always open, ready to catch ſpiders, flies, and other inſects. They are called breaſt-leapers, from their leaping on the breaſts of thoſe who approach the tree where they are; and they ſtick ſo faſt, that it is impoſſible to get them off, without cutting away that part of the fleſh on which they are fixed. Mardent is a kind of ſerpent that feeds on bats and ſmall birds; it is about the length and thickneſs of a man's arm, and not venomous, though deemed ſo by moſt of the natives. Among other ſerpents, here are alſo the menore, ſave, mare, triondibale, renutric, and ahacondef. This laſt is very dangerous, though in ſubſtance not thicker than a quill. It ſlips into the body at particular times, gnaws the inteſtines, and occaſions the moſt excruciating pain: it infalliibly produces death, if not extracted in a ſhort time, which is ſeldom the caſe.

The water-ſcorpion, called tringalaka huravou, reſides conſtantly in marſhes and ſtill waters, deſtroys cattle, attacks dogs, and ſucks their blood, after it has killed them.

The ſcorpion ſpider, or vancoho, has a large, round, and black belly, and is extremely dangerous. Its bite occaſions an inſtantaneous ſwooning, which ſometimes laſts two days, attended with a remarkable coldneſs and ſhivering. The method of cure is, by placing the perſon near the fire, and adminiſtering ſuch things as poiſon is uſually expelled with.

Here is a creeping animal, called anocalife, that breeds between the barks of rotten and worm-eaten trees. It is about ſix inches long, of a flat form, and has many legs like a caterpillar, with a hard ſkin. Its bite is exceeding venomous, and cauſes the like diſorder as that produced from the vanocho; and the conſequence will be the loſs of life, if the ſame remedies are not applied.

Moth-worms, ear-wigs, bugs, and other troubleſome inſects, are very numerous here. The acolalan is a ſmall inſect, like a bug, but not ſo offenſive in ſmell; when full grown, it is about the ſize of a man's little finger, at which time it becomes winged, and flies away. The young ones remain in the houſes, and are very deſtructive to the furniture, as alſo to moſt kinds of apparel, and to cloth. The vofnbau is a butterfly variegated with different colours, among which are thoſe of gold and ſilver. Others are known by the name of ſacondre: theſe proceed from beetles, and keep to the bark of a particular ſhrub, on which

which they depoſit honey, equal to that the bees produce.

Many ſorts of ſnails are here, ſome of which have their particular appellations, but they are in general called catacora. Caterpillars alſo abound here in great variety, but the whole of them are diſtinguiſhed by the name of fingoulon voulon. Herechereche is a beetle that ſhines in the woods and houſes with a ſurpriſing luſtre in the night.

In this iſland are worms of various kinds; but the moſt diſtinguiſhed are the ſilk worms, which are four-footed. Some of them, called landove, produce one prickly cod; others, called landeſeraha, make ſmall cods incloſed in a large one, frequently containing five hundred young. The third kind, called landeanacau, ſpin their ſilk on the tree anacau that grows by the ſea ſide, the cods hang in ſtrings, ſeparated from each other, and the ſilk is the fineſt, ſtrongeſt, and beſt of all. The fourth ſort, called landevontaguea, make their ſilk on the tree vontonfir, which is not ſo ſubſtantial as the former, but very fine.

Two ſorts of land-tortoiſes are to be found here; one of which is called hilinſtoca, and the other fanou. Ants are very numerous, and exceedingly harmleſs, except one ſort called ſicouroucourous, which are particularly deſtructive to the rice, of which they devour great quantities.

In this iſland are mines of iron and ſteel, which the natives have the art of purifying and forging with much leſs difficulty and labour than the Europeans. In the inland mountainous parts, ſilver is found; and a white metal, which much reſembles tin. The gold here is of two ſorts, namely, a pale ſoft ſort, which is of little value; and a finer ſort, which is tolerably good.

In the valley of Amboula, is a fountain of hot water, eſteemed a ſovereign remedy againſt all diſorders proceeding from cold in the nervous parts; and the ſame water, taken inwardly, removes obſtructions in the loins, cures aſthmas, and all diſorders of the lungs.

We ſhall now treat of the perſons, manners, cuſtoms, dreſs, &c. of the inhabitants of Madagaſcar; previous to which, it may be proper to obſerve, that this iſland, though reckoned to be eight hundred leagues in compaſs from north to ſouth, is not populous in proportion to its extent, for it is ſuppoſed not to contain above one million ſix hundred thouſand ſouls.

All the inhabitants are black, except thoſe of a little province beyond the Maratanes; and moſt of the great men, who are deſcended from the Arabs, and ſtill preſerve ſomething of their complexion, though they become black inſenſibly, by their intermarriages with the original inhabitants. The Arabs, who ſeized upon this iſland, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, eſtabliſhed commanders in all the provinces, and fixed the chief ſeat of their government beyond the Maratanes, which is the reaſon why their deſcendants, who are ſtiled lavaleſſes, are ſtill fair, or at leaſt called ſo, for they are for the moſt part of a tawny complexion.

The natives are in general tall, well made, nimble, and have a proud gait. Their hair is not woolly, like that of the Guiney negroes, but it is always black, and for the moſt part curls naturally; their lips are not thick, neither are their noſes flat, though they are ſmall. They ſometimes affect a ſmiling countenance; and they know how to conceal a grand deſign, or the ſtrongeſt paſſion, with as much artifice as the moſt crafty knave among the nations that are moſt famous for their political diſſimulation.

Wild people are found in ſome parts of this iſland, who let their hair and beards grow, go almoſt naked, inhabit thick and unfrequented woods, live upon wild cattle, fruits, roots, honey, locuſts, &c. and do not aſſociate with their fellow natives.

Though, according to the accounts given by the French of the inhabitants, ſome of the people are ſaid to be very deceitful, flattering, and falſe; yet this muſt be underſtood chiefly of thoſe of the coaſt of Manghabei, to the end of the iſland, ſouthward. But the people in general are allowed to be of a humane and friendly diſpoſition; ſhare with their neighbours what they take in hunting; and the great even take a pride in relieving the diſtreſſed, though they were before at enmity. In ſhort, they have many virtues; but, as in other countries, there are conſiderable numbers, who violate the laws of juſtice and humanity, in order to gratify their paſſions. They are, however, not deficient in point of underſtanding, but are capable of reaſoning upon any ſubject where they have not been blinded by ſuperſtition; and many of them are endued with admirable good ſenſe. The women are remarkable for their obedience to their huſbands, their good temper, and agreeable converſation.

With reſpect to the dreſs of the Madagaſcrians, the men wear only a piece of cotton cloth or ſilk round their waiſt, called a lamber; ſome of theſe they make themſelves; but thoſe who are rich buy the ſilks and callicoes at ſea port towns, giving a great price for them, as a cow and a calf for no more than will make one lamber. The men and women of diſtinction alſo adorn themſelves with rings on their wriſts; ſome are of gold, ſome of ſilver, but moſt of them of copper. They curl their hair, and make it lie cloſe and ſmooth; and thoſe of ſuperior rank adorn their hair with rings and other decorations.

The habit of the women conſiſts of a lamber, which reaches to their feet, and above it a garment like a ſtraight ſhift, which covers all the body, and has ſhort ſleeves. This is commonly made of cotton, and dyed of a dark colour. Thoſe of a higher rank, adorn it with beads, eſpecially in the back, where they are ranged in rows, and croſs each other; theſe being of different colours, form a large double croſs very much reſembling the union flag. Some of the women uſe ſaravohits, or drawers, with an aezan, or long robe without ſleeves, and a piece of linen before, ſewed at both ends like an apron.

Their ornaments, called firauach, are different kinds of chains worn round the necks, arms, and legs; ear-rings, bracelets, rings, and other toys, with necklaces of different names, ſuch as ſalantes, ſaraves, and endachs, conſiſting of three or four, and even twelve rows of pearls, corals, beads of gold, glaſs of all colours, rock cryſtal, agates, cornelian, and ſardonian ſtones. Theſe ornaments of gold are only worn by the Zaferamini, who are the chiefs of the iſland; and among the negroes, by the Voadziri and Lahavohits.

The common diet of theſe iſlanders is cows milk, rice, and roots. They roaſt ſometimes large pieces of beef with the hide on. They drink water and honey-wine; but they have neither bread nor grape-wine. The honey-wine is a compoſition of three parts of water to one of honey, which they boil together, and ſkim, after it is reduced to three-fourths. They afterwards ſet it to work in large pots of black earth, made in this iſland. This wine has a very pleaſant tartiſh taſte, but is too luſcious. They have a ſort of wine, ſtill more unwholſome, which is made of ſugar canes.

Licking the feet of a ſuperior, is deemed the moſt reſpectful ſalutation. This kind of abject ſubmiſſion is practiſed by all inferior perſons when they addreſs their prince, and by the women when they come to welcome their huſbands on their return from the wars; thoſe of ſuperior rank lick only the knees of their ſovereign; but ſlaves pay to their maſters the above prepoſterous mark of reſpect.

Here is no other marriage ceremony among the negroes, than agreeing to cohabit together; but the whites have a peculiar ceremony in being joined, or married to the head wife; their other wives are taken with as little form as thoſe of the negroes are.

They practiſe polygamy throughout the iſland; and the people in general are exceeding incontinent, which may be aſcribed to the extremes which actuate both ſexes; the men having too much freedom, and the women being under too much reſtraint; yet theſe oppoſite cauſes produce ſimilar effects; for here ſince the men take all the licentious liberties which ſuch an unbounded licence permits; ſo the women, being impatient of reſtraint, allow themſelves ſuch freedom in private, in order to compenſate for what they ſuffer by the ſeverity of the public laws and tyranny of their huſbands, that the ineſtimable jewel chaſtity is rarely to be met with among them.

Their funerals are conducted in the following manner: the relations waſh and cleanſe the body of the deceaſed, and then deck it with the moſt coſtly ornaments which the perſon wore when living. It is then wrapped up in a mat, in order to be carried in that manner to the grave. The head of a woman's corpſe is generally embelliſhed with a kind of cap: but the heads and beards of men of rank, after their deceaſe, are clean ſhaved. Previous to the time of burial, the corpſe lies in ſtate for ſome days, during which ſpace a light is continually burnt at its feet; and all the relations, friends, and ſlaves, frequently ſurround the corpſe, and utter the moſt diſmal lamentations. Having tired themſelves with bewailing, the women fall a dancing, and the men have recourſe to warlike exerciſes. At length they all ſurround the body again, call the dead by his name, very gravely expoſtulate with him for dying, and pathetically demand whether he had not every thing that could ſatisfy him in this life, ſuch as beautiful and faithful wives, dutiful children, loving friends, induſtri-

ous ſlaves, a ſufficiency of gold, ſilver, iron, cattle, &c. We are ſorry there is reaſon to remark, that this burleſque method of howling over and interrogating the dead is not peculiar to this idolatrous people, as not only many other nations in Africa have the ſame cuſtom; but that even in Europe ſome perſons, who pretend to be more enlightened, ſtill retain theſe abſurd ceremonies.

When the day of interment is come, the corpſe is carried to the burying-place, which is named Amounouque, in a coffin made of hollow trunks of trees, which are curiouſly cloſed together; and there it is depoſited ſix feet deep, under a ſtrong hut, in which are left plates, diſhes, apparel, rice, tobacco, &c. that the dead may want no neceſſary accommodation. The deceaſed being thus properly provided for; the hut is intirely cloſed up, by placing a large ſtone before the only entrance. Then, on the outſide, beaſts are ſacrificed; and the company having regaled themſelves, ſome fragments of meat are left, which they ſuppoſe will be equally diſtributed between the departed perſon and the dæmons.

Fifteen days after, imagining the proviſions are exhauſted, the relations and friends ſend more, leſt the dead body, or the dæmons who guard it, ſhould be famiſhed; and theſe preſents are always accompanied with the kindeſt meſſages and moſt reſpectful compliments to the deceaſed. The heads of all the beaſts which are ſacrificed, are fixed upon long poles, and placed round the ſepulchral hut in the manner of trophies. Sacrifices of beaſts are likewiſe made by, or in favour of the children deſcended from the deceaſed, or thoſe nearly related to him, when the juvenile band, in a kind of hymn, invoke the ſpirit of the departed perſon to be propitious to them.

When a perſon of rank dies at a diſtance from home, his body is burned upon the ſpot; but his head having been previouſly cut off, is carried home and interred in a proper ſepulchre, with the uſual funeral rights. But perſons ſlain in war, who have been haſtily buried in or near the field of battle, are, in times of peace, again dug up, and reburied in the uſual form, provided the body be not nearly in a ſtate of putrefaction, from the long ſpace ſince its interment.

Theſe people hold the memory of their anceſtors in the utmoſt eſteem and veneration; their greateſt and moſt ſolemn oath being, to ſwear by the ſouls of their predeceſſors, or the virtues of their parents or neareſt relations.

In conſequence of the execrable ſuperſtitions of theſe people, they have a moſt barbarous cuſtom of expoſing their children to a certain and cruel, though indeterminate kind of death, by ſtrangling them in the birth, or ſacrificing them to dæmons, which horrid and atrocious practice may in all probability be the true political reaſon why this large iſland is ſo thin of inhabitants, in proportion to its great extent and amazing fertility. Theſe ſhocking cruelties are owing to the ombiaſſes, who exerciſe a moſt uncontrouled power over the minds of the people; the latter being under an obligation of expoſing their new born children in deſart places to famiſh, or be devoured by wild beaſts; to ſtrangle them in their birth, or to ſacrifice them to their dæmons, according to the prediction or the command of the ombiaſſes, who pretending to contemplate the aſpect of the planets at the time of their birth, pronounce arbitrarily whether they are fortunate or inauſpicious, and decree the child to life or death accordingly. Theſe deteſtable murders are the more frequent, inaſmuch as, beſides the ombiaſſes having the fate of new born infants at their diſpoſal at all times, thoſe who are born on what the people deem unlucky days, are ſure to be put to death, and, unhappily, above half the days in the year are accounted ſo.

The inauſpicious or unfortunate portions of the year are; the entire months of April or Safard, March or Ramahara; the laſt week of every month in the year; every eighth day, whether it falls in auſpicious months or weeks, or otherwiſe, every eighth day being called Aſſarontor, and every laſt week in each month Alacoſſi. Every Wedneſday and Friday throughout the year are deemed unlucky; and even particular hours are ſuppoſed to be influenced by the vitangs, or unlucky planets, However, the force of nature ſometimes overcomes the prevalence of ſuperſtition; and the prejudice of cuſtom yields to the dictates of parental affection; to which we may add, that the ombiaſſes are not inſenſible to the power of bribery; and what will not a parent, who has tender feelings, give to ſave his inoffenſive offſpring from immediate deſtruction? Thus wealth, the grand fountain of vice, and ſtimulator of crimes, may, properly applied, be rendered the means of benevolence, and friend of humanity.

Throughout the iſland of Madagaſcar, the ſame language is ſpoken, but differently pronounced in different provinces. It bears a great affinity to the Arabic, is extremely copious, and, in the manner of ſpeaking, and in the order and conjunction of the nouns and verbs, is agreeable to the Greek. The characters in uſe among the ombiaſſes are the Arabic, twenty-four in number, written from the right to the left, though the pronunciation of ſome differs from the Arabic. Theſe characters were introduced about three centuries ago by the Arabs ſent by the calif of Mecca, who landed at Matatan, intermarried with the women of the country, and taught the Arabic language, with the koran, to thoſe who embraced Mahometaniſm, which ſome of them ſtill adhere to.

In order to give the reader ſome idea of the ſoft and liquid tones, with which the Madagaſcar language abounds, we have here ſelected a few of their common words, with their tranſlation in Engliſh; viz. valu, alive; melanjore; to agree; maliſke, anger; leſhulu, any-body; mononego, aſcend; bettu, brains; haner, beef; omebayvovva, cow; tanna, the earth; omebay, cattle; morte, dead; varlarvo, a mouſe; oroong, the noſe; overnarmo, potatoes; plato, a piſtol; hulu, people; colo:, years. Teenongher, eaſt; andreffer, weſt; avarruchs, north; ateemo, ſouth. Their numbers are, eſer, one; roaa, two; talu, three; effutchs, four; deene, five; eamming, ſix; feeto, ſeven; varlo, eight; ſever, nine; folo, ten. The days of the week are, Alhaida, Sunday; Alletenme, Monday; Talorter, Tueſday; Allerrerbeer, Wedneſday; Commeſhee, Thurſday; Immor, Friday; Sarbueche, Saturday.

They reckon from one to ten, like the Arabians and Europeans, and, after ten, add the number one, as far as twenty. All the people of Madagaſcar, except the negroes of Machicore, and the inhabitants of the mountains, are tolerably expert at caſting up ſmall ſums.

They uſe no weights or meaſures higher than a drachm, for as they weigh no articles whatever, gold and ſilver excepted, drachm weights are deemed ſufficient; all other commodities being ſold by way of barter or exchange.

The names of their ſmall weights are, nanqui, half a grain; ſacare, a grain; nangue, ſix grains; vari, half a drachm; ſompi, a drachm.

The meaſures are, 1. The voule, which contains half a pound of rice, &c. 2. The monca, containing ſix pounds; and, 3. The zatou, containing one hundred voulus, or fifty pounds of rice, &c. Theſe are meaſures of capacity.

The meaſure of length is only a reſe, or a meaſure of about two yards in length, which is uſed in meaſuring cordage, ſtuffs, &c. the land not being eſtimated by admeaſurement, but by the quantity of grain with which it may be ſown.

They make paper, in this iſland, with fewer inſtruments and engines than they uſe in Europe. The bark of the tree avo is boiled two days in good lye, made of the aſhes of the ſame tree, till it becomes ſoft, and ſupple; when it is waſhed in clear water, beat to a proper conſiſtency, and poured afterwards on mats of exquiſite fine reeds, twiſted and regularly joined together, in order to be drained and become paper. After this, it is placed on a loaf of baliſior, oiled with menachil, to dry in the ſun; each dried leaf is afterwards dipped in a decoction of rice, to prevent it from remaining ſpongy: then being dried once more, it becomes ſmooth, even, and fit for uſe.

Their ink is extracted, by way of decoction, from the wood called arandranto, which is likewiſe made uſe of by the principal people for building. The extract, being mixed with verdigris, becomes exceeding black. Their pens are made of bamboo, and are cut to the ſame ſize, faſhioned after a ſimilar manner, and rendered almoſt as tranſparent as the quills uſed in Europe.

SECT. IV.

Of the Trade carried on in MADAGASCAR; Method of going to War between the different Provinces, &c. and the political and civil Government of the Iſland.

THE natives of Madagaſcar have very confined ideas and imperfect notions of foreign traffic; ſo that the trade of this iſland is chiefly of a domeſtic nature. There being no currency eſtabliſhed among them, they deal together by way of barter, and if they obtain any gold or ſilver coins from the Europeans, who ſometimes touch here, they immediately melt them down, and convert them into ear-rings, bracelets, &c.

The

The domeſtic trade is of this nature: the people of the cotton provinces take care to cultivate that article, and then carry it to the provinces which abound in cattle, rice, &c. Having trucked or bartered commodities, the wants of each are ſupplied; for they who have plenty of proviſions, are by theſe means ſupplied with cloathing; and they who can eaſily procure apparel in their own country are furniſhed with proviſions, in which their own provinces might be deficient. Thus the interchange of the produce of the different provinces becomes of reciprocal benefit to the whole.

The foreign traffic which ſome of the Madagaſcrians carry on with the European ſhips, conſiſts in exchanging freſh proviſions for yellow wires; ſapphires for hard and ſmall wares of all ſorts; rubies for looking glaſſes; emeralds for beads; cornelians, and other precious ſtones found in the country, &c. for fire-arms, and coral of any ſize or colour, pierced through for ſtringing, &c. Thus the riches of theſe people conſiſt in the wares and commodities which they procure; in the bills, hatchets, knives, lances, iron and ſteel ſpades, lambers, &c. which they make, in the ſlaves they take in war, or ſteal in times of peace, in the cattle they breed, and in the lands which they cultivate. The French, who trade with theſe people from the iſle of Bourbon for ſlaves and cattle, complain that of late years piaſtres are demanded for thoſe and other articles.

The celebrated French governor Hacourt eſteemed this iſland of great importance for advancing and eſtabliſhing commerce towards Ethiopia, the Red ſea, gulf of Arabia, and other Indian countries; and that great advantage might be made from the conveniency of wood for building ſhips, for carrying on the trade, and from the exchange of commodities.

The ſovereigns or princes of the different territories in this iſland are moſt of them related to each other, as are likewiſe their great lords and inferior ſubjects, by continual intermarriages; nevertheleſs they are perpetually quarrelling with and waging war againſt each other; private family diſputes often occaſion open ruptures, and the reſentment of an individual will induce ſome thouſands to commit hoſtilities on the offending party. Theſe domeſtic wars are purſued with more rancour and hatred than a war with a foreign enemy would be; for when relations and friends differ, it is obſervable, they entertain a greater implacability againſt each other, than ſtrangers when they happen to be at enmity.

Their engagements in the field are ſeldom regular; they chiefly depend on ſurpriſe and ambuſcade, and ſacrifice courage to ſtratagem. When the proſpect of advantage offers, they uſually aſſemble privately, act with the utmoſt caution and ſecrecy, gain the enemies frontiers by forced marches in the night, and attack them ſuddenly and unexpectedly: if ſucceſs attends their arms, they commit the moſt cruel ravages: if they meet with an unlooked for repulſe, they retire with the utmoſt precipitation. But good or bad ſucceſs are alike fatal to the country; if they are fortunate, they deſtroy all before them as they advance; if unfortunate, they lay waſte the country in their retreat. Thus, by means of inteſtine broils, famine frequently reigns in a country calculated by nature to afford the utmoſt plenty.

The prince of a territory ſometimes gives notice to the lords, who are his ſubjects, to aſſemble their forces ſeparately, and to march by different routs to the place of rendezvous, in order to come ſuddenly upon and attack the towns of their enemies, which they ſurround, and advance with the moſt dreadful ſhouts; and, if ſucceſsful, they maſſacre all they meet with in them, ſparing neither age nor ſex. After this ſanguinary heat is over, if they meet with any other of the adverſe party, or overtake any fugitives, they make ſlaves of them; but uſually put to death thoſe who are allied to the chief, fearing they might at ſome future time become formidable, ſhould they be ſuffered to ſurvive.

With reſpect to their political management of the war, they depute ſpies to obſerve the condition, number, and ſituation of the enemy, if on a march, or encamped; or to reconnoitre their towns, and take notice of the importance of their fortifications, if they ſhould mean to maintain them, and ſtand a ſiege. If threatened to be attacked by others, they ſhift their place of reſidence, drive their women and cattle into the moſt private receſſes, or places difficult of acceſs, and conſequently may be eaſily defended. Sometimes parties of only forty or fifty are ſent to plunder and deſtroy the leſſer villages and hamlets; and theſe light detachments are called ſamvouve. If opportunity ſerves, the towns are reduced to aſhes; but if they are under any apprehenſion that the flames will exaſperate the neighbouring inhabitants, who might immediately purſue them, or cut off their retreat, they ſatisfy themſelves with only plundering the towns without burning them.

Theſe kind of expeditions are named tafichamanthi, or ſecret war; and the marauders, who engage in them, are always provided with what they deem charms, which are ſmall billets written in Arabic characters; theſe they imagine will procure them ſucceſs, and bring the greateſt misfortunes on their enemies, by taking away their ſtrength, and depriving them of their courage to defend themſelves; they likewiſe imagine that they afflict their foes with innumerable diſorders, and occaſion the moſt fatal diſtempers to attack them.

Their warlike weapons vary according to the different parts of the iſland they live in. Some make uſe of a dart, which is named renelefs, with an iron point long and thick, and carry beſides fifteen leſſer darts, that are named fitoraches. Others uſe an ample ſhield, and a large dart called caubahi, but the generality uſe lances as well as darts, and the great men carry fire-arms; for to carry a lance, denotes a perſon to be of common or vulgar rank; but to bear a gun upon the ſhoulder betokens gentility, and ſhews that the bearer ranks as a nobleman, or perſon of ſuperior degree.

The iſlanders have little notion of diſcipline in their wars; they generally charge in ſeparate bodies of one hundred each; their charges are irregularly made, as each individual tries to do his beſt, but at the ſame time keeps continually ſhouting, capering, and jumping about, in order at once to intimidate the enemy, and prevent any aim being taken at himſelf; ſo that an attack thus made, appears to be rather the aſſault of a promiſcuous mob, than the well conducted onſet of diſciplined troops. When an enemy falls, he is immediately pierced through with darts by as many as can come near him, and his throat is afterwards cut from ear to ear. And we are told, that during the time of war, the women keep up continual dancing (alternately) by day and night, never eat or ſleep in their own houſes, and, however addicted to incontinency, never ſuffer the company of another man, whilſt their huſbands are expoſed to danger, perſuaded that the men would be killed or wounded by infidelity in their abſence, and believe them to be animated by their continual dancing, and their ſtrength and courage increaſed; wherefore in compliance with the moſt ſuperſtitious cuſtoms and ceremonies, they keep up their dancing during the war.

If it happens that one of the princes finds himſelf too weak to oppoſe the other by force of arms, he has recourſe to negociation, and ſends ambaſſadors, laden with preſents, to ſue for peace, appoint a time and place for conference, and ſettle all the preliminaries for an accommodation. If the preſents are received, and the propoſals approved, other preſents are ſent in return, and every thing is ſettled for the intended meeting, the place appointed being always on the banks of a river. When the day arrives both princes or chiefs repair to the river at the head of their reſpective armies. Each then kills a bull in the ſight of the armies, and then they preſent to each other a piece of the liver on the end of a ſpear, which both are obliged to eat a piece of; and after this they mutually wiſh, with the moſt ſolemn aſſeveration, "That the liver may burſt them; that God may withdraw his hand from amongſt them; that they may be deſtroyed by their enemies; and that their race may end in themſelves; if they any longer think of carrying on the war; if they have any deſign of ſending witchcrafts or poiſons into the enemies country; if they carry off the cattle, or deſtroy the ſubjects of each other," &c.

Theſe people have ſome notion of aſtronomy, and divide the year like us, into twelve months: the firſt day of their year begins with the new moon in March. They have no certain and regular account of time and ſeaſons, but compute the years by the days of the weeks, beginning the year of circumciſion on Friday. They have likewiſe obſerved the motions of the heavens, the revolutions of the planets, and the ſigns of the zodiac, which, in the manner of the Europeans, they likewiſe divide into twelve ſigns; namely, in the ſpring, Alimazi, Alicarobo, Alacoſſi, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius: in ſummer, Alizadi, Adalou, Alohotſi, Capricorn, Aquarius, Piſces: in autumn, Alahemali, Azorou, Alizozo, Aries, Taurus, Gemini: in winter, Aſarata, Alaaſade, Aſamboulo, Cancer, Leo, Virgo. Thus are they correct by caſual obſervations only; and accurate, without the knowledge or uſe of inſtruments; which evince, that the heavens are an univerſal

verſal book that is open to all nations, may be read in every climate, and be ſerviceable even to the moſt ſavage and ignorant.

It is the general opinion, that the perpetual enmity, in which the Madagaſcrians ſeem to live with each other, ariſes either from jealouſy or theft; but while the former occaſions many private animoſities, the latter uſually terminates in war. Princes and nobles themſelves make no manner of conſcience of ſtealing their neighbours cattle privately; and their neighbours retaliate upon them in the ſame manner whenever an opportunity preſents. In this manner it ſometimes only prompts the party to return the ſame treatment; but, at other times it occaſions a war to break out between them.

While Mr. Drury was in captivity in the iſland of Madagaſcar, he was a ſlave to a chief of great conſequence, who was nevertheleſs very fond of ſtealing his neighbour's cattle privately. He thus deſcribes the diſtreſs which affected his mind, when he firſt went with his maſter on one of theſe expeditions: "My maſter, ſays he, attended by ſeveral of his ſlaves, took me alſo with him one evening, into the woods. I obſerved great preparations made for killing and dreſſing a bullock, or ſome ſuch thing; but there being none to kill, and it being then dark, I perceived that they walked with great circumſpection, talked ſoftly, and teſtified all the ſymptoms of ſome ſecret deſign; upon this, the tears ſtood in my eyes, imagining that they intended to cut me up, and make a meal of me; but my fright was ſoon over, when I ſaw two ſlaves hauling along a bullock by a rope faſtened to his horns, and my maſter ſtriking his lance into his throat, in order to diſpach him. They immediately cut up the carcaſe, and dreſſed his entrails after their own manner. The booty was equally divided, and I obſerved that each man took care to hide his portion in ſome private place, from whence he might convey it away by night. As ſoon as our buſineſs was over, we parted, ſome one way, and ſome another, for fear of being taken notice of. I now plainly perceived, that we were all this time plundering our neighbours of their property." Though, as we obſerved before, the wives and ſlaves of the chiefs come creeping to lick their feet when they return from war, or from a grand hunting match of wild cattle; yet when they return from their thieving matches, no ſuch homage or ſubmiſſion is paid to them.

The above gentleman has alſo given us a curious account of their manner of hunting wild cattle, which is one of the principal diverſions of theſe people, and is as follows: "It was now night, ſays he, and they were going a beef hunting: for when they go out on purpoſe to kill the beſt beaſts, they always make choice of the darkeſt nights. They permitted me, on my requeſt, to accompany them, but firſt ordered me to waſh myſelf, as they themſelves did, that we might not ſmell either of ſmoke or ſweat. I would have taken two lances according to cuſtom, but they obliged me to leave one behind, leſt two together might rattle in my hand.

"Theſe cattle feed only in the night; and if all theſe precautions were not taken, they could never be ſurprized, for they are always on their guard, ſnorting with their noſes, and liſtening after their purſuers. We can hear them roar and bellow a great way off, by which we know where they are, and we are forced always to go round, till they are directly to the windward of us, for otherwiſe they would ſoon ſcent us. As ſoon as we had got the wind and cattle right a head, and were within hearing, we walked with all the circumſpection imaginable, cropping the top of the graſs with our hands, as cloſe as poſſible, to mimick as well as we could the noiſe a cow makes when ſhe bites it. The moment they heard us, they were all huſh, not one of them bellowed or grazed, but ſeemed to liſten with the utmoſt attention; which when we perceived, we all ſtood ſtill likewiſe without a whiſper, whilſt three or four, who beſt underſtood the nature of it, continued cropping the graſs. When the cattle had liſtened till, as we imagined, they took us for ſome of their own ſpecies, they returned to their grazing, and we walked with caution nearer, ſtill mimicking them as we moved ſoftly along. Decan Murnanzac (one of the chiefs) ordered me to keep behind, leſt they ſhould diſcern my white ſkin, and be ſtartled; he alſo gave me his lamber to cover myſelf with, which was a large piece of black ſilk; ſo that, as the graſs was above knee deep, if I had been near them, they could have ſeen nothing but my face.

"We got at length among them, ſo that one of our men, with ſome graſs in his hand, and under the cover of a buſh, took hold of the dug of a cow, and finding that ſhe gave no milk, he concluded that ſhe was not lean: for which reaſon he ſtruck his lance inſtantly into her belly, and drew it out again, making no other motion. The cow, when wounded, will give a ſpring perhaps, and make a noiſe as if another had run her horns againſt her; but this is ſo common among them, that the herd is not any ways diſturbed by it; ſo that our people ſtuck three or four after this manner, and left them with an intention to come the next morning and trace them by their blood, for it is very dangerous to keep too near them in the night. As ſoon as they find themſelves ſorely wounded, they run from their companions, and will attack the firſt man they ſee. They are generally found actually dead, or fallen down in ſome wood or ſhelter of buſhes, as if they induſtriouſly endeavoured to conceal themſelves at theſe times.

"Soon after this beef-hunting, we had an accidental diverſion of another kind; our dogs had got the ſcent of ſome wild hogs that were got into a thicket, and were very buſy in running round it, but could find no entrance for a conſiderable time; at length, however, they found the path which the ſwine had made, and attempted to enter the wood by it: the paſſage was defended by a large boar who fought the dogs with great fury, and wounded one of them in a deſperate manner. Now what with the dogs on one hand, and the ſwine on the other, there was ſuch a yelping, grunting, and howling, that the woods rang with their noiſe; and one would have imagined all the hogs in the iſland had met there by conſent, in order to revenge their quarrel upon us. We laid down our burdens, and ſome of us went up to them armed with guns and lances; Decan Murnanzach ſhot the boar that wounded his dog; whereupon another, in an inſtant, defended the entrance, and fought ſo reſolutely, that neither the dogs, nor we ourſelves, could come near the cattle that were within, till we had made a paſſage behind them with our hatchets and lances; and then fired upon ſome of the moſt reſolute who turned upon us: the reſt, perceiving themſelves attacked behind, fought their way through the dogs, and ran away, with the dogs after them; when words cannot deſcribe the noiſe there was, eſpecially after a number of them were wounded by our men with their fire."

With reſpect to the political ſtate and government of this iſland, the accounts tranſmitted to us differ very much from each other, which cannot be imputed to any want of authenticity in the ſeveral authors, but to the revolutions which have ſo frequently happened; ſo that different writers, in treating of the political ſtate of Madagaſcar, at various periods, muſt of courſe vary from each other exceedingly. Hence Vincentius Albus and Gaſpar de San Bernardino have informed us, that this iſland was divided into ſix diſtinct kingdoms, whoſe ſovereigns were at continual variance with each other; and Marcus Paulus, the Venetian, tells us, that in his time it was governed by only four ſovereigns. By later accounts, however, it is certain, that every province hath its particular ſovereign, or lord, who is called deean, or dian; and this ſovereign lord appoints a tiloubei, or governor, over every village in his territories.

We have the following deſcription of one of theſe ſovereigns, given us by Mr. Drury, who was preſented to him. His hair was twiſted in knots, beginning at the crown of the head, where they formed a ſmall circle: below them was another ring of knots, and thus they were continued in ſeveral circles, each longer than that above it. On ſome of theſe knots hung fine beads; he had alſo a forehead-piece of beads, that hung ſo low as to reach his noſe. About his neck he had a fine necklace, formed of two ſtrings of beads, ſeveral of which were of gold; this necklace hung down before in the manner of an alderman's chain, and on each wriſt he had five or ſix ſilver bracelets, and four rings of gold upon his fingers. On each ancle were near twenty ſtrings of beads ſtrung very cloſe, and exactly fitted to his legs. He had a ſilk mantle over his ſhoulders, and another piece of ſilk, as uſual, about his waiſt. But theſe princes differ as much in the diſpoſition of their ornaments, as in their paſſions.

The ſovereigns of this iſland, though they have an abſolute power over the lives of their ſubjects, and ſometimes kill with their own hand thoſe who exaſperate them, will nevertheleſs talk familiarly with every body, and ſtill preſerve a decent ſtate. They uſually give audience to their ſubjects ſitting croſs-legged on a mat. Theſe princes have no regular bodies of troops trained to war, but make uſe of their vaſſals, who endeavour to imitate their bravery; but generally fly when they ſet them the example, or when they are killed. Their arms are lances, hatchets made in the country, and guns purchaſed of the Europeans, who frequent the different parts of the iſland.

In this iſland, the civil government is not dependent on edicts or public inſtruments; nor is there a written law in the whole country. The firſt guide of theſe people is a kind of natural law, ariſing from the common occurrences of life, founded on the feelings of human nature, reſulting from reaſon, and handed down by tradition from father to ſon.

Here are three kinds of theſe traditional or oral laws; viz. 1. Maſſindili, or the law of the prince; 2. Maſſimpoh, or the law of individuals; and, 3. Maſſintanc, or the general law or cuſtom of the iſland; all of which appear to be founded, for the moſt part, on good ſenſe, and natural juſtice.

The law of the prince reſpects his peculiar prerogatives, and ſhews how far his will ſhould be limited, and how far his power extended. The ſecond, or the law of individuals, is of a domeſtic nature, and reſpects each individual, his manner of living, his deportment according to his circumſtances, his behaviour to perſons of his own family, or to his immediate neighbours. The third kind, is the univerſal law of the country, or what may be called the common law. It regards all occurrences, offences, and complaints which are of a public and material nature, or which in any meaſure affect the welfare of the public in general.

By the law of the prince, or the prerogative law, (which is of the firſt kind) it is made death to lie with one of the ſovereign's wives.

According to the laws of the ſecond kind, if a man is detected in robbing his neighbour of an ox or a cow, he is obliged to reſtore it ten fold. Alſo, if a man borrows an ox or a cow of his neighbour, and does not return it in a year's time, ſix calves are looked upon as an equivalent for the ox; and if he neglects payment at that time, thoſe calves are ſuppoſed to be three ſteers, and three heifers; and their increaſe, which, by a fair computation, ariſes by their growth and production, is the man's right of whom the beaſt was borrowed. And if it go on for ten years, or any longer time, it is computed what three bulls and three cows might produce in that time, all which becomes the creditor's property.

The laws of the third kind, or thoſe of a general nature, are; if a man has a criminal converſation with the wife of another man who is his ſuperior, he forfeits thirty head of cattle, beſides beads and ſhovels in abundance; but if the men are of equal degree, then the fine is only twenty head of cattle. If any one maliciouſly aſſaults another, and breaks a leg or an arm, he is fined fifteen head of cattle, as a forfeit to the party injured. If any one breaks the head of another, and the aggrieved party has not returned the blow, he receives three beeves by way of damage. If any one ſteals another's hive of honey, and is caught in the fact, the fine is three iron ſhovels; for it is to be obſerved (as trade is by way of barter), that iron ſhovels, hoes, &c. are a kind of ſmall money among theſe people. If one man's cattle breaks into another's plantation, the owner, for every beaſt found there, muſt give an iron ſhovel. If two men quarrel, and one happens to curſe the other's father or mother, whether they be living or dead, and his antagoniſt has ſo much command of himſelf as to refrain from curſing the other's father or mother, he recovers two beeves as a compenſation. If any one is found guilty of ſtealing Guiney corn, caravances, potatoes, or the like, out of any of the plantations, he forfeits a cow and a calf to the owner; but if the damage done is ſuppoſed to require a greater forfeit, more is then to be given.

Before we conclude this ſection, it will be proper to take notice, that to the ſouth-weſt of Madagaſcar, are a people who ſeem almoſt of a different ſpecies from the other inhabitants of the iſland. Theſe are called Virzimbers. Their heads are of a very ſingular ſhape, the hinder part being as flat as a trencher, and the forehead nearly ſo, which, it is obſerved, was probably occaſioned by their preſſing the child's head from its birth. Their hair is not long, like that of the other natives, nor is it quite ſo woolly as the hair of the inhabitants of Guiney.

Theſe people have a language peculiar to themſelves, though they ſpeak that of the iſland. Their religion is likewiſe different from that of the other natives, they having no owley (a kind of portable images) in their houſes; but pay an extraordinary attention to the new moon, and to ſeveral animals, as a cock, a lizard, and ſome others. When they ſit down to their meals, they take a bit of meat, and throwing it over their head, ſay, "There is a bit for the ſpirit." Then cutting four more little bits, they throw them to the lords of the four quarters of the earth. This is the general practice of thoſe who have a regard for religion, though there are many who neglect it; juſt as, in Europe, many neglect ſaying grace at their meals. But theſe people, like thoſe in the other parts of the iſland, have neither prieſts nor temples; nor is difference of religion conſidered as any crime by them.

The Virzimbers make very good earthen ware, as pots, diſhes, and jugs, glazing them both within and without; and in many other reſpects they are very ingenious artificers.

Several Engliſhmen, we are told, have at various times been driven by diſtreſs on the ſouthern coaſt of Madagaſcar, and there detained many years, among theſe were Robert Drury, a youth (to whoſe minutes we are indebted for ſeveral remarkable particulars relating to this iſland) and Mr. John Benbow, ſon of the famous admiral of that name. Drury, after having been fifteen years a ſlave, was redeemed by captain William Mackett, and brought to England in 1716. He reſided in London many years, and there publiſhed an account of his adventures. Benbow alſo lived many years after his return to England, and wrote a deſcription of the ſouthern part of the iſland, which was handed about in manuſcript among his acquaintance, and by that means was loſt; this curious performance having been in vain attempted to be recovered by the family.

SECT. V.

Containing an Account of the Religious Ceremonies and Superſtitious Rites of the Inhabitants of MADAGASCAR; their Form of Circumciſion; ſome Particulars relative to their Funerals; and of the Ombiaſſes, or pretended Magicians.

THE inhabitants of Madagaſcar have no particular places of religious worſhip; nor do they offer up prayers, unleſs their occaſional incantations may be ſo called, notwithſtanding they adore and acknowledge one Supreme God, whom they call Deaan Unghorras, which ſignifies the Lord above; who created the heavens and the earth, all animated beings, and an innumerable hoſt of angels, in ſeven days. Yet after having this juſt idea of the deity, they have not any notion that it is neceſſary to worſhip him, or pay him divine honours. They likewiſe ſay, there are four other lords, each of whom has his reſpective quarter of the world, as the northern, the eaſtern, the ſouthern, and the weſtern lords. The eaſtern lord they ſay is the diſpenſer of plagues and miſeries to mankind, by the permiſſion or command of the Supreme God; and though the others alſo fulfil his commands, they are chiefly the diſpenſers of benefits. They conſider their lords as mediators between men and the great God, on which account they have an high veneration for them, and recommend themſelves to them in their prayers and offerings.

Almoſt every perſon is ſuppoſed to have a diſtinct and ſeparate ſpirit who preſides over his actions, and preſents his prayers to the Lord above; and the people expect, that after a ſacrifice, theſe ſpirits will tell them in dreams what they are to do, and warn them of the dangers that will await them. This naturally renders them ſuperſtitious with reſpect to dreams, and their moſt common concerns.

They perform the rite of circumciſion, but with very different ceremonies from thoſe practiſed by the Jews and Mahometans, from whom they are ſaid to have received the cuſtom, by means of Arabs, who came to ſettle there. This ceremony is performed every third year; at which time they build a hall raiſed upon wooden pillars, and encompaſſed with a palliſado of ſtakes. The great lord of the province kills a bull, and having ſpilt the blood of it, mixed with honey-wine, round the building, he opens the palliſado and plants at that opening a banana-tree, with leaves and fruit, on which hangs a girdle tinged with the blood of the bull: after which that place is looked upon as ſacred; no perſon approaches it but with the utmoſt reſpect, and none enter into it.

The fathers of the children who are to be circumciſed faſt during the eight days of the moon of March, and the laſt day they walk abroad two and two, carrying the children on their ſhoulders, wrapped up in paans. The young men who are not married follow them, and holding their ſabres in their hands, they make threatening motions with them, as though they were going to attack an enemy. After they have walked three times round the donac (the

lord's houſe), they ſtop before the door, and, dividing themſelves into troops, they exerciſe themſelves a long while in feigned attacks, till being tired at laſt, they are obliged to ſit down on mats prepared for them.

The next day a prieſt or marabout runs like a madman into all the cottages, in order to drive away the evil ſpirit out of the bodies of theſe children; he threatens him, and at length makes the people believe that he has forced him to come into the body of a chicken, which is tied up in a baſket, and, cruſhing it to death, he tells them the children are delivered from that evil ſpirit. The fathers and mothers preſent themſelves afterwards before the great lord, with as many oxen and as many black chickens as there are children to be circumciſed, and the lord appoints the day on which the ceremony is to be performed.

That day being come, the lord, ſitting at the entry of the hall, receives, on a table covered with paans or carpets, the offerings of the mothers; then he enters into the hall, and ſits down in the middle of it, and the fathers holding their children on a very ſmooth ſtone, the lord cuts off the prepuce; which done, the father immediately cuts the throat of the chicken, makes the blood of it drop on the ground, and gives the child back to the mother; who, dipping cotton into the blood of the ox that has been killed, and into that of the chicken alſo, ties it about the wound of the child.

The following account of their method of thankſgiving after a ſucceſsful war, is extracted from Drury. "The inhabitants (ſays he) have in all their houſes, a ſmall portable utenſil, which is devoted to religious uſes, and is a kind of houſhold altar, which they call the owley. It is made of a peculiar wood, in ſmall pieces neatly joined, and making almoſt the form of a half-moon, with the horns downwards, between which are placed two alligators teeth. This is adorned with various kinds of beads, and ſuch a ſaſh faſtened to it behind as a man ties about his waiſt when he goes to war. However, I obſerved that they brought two forks from the woods, and fixed them in the ground, on which was laid a beam, ſlender at each end, and about ſix feet long, with two or three pegs in it, and upon this they hung the owley. Behind it was a long pole, to which a bullock was faſtened with a cord. They had a pan full of live coals, upon which they threw an aromatic gum, and planted it under the owley. Then they took a ſmall quantity of hair from the tail, chin, and eye-brows of the ox, and put them on the owley. Then my maſter uſed ſome particular geſtures with a large knife in his hand, and made a formal incantation, in which the people joined. In the next place, they threw the ox on the ground, with his legs tied faſt together, and my maſter cut his throat." Thus this ceremony ended; and this is deemed an oblation for having obtained a victory over an enemy.

Theſe people have a great veneration for their forefathers, and have an aſſurance of their ſpirits always exiſting, which appears in almoſt every circumſtance of the few religious acts which they perform. The burial of the dead is very ſingular and ſolemn. As they treat each other in all calamities and misfortunes with great humanity, ſo they frequently viſit the ſick, and contribute all in their power to aſſiſt the afflicted family, and to reſtore thoſe to health who are ill. When a perſon dies, all the relations and neighbours come to the houſe, the women lament, and the men aſſiſt in preparing for the funeral, the manner of which we have already deſcribed.

Each family has a peculiar burying-place, which none dare to break into; it is encloſed with a kind of palliſadoes. No perſon is permitted to enter theſe burying-grounds but ſome of the neareſt relations. They commonly go once a year to theſe burying-places to clear them of weeds, but never enter them till they have burnt a bullock or a cow before the ſepulchre.

Their method of mourning doth not conſiſt in the colour or form of the garment, but in ſhaving their heads; and every man under the juriſdiction of a king, or lord, who does not do this at the death of his prince, is eſteemed diſaffected to the royal family.

Theſe people are extremely ſuperſtitious in their implicit obedience to all the directions of their ombiaſſes, or magicians, who pretend to know the ſecret powers of nature, and how to engage the aſſiſtance of the guardian ſpirits on all occaſions. Nothing of importance can be undertaken without conſulting them; and it appears that ſome of the lords, who are men of ſenſe, keep one of theſe conjurors out of policy, only to amuſe their people, who, they think, ought to be humoured in their bigotry, and captivated by the artifices of theſe impoſtures, in order to render them more tractable and obedient. Theſe ombiaſſes, however, never interfere in the acts of their religion, except in fixing the proper minute of performing them: nor in religious matters is any one offended becauſe his neighbour has ſome ceremonies of his own, and deviates from the forms generally practiſed.

The firſt order of ombiaſſes is uſually compoſed of white Madagaſcrians, who practiſe phyſic, teach the Arabic language, compoſe the ziridzi, or Arabic words, written on ſmall billets, which are uſed as charms; act as ſchoolmaſters, conjurors, wizards, &c. The ſecond order are black ombiaſſes; and theſe, by pretending to geomancy, or the art of divination, upon all occaſions, live with great reputation among the people, and accumulate conſiderable profits to themſelves. There is alſo a claſs of inferior ombiaſſes, which are placed upon the footing of quacks, as not being deemed ſo regular in their profeſſion as the two former orders. Theſe, however, viſit the ſick, not to adminiſter medicines, but to predict the event of the diſorder; their predictions uſually being favourable or unfavourable according to the amount of the fee.

Moſt of their traditions and religious principles have been introduced by the Mahometan Arabs, who were the progenitors of thoſe people called the Madagaſcrian whites; it is therefore no wonder that they ſhould have made ſuch a ſelection of Chriſtian, Jewiſh and Mahometan tenets, and have interlarded them with abſurdities of their own; nor can we be ſurpriſed that they ſhould have attempted to make the Mahometan the prevailing and primitive religion, ſince, where chronology is unknown, any error which dates alone can rectify may be imbibed. However, they are in a great meaſure right in their notions reſpecting Chriſt, as they allow that he was ſent by God; that he was not begotten of man, that he was born of a virgin; that he was God and man; that he was a great prophet, and that he was crucified by the Jews; but then they add, that God, not thinking proper that he ſhould die, ſubſtituted a malefactor in his place, who died inſtead of him. The latter circumſtance might originate from the ſcriptural account of the malefactor who was crucified at the ſame time with Chriſt; but muſt have been adopted from their total ignorance of the end for which the Redeemer of mankind came into the world.

SECT. V.

Of the Hiſtory and Revolutions in the Iſland of MADAGASCAR.

AS the people of this iſland are without public records, or the chronological knowledge of events, conſequently the antient hiſtory of the country cannot be given by us. All that is known is from oral tradition; but the tranſactions thus handed down are too futile and vague, and too much interwoven with fiction, to merit notice. We are indeed told, that the province of Anoſſi, which has been better known to the Europeans than any other part of the iſland, was previous to the arrival of the French, governed by a ſovereign, who was not only honoured as a king, but almoſt revered as a god. His name was Andian Ramach, and on his demiſe devolved to Andian Maroarive, who was a Chriſtian, having been educated at Goa, and baptized by the jeſuits. He however, ſoon turned to paganiſm, and was afterwards, on the attack of the town of Franchere by the French, killed by a muſket-ball.

In the year 1642, captain Rivault, a Frenchman, obtained permiſſion from cardinal Richlieu, for nine years, to ſend ſhips and forces to Madagaſcar, and the neighbouring iſlands, in order to eſtabliſh a colony and plantation, and eſtabliſh an excluſive commerce there. For the ſaid purpoſe, this gentleman erected a ſociety, under the name of a French Eaſt India company, and the grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years more privilege: ſo that it extended to the year 1661. In the mean time, that is, immediately ſubſequent to the making out of the grant, A. D. 1642, the firſt ſhip was ſent under the command of captain Coquet, who was going to load ebony at Madagaſcar, on the account of himſelf and ſome private merchants; but had orders to take with him two governors, whoſe names were Pronis and Fauquenbourg, and twelve other Frenchmen, theſe being commanded to land and remain there, till the arrival of a ſhip from France, which was in November following.

In September captain Coquet arrived at Madagaſcar, having in his way anchored at the iſland of Bourbon, which

which he took poſſeſſion of in the name of the king of France; touching afterwards at the iſle of St. Mary, he did the ſame; and, ſailing to the bay of Antongil in Madagaſcar, he acted in a ſimilar manner. Pronis and Fauquenbourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia, in the province of Manghabei, which is one of the principal places in the iſland.

On the firſt of April in the enſuing year, the expected ſhip from France arrived. It was named the St. Lawrence, and was under the command of captain Giles Reſimont. This officer brought ſeventy men with him, to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the French would obtain too firm a footing in their country, meditated an oppoſition; but their intentions were prevented, or at leaſt delayed, by the prudent conduct and timely preſents of Pronis. Upon this ſucceſs, Pronis ſent twelve men to penetrate into the province of Matatan, ſix of whom were cut off by the natives, and the reſt compelled to retreat; and ſoon after captain Reſimont's ſon and ſix ſailors were murdered in the province of Vohitſbang. This oppoſition was owing to the ſecret intrigues of the leading men in Anoſſi, who, from their maritime ſituation, did not dare to offend the French themſelves; but upon all occaſions, ſtirred up the people of other provinces to oppoſe and murder them.

Captain Pronis, in 1644, thought proper to remove from St. Lucia to the bay of Tholongare, where he began to fortify himſelf; and having reduced almoſt the whole province of Anoſſi by force of arms, he built fort Dauphin, the ſituation of which was excellent, the harbour commodious and finely ſheltered, and the entrance very convenient for ſhipping of any burden. Behind the fort, he erected ſeveral other buildings, with large incloſures, which produced various ſorts of vegetables and fruits. However, in 1650, the fort, by ſome unforeſeen accident, took fire, and was totally deſtroyed; but was ſoon afterwards rebuilt, and ſtrongly garriſoned; the French being always at variance with the natives, and frequently at war with them.

The celebrated French governor, Flacourt, in the year 1651, at the head of eighty Frenchmen, and a great number of armed negroes, ravaged the country to a conſiderable diſtance from the fort, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and deſtroying all the houſes and huts in his way. This occaſioned the natives to conceive an extraordinary averſion to the French; and what added to their diſlike was, that whenever any priſoners fell into the hands of the French, they looked upon them all in an equal light, and ſold them indiſcriminately to the then Dutch governor of the iſland of Mauritius, not making any diſtinction between deeans or lords, freemen or ſlaves; or ſhewing any greater reſpect to their ladies, when captives, than to women of a lower rank. After theſe tranſactions, the French, finding that the idea of conquering Madagaſcar was chimerical; and the danger and expences of maintaining a colony, and keeping up a fortreſs there, were not recompenced by the profits accruing from the ſettlement, thought proper to abandon the iſland, and all projects relative to the reduction of it.

Mr. Drury, during his captivity in this iſland, has collected ſeveral traditional accounts given by the natives, of the attempts made by the French to ſettle on and ſubdue Madagaſcar, which being extremely curious, we ſhall here preſent to our readers for their entertainment. "This part of the country (ſays he) to which the French have given the name of port Dauphin, is called Antenoſa, in the Madagaſcar language. There came hither, upwards of a century ago, two French ſhips, on what account I cannot learn; however, they came to an anchor cloſe under land, in a very good harbour. The captains, obſerving that there was plenty of cattle, all kinds of proviſions, and a very good ſoil, determined that one of them ſhould ſtay here, and eſtabliſh a ſettlement. Hereupon they caſt lots who ſhould continue on the iſland, and the perſon on whom the lot fell was captain Meſmerrico, who landed with two hundred white men, well armed, and provided with ſtore of ammunition, and other neceſſaries for the building of a fort, which they immediately began.

No ſooner had the natives obſerved their intention, but they uſed their utmoſt art and induſtry to prevent them: this created a war, in which the French were the victors, who took at ſeveral times a great number of priſoners. In this war, the king Antenoſa and his brother were killed; and, amongſt many other children that were made captives, the king's ſon was one. When the French had ſuppreſſed the natives, and completed their fort, the ſhips ſet ſail for France, and carried with them this young prince, and ſeveral other perſons of diſtinction.

The natives, about a year after this expedition, began to be better reconciled to the French, notwithſtanding they were ſecretly diſguſted at the indignity offered to their young prince, and could by no means reliſh the government and direction of foreigners: however, the French, by their artful and cunning deportment and inſinuations, gained ſo much friendſhip among them, that they married, and lived up and down in ſeveral towns, at ſome diſtance from each other; and not above five or ſix in a place. They occaſionally aſſiſted the natives in their wars againſt a king that reſides to the northward, whom they defeated, took a great number of ſlaves, and many cattle. In this manner they lived for ſome years with great tranquillity, neglecting their fort, and extending themſelves all over the whole country of Antenoſa: but at laſt, as their families grew numerous, the natives grew jealous; and recollecting how inhumanly they had treated their prince, and perceiving them thus ſcattered and diſperſed, they thought this a favourable opportunity to free themſelves from a foreign yoke. Hereupon they formed a conſpiracy to cut off all the white men in one day, and the Wedneſday following it was put in execution, not leaving a white man alive in the place.

A French ſhip ſoon after came thither as uſual; when the maurominders, or ſlaves, who retained a reſpect for the French, got a canoe, and went off to them, and informed them that their countrymen were all maſſacred. The captain was ſtartled, and deeply concerned at this melancholy news, but could not revenge their cauſe, being glad to ſteer another courſe, without making the leaſt attempt to go on ſhore; ſo that the natives, having now nobody to interrupt them, put their government into its original form, and made choice of one for their king who was the neareſt related to the former; there being no other ſon but him whom the French took captive.

They lived peaceably under this new king's direction for ſeveral years, no French ſhip ever preſuming to come near them; but now and then an Engliſh ſhip paid them a viſit; and they traded in a fair and honeſt manner with the officers on board. But ſome years after this, a French ſhip, homeward bound from India, happened to be in great diſtreſs for want of water and proviſions, and could not compaſs the cape. Though port Dauphin lay very commodious for the captain, yet he knew that the natives were their implacable enemies, neither was he ignorant of the real occaſion; and therefore reſolved to make uſe of the following ſtratagem. Under pretence of being ſent ambaſſador from the French king, he went on ſhore in great pomp, and with proper attendants. The ſhip lay at anchor as near the ſhore as poſſible, in order to be within reach of their guns, in caſe any acts of hoſtility ſhould be ſhewn them. The natives, who came down to them, aſked if they were Engliſh or French? They replied, the latter; but they were ſent by expreſs orders from the French king, with ſome valuable preſents, and were inclined to make a treaty of peace. The king they had laſt choſen, whom we have mentioned before, died about a month before their arrival, and no new one was then elected in his ſtead; but the old queen (mother of the young prince, whom they had ſo clandeſtinely conveyed away ſome years before) being then alive, gave directions that the ambaſſadors ſhould be conducted to her houſe. His men carried a number of things of no great value with them; but ſuch, however, as they knew would be highly agreeable in this country. Theſe were formally preſented in the name of the French king; and the queen teſtified her ſatisfaction in the reception of them, by entertaining the captain in the moſt elegant manner ſhe could deviſe. This day paſſed in compliments, mutual preſents, and ſuch other ceremonies as were conſiſtent with their ideas of public grandeur.

The next day the queen ſent for the captain, and informed him, that ſhe expected his men, as well as himſelf, ſhould take the oaths, according to the cuſtom of her country. The captain having readily agreed to her propoſition, the ceremony was performed after the following manner: The holy owley (of which we have already given ſome account) was brought out, and hung upon a piece of wood laid croſs-wiſe on two forks, all which were cut down on this ſolemn occaſion; as was alſo a long pole, to which a bullock was faſtened: this was provided by the queen, and when killed, they took part of the tail, and ſome of the hair of the noſe and eyebrows, and put them on ſome live coals under the owley: they then took ſome of the blood, which they ſprinkled upon

upon it, and upon the beam whereon it hung; the liver alſo was roaſted, and a piece placed on it; two other pieces were put on two lances, which were ſtuck in the ground betwixt the queen and the ambaſſador: after which the queen ſwore firſt to this or the like effect; "I ſwear by the great God above, by the four gods of the four quarters of the world, by the ſpirits of my forefathers, and before this holy owley; that neither I, nor any of my offſpring, nor any of my people, who aſſiſt at this ſolemnity, or their iſſue, ſhall or will wittingly or willingly kill any Frenchman, unleſs he firſt proves the aggreſſor: and if we or any of us, mean any other than the plain and honeſt truth by this proteſtation, may this liver, which I now eat, be converted into poiſon, and deſtroy me immediately." Having repeated this form of words, ſhe took the piece of liver off the lance, and eat it; which when ſhe had done, the ſham ambaſſador followed her example.

"After this ſolemn contract was concluded, the captain, or quondam ambaſſador, ſtayed on ſhore about two or three days, and ſent on board what proviſions his people wanted. A firm friendſhip being now eſtabliſhed between them, they ſtrove who ſhould outvie the other in the arts of courteſy and complaiſance. The captain invited the queen to go on board his veſſel, and ſhe very readily went with ſeveral of the chief of her people, who were treated by the captain with great magnificence, and to her intire ſatisfaction.

"When the queen returned on ſhore in the ſhip's boat, ſhe ſtood looking about her for ſome time after ſhe was landed. The Frenchmen, not regarding the preſence of the black queen, ſtripped, and ſwam about to waſh and cool themſelves; her majeſty, obſerving the whiteneſs of their ſkins, indulged her curioſity in looking on them: at laſt, perceiving one man, whoſe ſkin was much darker than the reſt of his companions, as he came towards the ſhore, and was going to put on his cloaths, ſhe eſpied a particular mole under his left breaſt; ſhe went to him immediately, and, looking more wiſhfully on it, would not permit him to put on his ſhirt; but claimed him as her ſon, who had been carried away when a child many years before; and had not patience to reſtrain herſelf, but ran to him, (crying with joy, that ſhe had found her ſon) threw her arms about his neck, and almoſt ſtifled him with kiſſes. This ſurpriſed all the people, as well blacks as whites; till having recovered herſelf a little, ſhe turned to them and told them this was her ſon; and ſhewed them the private mark. They who had known the young prince, drew near, viewed the mole, and acquieſced with her, that it muſt be he, and no other.

"The Frenchmen could not tell what to make of this odd diſcovery, nor what fatal conſequences might poſſibly attend it. The captain, therefore, taking the man aſide, adviſed him to give as artful anſwers as he could to what queſtions they ſhould aſk him, for their ſafety's ſake. Now there were ſeveral blacks who ſpoke French, and by their means the Frenchman as ſoon underſtood the queen as they did. She deſired they would aſk him, If he knew the country he was born in? He anſwered, he could remember nothing of it, for he was carried from his native place when a child. She aſked him, If he knew her? He ſaid, he could not pretend to ſay abſolutely that he did: but he thought ſhe bore a great reſemblance to ſomebody he was much uſed to when young. This confirmed them more and more in their opinion: as to his being white ſkinned, they thought that might eaſily be from his wearing cloaths, during the time he was abſent from home: and his hair was as black as theirs; ſo that it was concluded it muſt be their prince.

"The old queen was tranſported with joy at finding her ſon, and the natives were for chuſing him their king directly, he being the next heir. They aſked what was his name? He told them, he never remembered that he was called by any other name than that of Samuel; but they gave him what they thought was his original name, compounded with Tuley, which denoted his return, or arrival, ſo they called him Deean Tuley-Noro; and he was alſo further ſaluted immediately with the title of panaſker, that is, king of Antenoſia.

"The French captain and his men were ſurpriſed to find the man act his part ſo dexterouſly, not perceiving at firſt that he was in earneſt, and was as fond of being their king, as they were of electing him; though it was ſo heatheniſh a place. He had here twelve thouſand fighting men immediately under his command; and a fine ſpacious and plentiful country. The ſhip's crew ſailed away, and left him behind them; but as often as the French had occaſion for what this iſland afforded, they made it a conſtant practice to put into port Dauphin, and traffic with them.

"About three years before we were caſt away, continue Drury, a French ſhip happening to be there, ſome of th men got drunk; and in a quarrel with ſome of the natives told them, that king Samuel was not their lawful prince but that he was ſtill reſident in France. This might have proved of very fatal conſequence to him, but he took ſuch care to prevent it as no one could juſtly blame him for: he ſent for the man who made this public declaration, and ordered him to be ſhot to death; he commanded likewiſe his companions to depart forthwith, and aſſured them, that if ever they, or any of their countrymen, preſumed to come within his territories again, they ſhould be ſeverely puniſhed.

"It was once expected, ſays Mr. Salmon, that the pirates would have made a ſettlement in this iſland, and uſurped the dominion of it, having ſix or ſeven ſail of ſhips, with which they uſed to infeſt the Indian ſeas, and carry their prizes into a place of ſecurity, on the north-eaſt part of Madagaſcar, where they poſſeſſed themſelves of a harbour of difficult acceſs, and defended from ſtorms by the little iſland of St. Mary's, which lies before it in ſeventeen degrees ſouth latitude.

"The court of England, about the year 1700, ſent a ſquadron of four men of war, commanded by commodore Warren, to drive the pirates from thence; but he, finding it impoſſible to come at them, publiſhed a proclamation, in purſuance of his inſtructions, offering a pardon to all that would come in, except Avery their leader; but not a man came over to him. The commodore afterwards proceeded to fort St. George in the Eaſt Indies, where the writer of theſe papers ſaw him. This gentleman uſed his utmoſt diligence to meet with the pirates in the ſeas of India, but to no purpoſe; and having left one or two of his ſhips on the ſhoals near Malacca, returned with the reſt to England: however, his expedition had this good effect, that the pirates durſt not ſtir out from Madagaſcar; and, finding they were ſo narrowly watched, they agreed to divide what they had got, and diſperſe themſelves. Two of them were afterwards taken by the Dutch at Malacca; and, being ſent to fort St. George, were brought over to England in the Howland, being the ſame ſhip in which the author came home in the year 1701.

We find, however, from more recent accounts, that Avery diſſipated his immenſe wealth, returned to England incognito, lived many years privately and poorly, and at length died in great indigence and miſery at Biddeford in Devonſhire, thus concluding a life of wickedneſs in a death of anguiſh and unavailing remorſe.

Another Engliſh pirate, named Plaintain, ſettled here about the year 1740, and attempted to profit by the diviſions among the petty princes of the iſland, ſometimes taking the part of one, and ſometimes of another, by which conduct he made himſelf reſpectable among the natives, till each individual of his crew affecting the ſtate of nobility, and growing too proud to be commanded, the captain found himſelf intirely deſerted, when, venturing to ſea in an open boat, with only one aſſociate, he landed on the coaſt of Malabar in India, and entered into the ſervice of the celebrated piratical prince Angria, whoſe fleet were deſtroyed in the year 1755 by admiral Watſon, ſix of his forts were levelled with the ground, and his principal fort was afterwards taken by general Clive and the Engliſh fleet in 1756, together with his treaſure; and his family were at the ſame time made priſoners by admiral Watſon, who behaved towards them with the greateſt generoſity and humanity.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the places where the Europeans have attempted to make ſettlements on the iſland of Madagaſcar; the moſt remarkable of which are the bay of Antongil, the iſland of St. Mary, fort Dauphin, and the bay of St. Auguſtine.

1. The bay of St. Antongil is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt, in the ſixteenth degree of ſouth latitude; it extends about fourteen leagues due north, and is nine leagues broad at its entrance. In the bottom of the bay is a ſmall iſland, which affords plenty of proviſions, good water, and a ſafe harbour for ſhipping. This bay was once frequented by the Dutch, who had a kind of factory there; conſiſting of fourteen men, for buying of ſlaves and rice; but ſome of them died with ſickneſs, and others were murdered by the inhabitants, whom they treated with inſolence.

2. The iſland of St. Mary, alſo called Noſſi Ibrahim, or the iſle of Abraham, is ſituated to the ſouthward of the bay of Antongil, in the ſeventeenth degree of ſouth latitude, and is four miles long from north to ſouth, but

but its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt does not exceed nine miles; the neareſt part is about two leagues diſtant from the coaſt.

This iſland is entirely ſurrounded with rocks, over which canoes may paſs at high water; but at ebb there is not above half a foot depth, and on theſe rocks may be ſeen the fineſt white coral in the world. Ambergris is often found on the eaſtern coaſt of the iſland, and the iſland itſelf affords many ſorts of gums. But we ſhall give a fuller deſcription of this iſland hereafter.

3. Fort Dauphin, which was erected by the French, is ſituated near the ſouth-eaſt point of Madagaſcar, in twenty-four degrees twenty-five minutes ſouth latitude, near the mouth of the river Franchere; but the French finding that the trade there did not anſwer the expence of keeping the colony, quitted it long ſince.

4. St. Auguſtine's Bay is on the weſtern coaſt of Madagaſcar, in twenty-three degrees thirty minutes ſouth latitude, that is, juſt under the tropic of Capricorn. It is formed by the mouth of the river Yong Lahe. The Engliſh formerly traded at this bay, and at other places on the weſtern ſide of the iſland, for ſlaves.

The Europeans who frequented the iſland of Madagaſcar, purchaſed ſcarce any thing there but ſlaves and cattle, which the natives exchanged for guns, gun-powder, beads, cloathing, and hardware; and here the ſhips bound to and from India ſometimes ſtop, in order to furniſh themſelves with water, freſh proviſions, and fruits, for which they give pieces of ſilk, calicoe, and ſome of the above articles, by way of barter.

It is thought the French will again attempt to eſtabliſh themſelves in this iſland, if not prevented by the other maritime powers.

SECT. VII.

Deſcribing the Iſland and Streight of BABELMANDEL, near the Red Sea; alſo the Iſlands of MASUA, MARATA, SWAKEN, and BARBORA.

THE ſtreights of Babelmandel join the Indian ocean to the Red ſea. The name given to them is a corruption of the words babal mandul, which latter ſignifies "the gate of weeping," an epithet given by the Arabs to theſe ſtreights, on account of the danger that attended the navigation of them, which was conceived to be ſo great that when any of their relations paſſed them, they put on mourning, as for perſons whom they had given over for loſt. Nevertheleſs, many, allured by the hope of gain engaged in theſe voyages, notwithſtanding the dangers they were expoſed to.

The Arabian gulf, or Red ſea, which includes the ſtreights of Babelmandel, begins on that part of the ocean, bounded, on the ſide of Africa, by cape Guardafuy, of Old Aromata; and, on the ſide of Aſia, by cape Tartak. The ſhores run weſtward from theſe capes as far as Aden and Zeyla; and proceed from thence, narrowing with deſart coaſts, and with little windings, till they meet with two promontories in the mouth of the Arabic gulf.

The part of the promontory on the Arabian ſide, was antiently called Poſſodium, but the name of that on the European ſide is loſt. The Arabians and Indians called the intermediate ſtreight Albano, which ſignifies the gates or mouths, as it is not above ſix leagues wide, and ſo interſperſed with little iſlands, as ſcarce to admit of ſhipping to paſs through its narrow channels. Theſe ſmall iſlands are full of bays, ports, nooks, creeks, &c. the ebbing and flowing of the waters into and from which greatly impede the navigation here.

The cape on the ſide of Arabia, appears to thoſe at ſea, to be an iſland at a conſiderable diſtance from the main land. The iſland of Robon, or Roboan (ſignifying, in Arabic, a pilot) is not far from the cape. This appellation was given to the iſland, becauſe ſeveral pilots, who underſtood the navigation of theſe ſtreights, reſided here.

The iſland of Robon is very flat, and not two miles in compaſs. The water from here to the promontory is ſo ſhallow, that, when the tide is low, it may eaſily be forded.

Here is another iſland about a league farther: it is ſomething bigger than Robon's iſland; but, though it has a very good haven, is unfrequented.

It muſt naturally be ſuppoſed, that, by means of ſo many iſlands, ſeveral channels are made; yet as there is eleven fathom depth quite through, and neither flat ſhoals, nor any other obſtruction, the principal of them may be paſſed in the midſt, ſteering north-weſt by weſt, or ſouth-eaſt by eaſt.

Though the other channels are not quite ſo wide as the above, they may be as eaſily navigated; and as the Arabians do not appear at preſent to be afraid of ſailing on theſe ſtreights, we may ſuppoſe they are either more ſkilful in maritime affairs, or leſs fearful than they formerly were, when they named them.

The iſland of Bab or Babelmandel, is ſituated towards the entrance into the Red ſea, and forms one ſide of the ſtreights of Babelmandel, lying in twelve degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and is about five miles in circumference. It was formerly called the iſland of Diodorus, but now the Port of Afflictions. This iſland ſtands in the very middle of the ſtreights, about four miles from the Arabian, and the ſame diſtance from the Abyſſinian coaſt, directly oppoſite to cape Zeila. Hence it forms two fine channels, one on each ſide of it, and from its ſituation might, if properly fortified, command both. Antient hiſtorians affirm, that the kings of Egypt fortified theſe channels, by laying booms or chains acroſs both, from the iſland to the continent on each ſide. This iſland is important on no other account than its admirable ſituation, as neither grain, roots, herbage, or fruits, are produced in it. However the Arabs of the kingdom of Adel and the Abyſſinians formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of it, and became maſters of it alternately, till the Portugueſe took it, and demoliſhed the fortifications. Since the Turks have poſſeſſed themſelves of both ſhores, the iſland is in a manner deſerted, being a ſandy, barren ſoil, with a few poor inhabitants, and affording ſcarce any ſuſtenance for man or beaſt.

The famous Don Juan de Caſtro, one of the commanders in the fleet of the Portugueſe, (and not Don Stefano de Gama) has given us the beſt account extant of the other iſlands in the ſtreights of Babelmandel, the navigation of theſe ſtreights, and of the Red ſea, with the entrance into the latter, which we ſhall here, for the entertainment of our readers, extract from the journals of his voyage from Goa to Suez.

De Caſtro, in paſſing the ſtreights, made an obſervation at noon, and found the mouth of them to be in twelve degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and two hours after midnight the Portugueſe ſet ſail for the mouth of the ſtreights. In the morning they ſaw both coaſts, being nearer the Abeſhim, between which and the firſt iſland they ſailed north-weſt by weſt, the wind blowing hard at eaſt till noon. This coaſt was quite new to the Portugueſe; their diſtance from land was about four leagues. An hour after ſun riſe they ſaw a range of iſlands, moſt of them very low, which extended north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt; as the coaſt did along which they lay, for about ſixty leagues. They ſailed with a fair wind in this channel of Abeſhim, having iſlands on both ſides all the way.

Ships cannot ſail here by night, or without the wind in the poop; for if it happens to change it is impoſſible to tack about or come to an anchor, till the ſhip arrives at the firſt iſlands, which are nine little ones. After having paſſed theſe, the ſea becomes more open and free, but, towards the ſhore, there are ſeveral iſlands and rocks, which render the navigation dangerous if a veſſel keeps too near the coaſt; and De Caſtro thinks that none ſhould attempt the navigation of the ſtreights of Babelmandel, or the Red ſea, without a pilot belonging to the country. A little farther are ſeven ſmall iſlands, called the Seven Siſters, between which and the ſhore are ſome very dangerous rocks. After having paſſed theſe, they arrrived at the iſland of Sorbo, and anchored in nine fathom and a half water in a harbour of the ſame name.

The iſland of Sorbo, according to this journaliſt, is in fifteen degrees ſeven minutes north latitude. It is near twenty miles in circumference, and belongs to a great archipelago of iſlands, about four leagues from the Abyſſinian coaſt, and twenty-four ſhort of Maſua. The Portugueſe roved about this iſland, and perceived it was low and full of trees, but the trees were all ſhort, or of the ſhrub kind; the plains were verdant, and they diſcovered the tracks of men and beaſts in ſeveral places, though they did not happen to meet with either, a camel excepted, on which account they called it Camel iſland. After all their reſearches, they did not find any water, except in one well digged in a ſtone, and made principally for the reception of rain, as they conjectured.

After leaving Sorbo, they ſailed among many iſlands, moſt of which were very low, and almoſt even with the ſea. In their paſſage, they kept about a league to the right of them; and in the evening ſaw alſo to the right, about

four leagues diſtant, a very long range of iſlands, extending near five leagues in length, north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, as near as could be judged. The depth of water was continually twenty-five fathom, in an oozy bottom; and the coaſts here ſtretched north-weſt by weſt, and ſouth-eaſt by eaſt.

After this, they entered the channel between the point of Dahlak and Shamoa; the iſland of Shamoa being the firſt they made of five very flat iſlands, which are ſituated between the ſaid point and the main land. It is two leagues in compaſs, and contains a few ſprings and wells. There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands near this latter, the names of which are unknown, and the places where they are ſituated are too inconſiderable to deſerve particular attention.

The iſland of Dahlak is ſituated near the coaſt of Habaſh or Abex, being about twenty leagues eaſtward from the continent, and about the ſame diſtance ſouth of Maſua. This iſland is near ninety miles in circumference, and is the largeſt and moſt conſiderable on the coaſt. The air is temperate and ſalubrious; the land well-watered and verdant, and the people numerous and robuſt. Great numbers of camels, oxen, goats, &c. feed in the paſtures; the ſea and rivers yield plenty of fiſh, and the inhabitants are profuſely ſupplied with honey, corn, &c. from the continent.

The pearl fiſhery here, at which many of the natives are very dextrous, conſtitutes the chief wealth of the place; and the pearls found here are ſome of the fineſt in the univerſe. Beſides pearls, this iſland produces many emeralds. We ſhall here, for the information of thoſe not verſed in natural hiſtory, give a deſcription of both theſe.

The pearl is by ſome ranked a gem, yet is not properly ſo, being a hard white and beautiful ſubſtance, having uſually a ſhining roundiſh body, found in a ſhell fiſh reſembling an oyſter. They have been highly valued in all ages, nevertheleſs proceed only from a diſtemper in the creature that produces them, being analogous to the bezoars, and other ſtony concretions in ſeveral kinds of animals. And what the antients imagined to be a drop of dew concreted into a pearl in the body of the pearl fiſh (which they ſuppoſed roſe from the bottom to the ſurface of the water to receive it) is nothing more than the matter deſtined to form and enlarge the ſhell, burſting from the veſſels deſigned to carry it to the parts of the ſhell it ſhould have formed, by which means theſe little concretions are produced.

The emerald, is the moſt beautiful of all the claſſes of coloured gems, when perfect. It is ſometimes found in the roundiſh or pebble form; ſometimes in the columnar or cryſtalline form: but the pebble emeralds are moſt valued. Theſe are found looſe in the earth of mountains, and in the beds of rivers they are, in their natural ſtate, bright and tranſparent, though leſs gloſſy than the columnar ones. Emeralds have the green colour in all its different ſhades, from very dark to extremely pale, and are ſometimes intirely colourleſs; when it is called white ſapphire by the Engliſh jewellers.

Such of the inhabitants of Dahlak, as do not employ their time in fiſhing, are, in general, notorious pirates, and plunder all the ſhips that come in their way. They behave with aſperity to all, but particularly to the Turks, when any of them are ſo unfortunate as to fall into their hands; and when they get home, they take a peculiar pleaſure in boaſting of their piratical exploits to their wives, children, and relations.

This iſland, with many others contiguous to it, are under the dominion of the king of Dahlak; and his ſubjects conſiſt chiefly of Abyſſinian Chriſtians, or Chriſtians of the Abyſſinian church. Indeed ſome few Mahometans, of the ſect of Hali, reſide in his dominions; but theſe are very much oppreſſed by the king, and cordially hated by their Chriſtian fellow ſubjects. The people of Dahlak, who appear to be of the Ethiopic race, are black and ill-favoured; but ſtrong, robuſt, bold, daring, and loyal to their ſovereign. They are extremely ſagacious and crafty, fond of repeating and hearing entertaining tales, are very pleaſant companions, and admirably ſkilled in ſtory-telling.

The dreſs of theſe iſlanders is a large piece of ſilk or cotton (according to the reſpective ranks of the wearers) tied round the middle, and hanging down to the feet; but from the middle upwards, both ſexes go naked. Their deportment is extremely courteous to each other, but they are very uncivil and cruel to ſtrangers. They ſpeak the Arabic language, intermixed with ſome Ethiopic words.

They manufacture the goat's hair, which is here very fine and long, into tolerable camblets. The ſoil in general of this iſland is red; and though it does not produce much timber, yet it yields abundance of herbs. Here is a ſmall inſect reſembling a bee, which feeds on a kind of gum, that diſtils from a tree which hath ſome ſimilitude to a cherry-tree; and from this inſect, it is ſaid, they extract that gum-lac, uſed in varniſhing, making ſealing-wax, &c.

The iſland of Maſua is only half a mile in length, and ſomewhat leſs in breadth. It is very flat, and lies very near the main land; that is, on the north-weſt ſide. It has a good harbour, ſecure in all weathers, the depth of the water being about eight or nine fathom, and the ground oozy. The entrance of this port is on the north-eaſt ſide, towards the middle of the channel; for from the north-eaſt point of the iſland there runs a ſhoal towards another point, ſo that ſhips muſt take care to keep the middle of the channel, which runs north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, is very ſtrait, and conſequently dangerous.

With reſpect to the people here, they reſemble thoſe of Dahlak in cuſtoms, manners, vices, &c. and have likewiſe ſimilar virtues. The men are alſo of two claſſes, thoſe who follow traffic, or the pearl fiſhery, and thoſe who live by piracy; yet both claſſes are looked upon in a light equally favourable, as piracy is not deemed criminal, or even diſhonourable here. Whatever profits accrue from either trading are, by the men in general, applied to the purpoſes of gallantry, and the facilitating their amours; for the people here are very great votaries of Venus, and Cupid ſeems to reign with unbounded power; the men being as expert in intriguing, and the women as faithful in the arts of coquetry, as if they had been educated in much politer nations. As the people of Maſua are extremely warm in their paſſions, both from their manner of living, and the natural heat of the climate; ſo their ſanguine conſtitutions, and the heat of their imaginations, often occaſion them to commit very raſh actions, and their amours are frequently attended with a fatal cataſtrophe.

This iſland, with all the oppoſite coaſt, was formerly ſubject to the emperor of Abyſſinia; but within the laſt century it was ſeized by the king of Dahlak, who reſides chiefly here, for the conveniency of carrying on a trade with the continent; from whence great quantities of gold and ivory are brought to him.

During the months of May and June, the air is exceedingly unhealthy, for want of wind; ſo that the king and principal inhabitants, during theſe months, retire to Dahlak.

Two other iſlands lie very near this, to the ſouth and ſouth-weſt: the largeſt is next the land; the other, lying towards the ſouth-weſt, is very round. There are many ſhoals between this iſland and Maſua; but gallies and row-veſſels may paſs at full ſea in a channel that runs through the midſt of them.

Theſe people value themſelves upon a tradition which they have among them, that the queen of Sheba croſſed from the continent hither, and took ſhipping in their port, in order to viſit king Solomon, to whom ſhe carried immenſe riches.

There are ſome cluſters of ſmall inconſiderable iſlands between this and Marate, whoſe names are not known, and whoſe importance is ſo trifling, that geographers and navigators have not deemed them worth deſcribing.

The iſland of Marate is low and barren, of a roundiſh ſhape, about three leagues from the continent, and ſixty-ſix from Maſua; but it does not exceed five miles in circuit.

Here is a very good haven on the ſouth-weſt ſide facing the coaſt, ſecure from all winds, eſpecially the eaſtern, made by two very long points which extend north by weſt, and ſouth by eaſt, incloſing a ſpacious harbour. narrow at the mouth, where there lies a long, very flat iſland, with ſome ſand-banks and ſhoals; ſo that no ſea can get in. This port hath two entrances, both very near the points. The channel on the eaſt ſide lies north by weſt. The depth is three fathoms in the ſhalloweſt place, and increaſes advancing in the port; it is four or five fathoms near the ſhore, and is rather muddy at the bottom.

With reſpect to cuſtoms, manners, dreſs, &c. the people who inhabit this iſland differ in nothing from thoſe who reſide in Maſua, Dahlak, &c.

The iſland of Swaken is ſituated nineteen degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and thirty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and the port is deemed one of the beſt in the Red Sea. The entrance is by a narrow ſtreight, which leads to a lake; in the midſt of which is an iſland, and a town

town that covers every part of the iſland. De Caſtro, in his account of De Gama's voyage, informs us, that this town was once very important, and extremely opulent. At the time he was there, which was about the year 1540, he thus writes concerning it: "Swaken is at preſent one of the richeſt cities in the eaſt, ſtanding near the coaſt of Abyſſinia. It equals, if not exceeds, the moſt eminent places in the goodneſs and ſecurity of its harbour, facility in lading and unlading of ſhips, traffic with remote countries, ſtrength and advantageous ſituation of the town, &c. The harbour is ſheltered by nature from all winds; and the waters are ſo ſmooth and ſtill, that the tides are ſcarce perceptible. It is capable of containing two hundred large ſhips, beſides a prodigious number of gallies. The road is from five to twelve fathoms water in depth, and hath a mud bottom, which is ſeen in all places not exceeding ſeven fathoms water. The ſhips come up cloſe to the ſhore, quite round the city; and may be laden by laying a plank from them to the warehouſes of the merchants."

The ſame writer ſays, that, with reſpect to commerce, he knew no city, except Liſbon, which could compare to it, for at that time it traded to both the peninſulas of India, the Arabian and Perſian gulphs, Grand Cairo, Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Ethiopia, and other countries. For ſtrength, the city ſeemed naturally well ſecured by the many ſhoals, iſlands, rocks, ſand-banks, and intricate channels that lie from ſixteen leagues about it, which renders the approach by ſea very dangerous, and even terrible to navigators; yet the inhabitants had not taken the leſs care to defend it by art. "This city, he adds, thus ſituated, in the midſt of a circular rock, ſtands in a flat iſland almoſt perfectly round, and level with the water, about a mile in compaſs. In this ſpace there is not a foot of ground but what is taken up with houſes; ſo that all the iſland is a city, and all the city an iſland." Such was the importance and opulence of Swaken between two and three centuries ago, at which period it was under the dominion of a Caffrian prince.

After the time above-mentioned, this place has fallen into the hands of the Turks, and like moſt other places which theſe haughty, tyrannical, and indolent people have become poſſeſſed of, hath ever ſince dwindled away to little or nothing, loſt its commerce and conſequence, grown poor and thin of inhabitants, ſo that at preſent it makes but a very mean appearance, Such are the fatal effects of idleneſs, an arbitrary government, joined with ſuperſtition and ignorance!

Three other iſlands lie on the north-weſt ſide of Swaken, two of which are very ſmall, but the third, next the channel, is about as large as the city.

Between this iſland, and the coaſt on the north ſide, runs a great and long channel, where a numerous fleet may ride in ſeven fathoms water with ſafety.

The decayed city of Swaken is now the ſeat of a Turkiſh governor, who acts ſubordinate to the baſha of Grand Caira; and the modern inhabitants are principally Turks or Arabs. The houſes now remaining here, and in the other little iſlands, are all erected with ſtone and mortar, and built in the European manner. The beſt buildings in Swaken are the baths; and the moſt pleaſing amuſement which both the Turks and Arabs take, is that of bathing. Indeed the ſultry weather here ſeems to require frequent ablutions, both for health and pleaſure; and Mahomet appears to have entertained the ſame opinion of the Turkiſh dominions in general, by his having made purifications, by frequent waſhings and bathings, a duty daily incumbent on every one of his followers, and a fundamental point of the Mahometan religion.

It may not be improper to give a particular account of theſe baths, and the manner in which the perſons are treated by the attendants appointed to wait upon the perſons who frequent them: we muſt firſt of all remark, that the men never bathe with the women; and indeed there is ſo much modeſty obſerved, that any one would be reproved who ſhould happen to ſee them through inadvertency, and, if he did it by deſign, would be baſtinadoed. Some baths are for the uſe of the men in the morning, and for the women in the afternoon; others are frequented one day in the week by one ſex, and the next by the other. People are very well attended in theſe baths for three or four aſpers.

The firſt entrance is into a fine hall, in the middle of which the principal fountain appears. All round the hall is a ſmall bench, about three feet high, covered with a mat. The men ſit upon it to ſmoak, and pull off their cloaths, which are folded up in a towel. The air in this firſt hall is ſo hot, that nothing can be born upon the body, but an apron about the waiſt, to cover before and behind. In this condition a man paſſes into a ſmall hall which is ſtill warmer, and from thence into a larger, where the heat is more ſenſible. All theſe halls are generally cloſed above with ſmall domes, which let in light at the top through a round glaſs, like thoſe our gardeners put over their melons. In the laſt hall there are marble baſons with two cocks, one of hot water, and the other of cold, which every one mixes according to his own fancy, and pours upon his body with little buckets of braſs belonging to the place. The pavement of this chamber is heated by furnaces beneath, and every one walks there as long as he thinks proper.

When a man deſires to be ſcoured, a ſervant of the bath cauſes him at once to lie along upon his back, and, ſetting his knees upon his belly, preſſes and ſqueezes him violently, making every bone crack. They handle after the ſame manner the joints of the back and the ſhoulder-blades. If he would be ſhaved, the ſervant ſhaves him, or gives him a razor to ſhave himſelf. When the perſon enters the great hall, another ſervant preſſes his fleſh all over with his hands ſo dexterouſly, that having, as it were kneaded him, without doing him any harm, he forces out a ſurpriſing quantity of ſweat. The little camblet bags they make uſe of here, are inſtead of the ſtrigles of the antients, and are much more convenient. To clean the ſkin the better, they pour a great deal of hot water upon the body, and alſo uſe perfumed ſoap. They wipe the ſkin with linen very clean, dry, and warm; and the ceremony concludes with the feet, which the ſame man waſhes very carefully when the perſon returns to the hall, in which they ſmoak, drink coffee, and have collations; for after this exerciſe a man finds himſelf very hungry.

By cleanſing the glands, the bath certainly facilitates perſpiration, and conſequently the circulation of the juices, which ſupply the blood. A man perceives himſelf very light when he has been well purified; but he muſt be accuſtomed to the bath from his youth, for otherwiſe the breaſt is very much affected by theſe warm rooms.

The women are very happy when they are permitted to go to the public baths; but moſt of them (eſpecially ſuch whoſe huſbands are rich enough to build them baths at home) have not this liberty. In the public baths they entertain one another without any reſtraint, and paſs their time more agreeably than in their own apartments. The men who have any complaiſance for their wives do not refuſe them theſe innocent diverſions; for they would ſometimes ſeek reaſons for a divorce, were they under too much conſtraint.

The iſland of Barbora lies in ten degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and forty-ſeven degrees two minutes eaſt longitude; it derives its appellation from a town of the ſame name adjacent to it.

The natives of this iſland are negroes; and the common people wear cotton garments, which go round their waiſts, and hang down to their feet, the reſt of the body being bare; but thoſe of a ſuperior quality have the addition of a long cotton gown, which covers them all over, except their faces.

The ſoil of the iſland affording excellent paſture, the people great feeders of cattle; they are alſo very induſtrious traders, and carry on a conſiderable traffic, by exchanging cattle, gold, frankincenſe, ivory, pepper, &c. for clothes, amber, necklaces, glaſs beads, raiſins, dates, and other articles.

The inhabitants of Barbora exchange away either the produce of their own iſland, or what they procure from the neighbouring continent; for their labour is looking after cattle, as many of them officiate in the capacity of ſhepherds and graziers to the people of the kingdom of Adel, on the oppoſite continent.

Thoſe who here tend the herds and flocks, are ſome of the happieſt and moſt inoffenſive people in the univerſe: indeed their felicity hath been ſo much the admiration and envy of others, that many capital men from Adel, and the adjacent kingdoms, and ſeveral rich Arabian merchants, have thought proper to retire hither from the adulation of courts, the dangers of war, the hazards of commercial voyages, and the painful buſtle of trade, in order to taſte in rural retirement, thoſe delicious pleaſures which honours and riches could not procure them.

The Turkiſh, Mooriſh, Arabian, Egyptian, &c. merchants, bring their commodities hither. Their traffic, however, is much decayed ſince the Europeans have formed ſuch powerful connections in the Eaſt Indies, as the merchants above alluded to naturally repair to the beſt mart,

mart, and ſeek the moſt profitable mode of vending their commodities, or traffcking with the natives.

Theſe people are admired by all who have traded in thoſe ſeas, for their univerſal philanthropy; and are peculiar for their ſingular benevolence to each other, and their very humane treatment to domeſtic and other animals. Happy would it be for mankind in general, if ſuch virtues were more general; and that they who eſteem themſelves politer people, and boaſt of a more refined education, would copy the ſhining parts of all characters, how different ſoever from them in political or religious ſentiments, or remote with reſpect to the locality of ſituation.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Iſland of ZOCATRA, ZOCOTORA, or SOCOTORA, its Situation, Boundaries, Climate, Productions; alſo an Account of the Inhabitants, their Diſpoſition, Dreſs, Cuſtoms, Laws, Puniſhments, &c.

THIS iſland was firſt diſcovered about the year 1560, by one Ferdinand Pereira, a Portugueſe. It is ſituated about ſeventy-five miles to the north-eaſt of cape Gaurdufuy, in twelve degrees ten minutes north latitude. It is bounded on the ſouth, by the continent of Arabia, from whence it is diſtant about fifty miles; and, on the north-eaſt, by the kingdom of Melinda. It is of very conſiderable extent, being not leſs than eighty miles in length, ſixty in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in circumference. There are ſeveral good harbours on the ſhore; beſides which, there are two excellent bays, where the ſhipping ride with the greateſt ſafety. The ground in the bays is ſand, and in ſome places ſtony; but not ſo as to injure the cables.

The tides here are contrary to thoſe of India: for when the moon appeareth on the horizon, it is high-tide, which thence begins to ebb; and by the time it cometh to the meridian, it begins to flow again in the ſame order as it ſets at Goa; and it is full ſea when ſet.

The weather here is exceeding ſultry, owing to the ſhort continuance of rains, which ſeldom laſt more than two or three weeks in the ſeaſon. This defect in the climate is, however, happily remedied by heavy dews, occaſioned by the lofty mountains, whoſe tops are generally covered with ſnow, ſo high as to condenſe the clouds, and afterwards diſſolve them in a kind of thick miſt or fog.

In ſome parts of the iſland are rivers, which riſe from ſprings, and are never affected even by the drieſt ſeaſons; but other parts of it, except in the rainy ſeaſon, are totally deſtitute of water.

The inhabitants of this iſland, which is exceeding populous, are under the government of a prince or ſultan, who was once ſubject to the ſhariffs of Arabia; but is now tributary to the Turks.

This country abounds in cattle and fruit, with which, and ſome other commodities, the natives trade to Goa, where they are better received than the Arabs, who are not permitted to enter that town without paſſports. The other productions of the iſland are, aloes, frankincenſe, dragon's blood, rice, dates, ambergris, and coral. We ſhall take an opportunity of deſcribing the two laſt articles, as they have not been hitherto particularly noticed.

The former of theſe, namely ambergris, is generally of an aſh-colour, or grey, and is a fat, ſolid ſubſtance, like ſuet, but light. It is variegated like marble, and is ſometimes ſpeckled with white; it ſprings from the bowels of the earth, is condenſed in the ſea, and is found floating on the water, though ſometimes it is met with on the ſea-ſhore, where it has been thrown by the waves. It is ſometimes black as well as grey; but the grey is accounted the beſt.

There is little room to doubt that this is a ſort of bitumen, which proceeds from the earth near the bottom of the ſea; for it ſometimes contains ſtones, ſhells, the bones of animals, and the bills and claws of birds, as well as honey-combs, from which the honey has not been all loſt. Hence it appears, that this bitumen muſt have been firſt in a liquid ſtate; lumps of 200lb. weight have ſometimes been found.

When put into the fire, ambergris will melt into a ſort of gold-coloured reſin, which will kindle and burn when held to a candle. It will not diſſolve entirely in ſpirits of wine, but leaves a black, pitchy matter behind it. The ſolution, after ſome time, will leave a white cloudy ſediment, which will coagulate by little and little, and grow thick, eſpecially by the incorporation of the finer parts of the ſpirits of wine. When this is dry, it becomes a ſhining ſort of earth, not much unlike ſpermaceti. It conſiſts of oily greyiſh particles, which are very fine and volatile, with others that are thicker, ſaline, and bituminous.

Ambergris is of great uſe among perfumers; and is recommended by phyſicians for raiſing languiſhing ſpirits, and increaſing their motion; whence it is given for diſorders of the brain and heart, as well as in fainting fits. The doſe is from one grain to eight in wine or a poached egg, and, in ſubſtance, a pill of the ſize of a ſmall pea.

Coral conſiſts of various kinds; ſome of which reſemble ſmall trees without leaves; others are in the form of a net, ſometimes with large meſhes, and ſometimes with ſmall. The inſide of the branches ſeems to be of the nature of horn, for it has the ſame ſmell when put into the fire; but the bark is of a ſtony nature, and contains a great deal of ſalt.

Coral, properly ſo called, is of a ſtony nature, and is placed in the animal kingdom, becauſe it produces ſea-inſects. Some of theſe are red, and others white, and others of various colours; however, the red, of the colour of vermillion, is beſt, and is by ſome ſaid to be of the male kind, and that which is paliſh of the female. The white coral is the next in value; and next to that, the black; but ſome will not allow thoſe of the other colours to be corals, though they are found in the ſame places. It is always covered with bark, and is ſtony, ſolid, and very hard, even in the water; though the branches are a little flexible, but ſoon grow hard in the air. The bark of coral is a mixture of tartar and a fluid of a glutinous nature; and though it is a little rough, it takes a very fine poliſh.

Some perſons take the black coral to be a ſea-plant of a different nature. Red coral is not ſo much eſteemed in Europe as it is in Aſia, and particularly in Arabia. It is uſed for making ſeveral ſorts of toys, ſuch as ſpoons, heads of canes, knife-handles, ſword-hilts, and beads; and, when tipped with ſilver, it ſerves as a plaything for children, and is deſigned to rub the gums therewith, to facilitate the cutting their teeth.

There are found on the young branches of coral, ſevery ſmall eminences, in the form of ſtars, and full of a milky fluid when they are juſt taken out of the water. Many learned men have thought ſea-plants to be nothing but petrifactions, conſiſting of plates of ſalt and layers of tartar, placed one upon another; and as coral always grows with its head downwards, in caverns of rocks in the ſea, the ſituation has cauſed them to ſuſpect that they were nothing elſe but petrifactions, likethoſe found in the roofs of certain caves in the rocks. But ſince the diſcovery of the flowers of coral, and ſome other marine productions, it is not at all doubted but they have a regular organization; and if their ſeeds have not been perceived, it is becauſe their ſmallneſs renders them indiſcernible to the eye.

The generation of theſe plants have been thought by ſome to be not owing to theſe ſeeds; becauſe as they always hang with their heads downwards, they would fall off to the bottom of the caverns, and not place themſelves on the top; but this difficulty may be removed, by ſuppoſing they are lighter than the ſea-water, and that the milk which ſurrounds them is of ſo thick a nature, that it may help to aſſiſt them in ſwimming. Hence indeed it may happen that many of theſe may riſe to the top of the water, and there periſh; but then likewiſe others may aſcend to the top of the caverns, and there fix themſelves, and then they will grow like coral, from which they proceed. Hence we may conclude, from the regularity of theſe productions, the organization of their parts, the great number of ſmall pores in their bark to receive their bitumen, and other ſea-juices, the eminences regularly hollowed in the form of ſtars, which ſerves for the rows of flowers in the ſame ſhape, the veſſels full of a milky fluid which is found between the bark and the body of the plant, to make it grow thicker by little and little, and the perpetual uniformity of the ſame circumſtances; from all theſe particulars we have reaſon to believe, that the bottom of the ſea is covered with plants that have characteriſtics different from theſe we are acquainted with.

The faculty make choice of the red coral only for medicinal uſes; and many authors have aſcribed great virtues thereto, which are in a great meaſure imaginary; however, it cannot be denied that it is a good abſorbent, and is therefore proper to reſtrain the organiſm of the blood,

and to blunt the acrimony of the bile and other humours in various ſorts of fluxes, as well as for pains in the bowels of children. From a ſcruple to a drachm is the doſe, according to the nature of the caſe.

Theſe articles are purchaſed by the inhabitants of Goa, who export them from thence to many parts of the Indies, and to moſt of the kingdoms of Europe: whence ariſe great profits to the traders, and advantage to the inhabitants, who are luxuriouſly ſupplied with all the neceſſaries of life, in exchange for their commodities. Formerly they had a more immediate intercourſe with Europe, by means of the Eaſt India ſhips; which frequently ſtopped here, when diſappointed of their paſſage, either by being too early or too late for the monſoons; but this port has been almoſt entirely neglected ſince the ſtated periods of thoſe winds are ſo well aſcertained.

In this iſland are great numbers of Arabs, beſides the natives: the former of whom call the latter by the name of Bedouins, or ſtupid brutes. Theſe laſt are divided into two ſorts, namely, the natives of the coaſt, who intermarry with the Arabs, and are called half Bedouins, and thoſe of the interior parts, who rigorouſly adhere to their own cuſtoms, and reckon it a heinous crime to mingle blood with foreigners. The laſt are the true Bedouins, or original inhabitants of the country. They are much fairer than the Indians, and are in general tall and very proportionably made; but in their diſpoſitions they are deceitful, indolent, and great cowards, ſuffering themſelves to be enſlaved in a manner by a handful of Arabs, and attending to nothing beſides huſbandry and paſture, both which are chiefly carried on by the women. Their food conſiſts of milk, butter, rice, dates, and the fleſh of their cattle; water is their common drink.

With reſpect to the other inhabitants of the iſland, though they ſeem to make uſe of all the benefits of their ſituation, yet they want at the ſame time the perſonal advantages of the Bedouins; for they are of a low ſtature, diſagreeable complexion, lean habit, and have hideous features; but they are very hardy, and are prodigious ſtrong and active. They feed on fiſh, fleſh, milk, butter, and vegetables: their uſual diſh, is a compoſition of all theſe boiled together; and they generally eat bread, dates, or rice with it.

There are different kinds of dreſs worn in this iſland, according to the ſeveral parts of it. The native Bedouins go almoſt naked, having nothing more than a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt, and a cap made of goats ſkin. The women go bare-headed, and have a ſhort gown, or cloak, with a ſhift made of goats hair. But the moſt general dreſs of theſe iſlanders conſiſts of a long cloak, which reaches from the waiſt to the ancles; it hangs down in a train behind, and is not unbecoming, though extremely incommodious, on account of the heat of the climate: they gather it up, and faſten it round the waiſt with a girdle, when they are at work.

Theſe people are entirely ignorant of arts, inſomuch that, were it not for the Arabs, they would be deſtitute of almoſt every convenience of life. They are, if poſſible, ſtill more ignorant of the liberal arts; and ſo little deſirous are they even to acquire the knowledge of reading and writing, that they think they have ſufficient learning, if they are able to reckon their cattle by making notches in a piece of wood. Their chief ingenuity is diſplayed in the cambline manufacture, which is a beautiful ſtuff, made with the hair of goats, and other animals. But they have ſeveral very ſtrange and uncommon cuſtoms, which we ſhall here particularize.

The Zocotrans practiſe polygamy, and divorce their wives at pleaſure, either for a certain time, or for ever. They may even be the father of children, without being obliged to maintain either them or the mother, provided the latter, during her pregnancy, conſents that the father ſhall give away the child, when it ſees the light. On theſe occaſions, the father kindles a fire before the door of his hut or cave, and then makes proclamation, that the will give away the infant of which his wife is on the point of being delivered. After this, he fixes on ſome particular perſon for its adopted father, to whom the infant is carried immediately after its birth. Here it meets with all that tenderneſs, kindneſs, and thoſe careſſes which are denied it by the unnatural father, is given to a nurſe, and ordered to be fed with goats milk. Theſe children are called the ſons or daughters of ſmoak; and it frequently happens that a good-natured man, who is himſelf incapable of getting one, ſhall have the honour of rearing a dozen children, upon whom he beſtows all the affection of a real parent. This is certainly one of the moſt extraordinary and unnatural cuſtoms to be met with in hiſtory, as it does not ſeem to be founded on the principle of religion, policy, or inclination, but upon mere caprice; for it is common with a father, who expoſes his own, to adopt the children of others, and requite the good offices due to the former, by his kindneſs to the latter.

Another cuſtom among them, no leſs ſtrange and ſingular than the above, is, that they generally bury their ſick before they have breathed their laſt, making no diſtinction between a dying, and a dead perſon. They eſteem it a duty to put the patient as ſoon as poſſible out of pain; and make this their requeſt to their friends, when they are on the ſick bed, which, in all acute diſorders, may be called the death bed. When the father of a family finds himſelf thus circumſtanced, and has no reaſon to believe that his diſſolution is approaching, he aſſembles his children around him, whether natural or adopted, his parents, wives, ſervants, and all his acquaintances, whom he ſtrongly exhorts to a compliance with the following articles of his laſt will: "Never to admit any alteration in the doctrine or cuſtoms of their anceſtors; never to intermarry with foreigners; never to permit an affront done to them or their predeceſſors, or a beaſt ſtole from either of them, to go unpuniſhed; and laſtly, never to ſuffer a friend to lie in pain, when they can relieve him by death."

They commonly perform the laſt requeſt of the dying man by means of a white liquor of a ſtrong poiſonous quality, which oozes from a tree peculiar to this iſland. Hence it is that legal murders are more common here than in any other country in the world; for, beſides the inhuman cuſtom laſt-mentioned, the other requeſts of dying men produce numberleſs quarrels, and, by taking revenge of the injuries done to their anceſtors, entail family feuds and bloodſhed upon their poſterity for a long ſeries of years.

Juſtice is adminiſtered in Zocotora by the chief magiſtrates, who are next in rank to the ſultan: they are called hodamos, and ſit at certain times to judge and determine in all cauſes political and eccleſiaſtical, civil or criminal. There is no appeal from this tribunal, nor can the ſucceſſors reverſe any decree paſſed before their coming into office, which they hold only for one year, and during this time they preſerve the moſt diſtinguiſhed power and dignity.

The puniſhment for murder here is death, which is inflicted either but cutting off the offender's head, or empaling him alive. In caſes of theft, if the robber eſcapes with his booty, and takes ſanctuary in a temple, he is protected; but if he is caught by the perſon robbed before he reaches the temple, he is then delivered up to juſtice, and the puniſhment of the crime is the loſs of his right-hand. Other trifling matters are puniſhed by fines; of which, one half is paid to the ſultan, and the magiſtrates ſhare the reſt equally among them.

As to their religion, they are pagans, and practiſe the moſt ſuperſtitious maxims: however, they adhere ſtrictly to circumciſion, and are ſo ſtrict in their adherence to this rite, that they cut off the fingers of thoſe whoſe parents have neglected to perform the operation upon them, or have themſelves refuſed it. The Arabs amongſt them are Mahometans.

Lent, or at leaſt a time of faſting ſimilar to it, is kept by them: they begin to obſerve this at the new moon in March, abſtaining, for the ſpace of ſixty days, from milk, butter, fleſh, and fiſh; and living wholly upon dates, rice, honey, and vegetables; procuring the honey from Arabia, in exchange for aloes and frankincenſe. They have altars and croſſes; but as they are entirely ignorant of every tenet of the Chriſtian church, nothing certain can be deduced from ceremonies and uſages handed down by tradition, of which they give no manner of account, nor produce a ſingle reaſon for them.

That they are groſs idolaters, is ſufficiently evident from their worſhipping the moon, which they eſteem as the creative principles of all things; a notion not conſiſtent with Atheiſm, much leſs with Chriſtianity and the doctrines of redemption. At times of great drought they aſſemble in a ſolemn manner, and offer up their petitions to the moon. They make a public ſacrifice to that luminary towards the beginning of Lent, in honour of whom they alſo offer up number of goats. Whenever the moon riſes or ſets, they enter into their temples, and practiſe ſeveral other religious ceremonies, which denote them to be the zealous votaries of this inconſtant deity.

A celebrated French writer tells us, that "at the riſing and ſetting of the moon, or more probably at the new and full moon, they make ſolemn proceſſions round their

temples or moquamos, as alſo round their burial-places, ſtriking together two pieces of odoriferous wood about a yard long, which each man holds in his hands. This ceremony they perform three times in the day, and as often at night; after which, putting a large cauldron, ſuſpended by three chains, over a great fire, they dip into it ſplinters of wood, with which they light their altars and the porch of the temple. They then put up their prayers to the moon, that ſhe will enlighten them with her countenance, ſhed upon them her benign influence, and never permit foreigners to intermix with them. They make alſo an annual proceſſion round the temples, preceded by a croſs; and the whole ceremony ends upon the prieſt's clapping his hands together, as a ſignal that the moon is tired with their worſhip. Others ſay, that the ſignal conſiſts in cutting off the fingers of him who holds the croſs; in recompence for which, he has a ſtick given, on which are certain marks, prohibiting all perſons, of whatever rank or condition, to moleſt or hurt him ever after; on the contrary, they are to aid and aſſiſt him with all their power, in whatever manner he may require their help; they are doomed to ſuffer corporal puniſhment, and the loſs of an arm, unleſs they reſpect and honour him as a martyr to religion."

Sir Thomas Roe confirmed theſe particulars relative to the religion of the Zocotorans. This great man, during his ſtay on this iſland, took great pains to preſerve, in his journal, a minute account of the manners and cuſtoms of the natives; and tells us, that he found the inhabitants to conſiſt of four different ſorts of men, viz. of Arabs, whom the king of Caxem had ſent to keep the iſland in ſubjection to him; of ſlaves to the prince, who are employed in preparing aloes, and other offices of drudgery; of Bedouins, the primitive inhabitants of the iſland, who are baniſhed to the mountains, till they ſubmitted to the yoke, and agreed to breed up their children in the Mahometan religion; and, laſtly of ſavages with long hair, who, excluding themſelves from all ſociety, live naked in the woods.

In order to render our deſcription of this iſland and its inhabitants as complete as poſſible, we ſhall here ſubjoin ſeveral remarkable particulars concerning them, given by Mr. Mandeſloe, whoſe obſervations appear to be very accurate: "they live, ſays he, chiefly upon fiſh, roots, and fruit. They have no wild fowl, and very few tame; yet they are not without cows, camels, aſſes, and ſheep; they have alſo goats, whoſe hair upon the thighs is curled in the manner in which ſatyrs are painted. Their arms are ſwords with large hilts, without a guard; poniards, with long blades, which they conſtantly wear ſtuck in their girdle; and fire-arms, which they manage with ſome dexterity, but cannot keep in order, or free from ruſt; ſo that in a few weeks they are rendered uſeleſs. They are remarkably expert in the uſe of bucklers, which they wield in ſuch a manner as to protect every part of the body, and are wounded only when their ſhoulders are pierced, or cut down by blows.

"Though they live in an iſland, and trade with the continent, they are ignorant of navigation, and have no other veſſels than flat-bottomed fiſhing-boats, with which, however, they weather great ſtorms. The torrents that flow down from the mountains like rivers, either in rainy weather, or when the ſnow on the tops of the mountains is melted by the ſun, ſufficiently ſupplies all foreign ſhipping with water. Though they are Mahometans, yet they worſhip the ſun and moon. Chriſtians or infidels, their religion is a ſtrange mixture of truth and error. But, from the ſolemn proceſſions and ſacrifices made to the luminaries above-mentioned, one would imagine that idolatry and paganiſm chiefly prevailed.

"The people of this iſland uſe their women, who are chiefly Arabians, with great tenderneſs; but are ſo jealous, that they never permit them to be ſeen by a ſtranger. As they are crafty and deceitful themſelves, ſo they are ſuſpicious of the ſame inſincerity in others: they adulterate their commodities, and expect that thoſe they deal with have done the ſame.

"The iſland affords ſome indifferent oranges, tobacco, citrons, and cocoa-nuts; but they ſeldom come to maturity, on account of the ſtrong, dry, and ſandy ſoil. Their chief commodity is aloes; and they have alſo dragon's blood, and keep great numbers of civet-cats; ſo that this commodity may be purchaſed at Zocotora for three or four crowns per ounce; but they find means to adulterate even the civet; ſo that unhappily there is no method of being ſecured from fraud." To conclude, the natural craft and ſubtlety of the Zocotorans, together with the deep penetration and cunning of theſe and moſt other Arabs, who inhabit the iſlands in and near the Red ſea, are inconceivable, and ſerve at once to diſplay the profound ſagacity, as well as perfidy of theſe people.

SECT. IX.

Of the Iſlands of St. HELENA, BISAGOES, BISSAO, and GOREE, their Situation, Extent, Productions, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

ST. HELENA is ſituate in the Atlantic ocean, in ſix degrees odd minutes weſt longitude, and ſixteen degrees ſouth latitude, almoſt in the mid-way between Africa and America, one thouſand miles diſtant from either continent. It was ſo named by the Portugueſe, who diſcovered it on St. Helen's day. This iſland is twenty-one miles in circumference, and high land, for it may be diſcerned at ſea at above twenty leagues diſtance: it conſiſts of one vaſt rock, ſteep on every ſide, and looks like a caſtle in the middle of the ocean, whoſe natural walls are of that height, that there is no ſcaling them, nor the ſmall valley, called Chapel-valley, in a bay on the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by a battery of forty or fifty great guns, planted even with the water; and the waves daſhing perpetually on the ſhore, it is at all times difficult landing even here. There is alſo one little creek beſides, where two or three men may land at a time; but this is now defended by a battery of five or ſix guns, and rendered inacceſſible. There is no anchorage any where about the iſland, but at Chapel-valley bay: and, as the wind always ſets from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again.

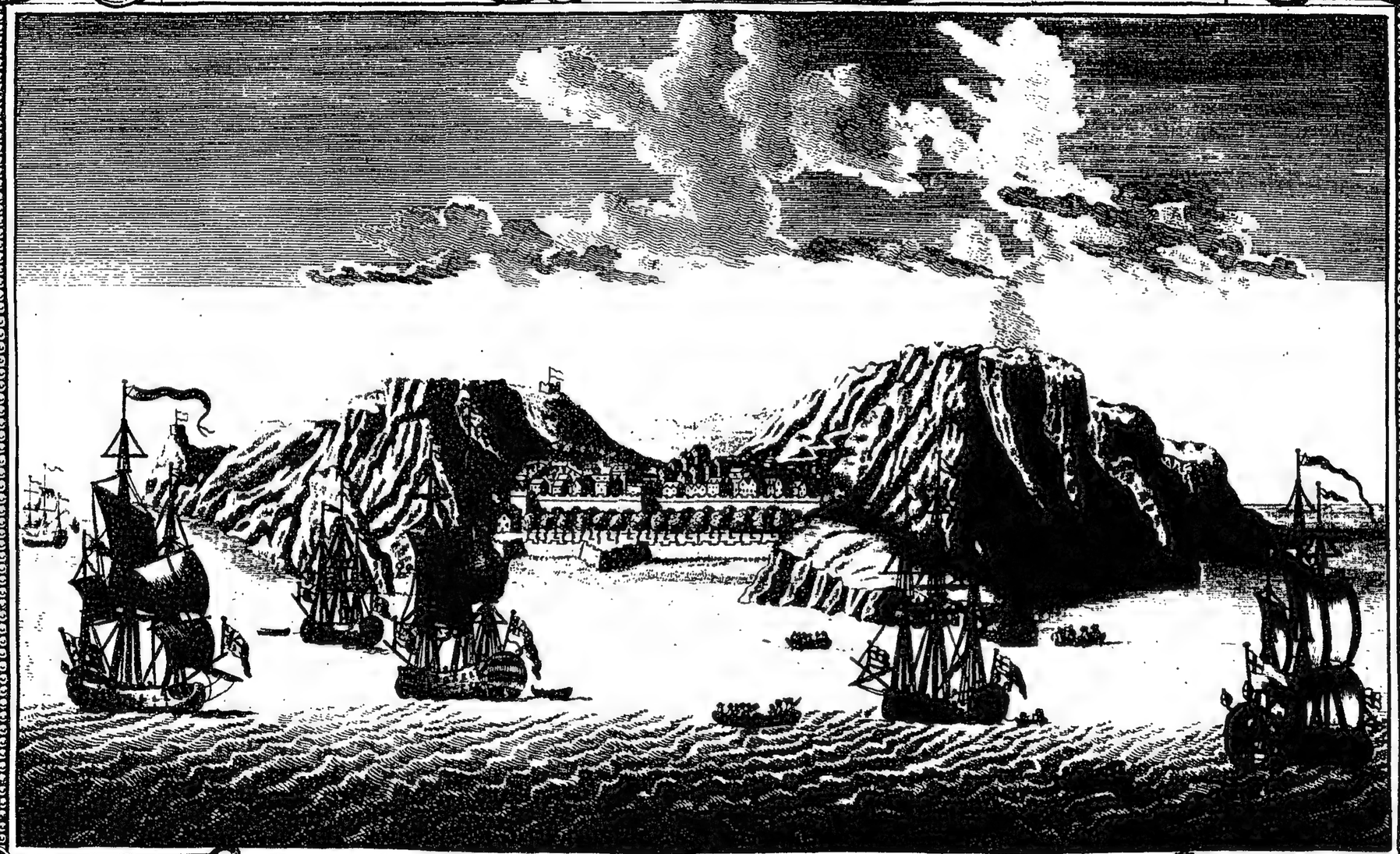
A little beyond the landing-place, in Chapel-valley, is a fort where the governor reſides with the garriſon; and in the ſame valley there is a pretty town, conſiſting of forty or fifty houſes, built after the Engliſh way, whither the people of the iſland reſort when any ſhipping appears, as well to aſſiſt in the defence of the iſland, if they happen to be enemies, as to entertain the ſeamen, if they are friends: for the governor has always ſentinels, on the higheſt part of the iſland to the windward, who give notice of the approach of all ſhipping, and guns are thereupon fired, that every man may reſort to his poſt. It is impoſſible for any ſhip to come in the night-time, but what has been diſcovered the day before, and preparations made for her reception, if an enemy.

Notwithſtanding the iſland on every ſide appears to be a barren rock, yet on the top it is covered with a fine layer of earth a foot or a foot and a half deep, which produces all manner of grain, graſs, fruits, herbs, roots, and garden-ſtuff: and the country, after we have aſcended the rock, is prettily diverſified with riſing hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and kitchen gardens, among which the houſes of the natives are interſperſed; and in the open fields are herds of cattle always grazing, ſome of which are fatted to ſupply the ſhipping that touch here, and the reſt furniſh their dairies with milk, butter, and cheeſe; they abound alſo in hogs, goats, turkeys, and all manner of poultry, and their ſeas are well ſtored with fiſh.

The greateſt misfortune is, that amidſt all this affluence of other things, they have neither bread nor wine of their own growth; for though the ſoil is exceedingly proper for wheat, yet the rats that harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed, eat up all the ſeed before the grain is well out of the ground: and though their vines flouriſh, and afford them grapes enough, yet the latitude is too hot for making wine. As we have obſerved already, there is no country, except Peru, within the torrid zone, where good wine is produced; neither cold nor very hot countries agree with this liquor. All the wine they ſpend, therefore, they have from the Canaries, the Madeiras, or the Cape, which is brought to them in European ſhipping, as well as their flour and malt: and their very houſes are ſome of them brought ready framed from England, there being no timber on the iſland, trees not taking deep root here, for the rock that lies ſo near the ſurface. However they have underwood enough for their neceſſary uſes in this warm climate.

Beſides grapes, they have plantains, bananas, figs, lemons, and ſuch other fruits as hot countries uſually produce, and they make ſhift to raiſe kidney-beans, and ſome other kinds of pulſe in their gardens; though they cannot preſerve their grain from the rats: and to ſupply the want of bread, they eat potatoes and yams.

There were upon the iſland, in the year 1701, about two



A View of the Town and Island of St. HELENA, in the Atlantic Ocean;
belonging to the English East India Company.

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Tingle sculp.

two hundred families, moſt of them Engliſh, or deſcended from Engliſh parents, though there were ſome French refugees amongſt them, brought thither to cultivate their vines, and teach them to make wine; but in this, it ſeems, the heat of the climate prevented their ſucceeding, as has been obſerved already. Every family has its houſe and plantation on the higher part of the iſland, where they look after their cattle, their hogs, goats, and poultry, fruits, and kitchen-gardens: they ſcarce ever come down to the town in Chapel-valley, unleſs it be once a week to church, or when the ſhipping arrives, when moſt of the houſes in the valley are converted into punch-houſes, or lodgings for their gueſts, to whom they ſell their cattle, poultry, fruits, or garden-ſtuff. But the inhabitants are not ſuffered to purchaſe any merchandize of the ſhips that touch here. Whatever they want of foreign growth or manufacture, they are obliged to buy at the company's warehouſe, where they may furniſh themſelves, twice every month, with brandy, European or Cape wines, Batavia arrack, malt, beer, ſugar, tea, coffee, China and Japan ware, linen, calicoes, chints, muſlins, ribbands, woollen cloth and ſtuffs, and all manner of cloathing; for which they are allowed ſix months credit. The coin chiefly current here is Spaniſh dollars or Engliſh money.

In all other places near the tropics, the children and deſcendants of white people have not the leaſt red in their cheeks; but the natives of this iſland are remarkable for their ruddy complexions, and robuſt conſtitutions. Their being in general healthful is aſcribed to ſeveral cauſes; among which are theſe: they live on the top of a mountain always open to the ſea-breezes that conſtantly blow here: they are uſually employed in the moſt healthful exerciſes of gardening and huſbandry, and their iſland is frequently refreſhed with moderate cooling ſhowers, and there are no fens or ſalt-marſhes about it to annoy them. They are uſed alſo to climb the ſteep hill between the town in Chapel-valley and their plantation, which is ſo ſteep, that they are forced to have a ladder in the middle of it, from thence called Ladder-hill; and this cannot be avoided without going three or four miles about; ſo that they ſeldom want air or exerciſe, the great preſervers of health.

Mr. Salmon, who was in this iſland, ſays, "As to the genius and temper of the natives, they ſeemed to me the honeſteſt, the moſt inoffenſive and hoſpitable people we had met with of Engliſh extraction, having ſcarce any tincture of avarice or ambition. We aſked ſome of them, if they had no curioſity to ſee the reſt of the world, of which they had heard ſo many fine things; and how they could confine themſelves to a ſpot of earth, ſcarce ſeven leagues in circumference, and ſeparated from the reſt of mankind? To which they anſwered: They enjoyed all the neceſſaries of life in great plenty; they were neither parched with exceſſive heat, or pinched with cold; they lived in perfect ſecurity, in no danger of enemies, of robbers, wild beaſts, or rigorous ſeaſons, and were happy in a continued ſtate of health: that as there were no rich men amongſt them (ſcarce any planter being worth more than a thouſand dollars) ſo there were no poor in the iſland; no man hardly worth leſs than four hundred dollars, and conſequently not obliged to undergo more labour than was neceſſary to keep him in health."

The Portugueſe, who diſcovered this iſland in 1502, ſtored it with hogs, goats, and poultry, and uſed to touch at it for water and freſh proviſions in their return from India; but we do not find they ever planted a colony here; or if they did, having deſerted it afterwards, the Engliſh Eaſt India company took poſſeſſion of the iſland in the year 1600, and held it till 1673, without interruption, when the Dutch took it by ſurprize. However, the Engliſh, commanded by captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and took three Dutch Eaſt India ſhips that lay in the road at the ſame time. The Hollanders had fortified the landing-place, and planted batteries of great guns there to prevent a deſcent; but the Engliſh being acquainted with a ſmall creek where only two men could go a-breaſt, climbed up to the top of the rocks in the night-time, and, appearing next morning at the backs of the Dutch, they threw down their arms, and ſurrendered the iſland without ſtriking a ſtroke. But, as we have obſerved above, this creek has been ſince fortified, and a battery of great guns planted at the entrance of it; ſo that there is now no place where an enemy can make a deſcent with any probability of ſucceſs.

The affairs of the company here are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtorehouſe-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed them by the company, beſides a public table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and eminent paſſengers are welcome. The natives ſometimes call the reſult of their conſultations ſevere impoſitions; and though relief may perhaps be had from the company in England, yet a late writer obſerves, that the unavoidable delays in returning a redreſs at that diſtance, ſometimes put the addreſſers under a hardſhip: he alſo thinks, that were not the ſituation of this iſland very ſerviceable to our homeward bound Eaſt India ſhips, the conſtant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the iſland; for though it is furniſhed with the conveniences of life, yet the merchants find no profitable commodities there. The maſters of the plantations keep a great many blacks, who, upon ſevere treatment, hide themſelves for a quarter of a year together, keeping among the rocks by day, and roving at night for proviſions: but they are generally diſcovered and taken.

Near the mouth of the river Sierra Leona are ſituated the iſlands of Bulam, La Gallina, Caſnabac, Cazegut, Calacha, and ſome others: theſe are called the Biſagoe iſlands. The iſland of Bulam lies at the mouth of Rio Grande, or the great river, which, by means of this iſland, divides itſelf into two branches. Bulam is between eight and ten leagues long from eaſt to weſt, and between twenty-five and thirty in circumference. The whole coaſt is bordered with woods, beyond which the country is fertile, rich, and beautiful, covered with rice, Indian corn, millet, roots, and fruit, which are cultivated by the negroes of the ſeveral iſlands, who come hither in ſeed-time and harveſt, and afterwards return home.

The ground riſes almoſt imperceptibly for two leagues from the ſea-ſhore, to the foot of ſome hills, which ſerve as a baſe to higher mountains which ſtand in the centre of the iſland; yet theſe mountains are neither ſteep nor craggy, being covered with fine and lofty trees. Through the many vallies between theſe hills and mountains run ſeveral conſiderable rivulets, which the negroes aſſert to run conſtantly, even in the dry ſeaſon of the year. While this iſland preſents to mariners a moſt delightful proſpect from the ſea, it excites at the ſame time their admiration at ſeeing ſo beautiful a ſpot uninhabited.

Both ſides of the Rio Grande, or great river, are very well peopled, and covered with lofty trees, of ſeveral ſorts, which the Portugueſe cut to build barks. This river lies to the ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Bulam, is about two leagues broad, and, having run ſome leagues from eaſt to weſt, makes a great elbow, or winding, and turns to the north-eaſt, till a little higher it is divided into two arms by the iſland Biſagoe.

In this iſland there is one particular tree, which they call Michery, and might be employed to great advantage in ſhip-building, as it grows to a great height, is eaſily worked, and is at the ſame time hard, ſolid, and proof againſt worms. It is full of an oily moiſture, exceſſively bitter, which probably keeps the worms from infeſting it. Trials have been made of that wood in ſeveral parts of Europe, Africa, and America, and it has always been found of equal goodneſs.

The moſt eaſterly of all theſe iſlands is Formoſa, which is now deſart.

The iſland of Gallina, or Hen iſland, was thus named from the great number of hens the Portugueſe found here. This and the iſland of Caſnabac are very populous and fruitful, and have abundance of good water.

Cazegut, one of the moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands, is about ſix leagues long, and two broad; its ſoil is very good, producing orange and palm-trees, beſides millet, rice, and all kinds of pulſe. This iſland, with thoſe of Carache, Cunabac, and La Gallina, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with ſome ſecurity. They trade, however, at ſome of the other iſlands, but they muſt be extremely cautious; for if they venture on ſhore, they will be liable to be robbed and murdered.

Each of the Biſagoe iſlands, except Bulam, is governed by a chief, who aſſumes the authority of a king. All theſe monarchs are perfectly independent, and frequently at war with each other. They have canoes that carry from twenty-five to forty men, with their proviſions and arms, which are ſabres, bows and arrows.

The negroes of theſe iſlands are tall, ſtrong, and healthy, though it is ſaid they live only on fiſh, nuts, and palm-oil; and ſell their rice, millet, and other produce of the earth, to the Europeans for the ornaments they wear. They are in general idoltars, and are ſaid to be of a ſavage and cruel diſpoſition, not only to ſtrangers, but to one

one another; for authors say, that they frequently quarrel about trifles, and will stab or drown themselves, if disappointed of their revenge.

The island of Bissao is near forty leagues in circumference, affords a very agreeable prospect from the sea, rising on every side by a gentle ascent to an eminence in the center of the island: yet there are a number of hills inferior in height to that in the middle, separated by beautiful and fertile vallies, divided by small rivulets, which at the same time augment the richness and elegance of the scene.

Here are little groves of palms, and the rest of the ground is cultivated, and produces a harvest equal to the most sanguine wishes of the inhabitants. Wheat and maiz spring up here to a great height, so as to resemble a field covered with reeds of bamboos. They have likewise another grain that is a species of maiz, which they make into cakes. They have also oranges, bananas, mangoes, and every kind of fruit to be found in the warm climates, and perhaps in greater perfection than in any other place.

The cattle of Bissao are of an uncommon size, and seem to keep pace with the most extravagant growth of the corn: milk and wine are in the greatest abundance; but the island affords neither swine nor horses, the natives forbidding the importation of the former, and the increase of the latter is in general prevented either by the climate or soil.

Notwithstanding the perpetual state of war in which the natives are engaged with the neighbouring islands, and the kingdoms on the continent, yet Bissao is not less populous than fertile; but though the inhabitants are numerous, they live in cottages dispersed up and down the country without the least vestige of a town, except where the French and Portuguese have established themselves. Even the palace of the king consists only of a number of irregular huts, that have a communication with each other. There are about six hundred persons in the Portuguese town, all of whom speak the Portuguese, and pretend that they are descended from them, though they have a fixed and inveterate dislike to that nation, and their complexions are jet-black.

In this island, the dress of the women consists of a cotton girdle, which falls down before, and bracelets of brass, coral and copper; but the virgins go intirely naked, and those of high quality have their bodies marked or painted with a variety of hideous pictures, of snakes and other reptiles, that give their skins some resemblance to flowered sattin; even the eldest daughter of the king is distinguished from the other ladies only by the elegance of these paintings, and the bracelets she is adorned with.

The cloathing of the men of all ranks is only a skin fixed to their girdle, and drawn up between their legs. One of their most extraordinary ornaments is a large iron ring, with a flat round surface on the outside instead of a stone, upon which they ring changes with a bit of iron, in such a manner to converse with the same facility with their castanets, as by means of the most polished language. There is, however, something in this that appears highly improbable, for it is difficult to conceive how ideas can be conveyed by striking together two pieces of iron: it is nevertheless acknowledged, that they have another language that is vocal, and used upon all common occasions, besides this artificial one.

These people are all idolaters; but their notions of religion appear so confused, that it is difficult to enter perfectly into their system. Their chief idol is a small image which they call Shina; but we cannot ascertain the sentiments they form of this object of their worship; besides this, it is said, that every man creates a divinity according to his own fancy. Trees are worshipped as the residence of some deity or spirit superior to man, and are therefore held sacred by them.

The government of the Bissaons is altogether arbitrary, the people in general being subject to the will of their prince; who, though he has nothing to lose, yet may be said to possess every thing within his dominions, as his power extends over his people and their effects. We shall give the following instance of the policy of one of their princes: two slaves, who had been sold to an European merchant, made their escape, and were taken by the king's troops. Equity seemed to require that they should be restored to their masters; but the king gave a different verdict, saying, they had obtained their freedom by having escaped, and, by being retaken by his troops, were again reduced to slavery; so that now the king had an intire property in them.

When the sovereign of this island dies, all the women and slaves, for whom he had a peculiar regard, are sacrificed and buried near their master, that they may attend him in the next world. It is likewise customary for the nobility to have some of their living friends buried with them. A traveller to this place mentions an instance where a father desired that his three sons, of whom he was very fond, might be buried with him at his death.

These people are warlike, and fight with extreme fury, though with little discipline. As treaties of peace are unknown among these nations, so they have no kind of intercourse except in war, and hence no scheme of politics is carried on among them. As the Europeans find it their interest to ferment their quarrels (war being their interest, by augmenting the number of their slaves) consequently they are far from offering their mediation.

If at any time the monarch of this island is determined to carry the war into the neighbouring territories, he orders an instrument, called the bonbalon, to be sounded; this being the general signal to arms, all in the government's pay assemble hereupon at certain head quarters, that are always fixed: where they find the royal fleet, which usually consists of thirty canoes, each carrying thirty men, with their arms and provisions, under the command of an admiral, for the king seldom puts himself at the head of his fleet and armies.

Before the fleet sails, a number of sacrifices are offered to the gods, and the flesh of the victims divided between the court, the priests and the soldiers. In this consultation of the gods, the king always receives a favourable answer; for the deities being of wood, it is easy for the priest to direct what they should say; and hence the army always begins a campaign with the fullest assurance of success.

They make a descent with all possible privacy, surround the enemy's towns and villages, carry off the inhabitants with every thing of value, and then embark before the troops have time to assemble in order to oppose them. One half of the booty belongs to the king, and the remainder is divided among those who obtained it. The slaves are sold to the Europeans, except where any of them happen to be of quality or fortune; in which case he is restored to his friends, on condition of their sending, in exchange, an equal number of slaves, equal in value.

When the invaders return from these expeditions, they assume an air of great importance, and go round the country, shewing their wounds, and relating the wonders they have done and seen, with a long train of prisoners behind them, whom they oblige to sing the praises of the heroes; for which they make them presents of pieces of cloth and other things, which they exchange, for palm-wine. But when these incursions are attended with less honour and profit than was expected, the prisoners are in danger of being sacrificed, especially if the Bissaons have lost an officer of distinction.

The warriors who fall upon these occasions receive public honours by dances performed to the music of tabors. The women express their grief in a manner extremely affecting, pulling their hair, and beating their breast; after which they are served with palm-wine, in order to support their spirits. When thus recruited they begin their mourning with redoubled vigour, and shed tears most plentifully, till the corpse is laid in the grave; when their countenances suddenly brighten, and they resume their former chearfulness.

The king never goes abroad without being surrounded by some thousands of his nobility, women and guards, all of them richly dressed and armed, as far as the skins of beasts, and the brightness of their scymetars can make them so. The palace is about a league distant from the point of Bissao.

There was formerly in this island a fort belonging to the Portuguese, which they mounted with eight pieces of cannon, in order to awe the natives, and prevent their trading with any other foreigner but themselves; the Bissaons, however, soon threw off this restraint, and now maintain the full liberty of receiving all strangers into their ports, where they enjoy perfect security under the king's protection; but before they are suffered to land, his majesty consults the gods by sacrifices, whether admitting those strangers be for the interest of himself and subjects, and the general good of the island.

The island of Goree is situated in fourteen degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in seventeen degrees twenty minutes west longitude from London, is called by the natives Barsaguiche; but the Dutch, who were the first Europeans that took possession of it, gave it the name

Goree, from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is only about eight hundred and forty yards in length, and two hundred and forty-eight in breadth; its whole circumference, including a point at the eaſtern end of the iſland, being, according to a late menſuration, about two Engliſh miles. It ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of Cape Verd, within cannon-ſhot of the ſhore, and conſiſts of a long narrow piece of land, and a ſmall but ſteep mountain. Notwithſtanding its ſmallneſs, its ſituation renders it agreeable: for on the north part of the iſland the inhabitants have a view of Cape Verd and the neighbouring promontories.

Though Goree is ſituated in the torrid zone, the people breathe a temperate air all the year round, owing to its being continually refreſhed by alternate breezes from the land and ſea. A multitude of ſurrounding rocks renders it almoſt inacceſſible, except at two particular bays. Upon the ſummit of a rocky hill is St. Michael's Fort, which the late director M. de St. Jean embelliſhed with ſeveral new buildings, and added works which, in the opinion of the French, rendered the iſland impregnable: the land is alſo defended by ſeveral other forts and batteries, in different parts of it.

Formerly the ſoil was compoſed of only a red ſand, without either graſs, trees, water, or ſcarce any thing beſides reeds; but, by the diligence of the above gentleman, ſeveral ſprings of freſh water were diſcovered in the iſland; gardens were planted with excellent fruit-trees; pulſe and all kinds of vegetables were made to grow in great abundance; and, in ſhort, from a ſmall, barren, and diſagreeable iſland, it was rendered one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt important ſettlements in theſe parts.

Goree was ceded to the Dutch in the year 1617, by the king of Cape Verd, when they immediately built a fort on a rock to the north-weſt, to which they gave the name of Naſſau Fort; but finding that it could not command the harbour, they erected a fortification, called Orange Fort, near the ſhore. The Dutch kept the iſland till admiral Holmes taking it in 1663, placed an Engliſh garriſon in it. Two years after it was retaken by De Ruyter, and the governor and garriſon obliged to ſurrender priſoners of war. The Dutch then augmented the fortifications, and the iſland enjoyed perfect tranquillity, till in 1677 a French ſquadron, commanded by the count d'Eſtrees, attacked the place, and obliged the Dutch governor to ſurrender at diſcretion. D'Eſtrees found that the lower fort mounted forty pieces of heavy cannon, and that the works were kept in excellent repair; but having no inſtructions to garriſon them, he diſmantled this, and entirely demoliſhed Naſſau Fort. Soon after M. Du Caſſee arriving at Goree with a forty gun ſhip, ſolemnly took poſſeſſion of the iſland, and concluded a treaty with the king and negroes, on the ſame conditions the Dutch had enjoyed the iſland; and as this meaſure, which he had voluntarily taken, was approved by the court of France at his return, he was ſent back the following year in quality of governor; and ſoon after, this conqueſt was ſecured to the French company by the treaty of Nimeguin; whereupon the French inſtantly repaired and added new works to both the forts, calling the lower fort Vermandois, and the higher St. Michael. Several unſucceſsful attempts were afterwards made by the Dutch to recover a place of ſuch importance to trade, but all of them proving abortive, the French continued in the poſſeſſion of this iſland till the year 1759, when a ſquadron was fitted out under the command of commodore Keppel, conſiſting of the Torbay, Fougueux, Naſſau, Prince Edward, and the Dunkirk, ſeveral frigates, two bomb-ketches, and ſome tranſports, with more than ſeven hundred regular troops on board, commanded by colonel Worge.

On the arrival of the Engliſh fleet before the iſland, it was reſolved to make the attack on the weſt ſide, not becauſe it was the weakeſt, but from its being the weather ſide; and therefore ſhould their cables be cut by a chain ſhot, or any other accident, the ſhips might, without danger, put to ſea, and beating to windward, renew the action; but if they had anchored on the eaſt ſide, ſuch an accident might have cauſed the ſhips to be driven on ſhore. However, on the 11th of November, at about nine in the morning, the Prince Edward and the Fire Drake bomb, bore down towards the iſland, and in ten minutes after the action was begun, by throwing a ſhell from a bomb. The enemy inſtantly returned the fire from the forts and batteries; and at the ſecond ſhot carried away the Prince Edward's enſign ſtaff, and ſet fire to an arms-cheſt cloſe by it, which, blowing up, killed one of the marines. Encouraged by this ſucceſsful beginning, they levelled their ordnance at the Prince Edward, and began a terrible fire; and few in the ſquadron ſaw this veſſel, in the midſt of this ſhower of bombs and bullets, without ſending up their moſt fervent wiſhes for her ſafety.

When the commodore obſerved that the Fire Drake overcharged her mortar, and that all her ſhells fell beyond the iſland to the ſouth, he ſent his boat on board the Furnace bomb, with advice, that as they ſaw the error of the other in overcharging the mortar, they ſhould avoid that extreme, and that as the enemy ſeemed bent upon ſinking the Prince Edward and the Fire Drake, he deſired they would begin their fire, and endeavour as much as poſſible to draw part of the enemy's attention from their ſuffering friends; and theſe orders were with alacrity inſtantly obeyed.

The fire from all the ſhips was ſoon diſcharged with prodigious fury on the enemy, and that of the Torbay alone, in which was the commodore, ſeemed ſufficient to have razed the very foundations of the iſland. The commodore had brought up with ſuch judgment a-breaſt of the angles of both the weſt point battery and St. Francis fort, that the enemy could not bring a gun from thence to bear upon him. Five guns only could have touched him with advantage; two from St. Peter's, and three from a ſmall lunette on the hill before St. Michael's; both which were ſo warmly attacked by the other ſhips, that they were ſoon deſerted. Indeed the fire from the Torbay was ſo terrible, ſo near, and ſo well aimed, that none but madmen could have ſtood it. The ſhip ſeemed in a continual blaze, and that part of the iſland was darkened by a very great cloud of ſmoke.

Several hundred negroes lined the oppoſite ſhore, to behold the engagement, and were aſtoniſhed at ſeeing ſhips bear down with the utmoſt intrepidity againſt ſtone walls, and receiving the fire from the batteries with intrepid courage. At length the governor was prevailed on to ſtrike his flag; but Mr. Keppel, in the midſt of the noiſe and ſmoke, was ſome time before he perceived the ſilence of the enemy, and at laſt only ſuſpected they had ſtruck, from the ſilence of the reſt of the ſquadron. He ſlackened his fire to look around him, when not a Frenchman was to be ſeen but thoſe who were flying towards the caſtle on the hill. Upon this he ſent a lieutenant, attended by his ſecretary, to wait upon the governor; but before they had left the boat, they were met by M. St. Jean on the beach, who aſked on what terms the honourable Mr. Keppel propoſed he ſhould ſurrender? Surpriſed at the queſtion, they aſked, If his flag was not ſtruck? He anſwered, No, he only meant it as a ſignal for a parley: and being told that the commodore would hear of no terms but his own, replied that he was ſufficiently prepared, and knew how to defend himſelf; to which the others returned, that the commodore had brought up in a ſituation where no gun could hurt him, and did not care if they ſtood out for a month. Hereupon the engagement was renewed; but M. St. Jean, ſoon finding it impoſſible to keep his ſoldiers to their quarters, ſurrendered himſelf and garriſon priſoners at diſcretion, and the Britiſh flag was hoiſted on St. Michael's fortreſs. This iſland, at preſent, however, belongs to the French, being afterwards ceded to them by the treaty of peace in 1763.

The Moors and Arabs bring to this place and Senegal great quantities of gum, which are ſent from hence to Europe and other parts of the world; they bring it hither on camels, bullocks, horſes, &c. The gum is meaſured in a cubical meaſure, called by the Moors, quantor, and every quintal pays a certain duty. Proper commiſſaries put it into ſacks, and then allow it to be carried to the ſettlements belonging to the company. The inhabitants have no water but what they catch in ciſterns, reſervoirs, &c. and wood is extremely ſcarce.

Mahometaniſm is the religion of the natives of this place and Senegal, and they practiſe circumciſion with great rigour. They perform this operation at the age of fifteen, that the youth may have ſtrength ſufficient to undergo it, and be tolerably well inſtructed in the principles of his faith. The ceremony is never performed in hot weather; the laſt quarter of the moon is always choſen, through a notion that the operation is then leſs painful, and the wound cured with more eaſe. It is done in a beautiful meadow, ſurrounded by gardens, upon a few boards elevated a little from the ground. The victims are led thither by relations ſucceeding each other according to their ranks, when the prieſt performs the operation; after which, the youth retires with a chearful countenance, either real or affected.

SECT. X.

Containing a Deſcription of CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS, their Situation, Soil, Climate, Productions, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

THE Cape de Verd iſlands are ſituated in 14 degrees 10 min. north latitude, and 16 degrees 30 min. weſt longitude. They were ſo called from a cape of the ſame name oppoſite to them, and were diſcovered by Anthony Noel, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Portugal, in the year 1640, and are about twenty in number; but ſome of them are only barren uninhabited rocks. The cape took its name from the perpetual verdure with which it is covered. The Portugueſe give them the name of Les Ilhas de Verdes, either from the verdure of the cape, or elſe from an herb called ſargaſſo, which is green, and floats on the water all round them. His Portugueſe majeſty appoints a viceroy to govern them, who conſtantly reſides in the iſland of St. Jago. The Dutch call them the Salt Iſlands, from the great quantities of that commodity produced in ſeveral of them.

The principal of theſe iſlands are the following; namely, 1. May, or Mayo; 2. San Jago, or Saint James's; 3. Sal, or Salt; 4. Buena, or Bona Viſta, or Good Sight; 5. St. Philip's, otherwiſe called Fuego, or the iſland of Fire; 6. St. John, or San Juan; 7. St. Nicholas; 8. St. Vincent; 9. St. Anthony; 10. St. Lucia; 11. Brava.

The ſoil of theſe iſlands is very ſtony and barren; the climate exceeding hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome; however, the principal part of them are fertile, and produce various ſorts of grain and fruits, particularly rice, maize, or Indian wheat, bananas, lemons, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, and figs. They have alſo calavances, a ſort of pulſe like French beans, and great quantities of pumpkins, on which the inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt.

Theſe iſlands produce alſo two other fruits of a remarkable nature, viz. the cuſtard apple, and the papah. The former of theſe is as large as a pomegranate, and nearly of the ſame colour. The outſide huſk, ſhell, or rind, is in ſubſtance and thickneſs between the ſhell of a pomegranate and the peel of a Seville orange, ſofter than the former, yet more brittle than the latter. The coat or rind is alſo remarkable for being covered with ſmall regular knobs or riſings; and the inſide of the fruit is full of a white ſoft pulp, which in its form, colour, and taſte, greatly reſembles a cuſtard, from whence it received its name, which was probably firſt given it by the Europeans. It has in the middle a few ſmall black ſtones, but no core, for the whole of it is intire pulp. The tree that bears this fruit is about the ſize of a quince-tree, and has long ſlender branches that ſpread a conſiderable way from the trunk. Only ſome of the branches bear fruit, for though theſe trees are large, yet in general ſuch trees do not produce above twenty or thirty apples. The fruit grows at the extremity of theſe branches, upon a ſtalk about nine or ten inches long.

The other fruit, called the papah, is about the ſize of a muſk melon, and reſembles it in ſhape and colour both within and without; only in the middle, inſtead of flat kernels, which the melons have, theſe have a quantity of ſmall blackiſh ſeeds, about the ſize of pepper-corns, the taſte of which is much the ſame as that ſpice. The tree on which this fruit grows, is about ten or twelve feet high; the trunk is thickeſt at the bottom, from whence it gradually decreaſes to the top, where it is very thin and taper. It has not any ſmall branches, but only large leaves, that grow immediately on the ſtalks from the body. The leaves are of a roundiſh form, and jagged about the edges, having their ſtalks or ſtumps longer or ſmaller, as they grow nearer or farther from the top: they begin to ſpring out of the body of the tree at about ſix or ſeven feet high from the ground, the trunk being below that entirely bare, and the leaves grow thick all the way from thence to the top, where they are very cloſe and broad. The fruit grow only among the leaves, and moſt plentiful where the leaves are thickeſt; ſo that towards the top of the tree the papahs ſpring forth from it in cluſters. It is, however, to be obſerved, that where they grow ſo thick, they are but ſmall, being no bigger than ordinary turnips; whereas thoſe nearer the middle of the trunk, where the leaves are not ſo thick, grow to the firſt-mentioned ſize.

Poultry of various ſorts abound in the Cape de Verd iſlands, particularly curlews, Guiney hens, and flamingoes, the latter of which are very numerous. The flamingo is a large bird, much like a heron in ſhape, but bigger, and of a reddiſh colour; they go in flocks, but are ſo ſhy, that it is very difficult to catch them: they build their neſts in ſhallow ponds, where there is much mud, which they ſcrape together, making little hillocks, like ſmall iſlands, that appear about a foot and a half above the ſurface of the water. They make the foundations of theſe hillocks broad, bringing them up taper to the top, where they leave a ſmall hollow pit to lay their eggs in; they never lay more than two eggs, and ſeldom leſs. The young ones cannot fly till they are almoſt full grown, but they run with ſurpriſing ſwiftneſs: their tongues are broad and long, having a large lump of fat at the root, which is delicious in its taſte, and ſo greatly admired, that a diſh of them will produce a very conſiderable ſum of money. Their fleſh is lean, and of a dingy colour, but it neither taſtes fiſhy, nor any ways unpleaſant.

Here are alſo ſeveral other ſorts of fowls, as pigeons and turtle doves; miniotas, a ſort of land fowl, as big as crows, of a grey colour, and the fleſh well taſted; cruſias, another ſort of grey-coloured fowl, almoſt as large as the former; theſe are only ſeen in the night, and their fleſh is ſaid to be exceeding ſalutary to people in a decline, by whom they are uſed. They have likewiſe great plenty of partridges, quails, and other ſmall birds, and rabbets in prodigious numbers.

In theſe iſlands are many wild animals, particularly lions, tigers, and camels, the latter of which are remarkably large. There are alſo great numbers of monkies, baboons, and civet-cats, and various kinds of reptiles. The tame animals are horſes, aſſes, ſheep, mules, cows, goats, and hogs; and here the European ſhips bound for the Eaſt Indies, uſually ſtop to take in freſh water and proviſions, with which they are always plentifully ſupplied.

Fiſh of various ſorts abound in the ſea near theſe iſlands, particularly dolphins, bonettas, mullets, ſnappers, ſilver fiſh, &c. and here is ſuch plenty of turtle, that ſeveral foreign ſhips come yearly to catch them. In the wet ſeaſon the turtles go aſhore to lay their eggs in the ſand, which they leave to be hatched by the heat of the ſun. The fleſh of the turtles, well cured, is a great ſupply to the American plantations, as cod-fiſh is to Europe. The inhabitants go out by night and catch the turtles, by turning them on their backs with poles; for they are ſo large that they cannot do it with their hands.

In theſe iſlands are many European families, all of whom profeſs the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are all negroes, and much like their African neighbours, from whom they are ſuppoſed to be deſcended; though, as they are ſubject to the Portugueſe, their own religion and language prevail among them. Both men and women are ſtout, and well limbed, and they are in general of a civil and quiet diſpoſition. Their dreſs (particularly in the iſland of St. John) is very trifling, conſiſting only of a piece of cotton cloth wound round the waiſt. The women ſometimes throw it over the head, and the men acroſs the ſhoulders. Neither ſex wear ſhoes or ſtockings, except on certain feſtivals. The men are particularly fond of wearing breeches, if they can get them, and are very happy if they have but a waiſtband and flap before.

We ſhall now proceed to a partial deſcription of the ſeveral iſlands in the order above ſet down.

The iſland of Mayo, or May, obtained its name from its being diſcovered on the firſt of that month. It is ſituated in 15 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, near three hundred miles from Cape Verd, and is about ſeventeen miles in circumference. The ſoil is in general very barren, and water ſcarce: however they have plenty of cows, goats, and aſſes; and alſo ſome corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains. What trees they have are ſituated on the ſides of the hills, and they have ſome water-melons and figs. The ſea likewiſe abounds with wild fowl, fiſh, and turtle. There grows on this iſland, as well as on moſt of the others, a kind of vegetable ſtone, extremely porous, of a greyiſh colour, which ſhoots up in ſtems, and forms ſomething like the head of a cauliflower.

There is a bay on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and a ſand-bank that runs two or three miles along the ſhore, within which there is a large ſalina, or ſalt-pond, encompaſſed by the ſand-bank, and the hills beyond it. The whole ſalt-pond is about two miles in length, and half a mile wide; but the greater part of it is generally dry. The north end, which is always ſupplied with water, produces ſalt from November till May, thoſe months being the dry ſeaſon of the year. The waters that yield this ſalt work out of the ſea through a hole in the ſand-bank,

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and the quantity that flows into it is in proportion to the height of the tides; in the common courſe it is very gentle, but when the ſpring tides ariſe, it is ſupplied in abundance. If there is any ſalt in the pond, when the fluſh of water comes in, it ſoon diſſolves; but in two or three days after it begins to congeal, and ſo continues till a freſh ſupply of water from the ſea comes in again.

A conſiderable trade for ſalt is carried on here by the Engliſh, and the armed ſhips deſtined to ſecure the African commerce, afford the veſſels thus engaged their protection. The inhabitants of the iſland are principally employed in this buſineſs during the ſeaſon; they take it together, and wheel it out of the pond in barrows, from whence they convey it to the ſea-ſide on the backs of aſſes, which animals are very numerous here. The pond is not above half a mile from the landing-place; ſo that they go backwards and forwards many times in the day; but they reſtrain themſelves to a certain number, which they ſeldom exceed.

There are ſeveral ſorts of fowl, particularly flamingoes, curlews, and Guiney hens. Their chief cattle are cows, goats, and hogs, which are reckoned the beſt in all the Cape de Verd iſlands. Beſides the fruits above-mentioned, they have calavanes and pumpkins, which are the common food of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants in this iſland live in three ſmall towns, the principal of which is called Pimont, and contains two churches, with as many prieſts; the other is called St. John, and has one church; and the third, which has a church alſo, is called Lagos. The houſes are very mean, ſmall, and low; they are built with the wood of the fig-tree (that being the only one fit for the purpoſe that grows on the iſland) and the rafters are made of a ſort of wild cane which grows here.

The Portugueſe governor of St. Jago grants the patent to the negro governor of this iſland, whoſe ſituation is tolerably advantageous, as every commander that lades ſalt here is obliged to compliment him with a preſent. He ſpends moſt of his time with the Engliſh in the ſalting ſeaſon, which is his harveſt, and a very buſy time with all the natives. Theſe people have not any veſſels of their own, nor do any Portugueſe ſhips come hither, ſo that the Engliſh are the chief on whom they depend for trade; and though they are ſubjects of Portugal, they have a particular eſteem for the Engliſh nation. Aſſes are alſo a great commodity of trade here; and are ſo plentiful, that ſeveral European ſhips from Barbadoes and other plantations, come annually to freight with them to carry thither.

The iſland of St. Jago, or St. James's Iſland, is ſituated about four leagues to the weſtward of Mayo, between the fifteenth and ſixteenth degrees of north latitude, and in the twenty-third of weſt longitude. This iſland is the moſt fruitful and beſt inhabited of all the Cape de Verd iſlands, notwithſtanding it is very mountainous, and has a great deal of barren land in it.

The principal town is called after the name of the iſland, and is ſituated in fifteen degrees north latitude. It ſtands againſt the ſides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley two hundred yards wide, that runs within a ſmall ſpace of the ſea. In that part of the valley next the ſea is a ſtraggling ſtreet, with houſes on each ſide, and a rivulet of water in the bottom, which empties itſelf into a fine cove or ſandy bay, where the ſea is generally very ſmooth, ſo that ſhips ride there with great ſafety. A ſmall fort ſtands near the landing place from this bay, where a guard is conſtantly kept, and near it is a battery mounted with a few ſmall cannon.

The town of St. John contains about three hundred houſes, all built of rough ſtone, and it has one ſmall church and a convent. The inhabitants of the town are in general very poor, having but little trade. Their chief manufacture is ſtriped cotton cloth, which the Portugueſe ſhips purchaſe of them, in their way to Braſil, and ſupply them with ſeveral European commodities in return.

There is a tolerably large town on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, called Praya, where there is a good port, which is ſeldom without ſhips, eſpecially in peaceable times. Moſt of the European ſhips bound to the Eaſt Indies touch at this port to take in water and proviſions, but they ſeldom ſtop here on their return to Europe. The town of Praya does not contain any remarkable building, except a fort, ſituated on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour. When the European ſhips are here, the country people bring down their commodities to ſell to the ſeamen and paſſengers; theſe articles generally conſiſt of bullocks, hogs, goats, fowls, eggs, plantains, and cocoa-nuts, which they exchange for ſhirts, drawers, handkerchiefs, hats, waiſtcoats, breeches, and linen of any kind.

The complexion of the natives of this town and St. Jago inclines to black, or is at leaſt of a mixed colour, except ſome few of the better ſort that reſide in the latter, among whom are the governor, the biſhop, and ſome of the padres (fathers) or prieſts. The people of St. Jago town, as they live under the governor's eye, are pretty orderly, though generally very poor, having little trade; but thoſe about Praya are naturally of a thieviſh diſpoſition, ſo that ſtrangers who deal with them muſt be very careful, for if they ſee an opportunity, they will ſteal their goods, and run away.

The iſland of Sal, or Salt, is the windwardmoſt of all the Cape de Verd iſlands, and is ſituated in the ſeventeenth degree of north latitude, and five degrees eighteen minutes weſt longitude from the Cape. It received this name from the great quantity of ſalt naturally produced here from ſalt water, that from time to time overflows part of the land, which is moſtly low, having only five hills, and ſtretches from north to ſouth about eight or nine leagues, but it does not exceed one league and a half in breadth.

There are only a few people in this iſland, and theſe live in wretched huts near the ſea-ſide, and are chiefly employed in gathering ſalt for thoſe ſhips that occaſionally call here for that article. The beſt account of this barren iſland is given us by captain Roberts, who landed here, and relates the following ſtory, which he ſays he was told by one of the blacks that reſided in it. "About the year 1705, not long before I went aſhore, the iſland was intirely deſerted for want of rain by all its inhabitants except one old man, who reſolved to die on it, which he did the ſame year. The drought had been ſo extreme for ſome time, that moſt of the cows and goats died for want of ſuſtenance, but rain following, they increaſed apace, till about three years after they were again reduced by a remarkable event. A French ſhip coming to fiſh for turtle, was obliged, by ſtreſs of weather, or from ſome other cauſe, to leave behind her thirty blacks, which ſhe had brought from St. Antonio to carry on the fiſhing. Theſe people, finding nothing elſe, fed moſtly on wild goats, till they had deſtroyed them all but two, one male and the other female, theſe were then on the iſland, and kept generally upon one mountain. A ſhort time after an Engliſh ſhip (bound for the iſland of St. Mayo) perceiving the ſmoke of ſeveral fires, ſent their boat on ſhore, and thinking they might be ſome ſhip's company wrecked on the iſland, put in there; when they underſtood the ſituation of the people, they commiſerated their caſe, took them all in, and landed them on the iſland from whence they were brought."

The iſland of Buena Viſta, or Bona Viſta, thus named from its being the firſt of the Cape de Verd iſlands diſcovered by the Portugueſe, is ſituated in the ſixteenth degree of north latitude, two hundred miles weſt of the coaſt of Africa, and is twenty miles long, and twelve broad, moſtly conſiſting of low land, with ſome ſandy hills, and rocky mountains. It produces great quantities of indigo, and more cotton than all the other Cape de Verd iſlands; yet there is not one of them where there are fewer cotton cloths to be ſold: for the natives will not even gather the cotton before a ſhip arrives to buy it; nor will the women ſpin till they want it. They have, in general, the ſame animals as in the other iſlands, with plenty of turtle, and many ſorts of fiſh.

When the Engliſh land there to take in a lading of ſalt, they hire men and aſſes to bring it down to the ſea; for which they pay them in biſcuits, flour, and old cloaths. This iſland had alſo formerly a pretty good trade for horſes and aſſes, which are the beſt of all that are upon theſe iſlands. The people are very fond of ſilk, with which they work the boſoms of their ſhirts, ſhifts, caps, women's waiſtcoats, &c.

The people of this iſland prefer the Engliſh dreſs to their own; for moſt of them have ſuits of cloaths bought of the Engliſh, and have learned to make cotton cloth to imitate the European faſhion. The women have one, two, or three cotton cloths wrapped about them like petticoats, tied on with a girdle about the hips, and ſometimes without a girdle. Their ſhifts are made like a man's ſhirt, but ſo ſhort, as ſcarcely to reach to the girdle; the collar, neck, and waiſtbands, of the young people of ſome rank, are wrought in figures with ſilk in various colours in needlework; but the old and the poor have theirs worked with blue cotton thread. Over their ſhifts they wear a waiſtcoat, with ſleeves to button at the arms, not above four inches deep in the back part, but long enough before to tie with ſtrings under their breaſts. Over all they

they have a cotton cloth in the manner of a mantle; thoſe of the married women are generally blue, and the darker the colour the richer it is reckoned; but the maidens, and gay young wives, and widows, wear blue and white, ſome ſpotted and ſome figured. They, however, rather chooſe, if they can get them, linen handkerchiefs wrought on the edges, and ſometimes only on the corners, with red, green, and blue ſilk; the firſt being the colour they moſt admire. They wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings, except in holidays; and, indeed, at other times the women have generally only a ſmall cotton cloth wrapped round their waiſt, and the men a ragged pair of breeches; to which, if there be but a waiſtband, and a piece hanging to it before to hide what modeſty teaches them to conceal, they think it ſufficient. The people of Bona Viſta are fond of the Engliſh, and moſt of them can ſpeak a little of their language.

The iſland of St. Philip, called alſo Fuego, or the Iſle of Fire, received this latter name from a very large mountain, which frequently emits great quantities of fire and ſulphur. It is ſituated in fifteen degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and ſix degrees fifty-four minutes weſt from the Cape; is the higheſt of all the Cape de Verd iſlands, and appears at a diſtance like one continued mountain. On the weſt ſide of it there is a road for ſhipping, near a ſmall caſtle ſituated at the foot of a mountain, but the harbour is not ſafe, on account of the violent beating of the waves. The wind blows very ſtrong round this iſland, and the ſhore being on a ſlant, the water is very deep, ſo that, except very near the caſtle, no ground is to be found within the lines.

Water is very ſcarce in this iſland, there not being a ſingle running brook throughout it; notwithſtanding which it is tolerably fertile, and produces great quantities ofpompions, water-melons, feſtroons, and maize, but no bananas or plantains, and ſcarce any fruit trees except wild figs; however, in ſome of their gardens, they have guava-trees, oranges, lemons, and limes. They have likewiſe ſome good vineyards, but they make no more wine than juſt what they uſe themſelves.

Moſt of the inhabitants of this iſland are negroes, there being an hundred blacks to one white; they are all Roman Catholics, though ſome of them introduce many pagan ſuperſtitions into that religion. They breed great numbers of mules, which they ſell to other nations, and make cotton cloths for their own uſe.

The Portugueze, on their firſt peopling this iſland, brought with them negro-ſlaves, and a ſtock of cows, horſes, aſſes, and hogs; but the king himſelf furniſhed the place with goats, which ran wild in the mountains. There are many of the latter animals here at this time, and the profits of their ſkins is reſerved to the crown of Portugal. An officer, called captain of the mountains, has the management of this revenue, and no perſon dares, without his licence, kill any one of them.

St. John's is ſituated in fifteen degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude, and ſeven degrees two minutes weſt of Cape Verd, and is very high and rocky. It has more ſalt-petre than any of theſe iſlands: this is found in ſeveral caves, covering the ſides like a hoar-froſt, and in ſome hollow rocks, like iſicles as thick as a man's thumb. This iſland abounds with pompions, bananas, water-melons, and other fruit, and alſo with fowls, goats, aſſes, hogs, &c.

There are plenty of fiſh in the ſeas about St. John's, and moſt of the fiſh here have remarkably ſharp teeth; and they generally uſe crabs and inſects fot baits. Fiſhing is the principal employment of the natives; hence they miſs no opportunities of wrecks, or, when ſhips touch here, to procure all the bits of iron they can.

Captain Roberts tells us, that it is his opinion, that this iſland abounds with copper, and perhaps with finer metals, for which he gives his reaſons: he obſerves, that there are ſeveral acid fountains, of a vitriolic quality, which he tried by putting a clean knife into them, and in about half a minute it would be all covered with copper, nearly of a gold colour, very thick, and, when dry, it might be ſcraped off in ſcales, or powder. Some of theſe waters had a much ſharper power than others, and their acidity diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from the fountain-head. Many are found of a dark blue, black, and reddiſh colour, ſome of which exceed iron, and are nearly equal to lead in weight.

In this iſland, the ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun, which ſhining on the water in the holes of the rocks, is thereby turned, and ſometimes lies two feet thick. The natives uſually go and get a quantity of ſalt early in the morning, fiſh the greateſt part of the day, dry, ſplit, and ſalt their fiſh in the evening, and, having heaped them up, let them lie in the ſalt all night. On the enſuing morning they ſpread them out to dry in the ſun, and they are fit to uſe when wanted.

The baleas, a ſort of whale or grampus, is very common near this iſland; and ſome affirm, that ambergris is the ſperm of this creature. A great quantity of ambergris was formerly found about this iſland, but it is leſs plentiful at preſent. Some years before captain Roberts was here, Juan Carneira, a Portugueſe, who was baniſhed from Liſbon for ſome crime, having procured a little ſhip or ſhallop, traded among theſe iſlands: meeting at length with a piece of ambergris of an uncommon bigneſs, he not only procured his liberty, and leave to return before the term of his exile was expired, but had ſufficient left, after defraying all charges, to put himſelf in a comfortable way of living; and a rock near to which he found the ambergris, is called by his name to this day.

The natives of this iſland do not amount to above two hundred ſouls, and are quite black. They are the moſt ignorant and ſuperſtitious of any of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands. But in their diſpoſition they are ſimple and harmleſs, humble, charitable, humane, and friendly; pay a particular reſpect to their equals, reverence their elders, are ſubmiſſive to their ſuperiors, and dutiful to their parents.

People wear in common only a ſlip of cotton faſtened to a ſtring before, which paſſing between the thighs, is tied to the ſame ſtring behind; but when full dreſſed they alſo wear a piece of cotton cloth, (ſpun and wove by themſelves) which the men hang over their ſhoulders, and wrap round their waiſts, while the women put it over their heads, and then wrap it about their bodies; and on both of them it extends to the calf of the leg, or lower.

They uſe in fiſhing, long canes for rods, cotton lines, and bent nails for hooks. As to their hunting, the governor having the ſole privilege of killing the wild goats, none dare hunt without his conſent. This was a law made by the Portugueſe when they peopled theſe iſlands from the coaſt of Africa, in order to prevent the entire loſs of the breed.

When a general hunt is appointed by the governor, all the inhabitants are aſſembled, and the dogs, which are between a beagle and a grey-hound, are called. At night, or when the governor thinks proper to put an end to the ſport, they all meet together, and he parts the goat's fleſh between them as he pleaſes, ſending what he thinks proper to his own houſe, with all the ſkins; and after he comes home, he ſends pieces to thoſe who are old, or were not out a hunting; and the ſkins he diſtributes amongſt them as he thinks their neceſſities require, reſerving the remainder of them for the lord of the ſoil. This is one of the principal privileges enjoyed by the governor; who is alſo the only magiſtrate, and decides the little differences that ſometimes happen among the people.

Upon their not ſubmitting to this deciſion, he confines them till they do, in an open place walled round like a pound: but, inſtead of a gate, they generally lay only a ſtick acroſs the entrance, and thoſe innocent people will ſtay there without attempting to eſcape, except when overcome by paſſion, and then they ruſh out in a rage; but theſe are ſoon caught again, tied hand and foot, and a centinel ſet to watch them, till they agree with their antagoniſt, aſk the governor's pardon for breaking out of his priſon, and have remained there as long as he thinks they have deſerved. Nay, if one kills another, which hardly happens in an age, the governor can only confine him till he has pacified the relations of the deceaſed, by the mediation of his friends, who are bound for the criminal's appearance, in caſe a judge ſhould be ever ſent from Portugal to execute juſtice: but impriſonment is here reckoned ſuch a ſcandal, that Mr. Roberts ſays, it is as much dreaded as Tyburn is by criminals here.

About forty-five miles from the iſland of Salt is St. Nicholas iſland, the north-weſt point of which is in ſeventeen degrees ten minutes north latitude, and ſix degrees fifty-two minutes weſt longitude from Cape de Verd. It is the largeſt of all the Cape de Verd iſlands, except St. Jago. The land is high, and riſes like a ſugar-loaf, but the ſummit of the moſt elevated part is flat. The coaſt of this iſland is entirely clear from rocks and ſhoals. The bay of Paraghiſi is very ſafe, but the other roads are inſecure till the trade winds are ſettled.

There is a valley in this iſland which has a fine ſpring of water in it, and many perſons employ themſelves in ſupplying different parts with that uſeful article, with

which they load asses, and carry it a considerable way at a cheap rate. Water may likewise be obtained in almost any part of the island, by digging a well.

The town of St. Nicholas is the chief place in the island; it is close built and populous, but all the houses, and even the church, are covered with thatch. Captain Avery, the celebrated pirate, having once received some offence from the inhabitants, burnt this town; but it was afterwards rebuilt, much in the same manner, and to the same extent as before.

The people here are nearly black, with frizzled hair. They speak the Portuguese language tolerably well, but are thievish and blood thirsty. The women here are more ingenious, and better housewives than in any other of the Cape de Verd islands. Most families have horses, hogs, and poultry; and many of the people of St. Nicholas understand the art of boat-building, in which the inhabitants of the other islands are deficient. They likewise make good cloths, and even cloaths, being tolerable taylors, manufacture cotton quilts, knit cotton stockings, make good shoes, and tan leather.

The people are strong Roman Catholics, but their dispositions are so obstinate, that their priests find it very difficult to rule them. This island abounds in oranges, lemons, plantains, bananas, pompions, musk, water-melons, sugar-canes, vines, gum-dragon, sestroons, maize, &c.

The island of St. Vincent is under the eighteenth degree of north latitude, two leagues to the west of St. Lucia, and about forty-three leagues distant from the Isle of Salt, west and by north. It is five leagues in length. On the north-west of it there is a bay a league and a half broad at the entrance, surrounded with high mountains, and stretching to the middle of the island. This bay is sheltered from the westerly and north-westerly winds, by the high mountains of the isle St. Vincent; so that this is the safest harbour of any in all these islands; and yet it is difficult of access, because of the furious winds that blow with the utmost impetuosity from the mountains along the coast.

There are several other small bays on the south-side of the island, where ships may anchor, and thither the Portuguese generally go to load hides. The south-east side of this island is a sandy shore, but there is not a drop of water on the hills, nor even in any of the deep valleys, except one, in which fresh water is seen to spout out of the ground on digging a little.

The island of St. Anthony is the most northward of all the Cape de Verd islands, and lies under the eighteenth degree of north latitude, seven miles from St. Vincent, with a channel between them, which runs from south-west to north-east. Here are two high mountains on this island, one of which is nearly as high as the pike of Teneriff, and seems always inveloped in clouds. The inhabitants are about five hundred in number; and on the north-west side of the island there is a little village, consisting of about twenty houses or cottages, and inhabited by near fifty families of negroes and white people, who are all wretchedly poor, and speak the Portuguese language. On the north side of the island there is a road for shipping, and a collection of water in a plain lying between high mountains, the water running from all sides in rainy season; but in the dry season the people are greatly distressed for water. The principal people here are a governor, a captain, a priest, and a schoolmaster, all of whom take much upon themselves, so that the people have some jingling verses concerning them, which imply, that the governor's staff, the beads of the priest, the schoolmaster's rod, and the captain's sword, give them a licence to feast on the natives, who serve as slaves to support their luxury and grandeur.

The island of St. Lucia lies in latitude seventeen degrees eighteen minutes north. It is high land, full of hills, and is about eight or nine leagues long. On the south-east end of it are two small isles, very near each other. On the east-south-east side is the harbour, where the shore is of white sand: here lies a small island, round which there is a very good bottom for anchoring; and ships may ride at anchor in a very good road, in twenty fathom water over-against the island of St. Vincent.

The island of Brava, or the Savage, or the Desart Island, is about four leagues to the south-west of Fuego. There are two or three small islands to the north of it. The best harbour lies on the south-east side of the island, where ships may anchor next to the shore in fifteen fathom water. There is an hermitage and an hamlet just above the harbour. On the west side of the island there is a very commodious road for such ships as want to get water.

SECT. XI.

Of the Canary Islands, particularly those of LANCEROTA, and FUERTEVENTURA; their Situation, Climate, Soil, Productions, Animals, &c.

THE Canary Islands, or, as they were antiently called, the Fortunato Islands, lie in the Atlantic ocean, near the continent of Africa, between the twenty-seventh degree thirty minutes and the twenty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the twelfth and seventeenth degrees fifty minutes west longitude from London. A judicious traveller observes, that on sailing four hundred and fifty miles to the south west, from the mouth of the straits of Gibraltar, along by the coast of Fez and Morocco, on the Atlantic ocean, we arrive at the south-west extremity of Mount Atlas; then leaving the land, and sailing into the ocean, directly west one hundred and sixty miles, we come to the island of Lancerota, the best of the Canary Islands in that course; the rest of these islands lie all to the west and south of Lancerota. The principal of the Canaries are seven in number; these are Lancerota, Fuerteventura, Canaria, Teneriff, Gomera, Hierro, or Ferro, and Palma, all of which lie from east to west, in the order in which they are here placed, and the last is about sixty-five leagues distant from the first. There are six more round Lancerota, namely, Graciosa, Rocca, Alegranza, Santa Clara, Infierno, and Lobos; but as these are not much better than rocks, navigators or geographers have not taken much notice of them.

John de Betancourt, a Frenchman, in the service of the king of Castile, discovered these islands in the year 1417, since which time they have been subject to the crown of Spain: he also subdued Fuerteventura and Lancerota, as others after him did the rest, from that time to the year 1496. In the days of Ferdinand, king of Castile, and Alphonso V. of Portugal, each of them claimed a right to the other's dominions, and assumed each other's titles, so that at length there ensued a bloody war between the Spaniards and the Portuguese, till both sides being spent, a peace was concluded in 1479, at Alcobazas, on the 4th of September, by which they reciprocally renounced their pretensions; and it was therein stipulated, that the Canary Islands should entirely belong to the crown of Castile, and the commerce and navigation of Guiney to that of Portugal exclusively.

The island of Lancerota is about fifteen miles long, and ten broad, and the center of it is in twenty nine-degrees eight minutes north latitude. It is very high, and may be discovered at a great distance; it appears, on approaching it, to be black, rocky, and barren.

Porto de Naos, on the south-east side of the island, is the principal harbour, and any vessel that does not draw above eighteen feet, may enter at high water, and be secure from all winds and weather; yet, in sailing along the coasts, the ships appear as if at anchor in an open road; for the harbour is formed by a ridge of rocks, which at a small distance cannot be perceived, as most of them lie under water; these breaking off the swell of the sea, the inside is perfectly smooth. This being the only convenient place among the Canary Islands for cleaning and repairing large vessels, it is much frequented for that purpose by the ships that trade to these islands. At the west end of the harbour is a square castle built of stone, and mounted with some cannon, but is of no great strength, as ships of war may approach it within musquet shot. There are some magazines at this port, in which corn is deposited for exportation, but here is no town or village.

A spacious harbour, called El Rio, is at the north end of Lancerota: this serves as a channel for dividing the island of Lancerota from the uninhabited island of Graciosa; and ships of any burthen may pass through it. That part of Lancerota which faces this harbour, is an exceeding high and steep cliff, from the bottom of which the shore is about two musket shot distant. The ground here is low, and in it is a salt-work, which is a square piece of land levelled, and divided by shallow trenches, about two inches deep; they let the sea-water into them, which is soon turned into salt, by the heat of the sun, and the nature of the soil. There is no other way of access into Lancerota, from the shore of this harbour, than by climbing up a narrow, steep, and intricate path, that leads to the top of the cliff, and it is scarce possible for a stranger to ascend it without a guide; for he would be in great danger of falling to the bottom should he wander from the path, which it would be difficult to regain.

On this island there are only two towns; one called Cayas, or Rubicon, which is situated about two leagues to the north-west of Porto de Naos, and may be termed the capital of the island, since it was formerly a bishop's see; but it contains only about two hundred houses, most of which have a mean appearance, an old castle mounted with some guns, a church, and a convent of friars.

The town of Haria, the next in size to Cayas, stands about two leagues within land, to the southward of the narrow part of the cliff at El Rio. All the buildings, except the church and three or four private houses, are very mean structures. The town contains about three hundred inhabitants.

Gracioſa lies on the north side of Lancerota. This island is barren, uninhabited, and destitute of water, though it is about three miles in length, and two in breadth.

The island of Fuerteventura is about eighty miles in length, and about fifteen in breadth. It belongs to the lord of Lancerota, and is about twenty-four leagues distant from Grand Canaria. The north end of this island lies about seven miles south and by west from the south-west point of Lancerota, and in the channel between them is the little uninhabited island of Lobos, or seals, which is about a league in circumference. The middle of Fuerteventura is narrow and low, being almost cut in two by the sea. That part of the island on the south-side of the isthmus is mountainous, sandy, barren, and almost uninhabited; but the northern part is also mountainous, yet it is fertile and well peopled within land.

There are several bays and harbours in this island, and three small towns, one of which, called Oliva, is situated somewhat less than two leagues within land from the road of Lobos, in the midst of a plain that abounds with cornfields. Here is a church and about fifty good houses.

The next town is La Villa, which is the chief in the island, and is situated in the centre of that part which lies north of the isthmus, and has a church, a convent of Franciscan friars, and near one hundred houses.

Here is also a town called Tunche, which contains about one hundred houses; but they are very mean, when compared with those of La Villa and Oliva.

Besides the above, there are many small villages scattered up and down in the northern and inland parts of the island, which stand extremely thick together.

A remarkable circumstance relating to these islands, is, that when there is a strong westerly wind, the sea breaks on the rocks, at the north-west end of Lobos, with such violence, as to strike the beholders with terror. "I may without exaggeration affirm, (says a gentleman who travelled to these parts) that I have seen breakers there near sixty feet high: were one of these to strike the strongest ship, she would be staved to pieces in a moment. When I saw those mighty breakers, our ship had just passed through the channel between Fuerteventura and Lobos: we had a fine brisk trade wind at north-north-east; and though we had no less than ten fathom water when we came into the westerly swell, yet we trembled for fear the waves would have broken, and thought ourselves happy when we got out of soundings. After we had passed these breakers six or seven leagues, we heard the noise of them like distant thunder."

We shall now give an account of the climate, soil, vegetables, and animals, &c. of Lancerota and Fuerteventura.

These islands have both of them the advantage of a wholsome climate, which perhaps is owing to the dryness of the soil, and the strong northerly winds that almost continually blow; whence the inhabitants in general live to a great age. From the middle or end of April, to the beginning or middle of October, the wind blows violently, and almost without intermission, from the north and north-east. From the middle of October, to the end of April, it most commonly blows in the same direction; but sometimes intermits, and gives place to other winds. The south-west wind always brings rain, and therefore is most welcome. Other winds, particularly the north-west, bring showers, but these are partial, and of short duration: but the rain which comes from the south-west frequently lasts two or three days. When these rains begin to fall, the natives sow their grain, and about fourteen or twenty days after the latter rains, that is towards the end of April, it is ready for reaping. The north, and north-north-east winds blow so hard and constantly, as to prevent the growth of all sorts of trees, especially in Lancerota, which is most exposed to their violence: yet we find there a few shrubs called tubaybas, which never grow to a great height any where; but here spread along the ground, except when sheltered from the wind by rocks and walls. In the gardens are fig-trees, or some low trees, or shrubs, which seldom shoot up higher than the walls of the garden.

This island, being less exposed to the wind than Lancerota, is not quite so bare of trees and shrubs, and produces the palm, the wild olive, and a sort of wild pine; also cotton and euphorbium shrubs, the shrub which bears the prickly pear, and fig-trees.

These islands though destitute of trees, abound in excellent herbage, and several kinds of odoriferous flowers. The great plenty and variety of these induced the inhabitants to bring bees from the other islands in order to propagate here; but they were disappointed; for none of those insects would remain with them, they not being able to bear the violent winds that prevail here.

Various kinds of corn grow in both these islands, as wheat, barley, and maize, which are produced in such abundance, as not only to serve the inhabitants, but also those off Teneriff and Palma, who depend greatly on these islands for their sustenance. No vines were produced at Lancerota till within thirty years past, when a volcano breaking out, covered many fields with ashes, which have so improved the soil, that vines are now planted and yield grapes; but the wine made from them is thin, poor, and so sharp as to resemble vinegar, yet is very wholsome. A greater quantity of wine, and of a quality something superior to that of Lancerota, is produced here.

On the sea coast grows a great quantity of orchilla-weed, an ingredient used in dying. It grows out of the pores of the rocks, to about three inches, and sometimes eight or ten inches. It is of a round form, and of the thickness of common sewing twine; it is of a grey colour, inclining to white, and on the stalk are white spots. Many stalks proceed from the root, at a distance from which they divide into branches. This weed dyes a beautiful purple, and is also much used for brightening and enlivening other colours. The best sort is that of the darkest colour, and of a form exactly round: the more it abounds with white spots or scabs, the more valuable it is. This weed also grows in the Madeira and Cape de Verd islands, and on the coast of Barbary; but the best sort, and the greatest quantity is found in the Canary islands. There is some reason to believe, that the orchilla was the getulian purple of the antients; and in support of this opinion, it is observed, that the coast of Africa adjacent to the Canary islands was called by the antients Getulia, and abounds with orchilla-weed.

Few springs or wells are in Lancerota. The inhabitants use for themselves and cattle rain water, which they preserve in pits and cisterns. This is also practised in Fuerteventura, though they have more springs and wells; but the water is generally brackish. At El Rio, to the northward of the salt works mentioned in the last section, is a well of medicinal water, esteemed a sovereign cure for the itch. It is also good for common drinking, and will keep sweet at sea for a considerable time.

Camels, horses, asses, bullocks, sheep, goats, and hogs are found here, all of which, except the sheep and goats, were brought from Barbary and Spain, since the conquests of these islands by the Spaniards. The horses are of the Barbary breed, and are much esteemed in Canaria and Teneriff, for their spirit and swiftness; but the natives of those two islands we are now describing have little or no use for them, on account of their having no great distance to travel, and therefore little care is taken to increase the breed; whence their number is at present very small. The natives use for travelling asses of a larger size than those of the other islands, which serve well enough for their short journies, and require little expence to keep them.

Their cattle, being fat and good, appear in the spring plump, sleek, and glisten as if rubbed with oil; but in the beginning of autumn, when all the grass is either withered or eaten up, they have a very different appearance, and are unfit for eating.

They generally plow here with a camel, or a couple of asses, for the soil is light, and they do not plow deep in the ground.

The want of trees or bushes occasions a scarcity of birds and wild fowl; yet there are some canary birds, and a bird called tubayba, about the size of a starling, speckled black and white. Here are likewise partridges and ravens, with plenty of dunghill fowls; but neither turkies, geese, nor ducks; the want of the two last species may probably be owing to the scarcity of water.

The black spider is the only venomous animal here, the bite of which the natives say occasions a swelling, at-

tended with a burning pain. Their cure for it is to eat a ſmall quantity of human ordure.

The inhabitants catch great quantities of fiſh of various kinds on the ſea coaſts of theſe iſlands, particularly a kind of cod, much better taſted than that of Newfoundland, or of the north ſea. Another fiſh of a ſtill more excellent taſte is caught here, called mero: it is as long as a cod; but much thicker, and has long ſtraps or whiſkers hanging at its mouth. There are many other ſorts of fiſh, for which they have no name; one of them however ought not to be omitted; this is the picudo or ſea pike, the bite of which is as poiſonous as that of a viper: yet when this fiſh is killed and dreſſed, it is good and innocent food. There are many ſhell-fiſh, and particularly limpets on the rocks by the ſea-ſhore.

In both theſe iſlands are many hills that were formerly volcanoes, the tops of which are of a ſmall circumference, and are hollow for a little way downwards; the edges of the tops being uſually narrow and ſharp, and on the outſide is generally ſeen a great deal of black duſt and burnt ſtone like pumice-ſtone, only darker and more ponderous. No eruptions have been known to happen for ſeveral ages, except that already mentioned at Lancerota, which about thirty years ago broke out on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, throwing out ſuch an immenſe quantity of aſhes and huge ſtones, and with ſo dreadful a noiſe, that many of the inhabitants leaving their houſes fled to Fuerteventura; but ſome time after, finding that thoſe who had ventured to ſtay had received no hurt, they took courage and returned. This volcano was near the ſea, in a place remote from any habitation. At a ſmall diſtance from the volcano a pillar of ſmoke iſſued from the ſea, and afterwards a ſmall pyramid rock aroſe, and ſtill continues. This rock was joined to the iſland by the matter thrown out of the volcano. The noiſe of this eruption was ſo loud, that it was heard at Teneriff, which ſtands at the diſtance of forty leagues; which was probably occaſioned by the winds generally blowing towards it from Lancerota.

With reſpect to the manners and cuſtoms of the ancient inhabitants of Lancerota and Fuerteventura, hiſtorians have furniſhed us with the following particulars; namely, That the people were in thoſe times of a larger ſize and better made than thoſe of the others, and ſo they are to day. The dreſs of the natives of Lancerota was made of goat-ſkins ſewed together, reached down to the knees, and was formed like a cloak with a hood. The ſeams of this habit were neatly ſewed with ſlender thongs of leather, which were as fine as common thread. Thoſe thongs they prepared with ſharp flints or ſtones, inſtead of knives or ſciſſars. They wore bonnets made of goats ſkins, with three large feathers ſtuck in the front. The women wore the ſame, with a fillet of leather dyed red with the bark of ſome ſhrubs. They had long hair, and wore their beards plaited. Their ſhoes were alſo of goats-ſkin, with the hairy ſide outwards. The king of the iſland wore a diadem like a biſhop's mitre, made of goat's leather, and adorned with ſea-ſhells.

Theſe people ate their victuals out of veſſels made of clay hardened by the heat of the ſun. Their food was barley-meal roaſted, which they called goſſio, and goat's fleſh boiled and roaſted; alſo milk and butter.

If any of them were ſick, which ſeldom happened, they cured themſelves with the herbs that grew in the country; and when they had acute pains, they ſcarified the part affected with ſharp ſtones, or burnt it with fire, and then anointed it with goat's butter. When any one died, they laid him between goat's ſkins in a cave, ſtretching out the body.

When they ſowed their land with barley, which was their own grain, they turned it up with goat's horns: the corn they threſhed with ſticks, winnowed it with their hands, and ground it with a hand-mill made of two ſtones. Their method of lighting a fire was by taking a ſtick of dry, hard, thorny wood, which they cauſed to turn rapidly round on the point, within a ſoft, dry, ſpongy thiſtle, and ſo ſet it on fire: and this method has been uſed to this day.

Each of theſe iſlands was divided into a certain number of lordſhips, and ſeparated one from another by a wall of looſe ſtones, that croſſed the iſland from ſea to ſea. Teneriff in particular, was ruled by nine different lords, or petty ſovereigns; and theſe had frequent wars with each other. But the inhabitants of theſe quarters had a great eſteem for the reſpective chiefs who governed them.

The inhabitants of both theſe iſlands were of humane, ſocial, and chearful diſpoſitions, extremely fond of ſinging and dancing. Their muſic was vocal, accompanied with a noiſe made by clapping their hands, and beating with their feet. They were remarkably nimble, and took great delight in leaping and jumping, which were their principal diverſions. Two men took a ſtaff, which they held by the ends, and lifted up as high above their heads as they could reach, keeping it parallel with the ground; and he who could leap over it was eſteemed very dextrous. Some of them were ſo active, that they could, at three leaps, bound over three poles placed in that manner behind each other. They alſo climbed up craggy rocks with amazing agility, and deſcended with equal eaſe. They frequently quarrelled, and then fought with ſticks a yard and an half long.

It was a cuſtom among them, that if a man entered the door of his enemy's houſe, and wounded or killed him, he was not puniſhed; but if he came upon him unawares, by leaping over the wall, and killed him, the captain, or chief, by whom the cauſe was tried, ordered him to be ſlain.

Their manner of executing criminals, was as follows: they carried them to the ſea-ſhore, and, placing their heads on a flat ſtone, took another of a round form, and with it daſhed out their brains. Their children were held infamous, after the parents had been thus puniſhed.

Theſe people were excellent ſwimmers, and uſed to kill the fiſh on their coaſts with ſticks. Their houſes were built of ſtone without cement, yet were ſtrong; and the entry was made ſo narrow, that only one perſon could paſs at a time. They had alſo houſes for worſhip and devotion; theſe were round, and compoſed of two walls, one within the other, with a ſpace between; and, like their dwelling-houſes, were built of looſe ſtones, with a narrow entry. They worſhipped only one God, and in theſe temples offered to him milk and butter. They adored him by lifting up their hands to heaven at their offerings on the mountains, at which they alſo poured out goats milk to him from earthen veſſels.

The dreſs of the inhabitants of Fuerteventura conſiſted of jackets made of ſheep-ſkins, with ſhort ſleeves that reached only to their elbows. They had ſhort breeches that left the knees bare, and ſhort ſtockings that reached but juſt above the calf of the leg. They dreſſed the hair of their heads and beards like the natives of Lancerota, wore the ſame ſort of ſhoes, and had high caps on their heads made of goat-ſkins.

With reſpect to the preſent inhabitants of theſe two iſlands, though they paſs for Spaniards, they are ſprung from a mixture of the antient inhabitants with the Normans and other Europeans, by whom they were ſubdued; and from ſome Mooriſh captives, whom the Spaniards had brought from the coaſt of Barbary to theſe iſlands.

The natives are generally tall, robuſt, ſtrong, and of a very dark complexion; but thoſe of the other iſlands account them rude and unpoliſhed in their manners and behaviour.

They neither ſpeak nor underſtand any other language but the Caſtilian, which they pronounce moſt barbarouſly. They dreſs coarſely, and after the Spaniſh faſhion; for the ſhort cloak and gobilla, formerly uſed by the Spaniards, are unknown here.

They build their houſes in general of ſtone and lime: thoſe belonging to the gentry are covered with pantiles; but the meaner ſort thatch theirs with ſtraw. They generally pave the floors with flag-ſtones. Few even of the better kind, have either cielings or lofts; but they are built in the form of large barns, and divided into apartments by boarded partitions that riſe no higher than the walls; ſo that all the rooms are open above, and have no other covering than the roof.

A diſh called goſſio, is the uſual diet of the peaſants: this is the flour of wheat, or barley, well heated by the fire, which they make into dough with water, and then eat it, without either knives, forks, or ſpoons, which are not wanted. They ſometimes make it up with their hands in balls or lumps, which they dip in honey or molaſſes; and, during the winter, when graſs is in perfection, and they have plenty of excellent milk, they put the goſſio into it, uſing ſea-ſhells inſtead of ſpoons. They alſo prepare goſſio by putting it into boiling milk, and ſtirring it about till it is ſufficiently boiled and thickened. On particular occaſions, ſuch as feſtivals and weddings, the poor eat fiſh and fleſh: but bread is rarely uſed by any but the gentry, and there are ſome people in thoſe iſlands who have never taſted it. Water is their uſual liquor, as they ſeldom drink any wine.

Few of the men in Lancerota and Fuerteventura, are artificers; for almoſt all their cloaths are made by the women,

women, and their houſhold furniture is brought from the other iſlands. The peaſants are employed in tilling the ground, ſowing, reaping, and other parts of huſbandry.

The claſs of people deemed gentry in theſe iſlands, are ſo averſe to leaving their country, and have ſo little curioſity, that few of them viſit Spain, or even Canaria, except when obliged to attend their law-ſuits in that iſland. A gentleman who poſſeſſes a few acres of land, a camel, a couple of aſſes, and a dozen ſheep, would chuſe rather to live all his days on goſſio, than venture to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, in order to better his fortune by trade, which, in his opinion, would diſgrace him and his family for ever; yet he will, without ſhame, oppreſs the poor peaſants, and deceive ſtrangers, in order to ſupport his imaginary rank, which, among the middling ſort, conſiſts wholly in not working, and riding a little way on an aſs, attended by a ragged ſervant.

The religion of the church of Rome is the only one profeſſed here; but there are but few monks, and no nuns among them: they are, however, in no want of prieſts, for there are ſeveral pariſh-churches, and an inferior court of inquiſition in each iſland, in order to prevent hereſy.

Though all the Canary iſlands are ſubject to Spain, yet the natives of the two we are now deſcribing, with thoſe of Gomera and Hierro, do not hold their lands of the crown, but of the family of Don Diego de Herrera, who conquered the iſland of Canaria. The chief part of the power originally poſſeſſed by the proprietors of theſe iſlands has been, however, taken from them, and annexed to the crown, probably on account of their making an ill uſe of ſuch an extenſive authority.

The government is now veſted in an alcalde major and a ſargento major, alſo called governador de las armis. The firſt is the head of the civil, and the other of the military government. There is an appeal from the deciſion of the alcalde major to the royal audience in the iſland of Canaria; and the ſargento major receives his orders from the governor-general of the Canary Iſlands, who uſually reſides in Teneriff. No ſtanding forces are kept here; but there is a militia properly regulated and divided into companies, to each of which is a captain, lieutenant, and enſign. The ſargento major is colonel, and takes care that their arms are kept in order, and that the companies may be raiſed at a ſhort notice.

Theſe iſlands, though but little eſteemed by the Spaniſh government, are really of great value; for were they once ſubdued by any other nation, Palma and Teneriff would fall of courſe, on account of their depending on Lancerota and Fuerteventura for their corn. Beſides, the forts in Lancerota would afford convenient retreats, where the cruiſing ſhips of an enemy might careen, and be ſupplied with proviſions and water.

The commodities exported from hence are entirely confined to the other iſlands, and conſiſt of wheat, barley, maize, cattle, fowls, cheeſe, orchilla wood, goats ſkins, and ſalt fiſh; but the two laſt are only exported from Lancerota. The wheat is ſmall grained, but hard, clean, and ſo good, that it always ſells at Teneriff at a higher price, by one-fifth, than either Engliſh or other European wheat. About ten years ago a number of camels were exported from Fuerteventura to Jamaica, and other parts of the Engliſh Weſt-Indies; but this trade was ſoon prohibited, for fear of loſing the breed, or at leaſt raiſing the price of thoſe animals to the natives.

The Spaniards having brought aſſes to Fuerteventura, they increaſed ſo faſt, that they ran wild among the mountains, and were ſo prejudicial to the natives by eating their corn and other grain, that in the year 1591, they aſſembled all the inhabitants and dogs in the iſland, in order to deſtroy them; and accordingly killed no leſs than fifteen hundred. Since that time there have been no more in the iſland than is ſufficient to ſupply the wants of the natives.

We before obſerved that they impoliticly prohibit the exportation of corn to any place except the other iſlands; whence in a year of great plenty it becomes of ſo little value, as ſcarcely to pay the expence of cutting it down. Hence they are very indifferent about raiſing more than what they can conſume themſelves, or ſell in the other iſlands; ſo that in a bad year the people ſtarve for want, eſpecially the inhabitants of Teneriff, unleſs they are ſo happy as to be ſupplied from Europe with that neceſſary article.

Moſt of the imports are from the other iſlands, eſpecially from Teneriff, which is the centre of trade for all the Canary Iſlands. Theſe conſiſt in Engliſh woollen goods, and German linens, both of the coarſeſt kinds, wine, brandy, oil, fruit, planks, and other timber, barks and fiſhing-boats, houſehold furniture, tobacco, ſnuff, bees-wax, ſoap, candles, and a conſiderable quantity of caſh, which they receive in the balance of trade, part of which is paid to the proprietors of the lands, and the reſt ſent to Grand Canaria, to ſupport the expence of their law-ſuits; the natives of all the Canary Iſlands being generally extremely litigious and quarrelſome.

SECT. XII.

Treating of the Iſland of GRAND CANARIA, both with reſpect to its Antient and Modern State.

THE iſland of Grand Canaria is greatly ſuperior to the reſt of theſe iſlands, not only on account of the delightful temperature of the air, and the plenty of good water, trees, herbs, and delicious fruits found upon it, but by reaſon of its being the ſeat of juſtice, and government for them all; ſo that the name of the Fortunate Iſland may juſtly be aſcribed to it.

From the traditions of the natives concerning this iſland, we are informed, that ſome time before the conqueſt of it by the Europeans, Canaria was governed by ſeveral petty ſovereigns, amongſt whom Antidamana, the queen of a moſt fertile diſtrict of the iſland, was celebrated for her wiſdom, equity, and eloquence; ſo that ſhe became revered by the people of the other diſtricts, and was appealed to as the general arbitrator of their differences. Her great influence, however, gave umbrage to, and raiſed the jealouſy of the other ſovereigns, who employed their utmoſt efforts to prejudice the Canarians againſt her, and repreſented, that it was ſcandalous for men to ſubmit their reaſon to the voice and deciſion of a woman, when they might have their cauſes decided in proper courts, and tried before competent judges, as their anceſtors had always done before them.

Theſe inſinuations anſwered the purpoſes for which they were deſigned, and the queen found her influence gradually decreaſe. This piqued her ſo much, that ſhe determined to give her hand to Gumiduff, a brave and popular officer. The nuptials were no ſooner performed, than the queen inveſted her huſband with half her power, and made him ſole commander of her army. Having put himſelf at the head of the troops, he ſucceſſively attacked the other petty ſovereigns, conquered them with great rapidity, and brought all their dominions beneath his own ſway.

This prince left a ſon by Antidamana, who ſucceeded him as king of the whole iſland; and this ſon, at his death, left two ſons, between whom he equally divided his dominions. Theſe were, on their reſpective thrones, trying to maintain what their father had left them, and the depoſed petty ſovereigns were aiming to regain what they had loſt, at the time the Spaniards conquered the iſland; which event, at the ſame time that it united them in one general calamity, put a final period to all their inteſtine diſputes.

Canaria is about forty-two miles in length, twenty-ſeven in breadth, and a hundred and five in circumference, reckoning the length from the north-eaſt point ſouthward to the point Arganeguin, and the breadth from the port of Agaete, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, to that of Gando on the Eaſt.

The north-eaſt point of Canaria lies at the diſtance of eighteen leagues from the ſouth-weſt end of Fuerteventura, and in clear weather either of thoſe iſlands may be ſeen from the other.

Towards the centre of the iſland, is a number of lofty mountains, which riſe ſo far above the clouds, as to ſtop the current of the north-eaſt wind that generally blows here; ſo that when this wind blows hard on the north ſide of the mountains, it is either quite calm on the other, or a gentle breeze blows from the ſouth-weſt. The calms and eddy winds cauſed by the height of the mountains above the atmoſphere, extend twenty or twenty-five leagues beyond them to the ſouth-weſt. There are alſo calms beyond ſome of the reſt of the iſlands; for thoſe of Teneriff extend fifteen leagues into the ocean, the calms of Palma thirty, and thoſe of Gomera ten. Upon firſt coming to the calms, the waves appear foaming and boiling like a pot, breaking in all directions; and when a veſſel enters the verge of them, ſhe is ſhaken and beaten by the waves on all ſides in ſuch a manner, that one would imagine it impoſſible to withſtand them. This confuſion, however, does not laſt long; for after a ſhip is once fairly entered into the calms, ſhe will either find a dead calm, and ſmooth water,

water; or a pleaſant and conſtant breeze at ſouth or ſouth-weſt, according as the wind blows without; for this eddy wind, as it may be called, conſtantly blows in an oppoſite direction.

There is a peninſula at the north-eaſt end of Canaria, about two leagues in circumference, which is connected with the main land by an iſthmus about two miles in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth at the narroweſt part. On each ſide of the iſthmus is a bay, which on the north ſide is expoſed to the ſwell of the ſea. That on the other ſide is called by ſome Porto de Luz, and by others Porto de Iſletes, from ſome ſteep rocks or iſlands at the entrance of the bay, towards the north-eaſt. This is a good road for ſhips of any burthen, with all winds, except the ſouth-eaſt; but that wind is not common, and rarely blows ſo hard as to endanger ſhips. The landing-place is at the bottom of the bay, where ſtands a hermitage, or chapel, dedicated to St. Catharine, and a caſtle of no ſtrength.

At three miles diſtance is the city of Palmas, the capital of the iſland, between which and the above caſtle are two other forts, mounted with guns; but they have no garriſons, except a few invalids. At the other end of the city is another caſtle, called St. Pedro; but neither of them are capable of ſtanding againſt a regular attack. Though the city of Palmas is of no ſtrength, it is pretty large, and contains ſeveral fine buildings, particularly the cathedral of St. Anne, with many churches, convents of friars of all orders, and nunneries. The private houſes are in general good, and built with ſtone. The city is divided into two parts, which have a communication by a bridge, thrown over a ſmall ſtream of water, and there are ſuppoſed to be ſix thouſand inhabitants.

The port of Gando is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, and the port of Gaete, or Agaete, on the north-weſt part of the iſland, which has a caſtle for its defence. The whole coaſt, except theſe ports, is generally inacceſſible to boats and veſſels, on account of the breaking of the ſea upon it. This indeed is the caſe of the ſhores of all the Canary Iſlands, particularly at the full and change of the moon, except thoſe of Lancerota and Fuerteventura. There are no inland cities or large towns in Canaria, though there are many villages, the chief of which are Telde and Galdar.

The fruits of Grand Canaria are melons, pears, apples, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, peaches, battatoes, or Spaniſh potatoes. The plantain grows near the ſides of brooks, is very ſtrait in the body, and has ſurprizing thick leaves, which grow not on the branches, but at the extremities of the tree. Every leaf is almoſt ſix feet long, and almoſt two broad. The fruit grows on the branches, of which each tree hath but three or four. The fruit in ſhape reſembles a cucumber, and, when ripe, turns black, at which time it is one of the moſt delicious conſerves in the univerſe. The plantain tree will bear fruit but once, when it is cut down, and another tree ſprings from the ſame root; the cutting down is therefore repeated every ſeaſon, as ſoon as the fruit is gathered. As this iſland hath a ſalubrious air, and is well watered, almoſt every thing thrives that is planted, ſuch as the pine, palm, wild olive, laurel, poplar, dragon-tree, lera nueſſa, or lignum rhodium, the aloe ſhrub, Indian fig, or prickly pear. Beſides thoſe above-mentioned, they have all the American and European fruits, except the anana. They have alſo wheat, barley, and maize, potatoes, yams, the beſt onions in the world, cabbages and ſallads, and many kinds of roots.

The climate in this iſland is extremely delightful; for the heat in ſummer ſeldom exceeds what is generally felt in England in July and Auguſt, and the coldeſt part of the winter is not ſharper than with us about the end of May, in a backward ſeaſon. The ſame winds blow here at the ſame periods as at Lancerota and Fuerteventura; but the northerly wind is leſs furious, and compared with that, is only a gentle breeze that cools the air, ſo as to render it agreeably temperate; and the ſky is continually ſerene, and free from ſtorms and thunder.

The only diſagreeable weather is, when the ſouth-eaſt wind blows from the deſart of Zaara; but this does not often happen. Theſe winds, being very hot, dry and ſtifling, are of great prejudice to the fruits of the earth, by their pernicious quality, and by their bringing clouds, which devour every green thing they light upon. In the mountains, indeed, the air is not only cold in winter, but their ſummits are uninhabitable, from the great quantities of ſnow that fall upon them in that ſeaſon, but the air is exceedingly wholeſome below.

Notwithſtanding there is in Canaria more level and arable land than in any of the iſlands to the weſtward of it, yet that bears no proportion to the barren, ſtrong and rocky ground. The mountain of Doramas is the moſt fertile part of this iſland: it is ſituated about two leagues from the city of Palmas, and ſhaded by groves of fragrant trees of different kinds, whoſe lofty boughs are ſo interwoven as to exclude the rays of the ſun. The rills that water theſe ſhady groves, the whiſpering breeze among the trees, and the ſinging of the canary-birds, form a delightful concert.

A modern naturaliſt gives us the following account of this moſt beautiful ſinging-bird: "This bird was originally peculiar to theſe iſles, to which it owes its name; the ſame that were known to the antients by the addition of the Fortunate. On the ſame ſpot theſe charming ſongſters are ſtill to be found; but they are now ſo plentiful among us, that we are under no neceſſity of croſſing the ocean for them. In its native regions, the canary-bird is of a duſky grey colour, and ſo different from thoſe ſeen in Europe, that doubts have ariſen whether it be of the ſame ſpecies. Next to the nightingale, the canary-bird is conſidered as the moſt celebrated ſongſter; it is alſo reared with leſs difficulty than any of the ſoft-billed birds, and continues its ſong throughout the year."

We cannot give a very agreeable deſcription of the upper part of this iſland, which is entirely barren and deſolate; for as it projects far above the clouds, neither dew nor rain fall upon it, ſo that it is expoſed to a dry, parching wind, entirely different from the trade-wind below, which generally blows from the weſt. This weſterly wind blows hard in the night, but abates in the day.

The amazing quantity of calcined ſtones, aſhes, and lava, that cover the greateſt part of all the Canary iſlands, greatly diſfigure them. But though it does not appear that any volcano has burnt in Canaria, ſince the iſland was conquered by the Spaniards, nevertheleſs the apertures from whence combuſtible matter proceeded may be diſcerned in all quarters of this and the other iſlands, as may alſo the channels made by the fiery ſtreams that flowed from the volcanos.

Olives have been planted in this iſland; but no oil is made of the fruit, which does not come to ſuch perfection as in Spain, Barbary, and other countries. Formerly much ſugar was made here; but the great demand for the wines and brandies of this iſland in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, ſtopped the culture of the ſugar cane, and the natives find it more to their advantage to receive the produce of their wines at the Havannah in ſugar, than to raiſe it in their own country. Canaria alſo abounds in honey, which is good, though of a black colour. The wine of this iſland, though of a very agreeable taſte, has not ſuch a body as that of Teneriff, and is therefore leſs fit for exportation, yet many pipes of it are annually ſent to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

Camels, horſes, aſſes, a few mules, bullocks, ſheep, goats, hogs, and rabbits, are among the animals of this iſland. The poultry are dunghill fowls, turkies, geeſe, ducks, partridges; there are alſo crows and canary-birds.

There does not appear to be any ſerpents, ſcorpions, or other venomous creatures here, except the ſpider of Lancerota, and a very innocent kind of ſnake peculiar to the iſland of Gomera; but lizards abound in this and all the other iſlands.

We ſhall now treat of the antient inhabitants of Canaria, their perſons, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, &c.

It appears, by the accounts of the firſt diſcoverers of Grand Canaria, that the original inhabitants amounted to upwards of 14,000 men capable of bearing arms; excluſive of women, children, aged perſons, &c. which muſt have rendered the iſland extremely populous; but ſome time after the firſt arrival of the Europeans there, a peſtilence ſwept away two thirds of the inhabitants. Theſe were of a dark complexion, like the natives of Lancerota and Fuerteventura, of a good ſtature, and well proportioned, active, warlike, chearful, good-natured, and faithful to their promiſes; for they conſidered a lie as one of the greateſt crimes. They were fearleſs of dangers, and fond of hazardous enterprizes, ſuch as climbing to the tops of ſteep precipices, and there fixing poles of ſo great a weight, that one of them was of ſufficient burden for a man of common ſtrength to carry on level ground; and with theſe they would leap from one rock to another.

Their dreſs was a ſhort tight coat, with a hood to it like that of a Capuchin friar; it reached to the knees, and was faſtened to the waiſt by a leathern girdle. This garment was made of a kind of ruſh, which they beat

till it became ſoft like flax, and then they ſpun and wove it. Over this they had a goat-ſkin cloak, with the hairy ſide inward in winter, and outward in ſummer. They had likewiſe caps made of the ſkins of the heads of goats, taken off almoſt entire, which they formed in ſuch a manner that a goat's beard hung under each ear, and theſe they ſometimes tied under the chin. Some had bonnets of ſkins, adorned with feathers. Theſe garments were all neatly ſewed and painted, and were in every reſpect much more curious than thoſe of the natives of the other iſlands. Some of them wore ſhoes made of raw hides, the workmanſhip of which was very neat, and others went barefooted.

The noble or ſuperior rank of the Canarians had an external mark of diſtinction from thoſe of the vulgar or lower claſs, which was by the cut of their hair and beards; but a man could not be entitled to this honour, merely from his being the offspring of noble or rich parents; but was to be declared noble by the faycag, a perſon whoſe buſineſs it was to decide diſputes among the natives, and regulate the ceremonies of their religion; in ſhort, he was a prieſt, and acted alſo as a judge in civil affairs.

The manner in which nobility was conferred was very ſingular. At a particular time of life, the ſon of a nobleman let his hair grow long; and when he had obtained ſufficient ſtrength to endure the fatigues of war, went to the faycag and ſaid "I am the ſon of ſuch a nobleman, and deſire alſo to be ennobled." Upon this the faycag went to the town or village where the young man was brought up, and there aſſembled all the nobles, and other perſons of the place, whom he cauſed ſolemnly to ſwear by their god Acoran, to declare the truth. He then aſked them if they had ever ſeen the youth ſo far demean himſelf as to dreſs victuals, or to go into the folds to look after the ſheep or goats, and whether he was ever ſeen to milk or kill them? If he was ever known to ſteal cattle, or forcibly take them in time of peace from their owners? Whether he was ever diſcourteous, of a ſlanderous diſpoſition, or guilty of any indecent behaviour, eſpecially to women? If they all anſwered theſe queſtions in the negative, the faycag cut the youth's hair in a round form, ſo ſhort as not to hang below his ears, and giving him a ſtaff, declared him noble. But if any of the ſtanders by could charge him with any of the offences mentioned by the faycag, and bring ſufficient proof of them, inſtead of being declared noble, the faycag ſhaved his head, and ſent him away in diſgrace, by which means he was rendered incapable of nobility.

They eſteemed it baſe and mean to moleſt or injure the women and children of the enemy taken priſoners in war, whom they conſidered as weak and helpleſs, and therefore improper objects of their reſentment; nor did they offer the leaſt damage to the enemy's temples.

The antient Canarians uſed clubs and ſharp-pointed poles hardened by fire; but after the Europeans began to invade their iſland, they formed ſhields in imitation of theirs, and ſwords of pitch-pine, the edges of which were hardened by fire, and ſharpened in ſuch a manner, that it is ſaid they cut like ſteel; but their chief ſtrength lay in their wooden ſpears, and their throwing ſtones with great force and ſkill.

They appointed public places for fighting, in which a kind of ſtages were raiſed for the combatants, that they might be more eaſily ſeen by the ſpectators. On a challenge being given and accepted, the parties went to the council of the iſland, which conſiſted of twelve members, for a licence to fight, which was eaſily obtained, and then they went to the faycag, to have this licence confirmed. Afterwards they aſſembled all their relations and friends, that they might be ſpectators of their bravery and ſkill, and with them repaired to the public place or theatre, where the combatants mounting on two ſtones flat at the top, and placed at the oppoſite ſides, threw ſtones at each other, which, though good markſmen, they generally avoided, merely by their agility in writhing their bodies, without moving their feet. When each had thrown three ſtones at his antagoniſt, they armed themſelves with a cudgel in their right hand, and a ſharp flint in their left, then drawing near, they beat and cut each other till they were tired, and then retired with their friends to take ſome refreſhment; but ſoon returning, fought till the twelve members of the council called out, Gama, gama, or Enough, enough, when they inſtantly deſiſted, and ever after remained good friends. If during the combat one of the parties happened to break his cudgel, the other inſtantly deſiſted from ſtriking, and the diſpute was ended in an amicable manner, though neither of the parties was declared victor. Theſe combats were uſually fought on public feſtivals, rejoicings, or the like occaſions; and if either of the combatants was deeply wounded, they beat a ruſh till it became like tow, and dipping it in melted goat's butter, applied it to the wound as hot as the patient could bear it; and the older the butter was, the ſooner they ſay a cure was affected.

There were alſo public houſes or rooms, in which they aſſembled to dance and ſing. The Canarian dance is ſtill in uſe in theſe iſlands; it has a quick and ſhort ſtep, and is called Canario. Their ſongs were either amorous ſonnets, ſet to grave and plaintive tunes, or ſolemn dirges.

They build their houſes of ſtone, without cement, which were nevertheleſs ſo neat and regular, that they made a handſome appearance. The walls were very low, and the floors ſunk beneath the level of the ground on which they ſtood, being ſo contrived for the advantage of warmth in the winter ſeaſon. At the top they laid wooden beams, or rafters cloſe to each other, and covered them with earth. Their beds and bedding were the ſkins of goats dreſſed in their hair. Their other furniture conſiſted of baſkets and mats of palm leaves, and ruſhes very neatly made.

They had people among them whoſe ſole employment was building houſes and making of mats. The women were generally employed in painting and dying; and in the proper ſeaſon they carefully gathered the flowers and ſhrubs from which they extracted their ſeveral colours. The thread they uſed in ſewing was made of the nerves and tendons of the loins of ſheep, goats, or ſwine, with which they were ſupplied by the butchers. Theſe they firſt anointed with butter, and then prepared by fire in ſuch a manner, that they could ſplit them into fine threads at their pleaſure. Their needles were of bone, and their fiſh-hooks of horn. The veſſels they uſed in cookery were made of clay, which they placed in the ſun to harden.

The Canarians (eſpecially the better ſort) would not follow the trade of a butcher; for that employment was reckoned ſo ignominious, that they would not allow one of that profeſſion to enter any of their houſes, or to touch any thing belonging to them. It was even unlawful for the butchers to keep company with any that were not of their profeſſion; and when they wanted any thing of another perſon, they were obliged to carry a ſtaff, and ſtanding at a conſiderable diſtance, point at what they wanted; but, to compenſate for this abject ſtate, the natives were obliged to ſupply the butchers with every thing they wanted. It was unlawful for any Canarian, except the butchers, to kill cattle; and when any perſon wanted his beaſt to be ſlain, he was forced to lead it to the public ſhambles, but was not permitted to enter himſelf; even women and children were ſubject to this prohibition.

Their common food was barley-meal roaſted, which they eat with milk or goat's fleſh; and when they made a feaſt, they dreſſed the latter with hog's lard or butter. They ground their barley with a hand-mill. When they went to plough their lands, about twenty people aſſembled together, each had a wooden inſtrument reſembling a hoe, with a ſpur at the end of it, on which they fixed a goat's horn: with this they broke the ground, and if the rain did not fall in its proper ſeaſon, they moiſtened the earth with water, which they brought by canals from the rivulets. The corn was gathered in by the women, who reaped only the ears; theſe they threſhed with ſticks, or beat out the corn with their feet, and winnowed it with their hands. Their wealth conſiſted chiefly in their ſheep, goats, and hogs.

The lower claſs of people by the ſea-coaſt, lived chiefly on fiſh, which they uſually caught in the night, by making a great light with torches of pitch-pine. In the day-time, whenever they perceived a ſhoal of ſardinas, a ſmall fiſh that has ſome reſemblance to a pilchard, a multitude of men, women, and children, went at a ſmall diſtance into the ſea, and ſwimming beyond the ſhoal, chaſed the fiſh towards the ſhore, and with a net, made of a tough kind of ruſh, incloſed and drew them to land, where they equally divided their prize; but in doing this, every woman who had a young child, received a ſhare for each; or if ſhe happened to be pregnant, ſhe received the allowance of two perſons.

Theſe people had never more than one wife. When the parents were diſpoſed to marry their daughter, they fed her thirty days with large quantities of milk and goſſio; in order to fatten her; for they thought that lean women were leſs capable of conceiving children than thoſe who were

were fat, and that it was a bad omen for people to marry when lean.

The Canarians were very careful in the education of their children, and never failed to chaſtiſe them when they did amiſs. It was uſual to propoſe two of the youth as examples to the reſt, the one of virtue, the other of vice; and when a child did any thing that was praiſe-worthy, he was commended, and told that ſuch behaviour was amiable, and reſembled that of the good boy. On the other hand, when a child diſpleaſed its parents, they obſerved that ſuch an action reſembled thoſe of the perſon ſet up as a bad example. By this means they raiſed a ſpirit of emulation for excelling in virtue.

There were religious women, called Magadas, among the Canarians, a number of whom lived together in one houſe, or convent, of which there were many in Canaria; and theſe were held ſo ſacred, that criminals who fled to any of them were protected from the officers of juſtice. The Magadas maintained, that Acoran, their god, dwelt on high, and governed every thing on earth; and when they addreſſed him, lifted up their joined hands to heaven. Theſe women were diſtinguiſhed from others by their long white garments, which ſwept the ground as they paſſed.

In this iſland are two rocks, to which the inhabitants, in times of public calamity, went in proceſſion, accompanied by the religious women, carrying in their hands palm branches, and veſſels filled with milk and butter, which they poured on the rocks, dancing round them, and ſinging mournful ſongs; from thence they went to the ſea-ſhore, and all at once ſhouting together with a loud voice, ſtruck the water with their rods.

Good government was maintained, and juſtice ſtrictly adminiſtered, among the Canarians. At the time of the conqueſt of the iſland, it was governed by two princes, each of whom had his ſeparate diſtrict; but before they were ruled by captains, or heads of tribes, who preſided over ſmall circles. The people of each tribe were confined to their own diſtricts, and not allowed to graze their flocks on the ground belonging to another tribe. For crimes of a leſs criminal nature they uſed the law of retaliation (an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth); but ſuch crimes as deſerved death were puniſhed by daſhing out their brains with a ſtone, in the manner already related.

When any of the nobles died, they brought out the corpſe, and placing it in the ſun, took out his entrails, and buried them in the earth; then drying the body, they ſwathed it round with bandages of goat-ſkins, and fixed it upright in a cave, cloathed with the ſame garments which the deceaſed wore when alive; but if no proper cave was at hand, the body was carried to one of the ſtony places, now called Mal Paices, where, after they had levelled the ground, and fixed the looſe ſtones, they made a ſort of artificial cave of large ſtones placed ſo as not to touch the body, and then taking another large ſtone two yards in length, wrought into a round form, with this cloſed the entrance, and afterwards filled up the outſide between the top of the round ſtone and the outward part of the other large ones with ſmall ones, in a very neat manner.

All the corpſes, except thoſe placed upright in the caves, were laid with their heads towards the north. Some of their dead bodies were put into cheſts, and afterwards depoſited in ſtone ſepulchres. People of the lower claſs were interred in the Mal Paices, in holes covered with ſtones.

SECT. XIII.

Containing a Deſcription of the Iſland and Pike of TENERIFF; alſo of the Iſlands of GOMORA and PALMA; their Situation, Towns, Harbours, Climate, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THE iſland of Teneriff was antiently called Nivaria, from the ſnow that incloſes the neck of the pike of Teyda, like a collar; the name of Teneriff, or the White Mountain, being given it by the natives of Palma, in whoſe language Tener ſignifies ſnow, and iffe, white; the ſummit of the pike of Teneriff being always covered with ſnow; the preſent names it Vinchoni, but it was called Chineche by the natives.

Point Nago, or Anaga, which is the north-eaſt point of Teneriff, bears north-weſt about ſixteen leagues diſtant from the north-weſt part of Canaria; but from that part of Canaria to the neareſt part of Teneriff, the diſtances does not exceed twelve leagues.

This iſland is nearly triangular, the three ſides being almoſt equal, and each about twelve leagues long. In the center is the famous pike of Teneriff which is ſaid to be the higheſt hill in the univerſe, and ſtrikes the beholder with amazement, both near and at a diſtance: This great mountain extends its baſe to Garrachino; from whence it is two days and a half's journey to the top; but we ſhall treat more particularly of this in the ſequel.

In coming in with Teneriff, in clear weather, the pike may be eaſily diſcerned at a hundred and twenty miles diſtance; and in ſailing from it, at the diſtance of a hundred and fifty miles, it then reſembles a thin blue vapour, or ſmoke, very little darker than the ſky; and at a farther diſtance, the ſhade diſappearing is not diſtinguiſhable from the azure of the firmament. Before we loſe ſight of this towering mountain, it ſeems a conſiderable height above the horizon, though from its diſtance, and the ſpherical figure of the earth, the reſt of the iſland is ſunk beneath the horizon, notwithſtanding its being exceedingly high.

There are ſeveral high perpendicular rocks near Punto de Nago; and on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, about five or ſix leagues diſtant from them, is the harbour of Santa Cruz, the moſt frequented part in the Canary iſlands. The beſt road for ſhips is about a mile to the northward; between the middle of the town and fort or caſtle, ſhips may lie here ſecure from all winds, though the bay is expoſed to thoſe which blow from the north-eaſt coaſts, and ſouth-eaſt, yet theſe winds do not blow ſo hard as to cauſe any conſiderable damage above once in the ſpace of four or five years. However, ſome years ago moſt of the ſhipping in the road were driven on ſhore by one of theſe gales. Some Engliſh ſhips were then in the harbour; but the crews prudently cutting away their maſts, rode out the ſtorm.

A mole, built at a vaſt expence, for the convenience of landing, is in the middle of the town. It runs up to the northward and the outermoſt part turns towards the ſhore. However, in mild weather, goods are landed at a creek among the rocks, at the diſtance of a ſtone's caſt to the ſouthward of the mole, and near the cuſtom-houſe.

In the way from the mole into the town, there is a ſquare fort on the left hand, named St. Philip's; this is the principal one in the bay. To the northward of is are ſome forts and batteries mounted with guns, the moſt conſiderable of which it named Paſſo Alto. Near it is a ſteep rocky valley, which begins at the ſea-ſhore, and runs a great way within land. There are ſeveral batteries at the ſouth end of the town, and beyond them, cloſe to the ſhore, is a fort called St. Juan. All theſe forts are mounted with cannon, and joined to each other by a thick ſtone-wall, which begins near the above rocky valley, and continues, with little interruption, to Fort St. Juan. This wall is within only breaſt-high, but it higher on the out ſide facing the ſea; and from thence to the ſouthward, the ſhore, being naturally fenced with rocks, is generally inacceſſible.

Santa Cruz is a large town, and contains ſeveral churches, three convents of friars, an hoſpital, and the beſt conſtructed private buildings of any to be found in the Canary Iſlands. It is indeed the capital of them all; for though the epiſcopal ſee and courts of judicature are in the city of Palmas, in Canaria, the governor-general of the iſlands always reſides in Santa Cruz, where a great concourſe of foreigners continually reſort, on account of its being the centre of the trade between the Canary Iſlands with Europe and America. The number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to about five or ſix thouſand. The water drank by them is conveyed into the town in open wooden troughs, from a ſpring beyond the above-mentioned valley, and there are pits of water, which ſerve for other purpoſes, in many of the houſes.

Near twelve miles to the ſouthward of Santa Cruz, and cloſe to the ſea, there is a cave, with a church or chapel, called Our Lady of Candelaria, in which is a little image of the Virgin Mary, about three feet high, holding a green candle in one hand, and in the other an infant Jeſus, who has a gilt bird in each hand. This chapel received its name of Candelaria, from its being pretended, that on the eve of the Purification of the Holy Virgin, a great number of lights are conſtantly ſeen going in proceſſion round the cave in which the image is placed; and they aſſert, that in the morning drops of wax are ſcattered about the ſea-ſhore. This image is held in the higheſt veneration, on account of the many miracles it is ſaid to have performed, and her chapel is adorned with ſo many ornaments, that it is the richeſt place in all the ſeven iſlands. At a certain ſeaſon of the year, moſt of the inhabitants of the iſland go thither in pilgrimage; when troops of young girls march ſinging, in an agreeable manner,

ner, the praiſes of the Virgin, and the miraculous deeds the image is ſaid to have performed.

North-weſtward of the iſland is the bay of Adexe, or, as it is pronounced, Adehe, where large ſhips may anchor. On the north-weſt ſide is a haven called Garrachica, once the beſt port in the iſland; but it was deſtroyed in 1704, which the natives call the year of the earthquakes, and filled up by the rivers of burning lava that flowed into it from a volcano; ſo that houſes are now built where ſhips formerly lay at anchor; yet veſſels come there in the ſummer ſeaſon.

The earthquake above-mentioned began on the twenty-fourth of December; and, in the ſpace of three hours twenty-nine ſhocks were felt. After this they became ſo violent as to cauſe all the houſes to ſhake, and oblige the inhabitants to abandon them. The conſternation became univerſal, and the people, with the biſhop at their head, made proceſſions and public prayers in the open fields. On the thirty-firſt a great light was obſerved on Manja, towards the White Mountains, where the earth opening, two volcanoes were formed, that threw up ſuch heaps of ſtones, as to raiſe two conſiderable mountains; and the combuſtible matter continually thrown up, kindled in the neighbourhood above fifty fires.

Things remained in this ſituation till the fifth of January, and then the ſun was totally obſcured with clouds of ſmoke and flame, which continually increaſing, augmented the conſternation and terror of the inhabitants. Before night, the whole country, for nine miles round, was in flames by the flowing of the liquid fire, with the rapidity of a torrent, into all quarters from another volcano, which had opened by at leaſt thirty different vents within the compaſs of half a mile. The horror of this ſcene was greatly increaſed by the violence of the ſhocks, which never once intermitted, but by their force entirely overthrew ſeveral houſes, and ſhook others to their very foundations; while the wretched inhabitants were again driven defenceleſs and diſmayed into the open fields, where they every moment expected to be ſwallowed up by ſome new gulf. The noiſe of the volcano was heard at ſea at twenty leagues diſtance, where the ſea ſhook with ſuch violence as alarmed the mariners, who at firſt thought the ſhip had ſtruck upon a rock. Mean while a torrent of ſulphur, and melted ores of different kinds, ruſhed from this laſt volcano towards Guimar, where the houſes and public buildings were thrown down by the violence of the accompanying ſhocks.

On the ſecond of February another volcano broke out even in the town of Guimar, which ſwallowed up a large church. Thus, from the twenty-fourth of December to the twenty-third of February, the people were conſtantly alarmed by continual ſhocks of earthquakes, and the terrible volcanoes that burſt forth in different parts.

The town of Garrachica is ſtill pretty large, and contains ſeveral churches and convents of both ſexes. It has a ſmall trade for brandy and wine, which are uſually ſent from thence in barks, or large open boats, to Santa Cruz, or Port Orotava. Strong and durable ſhips are alſo built there, ſome of which are upwards of three hundred tons burthen.

About ſix miles to the eaſtward of Garrachica is the town of Port Orotava, which is a good harbour in the ſummer ſeaſon; but in the winter, ſhips are often obliged to ſlip their cables and put to ſea, for fear of being ſurprized with a north-weſt wind, which throws in a heavy ſea upon this coaſt. This is a place of conſiderable trade, it having flouriſhed greatly ſince the deſtruction of the harbour of Garrachica. It contains two churches, two convents of friars, two of nuns, and ſome good private buildings. At each end of the town is a black ſandy bay; along the northernmoſt is a low ſtone wall, built to prevent the landing of an enemy: at the other bay is a ſmall caſtle, or fort, for the ſame purpoſe, and at the landing-place between them is a battery of a few cannon: but the ſurf that continually breaks upon the ſhore, is the beſt defence of this port.

The town of La Villa de Orotava, which is about three miles within land from Port Orotava, is a large place, and contains ſeveral churches, convents of friars and nuns, with a number of ſtately ſtone buildings belonging to private perſons. A rivulet, which runs through the midſt of it, refreſhes their gardens and orchards, and ſupplies the inhabitants with water.

The city of St. Chriſtobal de la Lagona, that is, St. Chriſtopher of the Lake, extends four miles within land from Santa Cruz. The road to it from the above town is a pretty ſteep aſcent, till within a ſmall diſtance of the above town, which is ſeated in the corner of a plain, about four miles in length, and a mile in breadth. This city is the capital of the iſland, and contains two pariſh churches, three convents of friars, two of nuns, and three hoſpitals; two of which are for the venereal diſeaſe, and the other for foundlings. The jeſuits have alſo a houſe here, and, beſides theſe public ſtructures, there are many handſome private buildings. The water drank by the inhabitants is conveyed in troughs to the city, from the mountains ſituated to the ſouthward of the plain.

In this city there is not the leaſt ſhow of buſineſs, it being chiefly inhabited by the gentry of the iſland, particularly the officers of juſtice, ſuch as the corregidor and his tiniente, or lieutenant, the regidores, or cavildo, with the judge of the Indies, who preſides in the India-houſe, where all affairs relating to the Weſt-India commerce are conducted. Here is likewiſe an office of inquiſition, with its proper officer, ſubject to the tribunal of the Holy Office at Grand Canaria: yet the city appears to a ſtranger as if deſolate and uninhabited; for hardly any body can be ſeen in the ſtreets, and graſs grows in the moſt frequented places.

There is a laguna, or lake, behind the city, about half a mile in circumference, from which the city takes its name. It is dry in ſummer, but in winter is full of ſtagnant water. As this city is ſituated on a plain, elevated a conſiderable height above the ſea, it is extremely cold in winter, and in all ſeaſons expoſed to the wind.

The road deſcends, from the weſtern extremity of this plain, to La Montanza de Centejo, a large village in the mid-way between Santa Cruz and Port Orotava, chiefly inhabited by peaſants and labouring people. Some of the towns belonging to the villages are ſituated at no great diſtance from the ſea, from whence moſt of them may be ſeen, and indeed there are no habitations at a greater diſtance from each other than three leagues.

The whole iſland continues to riſe on all ſides from the ſea till it terminates in the pike, which we obſerved above is in the center. The north-ſide is the moſt fertile, and aſcends more gradually than the other, particularly a ſpace along the ſhore about three leagues broad, bounded on the ſides by high mountains, or rather cliffs; but it riſes upwards from the ſea, like a hanging garden, till you come within a league of the clouds, without any conſiderable intervention of hills and valleys.

A large town, called Realojo is ſituated in the weſtern border, and La Rambla on the eaſtern. The towns of Orotava and Port Orotava ſtood between them, with a number of detached habitations ſcattered about from the ſea-ſhore upwards to the clouds, in or beyond which there are no houſes; yet the clouds are not higher than the middle diſtance between the ſea and the ſummit of the pike.

All the fertile ground, within a league of the ſea, is covered with vines; corn grows in the next league; and, in the third, ſome corn, woods of cheſnut-trees, and many other different ſorts of trees. Above theſe woods are the clouds, which, in fine weather, generally deſcend gradually towards the evening, and reſt upon theſe woods till the morning, when they re-aſcend about a league, and there remain till the ſucceeding evening. There are ſeveral other towns, and many ſmall villages, beſides the towns already mentioned.

This iſland is ſo populous, that when the laſt account was taken it contained no leſs than ninety-ſix thouſand perſons, and is ſuppoſed to contain as many ſouls as all the reſt of the inhabited iſlands.

We ſhall now, for the ſatisfaction of the curious part of our readers, preſent them with the relation of a journey up the pike of Teneriff, including a brief account of the weather, and produce of the iſland. Theſe intereſting particulars are extracted from Mr. Glaſs's hiſtory of the Canary Iſlands, which valuable work is highly deſerving the public eſteem.

This gentleman begins his narrative with informing us, that "early in the month of September 1761, at about four in the afternoon, he ſet out on horſeback, in company with the maſter of a ſhip, to viſit the pike. They had with them a ſervant, a muleteer and a guide; and, after aſcending above ſix miles, arrived towards ſun-ſet at the moſt diſtant habitation from the ſea, which is in a hollow: here finding an aqueduct of open troughs that convey water down from the head of the hollow, their ſervants watered the cattle and filled ſome ſmall barrels to ſerve them in their expedition.

The gentlemen here alighted, and, walking into the hollow, found it very pleaſant, as it abounded with many trees

trees of an odoriferous ſmell; and ſome fields of maize or Indian corn are near the houſes. On their mounting again, they travelled for ſome time up a ſteep road, and reached the woods and clouds a little before night. They could not miſs their way, the road being bounded on both ſides with trees or buſhes, which were chiefly laurel, ſavine, and bruſh-wood. Having travelled about a mile, they came to the upper edge of the wood, above the clouds, where alighting, they made a fire, and ſupped; ſoon after which, they laid down to ſleep under the buſhes. About half an hour after ten, the moon ſhining bright, they mounted again, travelled ſlowly two hours through an exceeding bad road, reſembling the ruins of ſtone buildings ſcattered over the fields.

After they had paſſed over this road, they came upon ſmall light pumice-ſtone, like ſhingles; upon which they rode at a pretty good pace for near an hour. The air now began to be pretty ſharp and piercing, and the wind blew ſtrong from the ſouth-weſtward. Their guide adviſed them to alight here, as the place was convenient, and reſt till about four or five in the morning. To this they agreed, and entered the cave, the mouth of which was built up to about a man's height to exclude the cold. Near this place were ſome dry withered retamas, the only ſhrub or vegetable near the cave, and with theſe they made a great fire to warm themſelves, and then fell aſleep; but were ſoon awaked by an itching occaſioned by a cold thin air, want of reſt, and ſleeping in their cloaths. They here paſſed away their time as well as they could; but while they crept near the fire, one ſide was almoſt ſcorched, and the other was benumbed with cold. At about five in the morning they mounted again, and travelled ſlowly about a mile; for the road was rather too ſteep for travelling quick on horſeback, and their beaſts were now fatigued.

At laſt they came among ſome great looſe rocks, where was a kind of cottage built of looſe ſtones, called the Engliſh pitching place, probably from ſome of the Engliſh reſting here on their way to viſit the pike; for none take that journey but foreigners and ſome poor people who earn their bread by gathering brimſtone. There they alighted again, the remainder of their way being too ſteep for riding, and left one of the ſervants to look after the horſes, while they proceeded on their journey. They walked hard to get themſelves warm; but were ſoon fatigued by the ſteepneſs of the road, which was looſe and ſandy. On their reaching the top of this hill, they came to a prodigious number of large and looſe ſtones, or rocks, whoſe ſurfaces were flat, and each of them about ten feet every way.

This road was leſs ſteep than the other; but they were obliged to travel a conſiderable way round, to leap over the rocks, which were not cloſe to each other. Among them is a cavern, in which is a well, or natural reſervoir, into which they deſcended by a ladder placed there by the poor people for that purpoſe. This cavern is very ſpacious, it being almoſt ten yards wide, and twenty in height; but all the bottom, except juſt at the foot of the ladder, is covered with water, which is about two fathoms deep, and was then frozen towards the inner edges of the cave; but when they attempted to drink of it, its exceſſive coldneſs prevented them.

After travelling about a quarter or half a mile upon the great ſtones, they reached the bottom of the real pike or ſugar loaf, which is exceeding ſteep, and the difficulty of aſcending it increaſed, and was rendered more fatiguing by the ground being looſe and giving way under their feet; for though this eminence is not above half a mile in height, they were obliged to ſtop and take breath near thirty times; and when they at laſt reached the top, being quite ſpent with fatigue, they lay about a quarter of an hour to recover their breath, and reſt themſelves.

In the morning, when they left the Engliſh pitching place, the ſun was juſt emerging from the clouds, which were ſpread under them at a great diſtance below, and appeared like the ocean. Above the clouds, at a vaſt diſtance to the north, they perceived ſomething black, which they conjectured to be the top of the iſland of Madeira, and, taking the bearings of it by a pocket compaſs, found it to be exactly in the direction of that iſland from Teneriff, but before they reached to the top of the pike, it diſappeared. They could neither perceive Lancerota nor Fuerteventura from this place, they being not high enough to pierce the clouds; though they could ſee from hence the tops of the iſlands of Grand Canaria, Hiero, Palma and Gomera, which ſeem to be quite near.

After reſting for ſome time, they began to obſerve the top of the pike, which is about a hundred and forty yards in length, and a hundred and ten in breadth. It is hollow, and ſhaped like an inverted bell. From the edges of this bell, or cauldron, as it is called by the natives, it is about forty yards to the bottom, and in many parts of this hollow, they obſerved ſmoke and ſteams of ſulphur iſſuing forth in puffs; and the heat of the ground in particular places was ſo great, as to penetrate through the ſoles of their ſhoes to the feet. On obſerving ſome ſpots of earth, or ſoft clay, they tried the heat with their fingers, but could not thruſt them in farther than half an inch; for the deeper they went, the hotter it was. They then took their guide's ſtaff, and thruſt it about three inches deep into a hole or porous place, where the ſmoke ſeemed thickeſt; and having held it there about a minute, drew it out, and found it burnt to a charcoal. They gathered here many pieces of moſt curious and beautiful brimſtone of all colours, particularly an azure blue, violet, ſcarlet, green, and yellow.

The clouds beneath them, which are at a great diſtance, made from hence a very extraordinary appearance: they ſeemed like the ocean, only the ſurface was not quite ſo blue and ſmooth, but had the reſemblance of white wool; and where this cloudy ocean, as it may be called, touched the mountain, it ſeemed to foam like billows breaking on the ſhore. When they aſcended through the clouds, it was dark; but when they afterwards mounted again, between ten and eleven o'clock, and the moon ſhone bright, the clouds were then below them, and about a mile diſtant. They then miſtook them for the ocean, and wondered at ſeeing them ſo near; nor did they diſcover their miſtake till the ſun aroſe. When they paſſed through the clouds, in deſcending from the pike, they appeared as a thick fog or miſt, reſembling thoſe frequently ſeen in England; with which all the trees of the wood and their cloaths were wetted.

The air was thin, cold, and piercing on the top of the pike, like the ſouth-eaſterly winds felt in the great deſart of Africa. In aſcending the ſugar loaf, which is very ſteep, their hearts panted and beat violently, and, as hath been already obſerved, they were obliged to reſt above thirty times to take breath; and this was probably as much owing to the thinneſs of the air cauſing a difficulty of reſpiration, as to the uncommon fatigue they ſuffered in climbing the hill. Their guide, who was a thin, active old man, was far from being affected in the ſame manner; but climbed up with eaſe like a goat; for he was one of the poor men who earn their living by gathering brimſtone in the cauldron and other volcanos, the pike itſelf being no other, though it has not burned for ſome years; for the ſugar-loaf is entirely compoſed of earth mixed with aſhes and calcined ſtones, thrown out of the bowels of the earth, and the great ſquare ſtones before deſcribed, were probably thrown out of the cauldron, or hollow of the pike, when an eruption happened.

After they had ſurveyed every thing worthy of notice, they deſcended to the place where their horſes were left, which took them up only half an hour, though they were about two hours and a half in aſcending. It was then about ten in the morning, and the ſun ſhone ſo exceedingly hot, as to oblige them to ſhelter in the cottage, and being extremely fatigued, they laid down in order to ſleep; but were prevented by the cold, which was ſo intenſe in the ſhade, that they were obliged to kindle a fire to keep themſelves warm. After this, when they had taken ſome repoſe, they mounted their horſes about noon, and deſcending by the ſame way they went up, came to ſome pines, ſituated about two miles above the clouds. Between theſe pines and the pike, no herb, ſhrub, tree, or graſs can grow, except the before-mentioned retamas.

At about five in the evening they arrived at Orotava, not having alighted by the way to ſtop, only ſometimes to walk where the road was too ſteep for riding. The whole diſtance they rode in the five hours ſpent in coming down from the Engliſh pitching place at Orotava, they computed to be about fifteen Engliſh miles, travelling at the rate of three miles an hour.

Our author ſuppoſes, the perpendicular height of the Engliſh pitching-place to be about four Engliſh miles, and adding to that a mile of perpendicular height from thence to the pike, obſerves, that the whole will be about five Engliſh miles, and that he is very certain he cannot be miſtaken in this calculation above a mile either way." But Mr. Glaſs may here probably be miſtaken, owing perhaps to his not uſing any inſtruments proper for aſcertaining the exact altitude of this mountain, which is much higher than either the Alps, or the higheſt part of the Andes, according to this calculation.

In Teneriff, the weather is the ſame as in Grand Canaria; but the ſea-breeze generally ſets in at about ten o'clock in the morning on the eaſt and north-eaſt ſides of the iſland, and blows till about five or ſix in the evening, when it falls calm till midnight. The land wind then begins, and continues till ſeven or eight in the morning, when it is followed by a calm, which laſts till the ſea-breeze returns. In the bay of Santa Cruz, and on all the eaſt-ſide of the iſland, the ſea-breeze commonly blows at eaſt, and the land-wind at weſt. On the north-ſide, the ſea-breeze blows at north-eaſt by eaſt, or north-eaſt, and the land-wind directly oppoſite to it; but there is no land-wind at Point Nago, where the land ſtretches towards the north-eaſt far into the ſea.

At the brow of the hill above Santa Cruz, and at the city of Laguna, a freſh gale blows from the north-weſt all the time of the ſea-breeze, which is occaſioned by the mountains almoſt encompaſſing the plain. Theſe being ſo exceedingly high on the ſouth ſide of it, as to beat back the ſea-breeze, and throw it againſt the mountains that bound the north ſide of the plain, where finding no paſſage, it veers to the ſouth-eaſt, and there meeting with no reſiſtance, forces its way with great vehemence through the plain; till coming to the brow of the above-mentioned hill, part of the current of air pours down it towards Santa Cruz, advancing within a mile and a half of the ſea, where the true ſea-breeze checks it. Yet there is no regular ſea or land-breeze on the ſouth-weſt coaſt, which is ſheltered from the trade or north-eaſterly wind by the immenſe height of the pike, which towers above the region of the wind: hence on that ſide of the iſland, there is either an eddy wind at ſouth-weſt, or a calm.

This iſland produces nearly the ſame vegetables as that of Canaria, only there are more vineyards and leſs corn-land. The wines are ſtrong, good, and very fit for exportation, eſpecially into hot climates, by which they are greatly improved. Formerly a great quantity of Canary ſack was made here; but of late years they do not make above fifty pipes in a ſeaſon; for they now uſually gather the grapes when green, and make a dry hard wine of them, which when about two or three years old, can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from Madeira; but after four years of age it becomes ſo ſweet and mellow, as to reſemble the wine of Malaga in Spain. This like all the other Canary iſlands, affords orchilla-weed in great plenty.

The dragon-tree, aloe, and pine, are natives of Teneriff. The apricot, peach, and pear-trees, bear twice annually. The pregnada, lemon, and lignar wood are found here; as are the cotton-ſhrub and coloquintida. The roſe blows at Chriſtmas; the carnations are large and fine, but tulips will not thrive. The rocks abound with ſamphire, the meadows are covered with clover, and the beach produces a broad leaved graſs. About fourſcore ears of wheat ſpring from one root, the grains of which are as tranſparent as the pureſt yellow amber, and in a good ſeaſon one buſhel will produce a hundred fold; and the barley and maiz are not inferior to the wheat.

With reſpect to the animals, here are plenty of rabbits hogs, wild goats, &c. Quails and partridges are larger than thoſe in England, and extremely handſome. Wood-pigeons, turtles, and crows, abound in the ſpring. Several ſorts of wild-fowl reſort hither in the winter ſeaſon, affording plenty of game to the inhabitants of Laguna. The falcons, or rather ſtrong large hawks, which hover over the lake of Laguna, are thus deſcribed by a gentleman who lately travelled to theſe iſlands: "I cannot forbear mentioning the haggard falcons that ſoar every evening about this lake. It is very good diverſion to ſee the negroes fight them with ſlings; for they often ſtoop, ſeveral at a time; and beſides, they are the beſt mettled hawks in the world, being of a larger kind than the Barbary falcon. The viceroy (governor) being one evening to ſee the ſport, on the author's commending their ſtrength and mettle, aſſured him upon his honour that a falcon bred in that iſland, which he had formerly ſent to the duke of Larma did at one flight (unleſs ſhe reſted on any ſhip by the way) paſs from Andaluſia to Teneriff, which is two hundred and fifty Spaniſh leagues, and was taken up half dead, having on the vaſſals and bells belonging to the duke.

Fiſhes are found in great quantities here, particularly dolphins, ſharks, meros, lobſters, muſſels, periwinkles, the clacas (which is deemed the beſt ſhell-fiſh in the univerſe) and the cherna, that exceeds in reliſh any we have in England: here is alſo another fiſh which is called an eel, though with little propriety, for it has ſeven tails of a ſpan long joined to one body and one head, which are nearly of the ſame length. Silk-worms thrive exceedingly; and bees proſper in the rocks and mountains.

The city of Laguna, which ſtands near a lake about nine miles from the ſea, is the principal place in Teneriff: it is called by the Spaniards St. Chriſtoval de la Laguna, or St. Chriſtopher of the lake, and is handſomely built, having two fair pariſh-churches, and a palace for the governor who reſides here. The aldermen of this city pay a certain price to the king to ſerve their offices of magiſtrates; but this gives them great power over the inhabitants, who are divided into three claſſes; namely, gentlemen, merchants, and huſbandmen, or, as they are termed by the natives, idlemen, buſymen, and labouring-men. The land on each ſide of the road, leading to Laguna, is in general rocky, but ſome ſpots of corn-land are interſperſed here and there, and terminated by ſmall vineyards on the ſides of the mountains.

This city preſents the beholder with an agreeable proſpect, as it ſtands on the ſide of a hill, and ſtretches its ſkirts on the plains behind: it is large, compact, and populous: the houſes, though not uniform, have a pleaſant appearance; beſides the governor's houſe, and the two pariſh-churches, here are two nunneries, four convents, an hoſpital, and ſome chapels, beſides many gentlemen's houſes. The convents are thoſe of St. Francis, St. Auguſtine, St. Dominic, and St. Diego. The churches have pretty high ſquare ſteeples, which top the reſt of the buildings. The ſtreets are not regular, yet they are for the moſt part ſpacious, and pretty handſome, and near the middle of the town is a large parade, which has good buildings about it. There is a ſtrong priſon on one ſide of it, near which is a large conduit of good water that ſupplies all the town.

The inhabitants of Laguna have many gardens that are ſet round with orange, lime, and other fruit-trees, in the middle of which are pot-herbs, ſallading, flowers, &c. and indeed, if the people were curious this way, they might have very pleaſant gardens: for the town ſtands high from the ſea, on the brow of a plain that is all open to the eaſt, and has conſequently the benefit of the trade wind, which blows here, and is commonly fair; ſo that there are ſeldom wanting, at this town, all the day, briſk, cooling, refreſhing breezes.

There is a large plain on the back of the town, three or four leagues in length, and two miles broad, producing a thick, kindly ſort of graſs. On the eaſt ſide of the plain, near the back of this town, is a natural lake or pond of freſh water; but being ſtagnant, it is only uſed for cattle; it is about half a mile in circumference.

The ancient inhabitants of Teneriff were called Guanches, but their origin is not certainly known; they were, and the remainder of them ſtill are, without literature; but their language, which ſtill remains among the remnant of them, bears ſome affinity to that of the Moors in Barbary; it was formerly very guttural, and entirely different from that uſed in the other iſlands. They were of good ſtature, well made, and had tolerable complexions, but thoſe who dwelt on the north ſide of the iſland were much fairer and had lighter hair than thoſe in the ſouth.

Theſe people had ſome notion of a deity, and held that there was a ſupreme power, whom they diſtinguiſhed by the names Achguarergenan, Achoran, and Achaman, which ſignify the ſuſtainer of the heavens and the earth. They alſo gave him the titles of the Great, the Sublime, the Maintainer of all: but they did not worſhip idols, nor had any images of the deity. They believed that God created them of earth and water, and made as many women as men, giving them cattle, and every thing neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence; but that afterwards there appearing to him too few, he created more; but to theſe laſt gave nothing; and when they prayed to him for flocks of ſheep, and herds of goats, he bid them go and ſerve the others, who, in return, would give them food. From theſe, they ſaid, were deſcended their ſervants. They had ſome idea of the immortality of the ſoul, by ſuppoſing the exiſtence of places for future rewards and puniſhments. In particular, they ſuppoſed the pike of Teneriff to contain hell in its bowels, which they termed Echeyda; and gave the name of Guayotta to the devil.

In civil affairs they had ſome regulators, as each diſtrict had a ſovereign, whom they thought it their duty to obey as a ſupreme magiſtrate. They promiſed vaſſalage to him at a certain age, and confirmed the ſame promiſe when they happened to marry. The regal ſucceſſion was hereditary, and all children (except illegitimate) were permitted to reign. The kings, however, as well as the com-

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mon people, dwelt in caves, and had not the leaſt conception of architecture. One of their kings, named Adexe, ruled the whole iſland ſingly for many years, but having ſeveral children, they conſpired againſt him, depoſed him, and then divided his dominions among themſelves. They made war principally for the purpoſe of ſtealing cattle from each other, particularly ſpotted goats, which were highly eſteemed, and the remaining Guanches ſet a great value upon them to this day.

They were very neat and cleanly: always waſhing their hands and faces whenever they aroſe from ſleep, when they ſat down to eat, and after they had eaten. Their food was the fleſh of ſheep and goats, roaſted or boiled, which they ate alone, and not like the Europeans, with bread or roots. They alſo fed upon barley-meal, roaſted and dreſſed with milk and butter. After eating, they refrained from drink for about half an hour, from the opinion that drinking cold water, immediately after eating warm victuals, ſpoiled their teeth. Sheep and goats were their only cattle; and wheat and barley, beans and peaſe their only grain.

The ground was prepared for the ſeed by the men, who broke it up with a kind of wooden hoes; and the women ſowed the ſeed. When they were in great diſtreſs for want of corn, through drought, or any other calamity, they aſſembled with their children and flocks in certain places ſet apart for that purpoſe, where they ſat on the ground in a circle, weeping and making a mournful noiſe; their flocks at the ſame time bleating for want of food; both men and beaſts being debarred from all kinds of ſuſtenance on theſe occaſions; for they imagined that by theſe means they would appeaſe the wrath of the heavens, and obtain what they ſtood in need of.

In marriage, they paid no regard to kindred, except that of a brother or ſiſter, but no man had more than one wife. When a man had a mind to marry, all the preliminary ceremonies were, aſking the conſent of the girl's parents, and, if that was obtained, the marriage was immediately conſummated. They had a cuſtom, that in the houſe or cave, where the huſband and wife ſlept, no other perſon was allowed to ſleep: yet they did not lie together, but in ſeparate beds, which were made of herbs or graſs, covered with goats ſkins, neatly dreſſed and ſewed together, with coverings of the ſame ſkins. They could put away their wives when they pleaſed; but the children of the women, who were born after the parties were divorced, were deemed illegitimate, and could not inherit their father's effects; but, for ſucceſſion ſake, this cuſtom did not extend to the kings.

When a man accidentally met a woman alone, or in a ſolitary place, he was not to look at, or to ſpeak to her, unleſs ſhe ſpoke firſt, but to him out of the way; and if he made uſe of any indecent expreſſion, or behaved in an unbecoming manner, he was ſeverely puniſhed. If any perſon went to the houſe of another, inſtead of entering in, he was to ſit on a ſtone at the door, and either to whiſtle or ſing, till ſomebody came out, and deſired him to walk in. Whoever neglected this ceremony, and entered another perſon's houſe without being invited, was deemed guilty of a great affront, and liable to puniſhment. When their children were born, they were waſhed all over with water by virgins, who were ſet apart for that office, and never allowed to marry.

Their uſual diverſions were leaping, running, ſhooting the dart, throwing ſtones, dancing, &c. at all which they were extremely expert. The men wore a ſhort coat made of lamb ſkins, without plait, collar, or ſleeves, being faſtened together with ſtraps of the ſame leather, or ſkins: thoſe of the women were longer, and reached down to their feet, and underneath they had petticoats of the ſame ſkins. They lived, died, and were commonly buried in this garment, which was commonly called the tamarca.

In the ſummer ſeaſon the king reſided in the mountains, but in winter near the ſea ſhore. When he travelled, or went to change his place of reſidence, the elders of his tribe aſſembled, and carried before him a ſtaff and a lance, with a kind of flag upon it, to give notice of the king's approach, that all who were travelling upon the ſame road might pay him the cuſtomary homage, by proſtrating themſelves before him on the ground, wiping the duſt from his feet with the corner of their garments, and kiſſing them. The prince was obliged to marry a perſon who was his equal; but if ſuch an one could not be found, he took his own ſiſter to wife, for he was not permitted to debaſe his family by a mixture of plebeian blood.

They had a ſurpriſing facility in counting the number of their ſheep and goats, when iſſuing tumultuouſly out of a fold, without even pointing to them with their fingers, or moving their lips. Frequent diſputes happened among them about their flocks and paſtures, which often ended in war. Their offenſive weapons were darts made of pitch-pine, ſharpened and hardened in the fire, like thoſe uſed in Grand Canaria; they had alſo a weapon like a ſpear, very ſharp, and were ſo dextrous at throwing theſe, that they ſcarce ever miſſed their mark.

At the approach of an enemy they alarmed the country, by making a ſmoke, or by whiſtling, which they repeated from one to another: this laſt method is ſtill in uſe, and may be heard at an almoſt incredible diſtance. They were attended, in their wars, by their women, who brought proviſions, carried off their dead, and buried them.

On the death of any perſon, their friends carried the body to a cave, and ſtretching it on a flat ſtone, opened it, and took out the bowels, then twice a day waſhed the porous parts, that is, the neck, the arm-pits, behind the ears, the groin, and between the fingers, with cold water: after waſhing it ſufficiently, they anointed thoſe parts with ſheep's butter, and ſprinkled them with a powder made of the duſt of decayed pine-trees, and a kind of bruſh-wood, called by the Spaniards breſſos, and with the powder of pumice-ſtone. They then dried the body by extracting from it all its moiſture; after which, the relations of the deceaſed came, and ſwaddled it in dreſſed ſheep or goat-ſkins, and girding all tight with leather thongs, they put it in the cave which had been ſet apart by the deceaſed for his burying-place. The king could only be buried in the cave of his anceſtors, in which the bodies were ſo diſpoſed as to be known again.

A learned gentleman, who reſided ſeveral years in the iſland, tells us, that being one day hunting, a ferret, having a bell about his neck, ran after a coney into a hole, where the ſound of the bell was loſt. The owner being afraid he ſhould loſe his ferret, in ſeeking about the rocks and ſhrubs, found the mouth of a cave, and entering it, was ſo affrighted, that he cried out. His fright aroſe from one of thoſe corpſes, very tall and large, lying with the head on a great ſtone, the feet ſupported with a little wall of ſtone, the body itſelf reſting on a bed of wood. The man, being now a little recovered from his fright, went nearer, and cut off a great piece of the ſkin that lay on the breaſt of the body, which was more flexible and pliant than any kid's leather glove, yet not any ways rotten.

Particular perſons were ſet apart for the office of embalming; and there were men to embalm the bodies of the men, and women to perform that office for thoſe of their own ſex. During the proceſs, the bodies were watched by the embalmers with the greateſt care, to prevent their being devoured by the ravens; the huſband or wife of the deceaſed bringing them proviſions, and waiting on them during the time of their watching.

It is ſaid, that not many years ago, two of theſe embalmed bodies were taken out of a cave; they were entire, and as light as a cork; but quite freſh, and without any diſagreeable ſmell. Their teeth and garments were alſo freſh and ſound. It is obſerved, that in the poorer ſort, to ſave charges, they took out the brains behind, and ſewed them up in ſkins, with the hair on; whereas the richer ſort were put up in ſkins ſo finely and exactly dreſſed, that they remain extremely ſupple to this day. The bodies found in Grand Canaria, are ſaid not to have been ſo well embalmed as thoſe in Teneriff, as they are much more conſumed, and not ſo entire in the different parts. Their antient people ſay, that they have above twenty caves of their kings and great perſonages, with their whole families, yet unknown to any but themſelves, and which they will never diſcover.

The iſland of Gomera is ſituated to the weſt of Teneriff, in twenty-eight degrees north latitude, and eighteen degrees weſt longitude from London. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and ſixty in circumference. The principal town is ſeated cloſe to the ſea-ſhore, in the bottom of a bay, where ſhips lie land-locked from all winds, except the ſouth-eaſt. On the north-ſide of this bay is a cove, where ſhips of any burden may haul cloſe to the ſhore, which is a high perpendicular cliff, and there with ſafety heave down, clean, and repair. From this cove is a path-way along the face of the cliff to the town; but it is ſo narrow that two perſons cannot walk a-breaſt. Near the end of this path-way is a gate, which is always ſhut when it grows dark.

About a ſtone's caſt from the beach the principal ſtreet of the town begins, and from thence runs ſtraight within land.

land. The town is called La Villa de Palmas, or the town of Palms, from the numbers of palm-trees growing there. There are here a church and convent of friars, with about a hundred and fifty private houſes, moſt of which are ſmall and mean. It is, however, well ſupplied with good water, which the inhabitants draw from wells in every part of the town. During the winter ſeaſon, a large rivulet, which then flows from the mountains, diſcharges its waters into the fort; and on the ſouth ſide of its mouth ſtands an old round tower; alſo on the top of the perpendicular cliff on the north ſide is a chapel, and the fort has a battery of a few pieces of cannon for its defence.

In this iſland many rivulets flow from the craggy mountains, which refreſh and fertiliſe the narrow valleys, and indeed water may be found in every part of the iſland, by digging to the depth of about five feet or upwards.

Gomera produces much the ſame as the iſlands of Teneriff and Canaria. The inhabitants have generally juſt corn enough for their own uſe, and ſeldom import or export any. In this particular it reſembles Canaria; for it has almoſt every neceſſary within itſelf, and therefore has little need of any thing from abroad; for cattle, fowls, corn, wine, roots, fruit, and honey, are here in great plenty; and if there was ſufficient encouragement for the exertion of their induſtry, the natives could eaſily manufacture a ſufficient quantity of wool and raw ſilk, to clothe themſelves: here is alſo ſtone, lime, timber, and all other materials for building, except iron. The wine of this iſland is in general weak, poor, and ſharp; it is therefore unfit for exportation, yet ſome of it, when two years old, excels the very beſt wine made in Madeira, both in taſte and flavour, though it is as clear as water, and as weak as ſmall beer.

The ſame animals are common here as in the reſt of the iſlands, and alſo plenty of deer, originally brought from Barbary. There are likewiſe more mules bred in Gomera than in any other of the Canary iſlands, and ſome ſnakes; but it does not appear that they are any ways noxious.

With reſpect to the original natives of the iſland of Gomera, they were of a lively diſpoſition, of the middle ſtature, extremely active, and dexterous in attacking and defending, and excellent ſlingers of ſtones and darts, to which they were trained from their infancy, it being the common amuſement of the young people to caſt ſmall ſtones and darts at each other; to avoid which they ſeldom moved their feet, but only waved their bodies to and fro; and ſo expert were they at this ſport, that they uſed to catch in their hands the ſtones and darts as they flew along.

The antient Gomerans uſed to dreſs themſelves in a ſort of cloak made of goat-ſkins, which reached to the calf of the leg; but the women were cloathed with a petticoat and a head-dreſs that hung down to their ſhoulders, both of which were made of goat ſkins dyed and curiouſly painted. The blue dye they extracted from an herb which they called paſtil, and the red from the foot of a tree, which they called taginaſte; all between the head-dreſs and petticoat were left bare. They wore ſhoes made of hog's ſkins. When the men had any quarrel, which was to be decided by a combat, they laid aſide their cloaks, tied a ſort of bandage round their waiſt, and bound their foreheads with a kind of painted turban. In their combats they uſed the ſame weapons as the natives of the other iſlands, which were ſticks or poles of hard wood, with the ends ſharpened. They have had amongſt them ſeveral men diſtinguiſhed by their bravery, whoſe fame they ſtill celebrate in their ballads.

The iſland of Palma lies in twenty-nine degrees north latitude, and eighteen degrees weſt longitude, about fifty miles to the weſt of Teneriff, and two hundred weſt of the continent of Africa. It is about thirty miles long, twenty broad, and ſeventy in circuit.

On the north-eaſt part of the iſland, within land, is a high and ſpacious mountain, ſteep on all ſides. This is called La Caldera, or the cauldron, from a hollow like that on the pike of Teneriff. The ſummit is about two leagues in circumference, and on the inſide the cauldron deſcends gradually from thence to the bottom, which is a ſpace of about thirty acres. On the declivity of the inſide ſprings ſeveral rivulets, which joining together at the bottom, iſſue in one ſtream through a paſſage to the outſide of the mountain from which this brook deſcends; and having run ſome diſtance from thence, turns two ſugar-mills. The water of this ſtream is unwholſome, on account of its being mixed with ſome water of a pernicious quality in the cauldron; all the inſide of which abounds with herbage, and is covered with palms, pitch-pine, laurel, lignum-rhodium, and retamas; which laſt have in this iſland a yellow bark, and grow to the ſize of large trees; but in the others they are only ſhrubs. The people here take great care not to let the he-goats feed on the leaves of the retama, on account of their breeding a ſtone in the bladder, which is mortal.

Two rivulets ſpring on the outſide of the cauldron; one of theſe runs northward to the village of St. Andrew, and turns two ſugar-mills, and the other runs to the town of Palmas, which lies to the eaſtward. Theſe are the only rivulets or ſtreams of any conſequence in the iſland: on which account the natives build tanks, or ſquare reſervoirs with planks of pitch-pine, which they make tight with caulking. Theſe they fill with the torrents of rain-water that in the winter ſeaſon ruſh down from the mountains, and preſerve it for themſelves and cattle: but the ſheep, goats, and hogs, in places at a diſtance from the rivulets, feed almoſt all the year round on the roots of fern and aſphodil, and therefore have little or no need of water, there being moiſture enough in thoſe roots to ſupply the want of that element. Though the ſouth part of the iſland is moſt deſtitute of water, yet there is a medicinal well of hot water ſo cloſe to the ſea-ſhore, that the tide flows into it at full ſea.

At Uguer is a cave, that has a long narrow entrance, ſo ſtraight that people paſs through it backwards, with their face to the mouth of the cave; but after they have got through this paſſage, they enter a ſpacious grotto, where water diſtils from between the large flakes of ſlate ſtones that hang from the roof; the leaſt blow given to theſe, reſounds with a noiſe like thunder through the cave.

In the diſtrict of Tifuya is a mountain, which appears to have been removed by an earthquake from its original ſituation. The natives have a tradition, that the ſpot on which it now ſtands was a plain, and the moſt fertile ſpot in the whole iſland, till it was deſtroyed by the burning lava, and the fall of the mountain. Indeed, the effects of volcanos are to be ſeen in almoſt every part of the iſland; for the channels where the burning matter, melted ores, and calcined ſtones and aſhes ran, may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed by a curious obſerver.

Nunno de Penna, in his Hiſtorical Memoirs, relates, that on the 13th of November 1677, a little after ſun-ſet, the earth ſhook for thirteen leagues with a dreadful noiſe, that continued five days, during which it opened in ſeveral places; but the greateſt gap was upon the mountain of La Caldera, a mile and a half from the ſea, from whence proceeded a great fire, which caſt up ſtones and pieces of rock. The like happened in ſeveral places thereabouts, and in leſs than a quarter of an hour were twenty-eight gaps about the foot of the mountain, which caſt forth abundance of flames and burning ſtones. The ſame perſon adds, that on the 20th of November following, there was a ſecond eruption of the ſame mount, from whence came forth ſtones and fire, with great earthquakes and thunders for ſeveral days, ſo that black cinders were taken up at ſeven leagues diſtance; the adjacent ground was entirely waſted, and the inhabitants forced to quit their dwellings. The laſt volcano that happened in this iſland was in 1750, when one of theſe rivers of fire ran, with great rapidity, from the mountains towards the town of Palmas, and diſcharged itſelf about a mile to the northward of the town, but we have not learnt that any conſiderable eruption hath happened ſince that time.

If we take a view of Palma at the diſtance of three leagues off at ſea, the mountains ſeem full of gutters or beds formed by torrents of rain water; but theſe only appear little from their height and diſtance; for we find them to be large vallies, abounding with woods, on a nearer approach.

In many places on the ſhore of this and the other iſlands, is found the black ſhining ſand uſed to throw upon writing, to prevent its blotting. It appears to have been caſt out of volcanos, for the load-ſtone, when held near it, will draw up every grain of it.

In this iſland, the air, weather, and winds are nearly the ſame as at Teneriff and Canaria, except that the weſterly winds and rain are more frequent at Palma, on account of its lying more to the weſtward and northward, and on that account is not ſo far within the verge of the north-eaſt trade winds as thoſe iſlands; whence it is particularly expoſed to the ſouth wind, which moſtly prevails in the latitudes adjacent to thoſe of the north-eaſt trade-winds, as well as to variable winds from other quarters.

The climate here, and in Teneriff, Canaria, and Gomera, differs greatly, according as a perſon lives in the

mountains, or near the ſea-ſhore. While there is a calm, the heat ſeems almoſt intolerable near the ſhore, in the months of July, Auguſt, and September; but the air is at the ſame time quite freſh and pleaſant on the mountains. In the middle of winter, the houſes far up the mountains, near the clouds, are extremely cold, and the natives keep fires burning in their habitations all day long; but this is far from being the caſe near the ſea, for there they uſe fires only in their kitchens.

The ſummits of all the Canary Iſlands, except Lancerota and Fuerteventura, are generally covered with ſnow for eight months in the year. The ſummit of Palma formerly abounded with trees, but a great drought in 1545 deſtroyed them all; and though others began to ſpring up ſome time after, they were deſtroyed by the rabbits and other animals, which finding no paſture below, went up there, and deſtroyed all the young trees and ſhrubs, ſo that the upper part of the iſland is at preſent quite bare and deſolate. Before the trees and ſhrubs were deſtroyed, a great deal of manna fell there, which the natives gathered and ſent to Spain. The rabbits were firſt brought to Palma by Don Pedro Fernandez de Lago, the learned lieutenant-general of Teneriff, and have ſince increaſed in a ſurprizing manner.

Palma affords nearly the ſame productions as Canaria: but a great quantity of ſugar is made here, particularly on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland. Good wines are produced on the eaſt ſide; they have a different taſte and flavour from thoſe of Teneriff: the dry wine is ſmall bodied, and of a yellow colour. Theſe wines are, however, very difficult to preſerve, eſpecially when exported to cold climates, where they frequently turn ſour. The melvaria, or ſack, is not ſo luſcious or ſo ſtrong as that of Teneriff, but on its being about three years old, it obtains the rich flavour of a ripe pine apple.

They have here ſo great a plenty of all the kinds of fruit that grows in Teneriff and Canaria, that the natives cannot conſume them; but as they have abundance of ſugar, they make vaſt quantities of ſweetmeats and conſerves, which they export to the Indies, as well as to the neighbouring iſlands.

A great deal of good honey is produced here by the bees, eſpecially in the hives that are at a great diſtance from the vines; and the mocares, a fruit that reſembles an elder-berry; both theſe having a bad effect on its colour. In time of ſcarcity, they make good bread of the roots of corn, which is ſaid to be not inferior to that made of wheat-flour; but the corn of Palma is not eſteemed ſo good as that of Gomera. There is alſo much gum-dragon, and the natives extract great quantities of pitch from the pitch-pine.

Notwithſtanding the deſtruction that has happened to the trees, which formerly grew on the ſummit of Palma, there are nevertheleſs a great number in the region of the clouds, and beneath it; ſo that at about two leagues diſtance, the iſland appears like an entire wood. Pine grows here to ſuch a ſize, as to be fit for maſts of the larger ſhips; but as they are exceeding heavy, and the roads very rugged, the bringing them to the ſhore would be attended with a great expence. They have alſo much the ſame cattle and poultry as thoſe in the iſland of Canaria.

The principal port in Palma is called by the ſame name, and is ſituated on the ſouth-ſide of the iſland. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the ſhore, where veſſels generally ride in fifteen or twenty fathoms water, and are expoſed to eaſterly winds, yet with good anchors and cables they may ride with great ſafety in all the winds that blow in this part of the world; for the ground is clean and good, and the great height of the iſland, with the perpendicular rocks that face the road, repel the winds that blow upon it, though ever ſo ſtrong.

Palma is a large town, containing two pariſh churches, ſeveral convents of friars and nuns, with many neat and private buildings, though they are neither ſo good nor ſo large as thoſe in the city of Palmas in Canaria, or of the towns in Teneriff. Near the mole is a caſtle or battery, mounted with ſome pieces of cannon, for the defence of the ſhips in the bay, and to prevent the landing of an enemy. The inhabitants are ſupplied with plenty of good water, from fountains filled by a rivulet near the great church in the midſt of the town.

On the north-eaſt ſide of the port of Palma lies another, called Taſſacorta, but being expoſed to weſterly winds, it is little frequented by any other veſſels than boats: it has a village of the ſame name.

There are no other towns of any note in Palma; but many villages, the chief of which is called St. Andrew, where there are four engines for the making of ſugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, ſo that the inhabitants are ſupplied from the iſland of Teneriff with grain and other neceſſary articles.

SECT. XIV.

Deſcribing the Iſland of FERRO; its Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, Animals, &c. alſo a particular Deſcription of the preſent Natives of the Iſlands of CANARIA, TENERIFF, PALMA, GOMERA, and FERRO; with an Account of their Perſons, Habit, Diet, Buildings, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c.

THE Spaniards call this iſland Hierro; and the French L'Iſle de Fer, the Iſland of Iron. It is the moſt weſterly of all the Canaries, and lies between the twenty-ſeventh and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and in eighteen degrees weſt longitude from London. It is about thirty miles long, fifteen broad, and ſeventy-five in circuit. The French navigators formerly placed in the center of this iſland their firſt meridian for reckoning the longitude, as the Dutch did theirs at the pike of Teneriff; but at preſent moſt geographers reckon their firſt meridian from the capital of their own country, as the Engliſh from London, the French from Paris, &c. it conveying a more diſtinct idea to ſay, that ſuch a place is ſo many leagues diſtant eaſt or weſt from the capital of his own country, than to reckon the longitude from a diſtant land.

Ferro riſes on all ſides ſteep and craggy from the ſea-ſhore above a league, ſo as to render the aſcent extremely difficult and fatiguing; but, after travelling thus far, the reſt of the iſland will be found to be tolerably level and fruitful, it abounding in many kinds of trees and ſhrubs, and producing better graſs, herbs, and flowers, than any of the other iſlands, whence bees thrive and multiply here in a very extraordinary manner, and excellent honey is made by them.

There are but three ſprings in the whole iſland. On account of the ſcarcity of water, it is ſaid that the ſheep, goats, and ſwine of this iſland, do not drink in the ſummer; but digging up the roots of the fern, they chew them to quench their thirſt. The great cattle are watered at the above fountains, and at a place where water diſtils from the leaves of a tree.

Many authors have made mention of this tree, ſome of whom repreſent it as miraculous; while others deny its very exiſtence: but the author of the Hiſtory of the Diſcovery and Conqueſt of the Canary Iſlands, gives a particular account of it, which we ſhall here inſert for the ſatisfaction of the curious.

"In the cliff or ſteep rocky aſcent by which the whole iſland is ſurrounded, is a narrow gutter which commences at the ſea, and is continued to the ſummit of the cliff, where it joins, or coincides, with a valley terminated by the ſteep front of a rock, on the top of which grows a tree called in the language of the antient inhabitants garſe, or ſacred, which for many years has been preſerved entire, ſound, and freſh.

"Its leaves conſtantly diſtil ſo great a quantity of water, that it is ſufficient to furniſh drink to every living creature in Hierro, nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the iſland. It is diſtinct from other trees, and ſtands by itſelf: its trunk is about twelve ſpans in circumference; its height from the ground to the top of the higheſt branch is forty ſpans, and the circumference of all the branches together is one hundred and twenty feet. The branches are thick and extended, and the loweſt begin about the height of an ell from the ground. Its fruit reſembles an acorn, but taſtes like the kernel of a pine apple, only it is ſofter, and more aromatic; and the leaves reſemble thoſe of the laurel, but are larger, wider, and more curved. Theſe come forth in a perpetual ſucceſſion, whence the tree always remains green. Near it grows a thorn, which faſtens on many of its branches, with which it is interwoven, and ſome beech trees, breſos, and thorns, are at a ſmall diſtance from it.

"On the north ſide of the trunk are two large tanks or ciſterns of rough ſtone, or rather one ciſtern divided; each half being twenty feet ſquare, and ſixteen ſpans deep. One of theſe contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants, and the other that which they uſe for their cattle, waſhing, and the like purpoſes.

"A cloud or miſt riſes from the ſea every morning, which the ſouth and eaſterly winds force againſt the above-mentioned

mentioned ſteep cliff; when the cloud having no vent but by gutter, gradually aſcends it, and advances ſlowly from thence to the extremity of the valley, and then reſts upon the wide-ſpreading branches of the tree, from whence it diſtils in drops during the remainder of the day, in the ſame manner as water drips from the leaves of trees after a heavy ſhower of rain. This diſtillation is not peculiar to the tree, for the breſos which grow near it, alſo drop water; but their leaves being only few and narrow, the quantity is ſo trifling, that though the natives ſave ſome of it, yet they make little account of any but what diſtils from the tree; which, together with the water of ſome ſprings, is ſufficient to ſerve the natives and their cattle. It has been remarked, that this tree yields moſt water in thoſe years when the eaſterly winds have moſt prevailed; for by them alone the clouds or miſts are drawn hither from the ſea.

A perſon lives near the ſpot on which the tree grows, who is appointed by the council to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a certain ſalary, with a houſe to live in. He daily diſtributes to each family of the diſtrict ſeven veſſels filled with water, beſides what he gives to the principal perſons of the iſland."

Mr. Glaſs ſays, he is unable to determine whether the tree which yields water at preſent be the ſame here deſcribed, but juſtly obſerves, that it is probable there have been a ſucceſſion of them. He himſelf did not ſee this tree, for this is the only iſland of all the Canaries which he did not viſit: but he obſerves, that he has ſailed with the natives of Hierro, who, when queſtioned about the exiſtence of this tree, anſwered in the affirmative; and takes notice, that trees yielding water are not peculiar to this iſland, ſince one of the ſame kind in the iſland of St. Thomas, in the gulf of Guiney, is mentioned by ſome travellers.

By reaſon of a ſcarcity of water, the ſoil in ſome parts of this iſland is very barren; but in others it is fertile, and produces all the neceſſary articles for the ſupport of the inhabitants. The ſheep, goats, and hogs, that are brought up in thoſe parts diſtant from the rivulets, feed almoſt all the year round on the roots of fern and aſphodil, and therefore have little occaſion for water, as the want of that element is ſupplied by the great moiſture that is naturally in thoſe roots.

There is only one ſmall town in this iſland, and the moſt diſtinguiſhed building in it is a pariſh church. Many ſmall villages are diſperſed about the town, but there are not any of them that deſerve a particular deſcription.

Small cattle, brandy, honey, and orchilla weed, are the chief articles of the trade carried on by the inhabitants of this iſland.

With reſpect to the original natives of the iſland of Ferro, we are told by travellers, that before it was rendered ſubject to Spain they were of a middle ſtature, and cloathed with the ſkins of beaſts. The men wore a cloak of three ſheep-ſkins ſewed together, with the woolly ſide outwards in ſummer, and next their bodies in winter. The women alſo wore the ſame kind of cloak, beſides which they had a petticoat, which reached down to the middle of their legs. They ſewed their ſkins with thongs cut as fine as thread, and for needles uſed ſmall bones ſharpened. They wore nothing on their heads, and their long hair was made up into a number of ſmall plaits. They had ſhoes made of the raw ſkins of ſheep, hogs, or goats.

Theſe people had a grave turn of mind, for all their ſongs were on ſerious ſubjects, and ſet to ſlow plaintive tunes, to which they danced in a ring, joining hands, and ſometimes jumping up in pairs, ſo regularly that they ſeemed to be united; they ſtill practiſe in Ferro this manner of dancing.

Their dwellings conſiſted of circular incloſures, formed by a ſtone wall without cement, each having one narrow entrance. On the inſide they placed poles or ſpears againſt the wall, one end reſting on the top, and the other extending a conſiderable diſtance to the ground; and theſe they covered with fern, or branches of trees. Each of theſe incloſures contained about twenty families. A bundle of fern, with goat-ſkin ſpread over it, ſerved them for a bed, and for bed-cloaths and coverings they uſed dreſſed goat-ſkins to keep them warm.

Before they offered the breaſt to a new-born child, they gave it fern roots roaſted, bruiſed, and mixed with butter; and at preſent they give them flour and barley-meal roaſted, and mixed with bruiſed cheeſe.

The natives uſually bake the fleſh of ſheep, goats and hogs; and as they had no kind of grain, their bread was made of fern roots, of which, with milk and butter, the principal part of their diet was compoſed.

One king governed them all; and having never any occaſion to go to war, had no warlike weapons: they indeed carried long ſtaves; but theſe were only to aſſiſt them in travelling; for the country being ſo rocky, as to make it neceſſary frequently to leap from one ſtone to another, this they performed by means of theſe poles.

Polygamy was not allowed; but they had no reſtrictions with reſpect to their marriages, except a man's not being allowed to marry his mother or ſiſter; for every man might take the woman he liked beſt, and whoſe conſent he could obtain, without the leaſt regard to rank or nobility. Indeed all, except the king, were in this reſpect upon an equality: the only diſtinction among them conſiſted in the number of their flocks. It was uſual for the man, when he choſe a wife, to make a preſent of cattle to her father, according to his ability, in return for the favour of letting him have his daughter.

The king received no particular tribute from his ſubjects; and every one made him a preſent of cattle; for they were not obliged to give him any thing, but according to their pleaſure or circumſtances.

For a feaſt, they killed one or two fat lambs, according to the number of their gueſts: theſe they placed in a veſſel on the ground, ſitting round it in a circle, and never riſing till they had eaten the whole. Theſe feaſts are ſtill continued among their deſcendants.

If a perſon fell ſick, they rubbed his body all over with butter and ſheep's marrow, covering him well up to keep him warm; but when a man happened to be wounded, they burned the part affected, and afterwards anointed it with butter.

They buried their dead in caves; and if the deceaſed was a man of wealth, they interred him in his cloaths, and put a board at his feet, and the pole he uſed to travel with at his ſide; and, in order to prevent his being devoured by ravens, they cloſed the mouth of the cave with ſtones.

Murder and theft were the only crimes for which they inflicted corporal puniſhment. The murderer was put to death in the ſame manner as he had killed the deceaſed; and the thief, for the firſt offence, was puniſhed with the loſs of one of his eyes, and for the ſecond, of the other. This was done that he might not ſee to ſteal any more. The office of executioner on theſe occaſions, was performed by a particular perſon ſet apart for that purpoſe.

As to their religion, they worſhipped two deities, one of whom was male, the other female; the male was named Eraoranzan, and was the object of the men's adoration; the other, worſhipped by the women, was called Moneyba. They had no images, or viſible repreſentations of theſe deities; nor did they ever ſacrifice to them, but only prayed to them in their neceſſities, as when they wanted rain to bring up the graſs for the ſubſiſtence of their cattle, &c. The natives pretended, that when the gods were inclined to do them good, they came to the iſland, and alighted on two great rocks, which are in a place to which they gave the name of Ventayca, where they received the petitions of the people, and afterwards returned to their celeſtial abode; theſe rocks are now called by the Spaniards Los Antillos de los Antiquos, or the hills of the antients.

We ſhall now, as we propoſed, give a particular deſcription of the preſent natives of Canaria, Teneriff, Palma, Gomera, and Ferro, with an account of their perſons, dreſs, &c. previous to which it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the deſcendants of this mixed nation are at preſent denominated Spaniards, whoſe language is that of the Caſtilian, which the gentry ſpeak in perfection; but the peaſants, in the remote parts of the iſlands, in an almoſt unintelligible manner, ſo that they are ſcarcely underſtood by ſtrangers.

The greateſt part of the natives are ſmall of ſtature, well made, and have good features; but they are more ſwarthy than the inhabitants of the ſouthern parts of Spain; their eyes, however, are fine, large, and ſparkling, and their countenances exceedingly expreſſive; but the old people have a very diſagreeable aſpect.

Perſons of diſtinction wore in common a camblet cloak of a dark red or black colour, a linen night cap, bordered with lace; and a broad flouched hat. When they pay viſits, a coat, ſword, and white peruke are added, the latter of which forms a very odd contraſt to their duſky complexions, and what is ſtill more ſingular, they keep their large flouched hat upon their heads always in the houſe; but when they are out of doors, they carry them

under their arm. Neither do they put on their perukes, upper coats, or ſwords, but when they walk in proceſſion, pay formal viſits, or go to church, on high feſtivals.

The lower claſs of people wear their own black, buſhy hair, and tuck ſome of it behind the right ear; and their principal garment is a white looſe coat with a friar's cape, and girded round the middle with a ſaſh. This garment is long and narrow, and made of the wool of their own ſheep.

Women of inferior rank wear a piece of gauze on their heads, which falls down the ſhoulders, is pinned under the chin, and covers the neck and breaſt. A part of their dreſs is a broad-rimmed ſlouched hat, but they uſe this with more propriety than the men; for abroad they wear it upon their heads, whereby their faces are ſcreened from the ſcorching beams of the ſun. They throw a mantle over their ſhoulders, the goodneſs of which is in proportion to the condition of the wearer. They wear jackets inſtead of ſtays, and are all very fond of a great number of petticoats.

The principal ladies of Grand Canaria and Teneriff dreſs after the faſhion of France and England, and pay viſits in chariots: but none walk the ſtreets without being vailed, though ſome are ſo careleſs in the uſe of their vails, that they take care to let their faces and necks be ſeen. Some ladies have their hair curiouſly plaited, and faſtened to the crown of their head with a gold comb. Their mantles are very rich, and they wear a profuſion of jewels; but they render their appearance ridiculous to ſtrangers, from that clumſineſs of dreſs, and aukwarkneſs of gait, which is obſervable in both ſexes.

The poorer ſort of people are afflicted with many loathſome diſorders, and are naturally very filthy; the gentry, however, affect great delicacy. Both ſexes go every morning to hear maſs; and moſt of them go before they take any refreſhment. Their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate: they dine at noon: and ſhut up the doors till three o'clock. People in good circumſtances have four courſes brought to table. The firſt diſh conſiſts of ſoup made of beef, mutton, pork, bacon, potatoes, turnips, carrots, onions, and ſaffron, ſtewed together, with thin ſlices of bread put into the diſh. The ſecond courſe conſiſts of roaſted meat, fowls, &c. The third is the olio, or ingredients of which the ſoup was made. After which comes the deſert, conſiſting of fruit and ſweet-meats.

The company drink freely of wine, or wine and water, while at dinner; but have no wine after the cloth is removed. While drinking, their toaſts are much like ours. When dinner is over, a large ſilver diſh, filled with water, is ſet upon the table; when the whole company, all at once, waſh in it; and then a ſervant, who ſtands at the lower end of the table, cries, "Bleſſed and praiſed be the moſt holy ſacrament of the altar, and the clear and pure conception of the moſt holy virgin, conceived in grace from the firſt inſtant of her natural exiſtence. Ladies and gentlemen, much good may it do you!" After which, making a low bow to the company, he retires. They then riſe, and each goes to his apartment, to take a nap for about an hour; which proves a great refreſhment in this warm climate.

Perſons of higher ſtations have generally a friar for one of their gueſts, who we may ſuppoſe is the confeſſor to ſome of the family, and frequently behaves with great rudeneſs; yet neither the maſter of the houſe, nor any of the company, chuſe to take much notice of it. Mr. Glaſs was once invited to dine with a gentleman, where a Franciſcan friar made one of the company; but no ſooner had they begun to eat, than the friar aſked him if he was a chriſtian? He anſwered, that he hoped ſo. He was then deſired to rehearſe the Apoſtle's creed; but anſwering, that he knew nothing about it, the reverend father ſtared full in his face, and exclaimed, "O thou black aſs!" Offended at this piece of ill manners, our author aſked, What he meant by treating him in that manner? When the friar only anſwered by repeating the abuſe; the maſter of the houſe endeavoured in vain to perſuade him to give over; but as the perſon did not at that time underſtand Spaniſh ſo well as to expreſs himſelf fluently, he aroſe and left the houſe, after telling the gentleman, that he ſaw he was unable to protect him from inſults at his own table.

They treat with chocolate and ſweet-meats in the morning and evening viſits; but in the ſummer evenings with ſnow-water. People ſup between eight and nine, and retire to reſt ſoon after.

The diet of the common people conſiſts of goſſio, fruit, and wine, with ſalt-fiſh brought from the coaſt of Barbary. Some think their being ſubject to the itch, is owing to their eating ſo much of this laſt food. In the ſummer ſeaſon freſh fiſh is pretty plentiful, but more ſcarce and dear at other times of the year.

People of rank here have houſes two ſtories high, which are handſome ſquare buildings, of ſtone and mortar, with an open court in the middle like our public inns in England, and like them have balconies running round, which are on a level with the floor of the ſecond ſtory. The ſtreet-door is placed in the middle of the front of the houſe, and within that door is a ſecond, the ſpace between them being the breadth of the rooms of the houſe. The court-yard, which is on the inſide, is large or ſmall according to the ſize of the building, and is uſually paved with flags, pebbles, or other ſtones. In the centre of the court is a ſquare or circular ſtone-wall about four feet high, filled with earth, in which are commonly planted orange, banana, or other trees common in theſe parts.

The lower ſtory of each quarter of the houſe conſiſts entirely of ſtore-rooms, or cellars. The ſtairs leading to the ſecond ſtory uſually begin at the right or left hand corner of the entrance of the court, and conſiſt of two flights of ſteps, which lead into the gallery, from which one may enter any room on the ſecond ſtory. The principal apartments are generally in that quarter of the houſe facing the ſtreet, which contains a hall with an apartment at each end. Theſe rooms are the whole breadth of the quarter, and the hall is twice the length of any of the apartments at its extremities. The windows of theſe rooms are formed of wooden lattices, curiouſly wrought; none of them looking inwards to the court; but they are all in the outſide wall.

Some great houſes have balconies in the middle of the front, on the outſide above the gate, equal with the floor of the ſecond ſtory; and ſome have a gallery which runs from one end of the front to the other, but the outſide of the houſe has ſeldom any.

They white-waſh all the apartments; and thoſe at the extremities of the great halls, with ſome of the reſt, are lined with fine mats about five feet high, and the floor is ſometimes covered with the ſame. The ſides of the windows of all the rooms are lined with boards to prevent people's cloaths being whitened; for they commonly ſit in the window, there being benches on each ſide of it for that purpoſe; and when the maſter of the houſe intends to ſhew a ſtranger reſpect, he always conducts him to the window, to converſe with him.

The great hall, and the walls of ſome of the apartments, are hung with paintings, repreſenting the virgin, the twelve apoſtles, ſaints, and martyrs, uſually drawn as large as life, and diſtinguiſhed by ſome circumſtance of their hiſtory. Thus St. Peter is uſually preſented looking at a cock and weeping, and a great bunch of keys always hangs at his girdle. St. Anthony preaching to the fiſhes, is one of their favourite paintings.

Their beds have ſeldom any curtains, for theſe they conſider as receptacles for fleas and bugs, which abound here extremely. They chiefly uſe matraſſes ſpread on the floor upon fine mats; beſides the ſheets, there is a blanket, and above that a ſilk quilt. The ſheets, pillows, and quilt are frequently fringed or pinked, like the ſhrouds uſed for the dead with us.

There is a place, in a particular apartment, raiſed a ſtep higher than the floor, covered with mats or carpets; and there the women generally ſit together upon cuſhions, both to receive viſits from their own ſex, and give directions concerning their houſhold affairs.

The houſes of the peaſants and lower ſort of people, though only one ſtory high, are built of ſtone and lime, and the roofs either thatched or tiled. Theſe are generally neat, clean, and commodious. Indeed there is but little dirt or duſt in theſe iſlands to make them uncleanly; for the ground is moſtly rocky, and ſeldom wet, from the almoſt continual fine weather.

The deportment of the natives is grave, but at the ſame time tempered with great quickneſs and ſenſibility; the women, in particular, are remarkable for their ſprightlineſs, and vivacity of their converſation, which is ſaid greatly to exceed that of the Engliſh, French, or northern nations. The great families in theſe iſlands would be highly offended, ſhould any one tell them, they are deſcended from the Moors, or even from the ancient inhabitants of theſe iſlands; yet it would not perhaps be difficult to prove, that moſt of their cuſtoms have been handed down to them from thoſe people. The gentry boaſt much of their birth; and indeed that they are deſcended from the beſt families in Spain, there is no reaſon to doubt.

They

They have the utmoſt contempt for the employment of a butcher, taylor, miller, or porter. It is not indeed very ſurpriſing, that they ſhould not have any great eſteem for the profeſſion of a butcher, or that the employment of a taylor ſhould be conſidered as ſomewhat too effeminate for a man; but it is difficult to imagine why millers and porters ſhould be deſpiſed, eſpecially the former; but it muſt be conſidered that the millers here are generally eſteemed great thieves; and as the maſter of every family ſends his own corn to be ground, unleſs it be narrowly watched, the miller will take too much toll. It is ſaid that when any criminal is to ſuffer death, and the executioner happens to be out of the way, the officers of juſtice have the power of ſeizing the firſt butcher, miller, or porter they can find, and of obliging him to diſcharge that office; ſuch is their diſlike to perſons of theſe occupations.

It may not be amiſs to mention a circumſtance given us by Mr. Glaſs, who once touching at the iſland of Gomera to procure freſh water, hired ſome poor ragged fiſhermen to fill the water caſks, and bring them on board; but ſome time after, going to the watering place to ſee what progreſs they had made, he found the caſks full, and all ready for rolling down to the beach, with the fiſhermen ſtanding by, and talking together, as if they had nothing farther to do. He reprimanded them for their lazineſs in not diſpatching the buſineſs in which he had employed them; when one of them, with a diſdainful air, replied, "What do you take us to be, Sir? Do you imagine we are porters? No, Sir, we are ſeamen." Notwithſtanding all his intreaties and promiſes of reward, he was unable to prevail upon any of them to roll the caſks to the water ſide; but was at laſt obliged to hire porters, to do the buſineſs.

The gentry of theſe iſlands, though for the moſt part poor, yet are extremely polite and well bred; the very peaſants and labouring people have a conſiderable ſhare of good manners, with little of that ſurly ruſticity which is too common among the lower claſs of people in England; yet they do not ſeem to be abaſhed in the preſence of their ſuperiors. A beggar aſks charity of a gentleman, by ſaying "For the love of God, Sir, pleaſe to give me half a rial," and if the other gives him nothing, he returns, "For the love of God, I beg your worſhip's pardon," and then departs.

The common people and ſervants here are much addicted to private pilfering, for which they are uſually puniſhed by being diſcharged the ſervice, beaten, or impriſoned for a ſhort time. Highway robberies are ſeldom or ever known; but murder is more common than in England: and they have no notion of duels, for they cannot imagine that becauſe a man has the courage to fight, he thereby atones for the injury done to another, or that it ought to give him a right to do him a greater.

When the murderer has killed a man, he flies to a church for refuge, till he can find an opportunity to eſcape to another iſland; and if he had been greatly provoked or injured by the deceaſed, and did not kill him deſignedly, every body will be ready to aſſiſt him to eſcape, except the near relations of the perſon who has loſt his life, yet quarrels are far from being frequent here, which may be owing to the want of taverns and other public houſes, their polite behaviour, the little intercourſe there is between them, and their temperance in drinking.

People of the lower claſs never fight in public, but if one perſon puts another into a violent paſſion, the injured party, if able, takes his revenge in the beſt manner he can, till he thinks he has had ſatisfaction, without any regard to the equity of the method he uſes for this purpoſe.

The inhabitants of the Canary iſlands are in general extremely temperate; or at leaſt, if they are otherwiſe, it is in private only; for nothing can be a greater diſgrace there, than to be ſeen drunk; and a man who can be proved a drunkard, is not permitted to give evidence, or take his oath, in a court of judicature. Hence thoſe that are fond of liquor, intoxicate themſelves in their chambers, and then lie down, in order to ſleep till they are ſober.

Perſons of all ranks in theſe iſlands are extremely amorous; but their notions of love are pretty ſingular; which may perhaps be attributed to the want of innocent freedom between the ſexes. However, they do not ſeem to be inclined to jealouſy, any more than the Engliſh or French. It is uſual for young people here to fall in love at ſight; and if the parties agree to marry, but find their parents averſe to their union, they complain to the curate of the pariſh, who goes to the houſe were the girl lives, and endeavours to perſuade them to agree to her marriage; but if they refuſe to conſent to their union, he takes her away before their faces, without their being able to hinder him, and either places her in a convent, or with ſome of her relations, where ſhe muſt remain till they conſent to her marriage.

We are told, that a lady will ſometimes ſend a man an offer of her perſon in an honourable way; if he declines it, he keeps the matter ſecret till death; ſhould he do otherwiſe, he would be looked upon by all people in the moſt deſpicable light. Young men are not allowed to court the youth of the other ſex without an intention to marry them; for if a woman can prove that a man has, in any inſtance, endeavoured to engage her affections, ſhe can oblige him to marry her. This, like many other good laws, is abuſed; for looſe women taking advantage of it, frequently lay ſnares to entrap the ſimple and unwary; and ſometimes worthleſs young men, form deſigns upon the fortunes of ladies, without having the leaſt regard for their perſons: there are not, however, many mercenary lovers in this part of the world, their notions in general being too refined and romantic to admit the idea of that paſſion being made ſubſervient to their ambition or intereſt; and yet there are more unhappy marriages here than in the countries where innocent freedoms being allowed between the ſexes, lovers are not ſo blinded by their paſſions, as not to perceive the frailty and imperfections of their miſtreſſes.

On the death of a man's wife, it is uſual for ſome of his relations to come to his houſe, and reſide with him for ſome time, in order to divert his grief, and do not leave him till another relation comes to relieve the firſt, the ſecond is relieved by a third, and thus they ſucceed each other for the ſpace of a year.

Each of the Canary iſlands, as well as every town and family, hath a peculiar tutelary ſaint for its patron, whoſe day is celebrated as a feſtival, by a ſermon preached in honour of the ſaint, and a ſervice ſuited to the occaſion. On theſe days, the ſtreet near the church is ſtrewed with flowers and leaves, a multitude of wax candles are lighted, and a conſiderable number of fireworks played off.

A kind of fair is generally held on the eve of theſe feſtivals, to which the people of the adjacent country reſort, and ſpend the greateſt part of the night in mirth and dancing to the ſound of the guittar, accompanied with the voices not only of thoſe who play on that inſtrument, but by thoſe of the dancers. The dances practiſed here are ſarabands and folias, which are ſlow dances; thoſe which are quick are the canario, firſt uſed by the Canarians; the fandango, which is chiefly practiſed by the vulgar; and the rapetes, which nearly reſembles our hornpipe. Some of theſe dancers may be termed dramatic, as the men ſing verſes to their partners, who anſwer them in the ſame manner. Moſt of the natives of theſe iſlands can play on the guittar, and they have in general excellent voices.

Plays are acted in the ſtreets for the entertainment of the populace, at the feaſts of the tutelar ſaints of Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma; but the performers cannot be ſuppoſed to riſe to any degree of perfection, as they are not profeſſed actors, but only ſome of the inhabitants of the place who ſeem to have a natural turn for acting.

The gentry frequently take the air on horſeback; but when the ladies are obliged to travel, they ride on aſſes, and inſtead of a ſaddle they uſe a kind of chair, in which they ſit very commodiouſly. The principal roads are paved with pebble-ſtones, like thoſe uſed in the ſtreets of London. There are a few chariots in Canaria, the town of Santa-Cruz, and the city of Laguna in Teneriff; theſe are all drawn by mules, but they are kept rather for ſhew than uſe; for the roads are not proper for wheel carriages, being ſteep and rocky.

The lower claſs of people divert themſelves with dancing, ſinging, and playing on the guittar; likewiſe with throwing a ball through a ring placed at a great diſtance, cards, wreſtling, and quoits. The peaſants, particularly thoſe of Gomera, have the art of leaping from rock to rock when they travel, which is thus performed: the long ſtaff or pole uſed on theſe occaſions, has an iron ſpike at the end of it, and when a man wants to deſcend from one rock to another, he aims the point of the pole at the place where he intends to alight, and then throws himſelf towards it, pitching the end of the pole ſo as to bring it to a perpendicular, and then ſlides down it to the rock on which he fixed it.

In the convents, children are taught reading, writing, Latin, arithmetic, logic, and other branches of philoſophy. The ſcholars read the claſſics; but the Greek is never

never taught here, and is entirely unknown even to the ſtudents in divinity. They are particularly fond of civil law and logic, but the latter is chiefly preferred.

The people belonging to theſe iſlands have a genius for poetry, and compoſe verſes of different meaſures, which they ſet to muſic. Some of their ſongs, and other poetical pieces, would be greatly eſteemed in a country where taſte for poetry prevails. Few of thoſe books called profane (to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe of a religious kind) are read here, ſince they cannot be imported into the iſland without being firſt examined by the inquiſition; a court which nobody cares to have any concern with. The hiſtory of the wars in Granada is in every body's hands, and is read by people of all ranks; they have alſo ſome plays, moſt of which are very good. Thomas a Kempis, and the Devout Pilgrim, are in every library, and much admired. But the books moſt read by the laity are the Lives of the Saints and Martyrs, which may be conſidered as a kind of religious romances, ſtuffed with legends, and the moſt abſurd and improbable ſtories.

With reſpect to the civil government of the iſlands of Canaria, Teneriff, and Palma, which are called the king's iſlands, it will be proper to obſerve, in the firſt place, that the natives, on their ſubmitting to the crown of Spain, were ſo far from being deprived of their liberty, that they were put on an equality with their conquerors, in which the Spaniards ſhewed great wiſdom and policy; but how they came afterwards to act in a quite contrary manner in America, is hard to determine; perhaps they might be apprehenſive, that if they proceeded with too much rigour againſt them at firſt, they might in time be induced to ſhake off the yoke, and diſpoſſeſs their tyrannical maſters, which we are informed, by late events, has proved to be the caſe in South America, as the following piece of intelligence, publiſhed in September 1782, announces: "You have repeatedly heard it reported, that there was a rebellion in Chili and Peru, in South America; and though the Spaniards do all they can to keep it a ſecret, I can aſſure you, from undoubted authority, that all the mines in Peru and the city of Pez, which is ſituated in the interior parts of the country, where they lodged their bars of gold and ſilver, and other valuables, are taken from them, and there were one hundred and fifty millions of piaſtres taken out of the ſtrong cheſts. The natives will very ſoon have the whole country in their poſſeſſion, for they deſtroy every white man, woman, and child, and even kill every one begot between a Spaniard and a native." But to return. After the conqueſt of the Canary Iſlands, the Spaniards incorporated with the natives in ſuch a manner as to become one people with them, and in conſequence of this political union, the king of Spain is able to raiſe in theſe iſlands more ſoldiers and ſeamen than in any other part of his dominions of three times their extent.

The alcalde, who is a juſtice of peace, is the loweſt officer except the alguazils; there is one of them in every town or village of note. Theſe magiſtrates are appointed by the royal audience of the city of Palmas, in Canaria; they hold their places only for a certain time, and, in caſes of property, can take cognizance of no diſputes where the value of what is contended for exceeds ſeventeen rials, or ſeven ſhillings ſterling. Over theſe magiſtrates is the alcalde major, who is appointed in the ſame manner as the other, and cannot decide any caſe relating to property, that exceeds the ſum of two hundred dollars.

From the deciſion of thoſe magiſtrates, appeals lie to the tiniente and corregidor: the firſt of whom is a lawyer, and nominated by the royal audience; but the latter, who is appointed by the king, is not obliged to be a lawyer, yet muſt have a ſecretary, clerk, or aſſiſtant bred to the law. The corregidor generally holds his place five years, and ſometimes longer. Few of the natives enjoy this honourable office, which is commonly filled by Spaniards.

The proceedings of the corregidor's court, and in that of the tiniente, are the ſame; theſe courts ſeeming to have been originally intended as a check upon each other. Appeals are made from the corregidor and tiniente to the royal audience of Grand Canaria; a tribunal compoſed of three oidores, or judges, a regent, and fiſcal, who are uſually natives of Spain, and are always appointed by the king. The governor-general is preſident of this court, though he reſides in Teneriff. In criminal cauſes there is no appeal from their determination; but appeals are carried to the council or audience of Seville in Spain, in matters reſpecting property.

In the Canary Iſlands, the ſtanding forces amount only to about an hundred and fifty men; but there is a militia of which the governor-general of the iſland is always commander in chief, and the officers, as colonels, captains, and ſubalterns, are appointed by the king. There are alſo governors of forts and caſtles, ſome of which are appointed by the king, and others by the twelve regidors of the iſlands, called the cavildo; ſome of the forts belong to the king, and the reſt are under the direction of the regidors, or ſub-governors, who alſo take care of the repair of the highways, prevent nuiſances, and the plague from being brought into the iſland by ſhipping; for no man is allowed to land in theſe iſlands from any ſhip, till the maſter produces a bill of health from the laſt port, or till the crew have been examined by the proper officers.

The royal revenue ariſes from the following articles: A third of the tithes, which ſcarcely amounts to a tenth part of them, the clergy appropriating almoſt the whole to themſelves. This third part was given by the pope to the king of Spain, in conſideration of his maintaining a perpetual war againſt the infidels. The ſecond branch conſiſts in the monopoly of tobacco and ſnuff, which the king's officers ſell on his account, no other perſons being allowed to deal in thoſe articles. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the orchilla-weed, all of which in the iſlands of Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma, belong to the king, and is part of his revenue; but the orchilla of the other iſlands belongs to their reſpective proprietors. The fourth branch conſiſts of the acknowledgment annually paid by the nobility to the king for their titles, which amounts to a mere trifle. The fifth branch is a duty of ſeven per cent. on imports and exports: and the ſixth duty on the Canary Weſt India commerce. All theſe branches, the ſixth excepted, are ſaid not to bring into the king's treaſury above fifty thouſand pounds per annum, clear of the expences of government, and all charges relating thereto.

SECT. XV.

Containing an Account of the Manufactures and Commerce of the Iſlands of CANARIA, TENERIFF, PALMA, GOMERA, and FERRO; alſo of their Fiſhery on the Coaſt of BARBARY, their Eccleſiaſtical Government, and the Coins, Weights, and Meaſures uſed in the Canary Iſlands.

WITH reſpect to the manufactures of the iſlands in general, they conſiſt of taffeties, knit ſilk hoſe, ſilk garters, and quilts for beds. In Canaria and Teneriff, coarſe linens and gauzes are made of the flax imported from Holland. In Canaria are alſo made white blankets and coarſe cloths, from the wool of their own ſheep. The reſt of the iſlands alſo make a coarſe kind of cloth, which is worn by the peaſants; but on feſtivals, weddings, &c. the labouring people uſually wear Engliſh coarſe cloth. The exportation of raw ſilk is now prohibited, in order to encourage their ſilk manufactures. In the large towns men are employed in weaving, and as tailors; but thoſe trades are exerciſed in the villages only by the women.

We may divide the commerce of the Canary Iſlands into theſe proportions following; namely, that to Europe, and to the Engliſh colonies in America; that to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; that carried on between the iſlands themſelves, and the fiſhery on the Barbary coaſt.

The iſlands of Ferro and Gomera are ſo poor, as to be viſited by no ſhips from Europe or America; nor are the natives of thoſe iſlands allowed any ſhare of the Spaniſh Weſt India commerce; they being not entirely under the juriſdiction of the crown of Spain, but ſubject to the count of Gomera, who is the lord and proprietor of them.

The iſland of Teneriff is the centre of the trade to Europe, and the Britiſh American colonies. A few ſhips trade to Canary and Palma, but theſe are not to be compared to the numbers that arrive at Teneriff. This trade is carried on entirely in foreign bottoms, eſpecially in Engliſh, the natives being afraid of ſailing in thoſe ſeas where they are in danger of being taken by the corſairs of Algiers, Sallee, and other ports of Barbary. The greateſt part of this trade is in the hands of the Iriſh Roman Catholic merchants ſettled in Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma, and the deſcendents of the Iriſh who formerly ſettled there, and married Spaniſh wives; and, the Engliſh and Dutch conſuls, and two or three merchants who live at Teneriff, are the only proteſtants who reſide there.

The commodities imported from Great Britain to theſe iſlands conſiſt chiefly of woollen goods of various kinds, hats, hard-ware, red-herrings, pilchards, and wheat when it is ſcarce in the iſlands, with many other articles. They import from Ireland beef, pork, pickled-herrings, butter, and candles. From Holland and Hamburgh, linens of all ſorts, to a very great amount, are imported; alſo gunpowder, cordage, coarſe flax, and other goods. From Biſcay, a conſiderable quantity of bar iron is annually brought hither.

The articles they import from Majorca, Italy, Barcelona, Cadiz, and Seville, conſiſt chiefly of velvets, ſilks, oil, ſalt, and cordage made of baſs or ſpartrem, with many little articles for the conſumption of the Canary iſlands, and the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. This trade is almoſt entirely carried on in the French and Malteſe tartans.

The Malteſe veſſels, before they ſail to theſe iſlands, make the tour of all the European harbours to the weſtward of Malta, trading from one part to the other. They go from the Mediterranean to Cadiz, and from thence to the Canaries, where, beſides the commodities of Italy, France, and Spain, they ſell the cotton manufactures of their own iſland; all cottons, imported into the Canary iſlands, except thoſe from Malta, paying ſuch an exorbitant duty as almoſt amounts to prohibition. The people of Malta have engaged to wage perpetual war with the Turks and Moors, which is the reaſon that this privilege is allowed them.

From the Britiſh colonies in America they import, dried cod, rice, beef, pork, hams, bees-wax, deal boards, pipe ſtaves, and wheat, flour, and maize, when the crops in the iſland fail.

Thoſe iſlands, in return for the above goods, export to Great Britain and Ireland, wine, orchilla-weed, campeachy wood, and a conſiderable quantity of Mexican dollars. The ſame articles to Holland and Hamburgh; but a greater quantity of dollars, and little or no orchilla-weed. To Marſeilles, Malta, Italy, and Spain, they ſend the commodities they receive from the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, particularly ſugar, hides, Campeachy log-wood, ſome orchilla-weed, and dollars: they export a great quantity of wine, but no other articles, to the Britiſh colonies in America.

The above goods in general pay a duty of ſeven per cent. on the eſtimated value, whether they are imported into, or exported from theſe iſlands.

There are particular regulations, to which the commerce of the Canary iſlands with the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies are ſubject, and no foreigners are allowed to have any ſhare in it; nor are any ſhips ſuffered to ſail to the Spaniſh ports of that part of America, from any of the iſlands except Teneriff, Canaria, and Palma; and the trade there is confined to the ports of the Havannah, Campeachy, and La Guaira on the coaſts of Caraccas, St. Domingo, Porto Rico, and Maracaroa: the three firſt are called the greater parts, and the others the leſſer, becauſe the trade of the latter, when compared with that of the former, is very inconſiderable.

Every thing relating to this trade is managed by a judge, a ſecretary, and other officers, who reſide in the city of St. Chriſtobal La Laguna; and before a ſhip takes in her loading for any of their ports, ſhe muſt obtain a licence from the judge of the India trade, which is generally granted, if it be her turn; for although intereſt and money are frequently found to prevail againſt juſtice, yet this is not the caſe here, for all ſhips are regiſtered, and muſt have their turns.

The produce of the Canaries conſtitute the whole of their trade to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies; ſuch as, wines, brandy, almonds, raiſins, figs, &c. of which they can annually ſend one thouſand tons; and are only allowed, beſides, what is termed a general for each ſhip, which conſiſts of all kinds of goods thought neceſſary for the uſe of the veſſel, crew, and paſſengers, during the voyage; and is more or leſs extenſive in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip. But though they are reſtricted by theſe rules, this trade is extended much farther; and it is ſaid they export at leaſt two thouſand tons of the produce of the iſlands, and alſo European commodities to a very great amount.

The imports from the Weſt Indies into theſe iſlands conſiſt of commodities of the ports from whence they came, and are chiefly logwood, hides, cocoa-nuts, ſugar, and Mexican dollars; all which they are obliged to land at Santa Cruz, in Teneriff, but cochineal and indigo are prohibited from being landed there. The ſilver they bring is limited to fifty Mexican dollars per ton, according to the regiſtered tonnage; yet ſome of theſe ſhips are ſaid to bring home a hundred and twenty dollars to Teneriff.

There are commonly employed in this trade ſhips of about two hundred and fifty, or three hundred tons burthen. Some of them are built in the iſlands, and others at the Havanna, or Old Spain. No foreign bottoms can be employed in this trade; for which reaſon the freight from the Canaries to the Weſt Indies is extremely high; for the Canary ſhipping carry ſo many uſeleſs hands, particularly chaplains; lie ſo long in the road of Santa Cruz, waiting their returns; and are at ſuch vaſt expence of anchors and cables, that the owners cannot afford to take leſs freight for a pipe of wine, from the Canaries to La Guaira, than ten pounds ſterling; and yet the run from Teneriff to that port being all the way before the wind, is uſually performed in leſs than thirty days: yet our author obſerves, that were the natives allowed to employ Engliſh ſhips in this trade, they would ſoon find a ſufficient number ready to carry their wine at the rate of twenty ſhillings for each pipe of it.

The trade carried on from one iſland to another, is as follows: The natives of Canaria export to Teneriff ſome raw and wrought ſilk, coarſe woollen blankets, proviſions of all ſorts, particularly cattle and fowls, orchilla-weed, ſquare flags for pavements, ſome ſalt, and filtering-ſtone veſſels for purifying water. In return for theſe commodities, they chiefly receive caſh, and the other produce of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. Palma exports to Teneriff boards, pitch, raw ſilk, orchilla weed, ſugar, almonds, and ſweet-meats; and receives in return European and Weſt India goods. The natives of Gomera export to Teneriff cattle, brandy, orchilla-weed, a great deal of raw ſilk and ſome wrought, and in return receive European and Weſt India goods. The inhabitants of Ferro export to Teneriff cattle, brandy, orchilla-weed. Lancerota and Fuerteventura export a great quantity of corn to Teneriff, beſides cattle, fowls, and orchilla-weed; and, in return, generally receive European goods and caſh, with ſome wine. The natives of the ſame iſlands ſend corn to Palma, for which they receive ſugar, wine, caſh, boards, and other timber. The natives of Lancerota alſo export to Teneriff and Palma ſome dried fiſh and ſalt.

The veſſels employed in this trade are built in the iſlands, and are from twenty to fifty tons burthen; they are about twenty-five in number, and each of them navigated by ten hands, on account of the great labour required in loading and unloading.

The fiſhery here is carried on by the natives of the Canary Iſlands on the coaſt of Barbary. It employs about thirty veſſels, from fifteen to fifty tons burthen, the ſmalleſt carrying fifteen men, and the largeſt thirty. The owners having fitted out a veſſel for this voyage, put on board a quantity of ſalt ſufficient to cure the fiſh, with bread enough to ſerve the crew till their return. Each man has his own fiſhing tackle, which conſiſts of a few lines, hooks, one or two ſtout fiſhing rods, a little braſs wire, and a knife for cutting open the fiſh. If any of the crew carry wine, brandy, fleſh-meat, or any other ſtores, it muſt be at his own expence; for only bread is provided by the owners.

On the north, this fiſhery is bounded by the ſouthern extremity of Mount Atlas, in the latitude of twenty-nine degrees; and on the ſouth, by Cape Blanco, in the latitude of twenty degrees thirty minutes; an extent of about ſix hundred miles; in all which tract there is neither town nor village, and but few ſettled habitations. The wandering Arabs who frequent this part of the world live in tents, and have neither barks, boats, nor canoes; and the king of Morocco's cruiſers never venture ſo far to the ſouthward.

As ſoon as the fiſhermen arrive on the coaſt, they endeavour to catch bait, which is done as we do trouts with a fly, only the rod is three times as thick as ours, and does not taper ſo much towards the point. The line is formed of ſix braſs wires twiſted together; the hook is about five inches in length, and is not bearded; the ſhaft is loaded ſo as to lie horizontally on the ſurface of the water, and the hook is covered with a fiſh's ſkin, except where it bends to the point. The fiſhermen getting within a quarter or half a mile of the ſhore, carry ſo much ſail as to cauſe the bark to run about four miles an hour, when two or three men throw their lines over the ſtern, and let the hooks drag along the ſurface of the water. The fiſh taking the hooks for ſmall fiſh, ſnap at them; and they are no ſooner hooked, than the fiſhermen ſwing them with their rods into the bark.

The Canarians call theſe fiſh taſſarte; they have no ſcales, and are ſhaped like a mackarel, but are as large as a ſalmon; and they are ſo voracious, as to ſwallow all the

hook, notwithſtanding its being ſo large; and was it barbed, it would be impoſſible to extract it, without cutting open the fiſh. Three men, in the ſtern of a bark, have been ſeen to catch a hundred and fifty taſſarte in half an hour, and a bark will ſometimes complete her lading with theſe fiſh only.

Another ſort of fiſh which they call anhoua is taken in the ſame manner; this is rather bigger than a large mackarel, and alſo ſerves for a bait; as does alſo another fiſh called cavallos, which is ſhaped like a mackarel, but is ſomewhat more flat and broad; it is about a ſpan long, and is catched with an angle-rod and line, with a very ſmall hook, baited with almoſt any thing that can be procured.

As ſoon as a bark has obtained a ſufficient ſtock of bait, ſhe leaves her boat with five or ſix men to catch more, and runs out to ſea till ſhe gets into a great depth of water; there ſhe anchors, and all the crew heave their lines and hooks over-board, baited with the above fiſh, in order to catch bream and cod. The lines are loaded ſo as to cauſe the hooks to ſink near the bottom of the ſea, where theſe fiſh ſwim; and when a bark meets with fine weather, and is well provided with bait, ſhe will be able in four days to complete her cargo.

The fiſhermen make but one meal in the whole day, which is in the evening, after they have cleaned and ſalted the fiſh they have taken; they then dreſs their ſupper in the following manner. In every bark the crew have a long flat ſtone for a hearth, upon which they light a fire, and hang a large kettle over it, in which they boil ſome fiſh: they then take a platter, with ſome broken biſcuit, onions ſhred ſmall, to which they add pepper and vinegar, and then pour in the broth of the fiſh, which is ſaid to be delicious. Having eaten of this excellent ſoup, they finiſh their meal with roaſted fiſh; for they throw that of which the ſoup was made into the ſea. Soon after this repaſt they lie down to ſleep in the moſt commodious part of the veſſel, for they have no bedding, and about five or ſix in the morning riſe, leave the boat near the ſhore, weigh anchor, and ſtand out to ſea as before, never taſting food before the next evening, at the ſame time.

Their cargoes conſiſt chiefly of large bream, nevertheleſs, they catch many other ſorts. The taſſarte, juſt mentioned, is a delicious fiſh, which taſtes like a large and fat mackarel; but, when dried, is not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſalmon. The cod caught here is better than that of Newfoundland: the anhoua is extremely good; the corbino is a large fiſh that weighs about thirty pounds. There are alſo a number of flat fiſh, with many others of various kinds.

They cure them by the following method: after cutting them open, and having thoroughly cleaned and waſhed them, they chop off their heads and fins, and pile them up to drain off the water; after which they are ſalted, and ſtowed in bulk in the hold, and in this ſtate they remain till fit for uſe.

"It is ſtrange, ſays a judicious author, to think that the Spaniards ſhould want to ſhare the Newfoundland fiſhery with the Engliſh, when they have one much better at their own doors. I ſay better, for the weather here, and every thing elſe, concurs to make it the beſt fiſhery in the univerſe. What can be a ſtronger proof of this, than the Moors on the continent drying and curing all their fiſh without ſalt, or any other proceſs than expoſing them to the ſun-beams? For the pure wholſome air of that climate, and the ſtrong northerly wind which almoſt conſtantly prevails on this coaſt, totally prevents putrefaction, provided the fiſh are ſplit open, well waſhed, and then perfectly dried in the ſun."

The barks uſed by the Canarians make eight or nine voyages in a year; for, having unloaded their cargoes, they leave the fiſh with their agents to ſell them at their leiſure, while they go in ſearch of more. They are commonly ſold at three half pence for a pound of thirty-two ounces, which is the weight uſed for fiſh and fleſh in theſe iſlands.

The magiſtrates, inſtead of encouraging this uſeful and profitable branch of trade, take every method to injure it, by fixing the price of the fiſh, clogging the trade with unreaſonable duties, and forbidding the fiſhermen to have any intercourſe with the Moors on the coaſt, where they ſometimes go to fiſh; which is a great hardſhip, as they are frequently obliged, when they meet with bad weather, to go aſhore for fuel and water. They correſpond, however, privately to their mutual advantage: for the Canarians give the inhabitants of the deſart old ropes, which the latter untwiſt and ſpin into yarn or twine for fiſhing-nets; they alſo give them bread, potatoes, onions, and many kinds of fruit; in return for which the Moors make them preſents of oſtrich's eggs and feathers, and allow them to take wood and water on their coaſt, whenever they are in want of thoſe neceſſary articles.

With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtical government of the Canary Iſlands in general, it muſt be obſerved, that the biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Seville, in Spain, and has a revenue of ſix thouſand pounds ſterling per annum. He reſides in the city of Palma, in Canaria, where he is treated with as much reſpect and homage as a ſovereign prince. The ſuperior of the various orders of friars and nuns reſides in the city of St. Chriſtobal de la Laguna, and are only accountable to the generals of their reſpective orders at Rome.

There is a houſe in each of the iſlands belonging to the inquiſition, with its proper officers, in order to prevent all appearances of hereſy or diſreſpect to the clergy. They have power to apprehend and confine ſuſpected perſons, without giving any reaſon for it to the civil magiſtrates; and, after examining them, they are either ſent to the tribunal at Canaria, or diſcharged.

On the arrival of any foreign ſhips at the iſlands, the firſt time the maſter goes aſhore, he is conducted to an officer of the inquiſition, who examines him whether he has any books or pictures in his ſhip againſt the doctrine or ceremonies of the church of Rome: and he is obliged to ſign a paper, by which he engages, if he has any, not to land or expoſe them to view; and that, while he remains in the country, he will neither ſpeak againſt the Romiſh religion, nor ridicule its rights and ceremonies. As all the natives are zealous members of the Romiſh church, this tribunal has ſeldom an opportunity of exerciſing its extenſive authority over them.

The gentry are generally poor, and unable to give fortunes to their younger ſons and daughters, many of the former being educated for the church; and not a few young ladies ſhut themſelves in convents for life, becauſe they cannot find huſbands ſuitable to their rank, and are unwilling to depend upon their elder brothers, or other relations, for ſubſiſtence: others take the ſame ſtep from their having met with diſappointments in love; and a few take the vail from religious motives, being flattered by the nuns and clergy into a high conceit of their own ſanctity.

In theſe iſlands the prieſts are far from being ſatisfied with their tithes, or the friars with the revenues of their convents, and have therefore found means to load the inhabitants with many impoſitions, which, though not eſtabliſhed by law, it would be dangerous for them to preſume to refuſe paying. Thus every fiſhing-bark from the coaſt of Barbary is obliged to deliver a certain quantity of fiſh to each convent; and when the Mendicant friars go begging from houſe to houſe, they are liberally ſupplied; and, was any to refuſe giving them alms, they would be marked out as objects of their vengeance, and be expoſed to the inquiſition. In ſhort, all ranks of men, who have any great point in view, take care, in the firſt place, to ſecure in their intereſt the leading men of the clergy: and it is eaſy to ſurmount every other obſtacle when this is accompliſhed.

As the Catholics of theſe iſlands ſeem to think, that all excellence is confined to thoſe of their religion; therefore when they ſee any of a different perſuaſion behave with common decency, they appear greatly ſurpriſed, imagining that thoſe they call heretics differ but little from brutes. Such is the prevalence of ſuperſtition and bigotry over the minds of the ignorant!

The Mexican dollar, and the half, quarter, eighth, and ſixteenth parts of a dollar, are the current coin in the Canaries. There is alſo the provincial rial of plate, which is a ſmall ſilver piece worth five-pence ſterling; alſo the quart, a copper coin of the value of an halfpenny, ten of which make a rial of plate. The provincial ſilver coin is never exported, on account of its paſſing in the iſlands for more than its intrinſic value. Accounts are kept in imaginary money, that is, current dollars of ten rials of vellon each. The rial of vellon is equal in value to eight of the above quarts, and the current dollar is exactly three ſhillings and four-pence, and therefore ſix of them make one pound ſterling. Three ſixteenths of the Mexican dollar paſs for two rials of plate. Gold coin is very ſcarce here.

The quintil, which is their hundred weight, weighs only an hundred and four pounds. The arroba is twenty-five pounds. The pound and ſmaller weights are nearly the ſame as thoſe in Europe.

The

The following are the measures used in the Canaries; namely, the fanega or hanega, the almud, the liquid arroba, the quartillo, and the var. The fanega is a measure for corn, cocoa, salt, &c. and contains nearly the quantity of two English bushels. Twelve almuds make a fanega. The liquid arroba contains little more than three gallons, and the quartillo is nearly the same as our quart. The var (which is somewhat less than the English yard) is a measure for cloth, &c.

We have now compleated our description of the Canary Island, but cannot with propriety conclude this section, without first giving a concise account of the islands or rocks named the Salvages, which lie between the Canaries and Madeira.

These islands are situated twenty-seven leagues north from Point Nago in Teneriff, in thirty degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in sixteen degrees twenty-five minutes west longitude from London; the most considerable of which is high and rocky, and is about three miles in circumference. Three or four leagues to the south-west of this island is another, not unlike the largest Needle rock at the west end of the Isle of Wight. Between these islands are a considerable number of rocks and sands, some above and others under water, so that it is dangerous for those unacquainted with these islands to approach them, except on the east side of the great island, which produces nothing but orchilla-weed.

There are great numbers of cormorants, or sea fowls that nearly resemble them. Some barks and boats belonging to the Canary Islands frequent the Salvages in the summer season, in search of wrecks, and those sea fowls, for they catch the young in their nests, kill and salt them, and afterwards dispose of them at Teneriff.

These islands, though uninhabited, are claimed by the Portuguese, who consider them as dependent on the island of Madeira, and, notwithstanding they scarcely ever visit them, will not allow the Spaniards to gather orchilla-weed there. A few years ago some fishermen went in a bark from Teneriff to these islands in quest of wrecks, but finding none, went ashore, and gathered about half a ton of orchilla-weed. But this was no sooner known at Madeira, than the Portuguese complained of it to the governor-general of the Canary Islands, and would not be satisfied till the master of the bark was thrown into prison, where he was a long time confined.

SECT. XVI.

Of the MADEIRA or MADERA ISLANDS; their Situation, and first Discovery of them; also their Soil, Produce, principal Towns, Inhabitants, Trade, &c.

THESE islands are only three in number; namely, Madeira, properly so called; the island of Puerto, or Porto Santo; and Isla Deserta, or the Desolate Isle. They are situated to the north of the Salvages, and in the Atlantic ocean, between thirty-two and thirty-three degrees, and seventeen and eighteen degrees west longitude, two hundred and fifty miles north by east from Teneriff, three hundred and sixty from Cape Cantin on the coast of Africa, and three hundred north of the island of Farro. They were thus named from the principal of them, which was called by the Portuguese Madeira, signifying a wood or forest, from its being overgrown with trees. They were first discovered by an English gentleman, and many years after by the Portuguese; and as there is something extremely singular in both these occurrences, but more particularly the first, we shall, for the entertainment of our readers, relate the circumstances attending it.

In the reign of Edward III. king of England, a young gentleman, named Robert Machin, conceived a violent passion for Ann D'Arfet, a beautiful and accomplished lady of a noble family. Machin, with respect to birth and fortune, was inferior to the lady; but his personal qualifications overcame every scruple on that account, and she rewarded his attachment with a reciprocal affection. Their friends, however, beheld the young gentleman in a different light; they fancied their blood would be contaminated by an alliance with one of a lower rank, and therefore determined to sacrifice the happiness of the young lady, to the hereditary pride of blood, and their own mercenary and interested motives.

In consequence of those ideas, a warrant was procured from the king, under the sanction of which Machin was apprehended, and kept in close confinement, till the object of his affections was married to a nobleman, whose chief merit lay in his honorary title and large possessions; and immediately after the nuptial ceremony was over, the peer took his beautiful bride with him to a strong castle which he had in the neighbourhood of Bristol, and then the unfortunate lover was set at liberty.

After being released from his cruel confinement, Machin was acquainted that his mistress had been compelled to give her hand to another. This rendered him almost frantic, and he vowed to revenge the violence done to the lady, and the injury which he himself had sustained; and with this view, imparted his design to some of his friends and companions, who engaged to accompany him to Bristol, and assist him in whatever enterprize he undertook.

Accordingly one of his comrades contrived to get himself hired by the nobleman as a servant, and by that means being introduced into the family, he soon found an opportunity to let the lady know the sentiments and intentions of her lover; when she fully entered into all his projects, and promised to comply with whatever he should propose.

In order to facilitate the design, the lady appeared more chearful than usual, which lulled asleep every suspicion that her lord might otherwise have entertained; she also entreated permission to ride out daily to take the air for the benefit of her health, which request her consort easily granted. This point being gained, she did not fail to take advantage of it, by riding out every morning accompanied by one servant only, which was her lover's companion, he having been previously pitched upon always to attend her by her own contrivance.

Matters being thus prepared, she one day rode out as usual, when her attendant conducted her to his friend, who waited at the sea-side to receive her. They all three immediately entered a boat, and soon reached a ship that lay at some distance ready to receive them on board; and Machin, having the object of his wishes on board; immediately, with the assistance of his associates, set sail, intending to proceed to France; but all on board being ignorant of maritime affairs, and the wind blowing a hard gale, they missed their port, and the next morning, to their astonishment, found themselves driven into the main ocean. In this miserable condition, they abandoned themselves to despair, and committed their fates to the mercy of the waves. Without a pilot, almost destitute of provisions, and quite devoid of hope, they were tossed about for the space of thirteen days. At length when the morning of the fourteenth day began to dawn, they fancied they could descry something very near them, that had the appearance of land; and when the sun rose, to their great joy they could distinctly perceive it was such. Their pleasure, however, was in some measure lessened by the reflection, that it was a strange country; for they plainly perceived it was covered with a variety of trees, whose nature and appearance they had not the least knowledge of.

Soon after this, some of them landed from the sloop, in order to make their observations on the country; when, returning soon after to the ship, they highly commended the place, but at the same time believed there were no inhabitants in it.

The lover and his mistress, with some of his friends, then landed, leaving the rest to take care of the ship. The country appeared beautifully diversified with hills and dales, shaded with various trees, and watered by many clear meandring streams. The most beautiful birds of different species perched upon their heads, arms, and hands, unapprehensive of danger; and several kinds of wild beasts approached, without offering any violence to them.

After having penetrated through several woody recesses, they entered a fine meadow admirably incircled with a border of laurels, finely enamelled with various flowers. Upon an eminence in the midst of this meadow, they saw a lofty spreading tree, the beauty of which invited them to repose under its shade, and partake of the shelter it would afford them from the piercing rays of the sun. They at length attempted to make a temporary residence beneath this tree; and, providing themselves boughs from the neighbouring woods, they built several small huts, or arbours. They passed their time very agreeably in this place, from whence they made frequent excursions into the neighbouring country, admiring its strange productions and various beauties. Their happiness, however, was of no very long continuance; for one night a terrible storm arose from the north-east, which tore the ship from her anchor, and drove her to sea. The crew were obliged to

submit

ſubmit to the mercy of the elements, when they were driven to the coaſt of Morocco, where the ſhip being ſtranded, the whole crew was made captives by the Moors.

Machin and his companions, having miſſed the ſhip the next morning, they concluded ſhe had foundered, and was gone to the bottom. This new calamity plunged them into the deepeſt melancholy, and ſo greatly affected the lady, that ſhe could not ſupport herſelf under it. She had indeed before continually fed her grief, by ſad preſages of the enterprizes ending in ſome fatal cataſtrophe to all concerned; but the ſhock of the late diſaſter ſtruck her dumb; ſo that ſhe expired in three days afterwards, in the moſt bitter agonies.

The death of the lady affected Machin to ſuch a degree, that he ſurvived her but four days, notwithſtanding the utmoſt endeavours of his companions to afford him conſolation. Previous to his death, he begged them to place his body in the ſame grave with her's, which they had made at the foot of an altar, erected under the beautiful lofty tree before-mentioned. They afterwards placed upon it a large wooden croſs; and near that an inſcription, drawn up by Machin himſelf, containing a ſuccinct account of the whole adventure; and concluded with a requeſt, that if any Chriſtians ſhould come thither to ſettle, that they would build and dedicate a church to Jeſus Chriſt upon that ſpot.

The remaining companions of Machin, after his death, determined to attempt returning to England in the ſloop, which had been ſo well ſecured near the ſhore, as not to be in the leaſt damaged by the ſtorm which had driven away the ſhip. But, happening to take the ſame courſe the others had been forced upon, they unfortunately arrived in like manner upon ſome part of the coaſt of Morocco, where they met with exactly the ſame fate, being ſeized in a ſimilar manner, and carried to the ſame priſon. Here they met with ſeveral other Chriſtian ſlaves, beſides their own companions; particularly one John de Morales, a Spaniard of Seville. This man was an excellent ſailor, and took a peculiar delight in hearing the Engliſh captives rehearſe their adventures, by which means he learnt the ſituation and particular marks of this new diſcovered country, which he took care to retain in his memory.

In proceſs of time, John I. king of Portugal, having entered into a war with the Moors, paſſed over into Africa with a formidable army; and in the year 1415 laid ſiege to and took Ceuta. In this expedition he was accompanied by his ſons, one of whom, prince Henry, took great delight in the ſtudy of the mathematics, particularly geography and navigation. Upon this occaſion, they had a great opportunity of converſing with the Moors and African Jews; and informing himſelf, by their means, of the ſituation of ſeveral foreign countries, the ſeas about them, their coaſts, &c. Hence grew an inſatiable thirſt for making new conqueſts; and from this time he was determined to devote his attention to the diſcovery of unknown countries. In conſequence of which reſolution, he retired, after the reduction of Ceuta, to the Algarves, where he found a new town within a league of Cape St. Vincent, erected a fort to defend it, and determined to ſend out ſhips from thence upon diſcoveries.

The perſon he intended to employ as chief commander, upon theſe occaſions, was a gentleman of extraordinary abilities, named Juan Gonſalvo Zarco, who became famous not only for his maritime diſcoveries, but for being the firſt perſon who introduced the uſe of artillery on board ſhips. In 1418 he diſcovered Puerto Santo, one of the Madeiras; and in 1420 he paſſed the ſtraits, and ſurveyed a conſiderable extent of the coaſt of Africa. In the mean time, a Spaniſh prince dying, left by his will a large ſum of money for the purpoſe of redeeming Spaniſh Chriſtians, who were kept as ſlaves in Morocco. Terms being agreed upon between the emperor of Morocco and the commiſſioners, for the redemption of thoſe captives, a Spaniſh ſhip was ſent to Morocco to fetch home the redeemed Chriſtians, among whom was John de Morales before-mentioned.

On the return of this ſhip to Spain, it happened to fall in with the ſquadron commanded by Juan Gonſalvo Zarco, who was, as we have juſt noticed, then paſſing the ſtraits to make obſervations on the coaſt of Africa. Spain and Portugal being at this time at war, Juan Gonſalvo Zarco made prize of the Spaniſh ſhip; but finding it contained only redeemed captives, he was touched with compaſſion at the miſeries they had already ſuffered during their ſlavery, and generouſly diſmiſſed them, taking out only John de Morales, who he found to be a very intelligent perſon, an able ſailor, and an expert pilot.

When Morales was informed of the reaſon of his detention, and the diſcoveries that the Portugueſe were upon, he was mightily rejoiced, and offered voluntarily to enter into the ſervice of prince Henry. He then told the Portugueſe commander of the iſland which had been lately diſcovered by the Engliſh, related the ſtory of the two unfortunate lovers, and every other circumſtance, which during his captivity, he had heard from Machin's companions.

Gonſalvo was ſo delighted with his relation, that he tacked about, and returned to the new town which prince Henry had built, called Terra Nabal. On his arrival, he introduced Morales to the prince, when the Spaniard again repeated all that he had before told to Juan Gonſalvo. The prince thought this worthy of becoming a national affair; and therefore, communicating the whole to the king his father, and the Portugueſe miniſtry, they determined to purſue the diſcovery; and for that purpoſe fitted out a good ſhip, well manned and provided, and a ſloop to go with oars, when occaſion required: and Juan Gonſalvo was appointed to the whole command.

Some Portugueſe, on the diſcovery of Puerto Santo, a ſhort time before, had been left by Gonſalvo on that iſland; and judging by the account of Morales, concerning the ſituation of the iſland they were in queſt of, that it could not be far from Puerto Santo, he determined to ſail thither. Where when he arrived, the Portugueſe whom he had left behind, informed him, that they had obſerved to the north-eaſt a thick impenetrable darkneſs, which conſtantly hung upon the ſea, and extended itſelf upward to the heavens. That they never knew it to de diminiſhed; but a ſtrange noiſe, which they could not account for, was often heard from thence.

John de Morales appeared to be convinced that this was the iſland they were in ſearch of; and Juan Gonſalvo was inclined to coincide with him; but all the reſt were terrified at the accounts they had heard. It was therefore concluded to remain at Puerto Santo till the change of the moon, to ſee what effect that would have upon the ſhade, or whether the noiſe would ceaſe. But perceiving no alteration of any kind, the panic increaſed among the generality of the adventurers. Morales, however, ſtood firm to his opinion of that being the iſland they were looking for; and very ſenſibly obſerved, that, according to the accounts he had received from the Engliſh, the ground was covered over with lofty ſhady trees; it was no wonder, therefore, that it ſhould be exceeding damp, and that the humid vapors might exhale from it by the power of the ſun, which, ſpreading themſelves to the ſky, occaſioned the dark clouds they ſaw; and with reſpect to the noiſe, that might be occaſioned by certain currents daſhing againſt the rocks on the coaſt of the iſland.

Notwithſtanding theſe obſtacles, Juan Gonſalvo determined to proceed; and, ſetting ſail the next day, he at length made land; and the fear of thoſe who had been all along terrified, now vaniſhed. The firſt point they ſaw, they named St. Lawrence's Point: doubling this, they found to the ſouthward, riſing land, whither Morales and others were ſent in a ſloop to reconnoitre the coaſt; and came to a bay which ſeemed to anſwer the deſcription given by the Engliſh. Here they landed; and finding the croſs and inſcription over the grave of the two lovers, they returned to Juan Gonſalvo, with an account of their ſucceſs; whereupon he immediately landed, and took poſſeſſion of the place, in the name of John I. king of Portugal, and prince Henry his ſon.

Having built an altar near the grave, they ſearched about the iſland, in order to diſcover if it contained any cattle; but not finding any, they coaſted weſtward till they came to a place where four fine rivers come into the ſea, of the waters of which Juan Gonſalvo filled ſome bottles, to carry as a preſent to prince Henry. Proceeding farther, they came to a fine valley, which was interſected by a beautiful river, and after that to a pleaſant ſpot covered with trees, ſome of which being fallen down, Juan Gonſalvo ordered a croſs to be erected of the timber, and called the place Santa Cruz, or Holy Croſs.

After this, they began to look out for a place proper to fix their reſidence in while they ſtayed: and at length found a fine tract of land, not ſo woody as the reſt of the country, but covered over with fennel, which, in the Portugueſe language, is called Funcho; from thence the town of Fonchal, or Funchiale, took its name, which was afterwards built on the ſame ſpot.

Juan Gonſalvo, after having viewed other parts of the iſland, and finding daily cauſe for new admiration of the beauties continually diſcovered, returned to Portugal, and arrived at Liſbon in the end of Auguſt 1420, without having loſt a ſingle man in the whole enterprize; and a day of audience being appointed for him to make his report of his voyage, the king gave the name of Madeira to the new diſcovered iſland, on account of the great quantity of excellent wood found upon it.

An order was ſoon after made for Juan Gonſalvo to return to Madeira in the enſuing ſpring, with the title of captain-governor of Madeira, to which title the heir of his family at preſent adds that of count. He accordingly ſet ſail on his ſecond voyage in May 1421, taking with him the greateſt part of his family, and arriving at Madeira he caſt anchor in the road, till then called the Engliſh Port; but Gonſalvo, in honour of the firſt diſcoverer, then called it Puerto de Machino, from which name it was corrupted to Machico, which it now bears.

He then ordered the large ſpreading beautiful tree before-mentioned (under which Machin and his companions had taken up their reſidence) to be cut down, and a ſmall church to be erected with the timber; which, agreeable to Machin's requeſt, he dedicated to Jeſus Chriſt, and interſected the pavement of the choir with the bones of the two unfortunate lovers. He ſoon after laid the foundation of the town of Funchal, which afterwards became famous; and the altar of the new wooden church was dedicated to St. Catherine, by his wife Conſtantia, who was with him.

John I. king of Portugal, dying, his eldeſt ſon and ſucceſſor Duarte, in conſideration of the great ſums of money expended in peopling this iſland, by prince Henry his brother, gave him the revenues of it for life. He likewiſe gave the ſpiritualities of it to the order of Chriſt, which endowment Alonzo XV. afterwards confirmed.

The iſland of Madeira, properly ſo called, is compoſed of one continued hill of a wonderful height, extending from eaſt to weſt; the declivity of which, on the ſouth-ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and, in the midſt of this ſlope, the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which help to render the proſpect very agreeable.

The air of Madeira is more moderate than that in the Canary Iſlands, and the ſoil more fertile in corn, wine, ſugar, and fruits. Fine ſprings abound almoſt in every part, beſides which there are eight good rivers. The great plenty of water firſt ſuggeſted the hint to prince Henry of ſending ſugar-canes to Madeira from Italy, which greatly improved through the increaſe of heat, and produced more than in their native ſoil.

This iſland affords plenty of citrons, bananas, peaches, apricots, plums, cherries, figs, and walnuts; with oranges of all ſorts, and lemons of a prodigious ſize. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive here in perfection; and the natives are ſaid to make the beſt ſweetmeats of any in the world, and particularly greatly excel in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which greatly excel thoſe of Genoa.

The ſugar made here is very fine, and has the ſmell of violets; this, indeed, is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt where this manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to America: but afterwards the ſugar-plantations at Brazil proſpering extremely, the greateſt part of the ſugar-canes in this iſland were pulled up, and vineyards planted in their ſtead, that produce excellent wines, which, the author of Lord Anſon's voyage obſerves, ſeems to be deſigned by Providence to exhilerate and comfort the inhabitants of the torrid zone.

The cedar-tree here is very ſtrait, tall, and thick, and has a rich ſcent. The wood of the naſſo-tree is of a red roſe colour; here are alſo the maſtic and gum-dragon trees; and beſides fruit-trees there are a variety of other trees, which are common both to Europe and Africa. The everlaſting-flower is a great curioſity; for when it is plucked it cannot be perceived to fade; it grows like ſage, flowers like camomile, and always appears freſh and blooming.

Vines are here found in abundance; and from the grapes which they produce a vaſt quantity of the moſt delicious wines are made. Indeed the ſoil is ſo well adapted for the cultivation of vines, that the grapes exceed the leaves in number, and ſome of the bunches are ſixteen or eighteen inches in length.

There are ſeveral ſorts of theſe wines; one is of the colour of champagne, but is not much valued; another ſort is a white wine, much ſtronger than the former. A third ſort is excellent, and reſembles malmſy, it being of the ſame nature with that which grows in Teneriff: and another reſembles Alicant wine, but is much inferior to it in taſte, and is never drank alone, but mixed with the other ſorts, to which it gives a colour and ſtrength to keep. It is obſervable of the Madeira wines, that they are greatly improved by the heat of the ſun, when expoſed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken out. In the whole iſland they annually make about twenty-eight thouſand pipes, eight thouſand of which are drank there, and the reſt exported, the greateſt part being ſent to the Weſt-Indies. The wines that are brought directly to England, are not equal in goodneſs to ſuch as are firſt carried to the Weſt Indies; and their flavour is exceedingly heightened, if they remain ſome time in Barbadoes.

The product of each vineyard is uſually divided equally between the proprietor, and the perſon who gathers and preſſes the grapes; it commonly happens, however, that while the merchant is rich, the gatherer is poor. The people here trade among themſelves, or barter.

The principal town in the whole iſland is Funchal, or Fonchiale, and is ſeated in the ſouth part of the iſland at the bottom of a large bay. Towards the ſea it is fortified by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, beſides a caſtle on the Loo, which is a rock ſtanding in the water at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. This town is the only place of trade, and indeed the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land: and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it. The only good time for landing is before the ſea-breeze comes on. The town is very populous, but the majority of the inhabitants are not natural-born Portugueſe; for a great number of Engliſh and French Roman catholics ſettled there, who live after the Portugueſe manner; ſome Engliſh proteſtants, and a prodigious number of negroes and mulattoes, both freemen and ſlaves. The ſtreets are ſtraight, and drawn by a line, and their houſes are pretty well built; their churches are well-built beautiful ſtructures, enriched with gilding, fine pictures, and plate, and people are ſaid to meet in them upon buſineſs that has little relation to devotion.

Thoſe women who have no domeſtic chapels, never go to church but on Sundays and holidays; when, if there be ſeveral daughters, they walk two and two before the mother, each having a large thin vail over her face; but their breaſts and ſhoulders are quite bare. By their ſide walks a venerable old man, with a ſtring of beads in his hand, and armed with a ſword and dagger.

This town is the ſee of a biſhop, who has the whole iſland under his ſpiritual juriſdiction, and is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Liſbon. The governor of the iſland alſo reſides here.

Here are two other towns; one called Manchico, which has a church named Santa Cruz, or the Holy Croſs, and a convent of Bernardine friars: the other town is named Moncerito. In ſhort, the iſland lately contained thirty-ſix pariſhes, a college, and a monaſtery of jeſuits, five other monaſteries, eighty-two hermitages, and five hoſpitals. There are ſeveral fine ſeats and caſtles about the country, in which the merchants chiefly reſide.

The ordinary food of the poorer people, in the time of vintage, is little elſe than bread and rich grapes; and were it not for their abſtemiouſneſs, fevers in the hot ſeaſons would be frequent; therefore even the rich, in the hot months, are very moderate in their diet and drinking.

The generality of people in Madeira affect great gravity in their deportment, and uſually dreſs in black; but they cannot diſpenſe with the ſpado and dagger, which even ſervants wear; ſo that you may ſee a footman waiting at table with a ſword at leaſt a yard long, and a great baſket hilt to it. The houſes are generally plain, as the inhabitants put themſelves to no great expence in furniſhing them. The windows are ſecured by wooden ſhutters at night, and inſtead of being glazed, are latticed.

With reſpect to their marriages here, affection is never conſidered, the principal enquiries are into family deſcent and circumſtances; the women are prohibited from marrying Engliſhmen, unleſs the latter conſent to embrace the Roman catholic religion.

In this iſland murders are very frequent, on account of the great number of places deemed ſanctuaries, and the eaſe with which a murderer can thereby ſcreen himſelf from juſtice. But if the criminal is taken before he can reach the ſanctuary, the puniſhment is only either baniſhment or impriſonment, both which, by a pecuniary compoſition, may be evaded.

Here

Here are great numbers of clergy, who are generally rich; but none who are deſcended from Moors or Jews are admitted to take orders. The churches are made repoſitories for the dead, and the corpſe is curiouſly dreſſed and adorned; yet in the interment, ſtore of lime is uſed, in order to conſume the body as ſpeedily as poſſible, which uſually happens in a fortnight; ſo that there is then room for another corpſe. The bodies of proteſtants are not allowed to be buried, but muſt be thrown into the ſea; nevertheleſs they are permitted to be interred in conſecrated ground, provided a handſome ſum of money is paid to the clergy.

Porto Santo is generally termed one of the Madeira iſlands, and lies to the north-eaſt of Madeira, in the thirty-ſecond degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixteenth degree five minutes weſt longitude from London, and is only about fifteen miles in circumference. It was diſcovered in the year 1412, by two Portugueſe gentlemen, one of whom was Don Juan Gonſalvo, ſent by Prince Henry, ſon to John I. king of Portugal, to double Cape Bajador, in order to make farther diſcoveries; but being ſurpriſed by a violent ſtorm, were driven out to ſea, and, when they gave themſelves over for loſt, had the happineſs to find this iſland, which proving a ſafe aſylum to them, they called it Porto Santo, or the Holy Port.

This iſland produces wheat and other corn, juſt ſufficient for the ſupport of the inhabitants; here alſo are plenty of oxen, wild hogs, and a vaſt number of rabbits. There are trees which produce the gum called dragon's blood, and likewiſe a little honey and wax, which are extremely good. It has properly no harbour, but there is good mooring in the road, which affords a convenient retreat for ſhips going to Africa, or coming from the Indies; ſo that merchantmen often ſtop there, which affords conſiderable profit to the inhabitants, who are deſcended from the Portugueſe, to whom the iſland is ſubject.

The inhabitants of this iſland are all Roman catholics, being under the ſpiritual juriſdiction of the biſhop of Funchal in Madeira: They would live a very quiet life, were it not for the pirates, who often pay them troubleſome viſits. In the year 1617, they landed here, and carried off ſix hundred and ſixty-three priſoners, beſides plundering the place.

There is a little iſland called the Deſart, which produces only orchilla-weed, and ſome goats are on it: it lies on the eaſt ſide of Madeira, at about ſix leagues diſtance.

SECT. XVII.

Treating of the Iſlands of St. THOME, PRINCES ISLAND, FERNANDO PO, ANNABON, St. MATTHEW, and ASCENSION; by whom diſcovered; their Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants; their Manners, Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Religion, &c.

THE iſland of St. Thome, or St. Thomas, is directly under the equinoctial line, and about two hundred and forty miles north-weſt from the city of Loango. The air here is ſo exceſſively hot that Europeans ſoon die, though the blacks will live to near an hundred years of age. Being ſituated under the equator, the days and nights are conſequently of an equal length. The only rainy months are March and September, when the ſun paſſes vertically over the iſland; but at other times they have nocturnal dews, which refreſh and fertilize the ſoil. It produces leſs ſugar than it formerly did, but is extremely fruitful in wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parſnips, cabbages, French turnips, lettuces, radiſhes, ſage, beet, parſley, &c. Olive, peach, and almond-trees thrive well in timber, but exceſſive heat and moiſture prevent their bearing fruit. Partridges, quails, ouzels, parrots, &c. abound here; ſo does the ſea with excellent fiſh, and large whales. A mountain, in the center of the iſland, hath its top covered with a cloud, which moiſtens the trees, and greatly nouriſhes them. The higher the ſun aſcends above the horizon, the more moiſture the cloud affords. The Portugueſe built a town, called Pavoaſan, with a harbour towards the continent. This town is exceeding pleaſant, and the inhabitants barter ſugar for cloths, leather, wine, and cheeſe.

Nearly under the equinoctial line is Prince's Iſland, in latitude one degree thirty minutes. It is woody and mountainous, abounding in fruit, rice, Indian corn, ſugar, herbs, roots, &c. It contains alſo cattle, hogs, and goats, but the vaſt number of aſſes are both troubleſome and dangerous, for they will attack and tear in pieces a man, if they find him ſingle and unarmed, and will wantonly deſtroy many of the fruits of the earth.

The iſland of Fernando Po is ſituated about thirty miles to the weſtward of the continent, in four degrees north latitude. It is near thirty miles long, and twenty broad, and belongs to the Portugueſe government. The produce and inhabitants reſemble in all reſpects thoſe of Prince's Iſland.

Annabon was diſcovered by the Portugueſe on New Year's Day, and was on that account named Annabon, which ſignifies the good or the new year. It lies to the eaſt of St. Matthew, in two degrees ſouth latitude, and five degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, being near two hundred miles from the coaſt of Loango, and is near thirty miles in compaſs. Theſe are two high mountains, which being continually covered with clouds, occaſion frequent rains. In the ſeveral fertile vallies of it are produced plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts; beſides which the iſland abounds with lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Turkiſh corn, and millet. Here are alſo oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pigeons, and plenty of fiſh. The iſland alſo produces great quantities of cotton. The governor is a Portugueſe, who has very few white people with him; all the other inhabitants are blacks, who are nevertheleſs very ſubmiſſive to the governor, and zealouſly attached to the Roman catholic religion.

On the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland there are two rocks, one of which is very low, and almoſt even with the ſurface of the ſea; the other is much higher, and very large. On theſe rocks are a multitude of birds, ſo tame that they ſuffer themſelves to be taken with the hand. The water is very deep between theſe two rocks, ſo that ſhips may eaſily paſs between them. There is a very good watering-place on the ſame ſide of the iſland, the water running down from the mountain into a valley full of orange and other fruit trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, becauſe of the violent breakings of the ſea; and the negroes have raiſed an intrenchment of ſtone there from which they can very much incommode thoſe who go thither for water.

The road for ſhipping is on the north eaſt ſide of the iſland, where one may anchor in ſeven, ten, thirteen, or ſixteen fathoms water, on a ſandy ground, cloſe to the land, over-againſt the village where the above-mentioned intrenchment is. When the inhabitants cannot prevent a deſcent, they leave their houſes, which are only of timber and ſand, and retire into the mountains. They are very well armed.

The inhabitants are poorly cloathed; the women go bareheaded, and have alſo the upper part of their body naked, wearing only a piece of linen wrapped round them, which reaches from the pit of the ſtomach to juſt below the knee. In the mountains are ſome civet-cats, which nevertheleſs afford but little profit. The revenue of the iſland conſiſts chiefly of cotton.

The iſland of St. Matthew lies to the north of St. Helena, under the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude. It was ſo called by the Portugueſe, becauſe they diſcovered it on that ſaint's day. It is a deſart, though there is a fine rivulet of freſh water running through it. Garcias de Loaiſa, a gentleman of Biſcay in Spain, who commanded the fleet which the emperor Charles V. cauſed to be fitted out at the Groyne, for the purpoſe of conquering the Molucca iſlands, having landed at the iſland of St. Matthew, found it uncultivated, but full of large orange-trees. He found alſo ſome poultry there, and on the barks of trees there were inſcriptions in the Portugueſe tongue, which proved that ſome of that nation had been there before; they are ſaid to have continued on that iſland ſeveral years.

Aſcenſion Iſland is ſituated almoſt exactly between Africa and America, being nearly at an equal diſtance from Loango in Africa, and Fernanbue in Braſil, lying in the ſame parallel, in ſeven degrees ſouth latitude, and thirteen degrees ten minutes weſt longitude from London. This iſland was diſcovered in the year 1508, by Tuſtan de Avigna, on his return from the Eaſt Indies, who called it Aſcenſion, becauſe he firſt perceived it on Aſcenſion-day. It is about twelve miles long, not above three broad, and nearly twenty-five miles in circumference.

The whole iſland is quite mountainous, and almoſt barren; yet it is generally uſed by our homeward-bound Eaſt India ſhips as a place of refreſhment. Great quantities of aſhes and cinders are found upon the ſoil, which induces ſome to imagine, that a volcano muſt have formerly been here. The harbour, however, is exceeding-

ly convenient, and ſome few places are fit for tillage.

When the ſhips touch here, their crews ſometimes live upon turtle for a fortnight, and deem it not only pleaſant but wholſome food. The goats that run here wild are very lean, and indifferent eating; and though there are various kinds of birds, yet none of the ſailors can uſe them for food, on account of their diſagreeable taſte.

There is a place on this iſland, which ſeamen term the Poſt-office, and where they leave letters. The method they take is, to put them into bottles, which they cloſely cork, when the people in the next ſhip that comes take out the letters, and leave others in their ſtead.

Though neither the Portugueſe, or any other nation, have thought proper to take, plant, or cultivate this iſland, it is notwithſtanding very convenient for Eaſt India ſhips to call at, when they happen to go beyond, or miſs of St. Helena. Juſt before the ſhips leave this place, the ſailors after having themſelves feaſted ſufficiently upon turtle, take a large parcel of thoſe amphibious animals on board, in order to gratify the luxurious palates of the Engliſh epicures.

The ſailors uſually diſtinguiſh turtles into four kinds; namely, the trunk turtle, the loggerhead, the hawk's bill, and the green turtle. The trunk turtle is generally larger than the reſt, and its back is higher and round; but the fleſh is ſomewhat rank. The loggerhead has obtained his name from the ſize of his head, which is much larger in proportion than that of the other kinds; but the fleſh, like that of the former, being very rank, is very ſeldom eaten. The hawk's-bill turtle has a long and ſmall mouth, reſembling the bill of a hawk. The fleſh is but indifferent, but the ſhell ſerves for many valuable purpoſes, ſuch as making ſnuff-boxes, various trinkets, &c. The green turtle is the moſt celebrated and moſt valuable of the turtle kind. The delicacy of its fleſh, and its nutritive qualities, have rendered it highly eſteemed. It forms a principal diſh in the banquet of the epicures, and at the ſame time refreſhes and feaſts the ſailor.

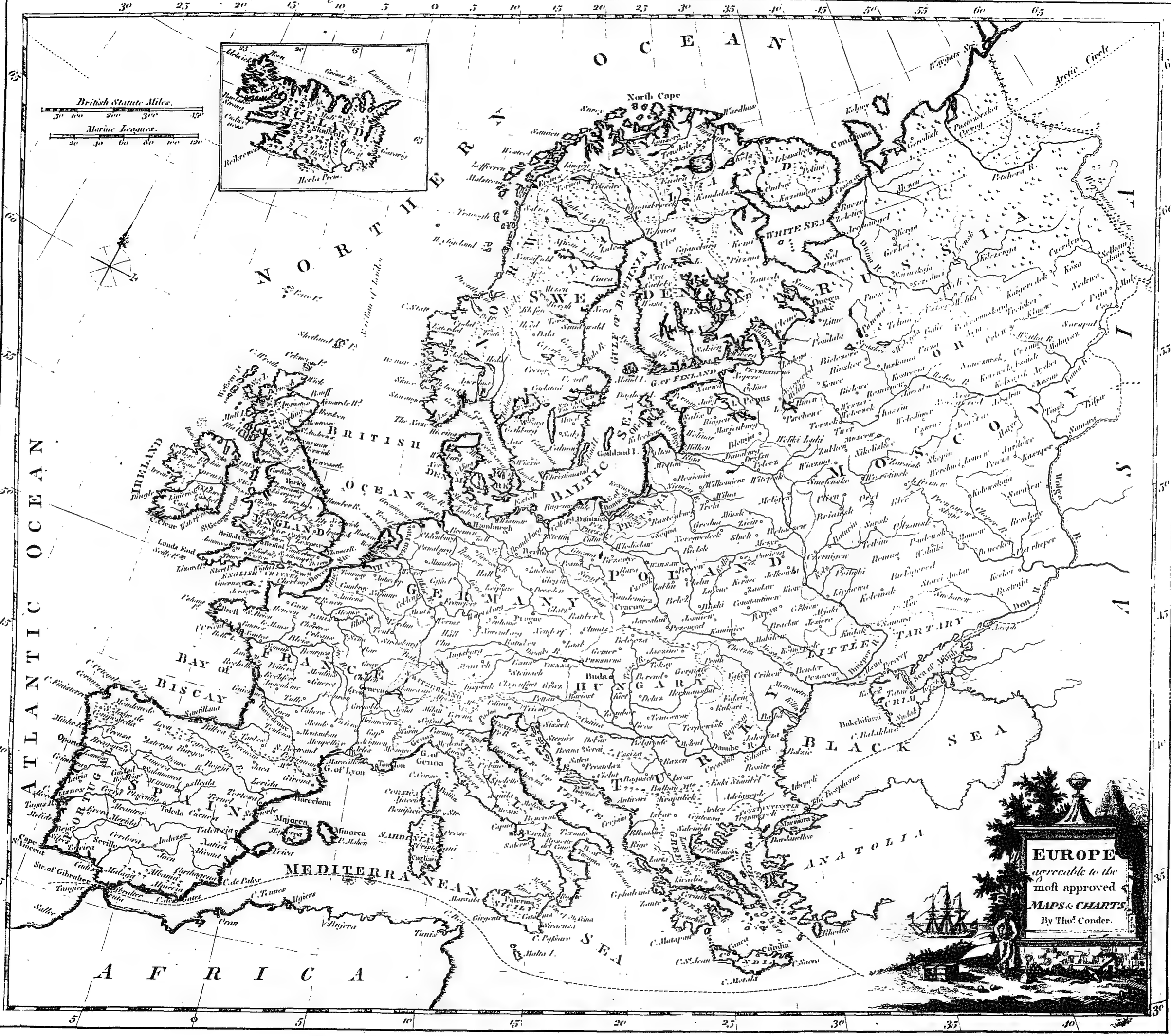
Conveniencies are made in ſhips for bringing theſe over alive, which cannot, however, be always effected: for though they ſcarcely require any proviſions in the voyage, yet the waſhing of the ſhip occaſions them to be beat againſt the ſides of the boat that contains them, by which they become battered and lean; ſo that in order to eat this animal in perfection, the epicure ought to be tranſported to the turtle, inſtead of bringing the turtle to him. The colour of the ſhell of the latter ſort is rather greener than that of the others, from which circumſtance it derives its name. Some of them are ſaid to exceed five hundred pounds weight, but thoſe of about two hundred are the moſt common.

This animal ſeldom leaves the ſea, except to depoſit its eggs, or to ſport in freſh water. In about twenty-five days after laying, the eggs are hatched by the heat of the ſun, and the young turtles, about the ſize of quails, are ſeen burſting from the ſand, as if earth-born, and running directly to the ſea, with inſtinct only for their guide. But it ſometimes happens, that the ſurges of the ſea beat them back upon the ſhore, when they become a prey to the multitude of birds that haunt the coaſt at that time.

When the ſailors are diſpoſed to catch turtles upon this iſland, they go aſhore in the night, where they find great numbers on the ſtrand, which, from their natural ſlowneſs, cannot get away before they turn them upon their backs, and leave them till morning, when they can take them at pleaſure; for a turtle cannot again get upon its feet without aſſiſtance, when once it is turned on its back, being prevented by the ſhell.

THE

Supplement to MILLARS new improved & universal SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY.



THE NEW AND UNIVERSAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY;

BEING A COMPLETE

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE WHOLE WORLD.

BOOK III.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

EUROPE.

OF EUROPE IN GENERAL.

THE etymology of the name of Europe has been variouſly given, by different authors; ſome of whoſe conjectures concerning it have been ſo romantic, that it would tend rather to perplex than inform the reader to mention them. However it was antiently known to the Romans, as it is at preſent to the Italians and Spaniards, by the name of Europa; Europe by the Engliſh and French; the Turks call it Rumeli, or Afrank; the Georgians, Frankoba; and the reſt of Aſia, Frankiſtan.

On the north, Europe is bounded by the Frozen Ocean; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea; which divides it from Africa; on the eaſt, by Aſia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black Sea, and the Palus Mœotis; and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almoſt to the river Oby, in Muſcovy; and it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, on the weſt.

As a continent, Europe contains in breadth, from the North Cape to Cape Matapan, in the Morea, about two thouſand two hundred miles; and in length, from the north of the river Oby, in the eaſt, to Cape St. Vincent, it is near three thouſand ſix hundred miles. It lies between nine degrees, thirty-five minutes weſt, and ſeventy-two degrees, twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and between thirty-five and ſeventy-two degrees of north latitude, though it does not fill up all that ſpace.

This diviſion is the ſmalleſt of the four parts of the world, but is much to be preferred to the other three for the mildneſs of the air, the fertility of the ſoil throughout, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requiſite not only for the ſuſtenance but even for the luxury of human life; but eſpecially for the beauty, ſtrength, courage, ingenuity, wiſdom, and learning of its inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their ſubjects; and above all, for the ſanctity of their religion, where it is profeſſed in its purity.

The European languages are all derived from the ſix original ones; namely, the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or Old German, Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic; different dialects whereof with accidental additions, being the languages of all the conſiderable parts of Europe; Turky and Tartary excepted.

Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, yet their adminiſtrations are far leſs arbitrary, and their ſovereigns much leſs abſolute than thoſe of Aſia and Africa. Excluſive of thoſe monarchies, in which one man only bears ſway; here are ariſtocracies, or governments of the nobles, ſuch as Venice, &c. and democracies, or governments of the people, of which kind are Holland, Switzerland, and ſome of the Italian ſtates.

There are in Europe, three empires, namely, Germany, Ruſſia, and Turky; one ſpiritual or eccleſiaſtical ſovereignty, called the Popedom; eleven kingdoms, namely, Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Poland, Pruſſia, Denmark, Sweden, Sardinia, Hungary, and the two Sicilies: one archdukedom, which is Auſtria; one great dukedom, Tuſcany; four great republics, namely, Venice, the United Provinces, Swiſs Cantons, and Genoa; four inferior republics, which are Geneva, Lucca, San Marino, Raguſa; and one Cham, viz. European Tartary. Excluſive of theſe, are the electorates of Germany, and about three hundred ſmaller ſovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. the ſovereigns of which are either ſpiritual, as archbiſhops, &c. or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, margraves, hoſpodars, and ſome others.

Europe contains, beſides the circumſcribing oceans and ſeas, one ocean, called the German Ocean, between Germany and England. Five ſeas; namely, the Mediterranean, between Aſia and Europe; Adriatic, between Italy and Turky; Black, between Europe and Aſia; White, between Ruſſia, Sweden, Lapland, &c. and the Baltic, between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland. Two channels; Engliſh, between England and France; St. George's, between England and Ireland. One bay; the Bay of Biſcay, between France and Spain. And three gulfs, viz. Bothnian, between Norway and Finland; Finland, between Sweden and Ruſſia; and the Venetian, between Turky and Italy.

The following are ſome of the principal rivers in Europe; namely, the Danube and the Rhine, in Germany; Volgo and Dwina in the Ruſſian empire; the Loire and Seine in France; the Thames and Severn in England, &c. The chief lakes are Conſtance, in Germany; Geneva and Guarda in Italy; Wenner, in Sweden; Ladoga and Onega in Ruſſia; Lochaber, in Scotland; and Neagh in Ireland. The principal mountains are, the Pyrenean between France and Spain; the Alps between France and Italy; the Doſrin hills in Sweden; the Grapach hills in Hungary; ſome hills in the Highlands of Scotland; and ſeveral in Wales, particularly Snowdon, &c.

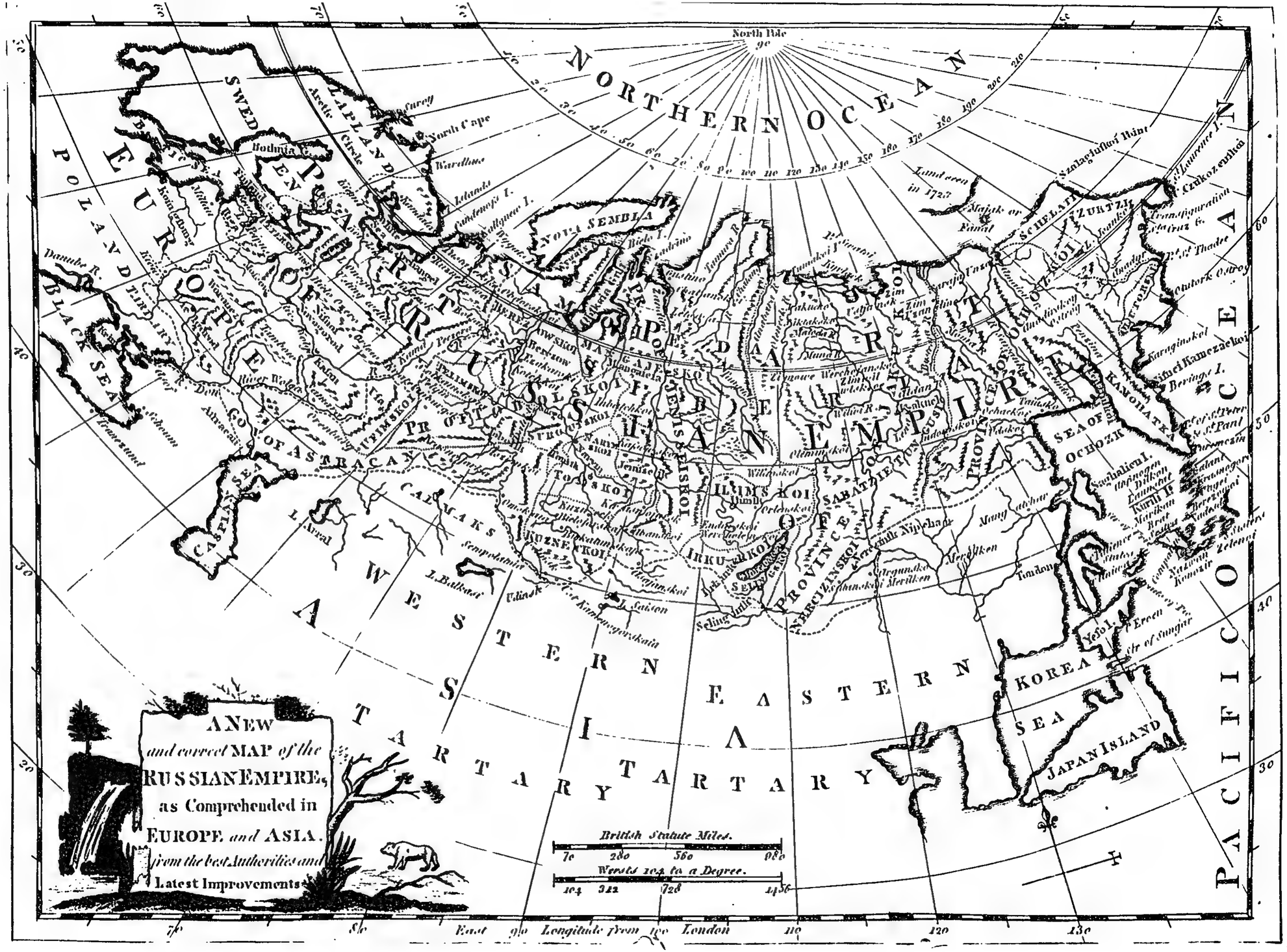
That our readers may form at once a more clear and diſtinct idea of the continent, iſlands, and other remarkable parts of this quarter of the globe, we have here annexed a general Inſpection Table for Europe, comprehending the different nations thereof with their length, breadth, chief cities, diſtance and bearings from London, religions, &c.

A NEW, COMPLETE, AND GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dist. & Bear. from Lond.		Religions
Included under the General Names of	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburg	1140	N E.	Greek Church
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540	N.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750	N. E.	Lutherans
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760	E.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500	N. E.	Lutherans
	Greenland, Lapland, Groenland	Uncertain					
	King of Pruſſia's Dominions	Uncertain		Berlin	540	E.	Lutherans & Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600	E.	Papiſt. Luth. & Cal.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600	E.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200	S. E.	Papiſts
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800	S.	Papiſts
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850	S. W.	Papiſts
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180	S. E.	Papiſts
	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180	E.	Calviniſts
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420	S. E.	Calviniſts & Papiſts
	Italy: Naples	280	120	Naples	870	S. E.	Papiſts
	Italy: Popedom	240	120	Rome	820	S. E.	Papiſts
	Italy: Piedmont	140	98	Turin			Papiſts
	Italy: Milan	155	70	Milan			Papiſts
	Italy: Montferrat	40	22	Caſal			Papiſts
	Italy: Modena	65	39	Modena			Papiſts
	Italy: Parma	48	37	Parma			Papiſts
	Italy: Mantua	47	27	Mantua			Papiſts
	Italy: Genoa	160	25	Genoa			Papiſts
	Italy: Venice	175	95	Venice			Papiſts
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780	S. E.	Papiſts
	Tuſcany	115	94	Florence			Papiſts
	Turky in Europe: Greece	400	240	Athens	1360	S. E.	Mahometans and Greek Church
	Turky in Europe: Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320	S. E.	Mahometans and Greek Church
	Turky in Europe: Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500	E.	Mahometans and Greek Church

A NEW AND COMPLETE TABLE OF THE ISLANDS OF EUROPE.

Names.	Situation.	Chief City or Town.	To whom ſubject.
Great Britain		London and Edinburgh	Great Britain
Ireland		Dublin	Great Britain
Angleſea		Beaumaris	Great Britain
Wight		Newport	Great Britain
Scilly	Atlantic Ocean		Great Britain
Man		Douglas	Great Britain
The Hebrides, or Weſtern Iſles		Durart	Great Britain
Shetland		Larwick	Great Britain
Orcades		Pomona	Great Britain
Sicily		Palermo	King of the Two Sicilies
Malta		Valetta	Knights of St. John of Jeruſ.
Sardinia		Cagliari	King of Sardinia
Corſica	Mediterranean Sea	Baſtia	France
Majorca		Majorca	Spain
Minorca		Port Mahon	France
Ivica		Ivica	Spain
European Iſlands of the Archipelago and Levant			Turky
Luſiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia	Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice		Venice
Uſedom, Wollin			Pruſſia
Oſel, Dagho			Ruſſia
Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Rugen			
Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Falſter	Baltic Sea		
Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm			Denmark.
Iceland	Northern ocean	Skalholt	Denmark


A NEW
and correct MAP of the
RUSSIAN EMPIRE,
as Comprehended in
EUROPE and ASIA.
from the best Authorities and
Latest Improvements
NORTHERN OCEAN
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
ASIATIC RUSSIA
SIBERIA
TARTARY
WESTERN TARTARY
EASTERN TARTARY
POLAND
SWEDEN
LAPLAND
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
SEA OF ASTRACAN
SEA OF OCHOZK
KOREA
JAPAN ISLAND
PACIFIC OCEAN
NOVA SEMBLA
British Statute Miles.
70 280 560 980
Worsts 104 to a Degree.
104 312 728 1456
East 90 Longitude from 100 London 110 120 130

CHAP. I.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

GREAT RUSSIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Account of the RUSSIAN Empire, its vaſt Extent, Soil, Climates, Situation, Rivers, Lakes, Springs, Minerals, and Animals; alſo of the Inhabitants, their Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Houſes, Diet, &c.

RUSSIA is deemed the moſt extenſive empire in the univerſe, and larger than all the other dominions of Europe taken collectively. It is bounded, towards the north and eaſt, by the main ocean, and towards the weſt its limits are ſettled by treaties concluded with ſeveral far diſtant powers; with Sweden, the Poles, Turks, Perſians, and Chineſe, by whoſe dominion this immenſe country is bounded. It is a greater extent (Voltaire juſtly obſerves) than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander; for it contains more than eleven hundred thouſand ſquare leagues. Neither the Roman empire, nor that of the Macedonian conqueror, compriſed more than five hundred and ſixty thouſand each; and there is not a kingdom in Europe the twentieth part ſo extenſive as the Ruſſian empire. In length, from the iſle of Dago, as far as its utmoſt limits, it contains very near a hundred and ſeventy degrees; ſo that when it is noon-day in the weſt, it is very near midnight in the eaſtern part of this empire. From north to ſouth, it ſtretches three thouſand werts, which makes eight hundred leagues, in breadth.

This country received the name of Muſcovy from the river Moſco, which gave name likewiſe to the city of Moſcow, once the metropolis of the whole empire. It hath likewiſe been called White Ruſſia, on account of the ſnow with which it is covered the greateſt part of the year; but at preſent it is uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of Great Ruſſia.

Geographers uſually divide this extenſive empire into ſix grand diſtricts; namely, Livonia and Ingria; Muſcovy, Proper, or Weſtern Ruſſia; Eaſtern Muſcovy, or Ruſſia; Muſcovite Tartary; Ruſſian Lapland, and Nova Zembla; and the countries diſmembered from Poland. Theſe are again ſubdivided into a great number of provinces, which include ſeveral kingdoms, duchies, &c. which have been ſubdued at different periods, and annexed to the Ruſſian dominions.

It ſeems needleſs to remark, that as this empire conſiſts of a great number of provinces, many of which are very extenſive, the ſoil and temperature of the air muſt of conſequence be extremely various in different parts of it. In thoſe which lie beyond the ſixtieth degree of latitude, there are few places where corn will grow to maturity; and in the northern parts of the empire, which reach beyond the ſeventieth degree, no garden-fruits are produced, except in the country about Archangel, where many buſhes and ſhrubs grow ſpontaneouſly, and yield ſeveral ſorts of berries: horned cattle are alſo bred, and there are plenty of wild beaſts and fowls; and in the neighbourhood of that city are ſeveral ſorts of fiſh.

Moſt kinds of trees and garden-fruits, corn, honey, &c. are produced in the middle provinces of the empire. Horned cattle are likewiſe very numerous here; the rivers are navigable, and full of the beſt ſorts of fiſh; and the woods abound with game.

The climate is hot in the ſouthern provinces; and though there are many barren waſtes in ſome parts, yet in others the land is covered with verdure and flowers. Tobacco, wine, and ſilk might be there produced, as the two firſt are at Aſtracan and the Ukraine; they have game in proportion to the extent and number of the woods; and the country is well-watered with rivers, which afford plenty of fiſh.

In the northern parts of the empire, and alſo in the middle, the cold is very ſevere, and the days extremely ſhort in winter, but the ſummers are warm and delightful, and the twilight is very luminous even in the ſhorteſt nights. At the winter-ſolſtice, when the day is at the ſhorteſt, the ſun riſes at Archangel at twenty-four minutes after ten in the morning, and ſets at thirty-ſix after one. At Peterſburgh the ſun riſes at fifteen minutes after nine, and ſets at forty-five minutes after two; but at Aſtracan the ſun riſes at forty-eight minutes after ſeven, and ſets at twelve minutes after four. At the ſummer-ſolſtice, when the day is at the greateſt length, this order is reverſed, and the ſun riſes at Aſtracan at twelve minutes after four, and ſets about forty minutes after ſeven; and it riſes at thirty-ſix minutes after one, and ſets at twenty-four minutes after ten, at Archangel.

Eaſtern countries are in general much colder in winter, and hotter in ſummer, than the weſtern that lie in the ſame latitude; and this is particularly true with reſpect to Ruſſia, for the river Neva, at Peterſburgh, is in ſome years covered with ice ſo early as the 24th of October; and in other years, about the 22nd of November, at the lateſt; but it generally thaws about the 26th of April, old ſtyle, and is never known to exceed that time.

With reſpect to the ſeaſons at Peterſburgh, Mr. Hanway has obſerved, that February generally brings with it a bright ſun and clear ſky; every object ſeems to glitter with gems, and the nerves become braced with the cold. There is then no ſmall amuſement in riding in ſledges upon the ſnow, to thoſe, who from the length of the winter, have loſt ſight of the ſuperior pleaſure which nature yields when cloathed in her ſummer apparel.

The month of March is frequently attended with ſhowers, which, with the heat of the ſun, penetrate the ice: this is generally three quarters of an inch thick on the Neva, and much thicker in ſome great rivers to the north-eaſt. This renders it like a honey-comb; and it uſually breaks up about the end of that month.

April is frequently very warm; ſummer ſeems to precede the ſpring; for it is ſometimes the firſt of June before any conſiderable verdure appears, and then the intenſe heat brings it on ſo faſt, that the eye can diſcover its progreſs from day to day. It ſeems to be one continued day till the middle of July, the ſun not entirely diſappearing above two hours in the twenty-four; but the extreme heat of the weather conſiderably leſſens the delight which this ſeaſon naturally affords: however, a week ſeldom paſſes without the air being refreſhed by ſoutherly and weſterly winds, which often bring gentle ſhowers. The above gentleman, who reſided about five years in this city, once experienced a delighful autumn to the end of September; but this rarely happens. Auguſt cloſes the ſcene, ſo that the ſummer hardly continues above three months.

The month of September generally brings rain and froſt; the ſeverity of both is increaſed in October, and the Neva is always frozen in November. Then comes in the ſeaſon for the eaſy and ſpeedy conveyance on the ſnow, which brings freſh proviſions to market a thouſand Engliſh miles by land, and the inhabitants of Peterſburgh often eat the beef of Archangel.

In December and January the cold is ſo very intenſe, that the poor, who are overtaken by liquor, or expoſed to the air in open places, are frozen to death. But the birch

and alders with which the Ruſſians are ſupplied, and the commodiouſneſs of the ſtoves, enable them to introduce into their houſes any degree of heat.

Not one tenth of the Ruſſian empire is ſufficiently peopled, nor a tenth part of it properly cultivated: for, notwithſtanding its prodigious extent, the number of inhabitants who pay the poll-tax is computed only at five millions one hundred thouſand; and the reſt, including the females, amount to about ten millions excluſive of the inhabitants of the provinces added to the empire by conqueſt.

With reſpect to the boundaries of the weſtern part of the Ruſſian empire, towards the eaſt, they are the ſame with the limits between Europe and Aſia; extending on the eaſt, to the Wercoturian mountains, and to the part of the Wolga, which ſeparate it from Siberia; on the ſouth it is bounded by the river Don, and a line drawn from the Nieper to the mouth of the Don, at its entrance into the ſea of Aſoph; on the weſt, by the Nieper, which ſeparates it from Poland, the gulf of Riga, the gulf of Finland, Sweden, and Swediſh Lapland; and by the Frozen ocean, on the north. It is one thouſand five hundred miles in length, and a hundred and ten in breadth; and extends from the twenty-third degree to the ſixty-fifth degree of eaſt longitude, and from the forty-ſeventh to the ſeventy-ſecond degree of north latitude.

The following are the principal rivers of Ruſſia: 1. Volga, Wolga, or Rha; 2. Don, or Tanais; 3. Dwina, formed by the conflux of the Succhana and the Juga; 4. Occa; 5. Kama; 6. Oby; 7. Jeneſaida.

1. The river Wolga is the moſt conſiderable in all Ruſſia, and one of the largeſt in the world, as it traverſes the far greater part of Ruſſia; and, after a long winding courſe of upwards of two thouſand Engliſh miles, falls into the Caſpian ſea. It hath its ſource at the lake of Uronow, at a ſmall diſtance from the city of Rzeva Ulodimerſki, near the frontiers of Lithuania, about fifty-ſix degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude, and begins to be navigable, and to carry veſſels of a conſiderable burden, ſix miles below its ſpring. In its courſe, which is moſtly from eaſt to weſt, it receives near forty rivers, ſome of them very large, waters the walls of near double that number of towns, fertilizes all the lands on each ſide, and ſupplies them with prodigious quantities of fiſh, particularly ſturgeon, ſalmon, pike, &c. of a large ſize and exquiſite taſte. There grow likewiſe along its banks the fineſt truffles, and a kind of large aſparagus, of a ſpontaneous growth, and delicious taſte and flavour; and we are told, that along its banks are to be found the only oaks that Muſcovy produces. But it unfortunately happens that a great part of that fruitful tract of land along this noble river is ſo expoſed to the incurſions of the Cuban Tartars, that it lies altogether uncultivated, and is almoſt without inhabitants. To remedy this, the late Czar Peter I. cauſed an intrenchment to be made from that river a little on the ſide the city of Zantza, quite to the river Don, near the city of Twia; by which means he has ſecured all that part of the country which lies within the trench; but the reſt, which reaches above eighty leagues in length and breadth, is ſtill expoſed to thoſe freebooters, and lies neglected. The Wolga, towards the latter end of its courſe, takes a winding current towards the ſouth, and falls into the Caſpian ſea, about thirty-ſix miles below Aſtracan, in latitude forty-five degrees, forty minutes, longitude fifty degrees thirty minutes eaſt. Towards the end of the ſpring this river is ſo ſwelled by the melting of the ice and ſnow, as to cauſe great inundations, particularly in the months of May and June. The maſters of the veſſels which ſail down the Wolga to Aſtracan, carefully obſerve the ſeaſon, as at this time they have not only an opportunity of a ſafe paſſage over the ſhallows, but alſo over ſeveral flat iſlands which then lie a conſiderable depth under water. Trees are often torn away by the roots from the banks of this river by the violence of the current; and the anchors of the veſſels are frequently ſo entangled amongſt them, that there is a neceſſity of cutting the cables, ſo that many anchors are ſuppoſed to lie at the bottom. The Wolga abounds with a fine fiſh called beluga, which is about eight or ten feet in length.

2. The river Don, which is the Tanais of the ancients, is called Tuna or Dunna by the Tartars, and divides this country, in its moſt eaſtern parts, from Aſia. It has its ſource in the province of Rezan, on the north eaſt of the lake Iwano-Oſſero, or St. John's Lake; and, in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga abovementioned, that in one place the diſtance between them is about a hundred and forty werts, or about eight Engliſh miles. The late Czar had undertaken to cut a communication between them, by a canal; but this deſign, grand and uſeful as it would have proved, he was forced to lay aſide; the Nagayan Tartars, who at that time were poſſeſſed of the kingdom of Aſtracan, having with an army driven the workmen from it. From thence the Don, turning its courſe towards the ſouth-weſt, and having received ſeveral rivers, reſumes a great number of cities, and forms many beautiful iſlands, eſpecially below Teharcuſhy, which is built upon one of them, but at length dividing into three channels, it falls into the Palus Mœotis, at the famed fortreſs of Acoph. The whole length of its courſe is very conſiderable, on account of the many turnings and windings; on meaſuring it in a direct line, it is no more than four hundred Engliſh miles. The waters of the Don are thick and chalky, conſequently not very wholeſome to drink. This river is very ſhallow in ſummer, when it is full of ſand-banks; it affords, however, plenty of large and ſmall fiſh.

2. The river Dwina (Dowina) hath no ſpring head of its own, but is formed, as was lately obſerved, from thoſe called Suchana, and Juga, or Jugh: theſe join their ſtreams at the city of Ouſtiough, capital of the province of that name; its name ſignifies double, as it is compoſed of thoſe two rivers, and its courſe bends northwards; in which it receives the Vitſogda, and ſeveral other rivers, and, having paſſed through Archangel, empties itſelf at two mouths, parted by a ſmall iſland, into the White ſea.

3. The river Occa hath its ſpring in a large plain in Ukrania, and runs its courſe towards the north, croſſes the fens of Vorochel, and after having received a good number of other rivers, falls into the Wolga, in the lower principality of the Novogorod. On each ſide of the ſprings of the Occa, and, at a ſmall diſtance from it, ariſe thoſe of the Sem, on the weſt, which, falling into the Deſna, is carried with it into the Boryſthenes; which laſt hurries them into the Black ſea; and, on the ſouth, that of Sneſna: which, after a ſhort courſe, falls into the Don.

4. The river Kama ſprings from the fens that lie on the ſouth of the foreſt of Zirania, in the country of the Xeremiſſes, thence winding northwards along the ſide of that foreſt, and watering the city of Kaigorod, it winds again ſouth-eaſtwards and weſtwards, and falls at laſt into the Wolga in the kingdom of Caſan. It is wide and rapid, and of a blackiſh hue, but very ſweet to the taſte.

5. The river Oby, or Vmar, ſprings out of the lake Kilhai, or Kariſan, in the kingdom of Altin, in Great Tartary, and thence paſſes into the Muſcovite Tartary, forming ſeveral lakes and iſlands in its courſe; and, receiving many other rivers, empties itſelf at laſt into the northern ſea at Samojedia, ſouth of Nova Zembla. Among the ſeveral rivers which it takes in its way, ſuch as Salim, Ket, Vaga, Traſagam, &c. is that of Irtis, which is wide and rapid, and greatly increaſes the ſtream and force of it; and, at their confluence, is the city of Sammarock, built juſt upon the point of the two ſtreams. As it winds farther northwards towards the ſixty-ſixth degree of latitude, it extends its waves ſo wide as to form a conſiderable gulf, with a number of iſlands, five of which are of a conſiderable bigneſs. This gulf grows afterwards narrower and narrower, as it draws nearer to the ſea, or rather the ſtreights of Naſſau, which divide this part of the continent from Nova Zembla.

6. The river Jeneſaida, or Jeniſcia, and Jeniſia, which is no leſs conſiderable than the former; hath its riſe likewiſe in Great Tartary, and falls into the ſame northern ocean, about one hundred leagues eaſt of the mouth of the Oby, and properly belongs to Muſcovy in Aſia; therefore ſhall take no further notice of it in this place.

We are now to deſcribe the principal lakes in this part of the Ruſſian empire, which are thoſe of Ladoga and Onega.

Ladoga is reckoned one of the largeſt lakes in Europe. It is formed by four rivers, which continually pour in their ſtreams, and thoſe of other ſmaller lakes into it: the two principal ones are the Vozen, or Corela the Fair, which flows from the lake of Onega; and the Volchova, which flows thither from the ſouth. To prevent its overflow from ſo many ſtreams, it hath a channel, by which it diſcharges itſelf into the gulf of Finland, and thence into the Baltic. It is computed to be above forty leagues long, and about thirty-five in breadth, where wideſt. It extends itſelf in length from ſixty to ſixty-one degrees fifty minutes of latitude, and hath the province of Carelia on the north, and thoſe of Ingria and Novogorod on the ſouth.

ſouth. The late Czar Peter I. not finding the ſouth part of it ſo navigable as he wiſhed, cauſed a canal to be dug, by which he hath opened a communication with Peterſburg, which canal reaches to the river Volchova; by which means one may now ſail even from thence quite to Aſtracan, by the help of that and ſome other rivers which fall into the Wolga above-mentioned. As for the lake, it breeds prodigious quantities and variety of good fiſh; ſuch as ſalmon, ſturgeon, and a pecular kind called ladog, of the bigneſs of a herring, but of a finer taſte, from which the lake is ſuppoſed to have its name.

Onega is the next in bigneſs, and lies about fifty miles eaſtward of Ladoga. It extends itſelf in length from north to ſouth, from ſixty degrees thirty minutes to ſixty-three degrees of latitude, and is about forty leagues in length, and eighteen in breadth; having the country of Carelia on the north, the lake of Ladoga on the weſt, the province of Velogda on the ſouth, and the Cargapol, and territory of Onega on the eaſt. It receives the rivers of Povenza, near the city of that name on the north; that of Zelmoſa, on the eaſt; thoſe of Vitegra and Suſta, on the ſouth; thoſe of Saala, Pudoa, Nikiſſima, Andama, and ſome others of leſs note on the eaſt. Laſtly, the Suir carries the waters out of this lake into that of Lagoda. On the ſouth of that of Onega is that called the White Lake, about twenty leagues from it, which diſcharges itſelf into it by the river Coeſchea, and is about half the bigneſs of that. Along the coaſt of Onega are ſeveral conſiderable cities, ſituate moſtly upon, or near the mouths of thoſe rivers that fall upon it from all the four ſides, for the convenience of commerce. This lake gives name likewiſe to a conſiderable river, and to a territory through which it runs till it empties itſelf into the White Sea. This tract of land, which extends itſelf on each ſide of that river, the only one it hath, quite to the ſame White Sea, is obſerved to have neither town nor city, but a vaſt number of foreſts and woods.

There is alſo the lake of Peipus, in Livonia, which is near ſeventy miles in length, and about forty in breadth. It runs into the gulf of Finland, by the river Narva, and abounds with fiſh.

All the lakes in this country breed ſuch innumerable ſwarms of flies, gnats, and other inſects, during two or three months of intenſe heat, as makes the ſummer nearly as troubleſome as the winter to the inhabitants.

There are ſeveral medicinal and ſaline ſprings in Ruſſia. Fine ſilver, which alſo yields ſome gold, is dug out of the mines of this country; here is alſo iſinglaſs and precious ſtones, exceeding fine copper, iron, and many other minerals.

Ruſſia is moſt fertile near the frontiers of Poland, where the inhabitants are able to ſupply their neighbours with corn. The northern parts are not only extremely cold, but marſhy, and over-run with foreſts, chiefly inhabited by wild beaſts. Beſides domeſtic animals, there are in Ruſſia, hyænas or gluttons, wild beeves, rein-deer, martens, white and black foxes, ermines, and ſables, whoſe ſkins make the beſt furs in the world.

The ſoil of Ruſſia is rather more various than the climate. The ſouthern provinces produce wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, herbs, with various kinds of fruits, and all theſe grow ſo uncommonly faſt, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the ſurface of the ground. This is attributed to the ſnow, which not only enriches and mellows the land, but cheriſhes and ſhelters the product of it, and makes it take deeper root in the ground.

In many parts the ſowing-time muſt follow the harveſt immediately; becauſe the former, not laſting above three months, there can be no ſowing after the froſt is begun. But in more moderate climes, they will not ſow till April or May, and then their reaping time comes on in Auguſt, and ſometimes in July. They have no need of manure, the ſnow ſupplying that in every reſpect.

Beſides grain, and fruits of various ſorts, the country produces plenty of rhubarb, flax, hemp, good paſture for cattle, honey, wax, &c. The aſtoniſhing quantity of muſhrooms produced ſpontaneouſly in Ruſſia, are a great benefit and relief to the poor, while at the ſame time they are deemed delicacies at the tables of the rich and luxurious. At Moſcow, about a thouſand load of muſhrooms have been ſold annually.

Till the time of Peter the Great, agriculture was but little underſtood in this country; but that monarch, brought his ſubjects, in ſome meaſure, to a better knowledge of it. The principal articles in a Ruſſian farm are wax and honey, which ſometimes produce to the peaſant a competency; as he ſells the wax and part of the honey, and makes a domeſtic drink of the reſt. This drink is a kind of metheglin, extremely ſtrong and very palatable.

The Ruſſian method of forming bee-hives is as follows: the peaſant cuts down a tree, ſaws the trunk into many parts, hollows the pieces, then ſtops up the extremities, and bores ſmall holes into the body for the admittance of the bees; then the beehive is made, and the honey ſecured from all the attacks of the bear, who is exceedingly fond of it, and, in order to make himſelf maſter of the ſweet treaſure, will often try a variety of experiments and ſtratagems.

In this country, the rye ſerves not only for bread, but a ſtrong liquor is extracted from it, which is preferred to brandy by the Ruſſians.

In the northern and weſtern provinces, the wild beaſts are much the ſame as thoſe in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. ſuch as rein-deer, foxes, martens, hares, bears, ermines, ſables, and ſquirrels. In the ſouthern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, ſmall horſes, goats, ſheep, &c. The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild-fowl, game, birds of prey, &c. and the different parts of it are plentifully ſupplied with various kinds of fiſh, by means of the northern ocean, Baltic, Gulf of Finland, White Sea, Black Sea, and Cyprian Sea; and the innumerable rivers, lakes, rivulets, &c. produce immenſe quantities of ſalmon, trout, pike, ſturgeon, &c.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of the firſt grand Diviſion of GREAT RUSSIA, namely LIVONIA and INGRIA.

THE *province of Livonia, or Leiſland, is bounded on* the north by the gulf of Finland; on the ſouth, by the duchy of Courland and Lithuania; on the eaſt, by Ingria and part of Ruſſia; and, on the weſt by the gulf of Riga. It is admirably ſituated for commerce, having the ſea on the north and weſt, the great lake Popus on the eaſt, and the river Dwina on the ſouth. Three other internal lakes, and many ſmall rivers, likewiſe greatly contribute to the advantage of this province, by facilitating the inland navigation. From eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt, it is about one hundred and ten miles in length, and about one hundred and fifty from north to ſouth. Though extremely marſhy, it is in general very beautiful, having many paſture grounds, and producing in great plenty corn, cattle, honey, &c.

About the twelfth century, the Livonians were involved in pagan ſuperſtitions, and were to a great degree ferocious and ſavage in their manners. They were brought to embrace Chriſtianity by their neighbours the Germans, who, in order to convince their new converts, were obliged to uſe the compulſive means of fire and ſword.

Albert the canon of Bremen, who built Riga, held Livonia as chief of the empire; he afterwards obtained permiſſion to coin money, and to inſtitute a new order of knighthood, called the ſword-bearers. Theſe knights, attempting to make converts among their neighbours, ſhed oceans of blood. In the year 1234, they were united to the Pruſſian, or knights of the Teutonic order; when, in conjunction, they maintained very long and bloody wars againſt the Poles, Ruſſians, and other neighbouring powers. Albert of Brandenburgh, *in the ſixteenth century*, became a Lutheran, which occaſioned a ſeparation between the Livonian order and that of Pruſſia. About 1535, notwithſtanding the menaces and intrigues of the emperor Charles V. the principal part of the Livonians declared for proteſtantiſm.

The Germans, Ruſſians, Poles, and Swedes, have alternately ravaged this fine country. By the treaty of Oliva, in 1660, it was entirely ceded to the Swedes, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the beginning of the preſent century, when, during the wars of Charles XII. the Ruſſians ſubdued the whole duchy of Livonia, as well as Ingria, both which were afterwards, by the treaty of Naeſtadt, confirmed to Ruſſia.

With reſpect to the native peaſants of Livonia, they are of ſtrong conſtitutions, fit to undergo hardſhips, but even to this time retain a great part of their ferocious and ſavage diſpoſition; they call themſelves Lutherans, but are ſo extremely ignorant of religion in general, that they ſcarce know an article of that which they pretend to profeſs.

We ſhall here relate ſome remarkable peculiarities in their marriage ceremonies, and other ſuperſtitious obſervances among them. When a country fellow is diſpoſed to marry a laſs out of another village, he goes on

horſeback to fetch her, and makes her embrace him with the right hand. He hath in his hand a ſtick cleft at the top, where he puts a piece of braſs money, which he gives to him who opens the wicket through which he is to paſs. Before him rides a man that plays upon the bagpipe, as alſo two of his friends, who, having naked ſwords in their hands, give two ſtrokes therewith acroſs the door of the houſe where the marriage is to be conſummated, and then they thruſt the point of one of the ſwords into a beam over the bridegroom's head; this is done to prevent charms, which, they ſay, are common in that country. To the ſame end the bride ſcatters little pieces of cloth or red ſerge by the way, eſpecially where croſs ways meet, near croſſes, and upon the graves of little children dead without baptiſm, whom they bury in the highways. She hath a vail over her face while ſhe is at table, which is not long; for, as ſoon almoſt as the gueſts are ſeated, the married couple riſe and retire. About two hours after they get up, and are brought to ſit down at the table. Having drank and danced till ſuch time as they are able to ſtand no longer, they lie down on the floor, where, like ſo many ſwine, they ſleep all together.

Their notions reſpecting religion are very extravagant: however, they believe there is another life after this. A Livonian woman, being preſent at her huſband's burial, put a needle and thread into the grave, giving this reaſon for it, that her huſband being to meet in the other world with perſons of good rank, ſhe was aſhamed he ſhould be ſeen with his cloaths rent. Nay, they pay ſo little regard to a future ſtate, that in the oath they take to decide any difference at law, inſtead of intereſting the ſalvation of their ſouls therein, their preſent and temporal advantages are the principal objects of their conſideration.

Theſe people are greatly addicted to ſorcery; and think it ſo neceſſary for the preſervation of their cattle, that fathers and mothers teach their children; ſo that there is ſcarce any peaſant but is a ſorcerer. They all obſerve certain ſuperſtitious ceremonies, by which they think to elude the effects of it: on which account they never kill any beaſt, but they caſt ſome part of it away; nor do they ever make a brewing but they ſpill ſome part of the liquor, that the ſorcery may fall upon that. They have alſo a cuſtom of rebaptizing their children, if, during the firſt ſix weeks after their birth, they happen to be ſick, or troubled with fits, when they think the cauſe to ariſe from the name given them at their birth not being proper for them; wherefore they give them another; but they uſe their utmoſt endeavours to conceal this practice, which is deemed both ſinful and criminal, and, if known, would be ſeverely puniſhed by the magiſtrate.

They are not leſs attached to the exact obſervance of their cuſtoms, than obſtinate in their ſuperſtitions. There is a very pleaſant ſtory related of an old country fellow, who, being condemned, for ſome great crime, to lie along upon the ground to receive his puniſhment, and Madame de la Barré, pitying his almoſt decrepid age, having ſo far interceded for him, as that his corporal puniſhment ſhould be changed into a pecuniary mulct of about fifteen or ſixteen pence, he thanked her for the kindneſs intended him; but ſaid, that, for his part, being an old man, he would not introduce any novelty, nor ſuffer the cuſtoms of the country to be altered, but was ready to receive the chaſtiſement which his predeceſſors had not thought it a hardſhip to undergo; whereupon he put off his cloaths, laid himſelf upon the ground, and ſuffered the puniſhment ordered to be inflicted upon him.

We may here obſerve, that in Livonia, this is accounted no puniſhment, but only a cuſtomary chaſtiſement: for the people, being of a refractory nature, muſt be treated with that ſeverity which in other places would be inſupportable. They are not permitted to make any purchaſe; and to prevent their ſo doing, they have only ſo much ground to manage as will afford them a ſubſiſtence. Yet they will venture to cut down wood in ſome places of the foreſts, and, having prepared the ground, ſow wheat in it, which they hide in pits underground, to be ſecretly ſold. If they are taken in this, or any other fault, they make them ſtrip themſelves naked down to the hips, and to lie down upon the ground, or are tied to a poſt, while one of their comrades laſhes them with a ſwitch or holly wand, till the blood comes on all ſides, eſpecially if theſe words,—ſelcke nack maha pexema, beat him till the ſkin falls off from the fleſh, are pronounced by the maſter.

The uſe of money is likewiſe prohibited to this claſs of people; for as ſoon as it is known they have any, the gentlemen and their officers, who are paid by the peaſantry, take it from them; but this cruelty of the maſters frequently overwhelms theſe poor people with deſpair; of which there ſome years ago happened a ſad example: a peaſant, preſſed by his officer for what he neither had nor ought to pay, and being deprived of the means whereby he might maintain his family, ſtrangled his wife and children. The officer coming the next day to the houſe, thinking to receive the money, ſtruck his head againſt the man's feet that was hanging, and then perceived the miſerable cataſtrophe of which he was the occaſion.

The province of Livonia is divided into two diſtricts; namely, Eſtonia and Letten; the former of theſe, which is the moſt northern part, is bounded, on the ſouth, by Letten; on the eaſt, by Ruſſia; on the weſt, by the gulf of Riga; and, on the north, by the gulf of Finland.

The chief cities and towns are, 1. Revel, the capital of Eſtonia, it is ſituated partly on a plain, and the other part on the declivity of a mountain, at the top of which there is a ſtrong caſtle. It is a hundred and twenty-five miles from Stockholm, and ſtands on the gulf of Finland. Waldemar, the ſecond king of Denmark; founded Revel, but ſold it, together with Narva and Reſemberg, to the grand maſter of the Teutonic order. Revel was one of the places originally admitted into the confederacy of the Hanſe-Towns, and was a commercial place of ſome note till 1550, when the Ruſſians removed the commerce of Revel to Narva, after having ſubdued the latter. But in 1711, when the Ruſſians conquered the former, they again turned its trade into the old channel, and ſince that period the place hath in ſome degree increaſed in wealth and importance. The citizens ſtill preſerve the privileges granted by their former patrons the grand maſters, the kings of Sweden, &c. and alſo enjoy their own forms of government, though a Ruſſian garriſon ſecures the place. The market-place, however, is guarded by a band of their own.

The civil government is democratic, conſiſting of elective magiſtrates, counſellors, &c. who are obliged occaſionally to conſult their conſtituents; and their religion is Proteſtantiſm, according to the Augſbourg confeſſion of faith. The Daniſh peaſants, who formerly ſettled here, are ſtill diſtinguiſhable from the original inhabitants by their habits, cuſtoms, manners, &c. During the laſt ſiege of Revel, fifty thouſand of the inhabitants died of the plague, which was probably owing to the want of room, proper proviſions, &c. as many people had taken ſhelter in the city from the neighbouring parts of the country.

2. The other town is Narva, ſituated on the river Narva, which divides Livonia from Ingria. It was originally built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark; taken by John Baſilowitz, czar of Muſcovy or Ruſſia; retaken by the Swedes; and finally reduced by Peter the Great, in the year 1700. Previous to its reduction, when the Ruſſians laid ſiege to it with an army of eighty thouſand men, under the command of the duke of Cray, Charles XII. king of Sweden, advanced to its relief, at the head of only eight thouſand men; attacked the Ruſſians in their lines, gave them a total overthrow, ſlew twenty thouſand men on the ſpot, took the general, moſt of the officers, and a great number of private men priſoners, with a hundred and ninety pieces of cannon and mortars, a hundred and ſeventy-one colours and ſtandards, the whole baggage of the army, &c. &c. But Peter afterwards moſt ſeverely revenged the diſhonour of his arms on that unfortunate day, when he afterwards took Narva, and tranſported the wretched inhabitants to Aſtracan, the moſt remote part of his dominions. They yet ſhew the baſtion where he gave the aſſault; and it is ſaid, that on his entering the place; and finding the Swediſh governor in his robe de chambre, unapprehenſive of ſuch an event, he ſtruck him ſeveral times, reproaching him for his inattention to his ſovereign's intereſt, and for having been found in a dreſs ſo unworthy of a ſoldier, while the place was in ſuch imminent danger.

The Livonian dreſs is thus deſcribed by a late Engliſh traveller: "I had the pleaſure, ſays he, to dine yeſterday in company with four ladies, who were habited in the Livonian dreſs. Nothing could more aptly realize that barbarous ſplendor which has been ſo frequently depicted but is now ſo rarely to be ſeen, in any parts of Europe. It was expenſive, and might have been worn by perſons of the firſt eminence, without degradation of their rank. Their heads were covered with a complete bonnet of pearls, which were not worth leſs than two thouſand rubles (four hundred and fifty pounds ſterling, at four ſhillings and ſixpence the ruble); and round their necks were ſeveral ſtrings of the ſame; a part of their necks was left expoſed, but the lower part was concealed by a veſt

veſt of red ſilk, which ſat cloſe to the breaſt, and was bordered with a very broad gold lace, which deſcended to the feet. Their arms had no other covering than the ſleeves of their ſhifts; and when they walked out, they threw over their heads and ſhoulders a piece of ſilk reſembling a highland plaid, and which anſwers to the ſilk cloaks of our ladies."

On the other ſide of the river, and juſt oppoſite to Narva, is the fortreſs of Iwanogorod, upon a rock which it almoſt ſurrounds. At the foot of this rock there is a little town called Ruſſian Narva, inhabited only by Ruſſians. Among other ridiculous ſuperſtitions, the people have a cuſtom of obſerving the eve of Whitſunday as a feſtival ſacred to the memory of the dead. On this occaſion the women aſſemble in the church-yard, ſpread clean napkins on the graves and tomb-ſtones, and cover them with painted eggs, fiſh dreſſed various ways, cakes, cuſtards, &c. The prieſt then prays over, and perfumes theſe with frankincenſe; the clerk follows, and gathers up the offerings for the uſe of the church; and the women make the moſt diſmal lamentations during the whole ceremony.

Near two miles from the city, an impetuous cataract ruſhes violently down a precipice with a moſt tremendous noiſe, and daſhes ſo furiouſly againſt the rooks, that a miſt or vapour continually aſcends from its foam, which produces a beautiful rainbow when the morning ſun obliquely ſhines upon it. The river Narva, which flows from the lake Peibus, and empties itſelf into the gulf of Finland, is alſo exceeding rapid; and on the banks of this river, near where it iſſues out of the above lake, is a ſtrong fortreſs called Nieſlat or Newfort. There is another ſtrong fortification, called Weiſenburgh, in the river Weiſs, about twenty miles weſt of Narva; and thirty miles ſouth of Weiſſenburgh, in the midſt of a moraſs, is ſituated Weſſenſtein, another ſtrong fortreſs.

A ſmall ſea-port town, called Tolſburg, is ſituated near the gulf of Finland, at the mouth of the river Semiteback, and is about ninety miles diſtant from Narva, to the eaſt. Badis, or Padis, a fort ſeated on the river Aſſa, is about twenty miles from Revel to the weſt. Hapſal, or Hapſel, is ſituated on a ſmall gulf of the Baltic, to which it gives its name, over againſt the iſle of Dagho, about thirty miles from Revel, to the ſouth-eaſt. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, and ſubject to the Danes; but in 1572 it was taken by the Ruſſians. The Swedes ſeized it in 1581, and in the beginning of this century it became again ſubject to the Ruſſians.

The town of Lehal is a place of great ſtrength, and has a caſtle of good force. It ſtands on the Baltic, or rather on the gulf of Riga, ſixty miles from Hapſal, to the ſouth-eaſt.

The town of Parnaw, or Pernaw, ſtands on the gulf of Riga, at the mouth of the river Parnaw, ſixty-five miles from Revel, to the ſouth. It is a ſmall city, but a place of good trade, a great quantity of corn, eſpecially, being ſhipped hence for the Netherlands. It is divided into the old and new city, and was formerly one of the Hanſe-Towns. It is pretty well fortified, but owes its ſtrength chiefly to its caſtle; though it is built only of timber, as are all the houſes and churches. The Polanders made this the capital of one of their palatinates, when it was under their juriſdiction. It became ſubject to the Swedes in 1617, after it had been taken and retaken many times in the laſt century; and in 1710 it ſurrendered to the Ruſſians. A univerſity was removed hither from Derpt, in the year 1685, but it is not much frequented. The river Parnaw, on which this town is ſituated, has its ſpring in a large foreſt near the little river Beca, and the caſtle of Weſienſtein: this river falls into the gulf of Riga at Parnaw, receiving, in its courſe, the rivers Fela and Pernkeia.

The large and antient city of Derpt, or, as the inhabitants call it, Derpat, and the Ruſſians Junogorod, is ſituated on the river Eimbeck, between the lakes Peibus and Wertzi, which have a communication together by that river. It is ſixty miles diſtant from Narva to the ſouth, and ſeventy-five from Parnaw to the eaſt. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, and was adorned with an univerſity in 1632; by king Guſtavus Adolphus, on account of its being a pleaſant healthy place, abounding with proviſions, and all neceſſaries: but the univerſity, as we obſerved above, has been ſince removed to Parnaw. The buildings at Derpt are of ſtone and brick, but the town is not ſo populous as it was formerly. It has a ſtrong caſtle for its defence, ſeated on a hill; but it has, however, been ſubject to many maſters. The Teutonic knights took it from the Ruſſians in 1580, the Poles ſeized it in 1582, afterwards the Swedes drove them out; but in 1603, they regained and kept it till 1625, when the Swedes took it again; and at length, in 1704, it ſurrendered to the Ruſſians, who have ever ſince kept poſſeſſion of it.

The town of Felin, with a caſtle belonging to it, ſtands on a ſmall river, which runs from the lake Wertzy to Parnaw, ſeventy miles from that city to the eaſt, and as many from Derpt to the weſt. Ringon is a fort thirty-five miles diſtant from Felin to the ſouth. Tarneſt, another fort, formerly very ſtrong, but ſo demoliſhed when the Poles took it, that though the Swedes were at great expence in repairing it while in their poſſeſſion, they could not reſtore it to its former ſtrength, nor has it been much improved by the Ruſſians, in whoſe poſſeſſion it now is.

Letten is the other diviſion of Livonia: this diſtrict is bounded on the eaſt, by Ruſſia; on the weſt, by the Baltic; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, by the river Dwina; and, on the north, by Eſtonia.

The principal city is Riga, which is the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia: but a judicious traveller, in ſpeaking of it, ſays, "My ſtay in the city has been rather regulated by caprice, than ſtrictly proportioned to the number of objects it preſents, either reſpecting elegant amuſement or inſtruction. It would be difficult to find a ſpot more deſtitute of any natural beauties and advantages, to induce an adventurer to fix in, than in that where Riga ſtands. Deep barren ſands encompaſs it on every ſide; and a traveller, who regulated his ideas by that part of it he ſaw here, would accuſe thoſe authors of groſs impoſition who have called Livonia the granary of the north. Commerce evidently gave birth to the place; and by the genius of commerce it is ſtill protected and enriched."

The river Dwina is an inexhauſtible ſource of plenty, and makes ample amends for every other deficiency. It runs a vaſt length into the interior parts of Poland, and conveys down all the articles of trade exported from hence. Timber is one of the chief; and many of the largeſt trees do not arrive in Riga, within two years, being cut near Bender, on the banks of the Nieſter, from whence they are drawn over the ſnow to the Dwina, in winter; and the enſuing ſeaſon are brought down to the harbour for ſhipping.

The city of Riga ſtands in a large plain on the weſtern banks of the river Dwina, ſix miles above the mouth of it, which makes a commodious harbour from the gulph of the Baltic, called from thence the gulph of Riga, though by ſome the gulph of Livonia. The city is one hundred and twenty miles diſtant from Revel to the ſouth, and one hundred and ſixty-five from Narva, to the ſouth-weſt. It is ſeated in the fifty-ſixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-fourth degree eaſt longitude from London, on the north-eaſt ſide of the Dwina; and though it is not of any great extent, it is populous, well fortified, and famed for its trade and opulence. The houſes are handſome, and for the moſt part built of ſtone. They are ſeldom above two ſtories high, and have ſteep roofs, for the better carrying off the water, which is very penetrating on the melting of the ſnow, wherein they have the advantage of the Ruſſians, who have ſtill greater occaſion to provide againſt the like inconveniencies. The cellars are uſed as warehouſes for flax, and other goods; and the entrance or firſt apartment in many houſes is the coach houſe, through which you muſt paſs to the parlour and dining-room. The ſtreets are narrow. The Lutheran churches, as the cathedral, St. James's, St. Mary Magdalene's, St. Peter's, and St. John's, are handſome ſtructures. The ſeminaries, called the imperial Lyceum, and the city Gymnaſium, are in a flouriſhing condition; and the maſters have very conſiderable ſalaries. Here are alſo a ſtrong citadel, and two arſenals well ſtored with arms, one at the charge of the crown, and the other of the city. The fortifications both on the land and water ſide, have been improved under its preſent maſters, and thoſe toward the ſea are enlarged by additional works. The city, by means of its excellent harbour, has, during the ſummer ſeaſon, a good trade with England and Holland, and in winter a trade with the Ruſſian provinces by ſledges, which renders it extremely populous, and very conſiderable. There are in the town almoſt as many ſhops as houſes; and proviſions are very plentiful and cheap here. About one thouſand veſſels arrive yearly at Riga, laden with corn, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, plants, furs, ſkins of all ſorts, Ruſſian leather, aſhes to make ſoap, glaſs, &c. which are exchanged in trade for the commodities of the more ſouthern climates.

This city is defended by ſtrong walls, bulwarks, and a very large trench on the land-ſide, and a ſtrong caſtle on the

the river, where the governor-general of Livonia reſides; it is called fort Robber, or Robruns. The harbour is ſecurely guarded by the Dunamunde fort, ſituated near the mouth of the Dwina, where the ſhips which ſail out of the Baltic into the river pay cuſtoms. This place was taken by the Swedes in 1609 and 1618; and by the Saxons in 1700, who gave it the name of Auguſtuſburg. In 1701 it ſurrendered a third time to the Swedes, and was taken by the Ruſſians in 1710, who threw eight thouſand bombs into it, which reduced it almoſt to a heap of rubbiſh.

The city of Riga was built in the year 1200, and ſoon after incloſed with a wall. It has ſuffered much by fires and ſieges. Charles IX. king of Sweden, beſieged it unſucceſsfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his ſon and ſucceſſor, Guſtavus Adolphus, was more fortunate, and took it in 1620. He gave the jeſuits and all the Roman catholics leave to retire with all their effects. In 1656, while this prince was making war in Poland, the czar of Muſcovy entered Livonia, and attacked Riga; but after a ſiege of ſeven months, he was obliged to retire. Its privileges are very conſiderable, which were confirmed by the empreſs Anne: the ſupreme court of judicature and the high conſiſtory are held here.

The inhabitants of Riga are a frank kind of people, and very polite to ſtrangers; they live by their trade, and have by their policy kept up hitherto their ſhare of liberty. Their city is governed by four magiſtrates, and they have alſo a great number of counſellors, and a ſyndic. Their magiſtrates have a ſalary annexed to their office, and they are not permitted to trade during their magiſtracy, which, though elective, may continue as long as they live, provided they pleaſe their council. They have great power in the city; but if they think they have not obtained juſtice, they appeal to St. Peterſburgh, and frequently get the ſentence of the magiſtrates reverſed. The women are very pretty, rather inclinable to be fat, but have fine agreeable features; the unmarried women are kept in very good order; but it is ſaid, that after marriage, they do not pay a great regard to chaſtity, againſt which they offend not by ſtealth, but pretty openly. The ladies of quality are very vain, but at the ſame time polite to thoſe who pay them great reſpect. Merchants wives, and other idle women, are to be ſeen at the doors of their houſes almoſt through the whole day, for no other reaſon than to ſee the gentlemen paſs by, and receive their compliments. To ſuch a length is this fooliſh cuſtom come, that the men ſcarcely can be covered one moment; and therefore walk with their hats under their arms, like ſo many petit-maitres. Such is the account given of the people of this city by Dr. Cook, who was many years a phyſician to the empreſs of Ruſſia.

The town of Rokerhauren, or Rokenhuys, formerly ſtood on the river Dwina, ninety miles above Riga, to the eaſt. It was ſtrong by its ſituation on a hill, rather than by its fortifications, but was defended by a good citadel. It had been the reſidence of the archbiſhop of Riga. The Ruſſians, in 1701, blew up this town, after Riga had been unſucceſsfully beſieged by them.

The town of Nienhaus, or Nyenhauſen, on the borders of Muſcovy, near the river Peddes, is forty miles diſtant from Derpt to the ſouth, and one hundred and eighty from Riga to the eaſt. Marienburgh is twenty-five miles from Nienhaus, to the ſouth-weſt. Warbeck ſtands at the mouth of the river Eimbeck, near the lake Peipus. Theſe three laſt are ſtrongly fortified. Sewold, or Segenwold, is ſituated forty-five miles from Riga towards the eaſt, on the ſouth bank of the river Treiden; and over againſt it, on the other ſide of the river, lies Treiden, from which it takes its name. The town of Wilmer ſtands eighty miles from Riga, to the north-eaſt, and on the bank of the ſame river.

The province of Ingria, or Ingermanland, which compriſes the ſecond part of the grand diviſion of Ruſſia, is bounded, on the ſouth, by the river Luga, on the north, by the gulph of Finland, lake Ladoga, and the river Nieva; on the weſt by lake Peibus, and the river Nieva: and, on the eaſt, by an imaginary line ſuppoſed to be drawn between the town of Lubo, to the river Lugo. It is one hundred and thirty miles long, ſeventy in breadth, and abounds in cattle. In the winter here are a great number of elks, which in the ſummer ſwim in the river Nieva, and make incurſions into Carelia. The czar, Peter the Great, being deſirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulph of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himſelf maſter of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century. Then to make it an European maritime power, he determined on one of the moſt arduous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human reſolution, viz. building the city of Peterſburgh, which he deſigned to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Ruſſian empire, the centre of trade, and the principal ſeat of the imperial reſidence.

The city of Peterſburgh is ſituated between Ingria and Finland, in a ſenny iſland, ſurrounded by the river Nieva, in ſixty degrees north latitude, and thirty-one degrees thirty-four minutes eaſt longitude, being diſtant from Revel, one hundred and eighty miles; from Stockholm, three hundred and eighty-ſeven; from Moſcow, three hundred and thirty; from Warſaw, five hundred and ſeventy; from Vienna, eight hundred and forty; and from London, one thouſand one hundred and ten. The iſland on which this fine city has been ſo wonderfully raiſed, was nothing but a heap of mud in the ſhort ſummer of theſe climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land, but by paſſing over wild foreſts and deep moraſſes, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, till it was in 1703, inhabited by above three hundred thouſand Ruſſian, Tartar, Coſſack, &c. peaſants, whom the czar called together from all corners of his vaſt empire, ſome near one thouſand two hundred miles; and theſe made a beginning of this work.

To accompliſh his deſign, this enterprizing prince was obliged to break through foreſts, open ways, dry up moors, and raiſe banks, before he could lay a foundation. At firſt, the workmen had neither ſufficient proviſions, or even pick-axes, ſpades, wheel-barrows, planks, &c. or huts to ſhelter in; and yet the work went on ſo expeditiouſly, that in five months the fortreſs was raiſed, though earth thereabouts was ſo ſcarce, that the greateſt part of the labourers carried it in the ſkirts of their cloaths, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed, that at leaſt one hundred thouſand periſhed at the place; for the country had been deſolated by war, and ſupplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds.

The czar himſelf drew the whole chief plan. While the fortreſs was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many nobility, merchants, and tradeſmen, to go and live there, and trade in ſuch commodities as they were ordered. Proviſions being ſcarce, and conveniencies wanting, the place at firſt was far from being agreeable to perſons of diſtinction, who had in Moſcow large buildings, and ſeats in the country with fiſh-ponds, gardens, &c. However, he little regarded the complaints of thoſe who only conſidered their own eaſe. The Boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them, and merchants and ſhopkeepers ſoon found their account in ſettling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, repaired hither. Artificers, mechanics, ſeamen, were invited alſo, to encourage ſhipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the czar, were employed by the noblemen; and ſome built for themſelves and ſettled, each man being allowed to pitch on the ſpot he liked beſt. In one year, thirty thouſand houſes were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtleſs are very much increaſed ſince. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the ſlabodas or ſuburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and ſet up elſewhere.

To build this town, the czar cauſed that of Ninſchans, a ſtrong fort on the Nieva, not far from Noteburg, to be demoliſhed for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither: and as he intended to transfer the trade of Archangel to Peterſburgh, in 1713, he made one thouſand families come from Moſcow, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that ſhould ſettle there; and ordered that all goods, uſually ſent to Archangel, to be ſold, &c. to ſtrangers, ſhould be ſent hither, and the duties to be in every reſpect the ſame; but the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till ſome years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all future houſes ſhould be built of brick, and tiled.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagonal, with ſix baſtions parallel to each other, except the two middlemoſt, one of which, oppoſite to Carelia, has two orillons or blinds; that over againſt the river, none; each of the four others, one. They were all at firſt but earth and turf; but in 1710, the czar reſolved to have them all lined with ſtrong walls; thoſe on Carelia ſide were finiſhed in his life-time, and the work has been carried on and completed by his ſucceſſors. The wall is thirty feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and braſs guns. On



A Perspective View *of* PETERSBURG, *the* Capital *of* Ruſsia.

the flanks, which are pretty ſhort, are two rows of caſemates, one above another, arched over, and covered with beams, and turf bomb-proof. The curtains on the right ſide of this citadel's gates has one of the fineſt royal diſpenſaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelain veſſels from China and Japan, contained therein. This citadel has two gates, one adorned with ſtatues, particularly of St. Peter, with his two emblematical keys, and on its inſide the black eagle of Ruſſia, with the globe and the ſceptre in its two talons; and below the figure, the Ruſſian tutelar patron, St. Nicholas. Before that gate is a ravelin; from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. Gallies and ſmall veſſels are ſheltered from bad weather in this place.

It being the deſign of Peter the Great to introduce as much as poſſible politeneſs and refinement amongſt his ſubjects, he therefore, in 1719, cauſed aſſemblies to be opened at Peterſburg; which he put under ſeveral excellent regulations, being ſeven in number, and which were printed in the Ruſſian tongue. In theſe aſſemblies, there is dancing in one room; in another playing at cards, draughts, or cheſs, in which laſt game the meaneſt Ruſſians excel; in a third room, there are commonly people ſmoking and converſing together; and in the fourth, are ladies and gentlemen diverting themſelves with queſtions and commands, croſs-purpoſes, and ſuch like innocent amuſements, that promote mirth and good humour. Although none of the company are obliged to drink more wine or brandy than they aſk for, except on the tranſgreſſing the eſtabliſhed rules of the aſſembly, which happens very often; yet there are many Ruſſians who embrace that opportunity of regaling themſelves at other men's coſt, and conſider aſſemblies as one of the moſt laudable of the late czar's innovations. Every great man of the court keeps, in his turn, an aſſembly once in the winter at leaſt; and the maſter of the police has notice ſent to him, if the czar pitches upon a particular perſon for that purpoſe.

Peter the Great alſo eſtabliſhed an academy here, which has in it a great number of profeſſors in moſt ſciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal ſalaries. The building is a ſuperb pile, containing two ſtories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an obſervatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curioſities. Dr. Cook ſays concerning it, "In one of the galleries, in a caſe, is the ſkin of a Frenchman tanned and ſtuffed: this has been the talleſt man I ever ſaw. In another caſe, is his ſkeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's ſkin, alſo dreſſed; the leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, ſtands the ſkin of an Engliſh cheſnut horſe, ſtuffed, ſaddled and bridled, and beſide it the ſkeleton: Peter the Great uſed to ride this horſe. Here I ſaw the head of the unfortunate Miſs Hamilton, a Swediſh lady, who was put to death for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Ruſſia. It is ſaid, Peter went and ſaw her executed; he wept much; but could not prevail upon himſelf to pardon her, for fear, they tell us, that God would charge him with the innocent blood ſhe had ſhed. He cauſed her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almoſt complete. The face is the beautifulleſt my eyes ever beheld. The dura mater and brain are all preſerved in their natural ſituation. This is kept in ſpirits in a large cryſtal veſſel." Beſides the above, here are depoſited great quantities of earths, foſſils. ſtones, ores, natural metals, minerals, ſhells, moſſes, corals, &c.

In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax-work, as large as the life; he ſits in an elbow chair croſs-legged, dreſſed in a blue ſuit of cloaths, and has a hanger by his ſide. He has ſhort black hair, his head covered, and is ſurrounded by mathematical, philoſophical, and mechanical inſtruments.

The plan of this academy was drawn up by Peter the Great himſelf, and conſiſts of eleven articles; ſpecifying the number of members, &c. the ſciences to be taught; directions to the members, relating to their ſtudies; their times of meeting; public lectures once a day, and ſyſtems of the ſciences profeſſed; filling up vacancies, &c.

Beſides the above, here is alſo an academy for the improvement of arts, furniſhed with ſeveral Greek and Roman models, &c. But this is ſtill in its infancy, and Ruſſia hath as yet produced no great genius in this way to render it famous.

On the ſouth ſide of the river, oppoſite to the academy, is the admiralty, which is a noble ſquare building. It is fortified, hath three entrances by means of drawbridges, and contains a great variety of offices, magazines, &c. Many large men of war, ſloops, &c. are built here. On the top of a tower belonging to the admiralty is a high ſpire covered with copper, double gilt; and a ſhip made of the ſame metal, and alſo double gilt, is placed on the ſummit.

To the eaſtward of the admiralty ſtands the caſtle, a royal foundery, in which are caſt ſome of the beſt cannon, mortars, bombs, &c. in the univerſe. It is a noble building, and on the top of it is the figure of a burning bomb, double gilt.

An academy of the marine was alſo eſtabliſhed at Peterſburg by the late czar, to which he obliged every conſiderable family in Ruſſia to ſend one or more of their ſons or kinſmen, above ten and under eighteen years of age, where they were inſtructed in navigation: they were here kept under a ſtrict diſcipline; taught the languages, alſo to ride and fence, and other exerciſes proper for gentlemen.

There is a wharf at the weſt end of Peterſburg for building ſmall veſſels; and machines called camels, which are uſed to carry great ſhips over the bar for Cronſtadt: and on the weſt end of the weſternmoſt iſland belonging to St. Peterſburg, there is an excellent well-fortified haven, where near three hundred Ruſſian gallies may ride with great ſecurity.

On the weſt end of the above-mentioned iſland is the cuſtom-houſe, and a fine exchange, (though only a wooden fabric) well frequented by merchants. It is an extenſive and uniform building, with convenient warehouſes for the preſervation and ſtowing of goods. Not far from the caſtle is a noble ſquare magazine, built of brick, for preſerving merchandize It has only one gate, which is very large, and is guarded conſtantly by one hundred ſoldiers.

On the ſouthernmoſt part of the city ſtands the grand market-place, in which are many warehouſes to depoſit all kinds of commodities, domeſtic and foreign, for ſale. It is a large ſquare, with four entries, and a range of ſhops on each ſide, both within and without, with covered galleries, to ſecure from the rain thoſe who frequent it. A learned traveller obſerves, that a ſtranger need not, as in other places, hunt through this for what he wants to buy: a pleaſant walk in theſe galleries will give him an opportunity of ſeeing at the ſame time all ſorts of commodities in the world, as well as many of the beſt people in Peterſburg.

They have eſtabliſhed here both woollen and linen manufactures, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as is evident from the quantities lately imported from thence. Here is alſo a workhouſe, where an old Dutch woman has employed eighty girls at the ſpinning-wheel; and ſeveral regulations are made for improving the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper mills and powder mills have alſo been erected, with laboratories for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for preparing ſalt-petre and brimſtone. They have ſet up here rope yards, like thoſe in England and Holland, for the making of cables and tackling for the navy. The great forge at Peterſburg furniſhes anchors, and ſupplies all neceſſary ſorts of iron-work for building ſhips and houſes: and they burn bricks, and uſe them in their buildings, inſtead of wood. A printing-houſe is alſo eſtabliſhed, and newſpapers are now as regularly printed as in other countries of Europe: ſeveral uſeful books have been tranſlated out of the High Dutch, and printed, the government encouraging the ſubjects to enquire into the ſtate of the world abroad, inſtead of keeping them in ignorance, according to their antient maxims.

There are a great number of palaces and fine buildings in Peterſburg; of which the moſt remarkable are, a ſmall houſe, which is the moſt ancient and reſpected, as being erected by Peter the Great. It is built of wood, and conſiſts only of a little kitchen and a ſmall bed-chamber, not bigger than a common bed-chamber, and an anti-chamber for buſineſs. A covered gallery goes round, where that monarch uſed to walk when it rained. At the end of this miniature palace is placed the firſt boat ever built at Peterſburg: the houſe, gallery, boat, &c. are all, at preſent, ſheltered with a cover of timber, to preſerve them from the injuries of the weather. This little palace ſtands near the citadel, on the north ſide of the river Nieva; and on the ſouth ſide of the ſame river there is another wooden palace, which was likewiſe erected by Peter the Great: it is large, contains many handſome rooms, rich apartments, &c. and adjoining to it are ſpacious gardens, pavilions, pleaſure-houſes, ſhell-work, water-works, fine ſtatues, a

private play-houſe, and a large lake well ſtored with fiſh. Before this palace there is a ſmall ſhip mounting ſix cannon, which was ſaid to have been built, and afterwards preſented to Peter the Firſt, by a Ruſſian peaſant.

About half a mile further down, on the ſouth ſide of the Nieva, is the winter-palace, which is a ſuperb ſquare ſtone building, the inſide excelling the outſide, though with reſpect to its external appearance it is deemed one of the moſt magnificent in Europe. The furniture is made of the nobleſt materials, and moſt excellent workmanſhip. The royal family, with the proper retinue, attendants, &c. are all lodged here; as are likewiſe five hundred of the military, who regularly mount guard, and are relieved every day. And upon a canal, at ſome little diſtance from the Nieva, there is another elegant wooden palace, built upon piles, and two others in an inferior ſtyle.

A noble ſeminary for the education of females only, and founded by the late empreſs Elizabeth, ſtands at a little diſtance from the town. The whole contains about eight hundred young ladies. The building is capacious and grand; and here children of diſtinction are kept ſeparate from thoſe of an inferior rank.

There are ſeveral admirable buildings on the great quay, or rather angle parade, which runs above a mile in length by the water ſide; and a bridge of pontons is built over the narroweſt part of the water. Canals are cut from this excellent river to all parts of the city, the whole of which is laid out with great regularity; there is not any thing in it that looks old, though many things appear imperfect and unfiniſhed. The buildings which are finiſhed are handſome, and formed on a larger ſcale than is uſually ſeen in other places.

A gentleman who was lately at Peterſburg has favoured us with the following account of it: "The ſtreets, ſays he, are moſtly paved; but they have a cuſtom here of laying, in many places, a flooring of timber on the ground. This, I am told, was yet more common formerly in Moſcow, where, in the frequent fires they uſed to have, the ſtreet itſelf caught the flames, and the conflagration became terrible. The public buildings of different kinds are ſo prodigiouſly numerous in this city, that I am inclined to believe they conſtitute a fifth or ſixth part of the whole capital. Some of them are ſtone, but the larger part are only brick or wood plaiſtered." The ſame perſon obſerves, "Near the Nieva is a ſmall palace, built by the preſent empreſs, and called, I know not why, the Hermitage; for it no more reſembles our idea of a hermitage, than it does that of a temple; but when her majeſty reſides in this part of the building, ſhe is in retreat, and there is no drawing-room or court. I was admitted a few days ago to ſee theſe apartments, which are very elegant, and furniſhed with great taſte. There are two galleries of paintings, which have been lately purchaſed, at an immenſe expence, in Italy. The crown, which I ſaw in the palace itſelf, is perhaps the richeſt in Europe. It is ſhaped like a bonnet, and totally covered with diamonds. In the ſceptre is the celebrated one purchaſed by prince Orloff for five hundred thouſand rubles (a hundred and twelve thouſand five hundred pounds) and preſented by him to his ſovereign miſtreſs only a few years ago. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in ſize, and is not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it to be the moſt beautiful and rare ever brought from Golconda.

"One of the nobleſt monuments of the gratitude and veneration univerſally paid to Peter I. is an equeſtrian ſtatue, which her preſent majeſty ordered to be erected, and had been for ſome years under the hands of Monſieur Falconer, but which is now completely executed. In this production the artiſt has united the greateſt ſimplicity with the trueſt ſublimity of conception. No other ſtatue, whether antient or modern, gave him the deſign, which is ſingular in its kind, and admirably adapted to expreſs the character of the man, and of the people over whom he reigned. Inſtead of a pedeſtal adorned with inſcriptions, or ſurrounded by ſlaves, he appeared mounted on a rock or ſtone of a prodigious ſize; up the aſcent of which the horſe labours, and appears nearly to have reached its ſummit. This attitude has given him room to exert great anatomical beauty and ſkill in the muſcles of the horſe's hind thighs and hams, on which the whole of his body is neceſſarily ſuſtained. The czar's figure is full of fire and ſpirit; he ſits on a bear-ſkin, and is clad in a ſimple habit, not characteriſtic of any particular country, but ſuch as may be worn without violation of propriety by an inhabitant of any country. The following circumſtantial account of the opening of this magnificent ſtatue has been lately tranſmitted to us from Peterſburg, dated Auguſt 19, 1782.

"On Sunday laſt the celebrated braſs equeſtrian ſtatue of the Emperor Peter the Firſt was opened to public view. At about five o'clock in the afternoon her Imperial Majeſty, after having dined at the Hermitage, came in her barge, attended by ſeveral of the firſt nobility, and landed on the New Quay; from whence, on a platform covered with red baize, ſhe proceeded to the ſenate-houſe; where, from a balcony handſomely fitted up for her Majeſty's reception, ſhe had a full view of the ſtatue, the royal yachts on the river, of which there were ſeveral, all dreſſed in the various colours of different nations, and of the prodigious concourſe of the people aſſembled on the occaſion. On her arrival her Majeſty found the ſtatue incloſed with a ſcreen, on which were painted rocks, uncultivated ſpaces, and other emblems of the rude ſtate in which the emperor found his country. Her majeſty had not been long on the balcony, when, on a ſignal given by a rocket, the ſcreen, which concealed the ſtatue, on a ſudden, and as it were by magic, fell, and diſcovered one of the fineſt pieces of workmanſhip, I believe, that was ever known to any age or country. The ſudden appearance of the ſtately figure, big with majeſtic fire, galloping up a precipice on a furious ſteed, moſt exquiſitely finiſhed, in all the action of contending eagerneſs, together with the firing of cannon from the caſtle, admiralty, and yachts, and a running fire of about ten thouſand ſoldiers, produced an effect on the mind not eaſily deſcribed. After the firing ceaſed, and the Empreſs had contemplated the ſtatue for ſome time with the greateſt ſeeming ſatisfaction, all the regiments of guards, the regiment of artillery, and three other regiments, which were drawn up on the occaſion, marched round it, lowering their colours as they paſſed by the balcony where the Empreſs was placed. After this part of the ceremony was ended, her majeſty was rowed back to the Hermitage in the ſame manner ſhe came. In the evening the city was illuminated, and every face manifeſted joy at the happy remembrance of the father of their country."

In the winter ſeaſon, the Ruſſians contrive to make the warmth of their houſes ſuitable to the ſeverity of the climate. They give a proper degree of heat to the different rooms, by means of an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues, and their ovens conſume a ſmaller quantity of wood than might at firſt be imagined; a ſingle ſmall faggot only is put in, and ſuffered to burn till the black thick ſmoke is evaporated. The chimney is then ſhut, by which the heat is retained, and the place kept warm for the ſpace of twenty-four hours; and this fire ſerves not only to warm the rooms, but to dreſs the food. The windows, in the houſes of the poorer ſort of people, are very ſmall, that as little cold as poſſible may be admitted; but in the houſes of the wealthier ſort, they are large; and in order to guard againſt the inclemencies of the weather, they have double glaſs frames, which are caulked up in the winter. All ranks of people are very expert and nice in regulating the proper heat in their houſes by means of a thermometer, when they increaſe or diminiſh the heat to a great degree of exactneſs, by opening and ſhutting the flues.

They have here a ſet of Italian ſingers; beſides which, there are French, German, and Ruſſian players, who perform before the court in their reſpective languages. No perſon pays either to the play or concert, but none are allowed to enter except ſuch as have tickets by authority. The play-houſe doors are guarded: and if any one ſhould get in without a proper right, they would be ſeverely puniſhed. Some few years ſince, an Engliſh company of comedians went over to St. Peterſburg, where they met with great countenance and encouragement.

The beautiful palace of Peterſhoff is ſituated about twenty miles weſt from Peterſburg: it is built on an eminence, in a large garden, commanding a fine view, and ſurrounded by many out-houſes, offices, &c. for ſervants and attendants. It faces the ſouth, and in the front there is a beautiful canal of clear, tranſparent water, from which three fountains are ſupplied, and conſtantly play. When the empreſs is here, the guards are encamped in a part of the garden, where their tents make a very agreeable appearance. In ſpeaking of one of theſe jet-d'eaus, or fountains, Doctor Cook ſays, "out of the water, much to my agreeable ſurpriſe, aroſe a dog and three ducks, made of copper or iron, and, in appearance, alive. The ducks flutter through the water quacking; the dog follows after them barking." There is, in a ſubterraneous place, a charming chime of bells, which play by water. The grotto, which is covered before by a caſcade, has two entries,

entries, one on each ſide. The entries are guarded by ſtatues, which, when you are in, prevent any from getting out till the keeper, by turning a handle, puts a ſtop to them. Theſe ſtatues emit ſo much water, by vomiting and ſhooting out of ſtone piſtols and guns, that the keeper ſaid, it would overwhelm any man.

Beſides the curioſities before-mentioned, there is a beautiful gallery full of the fineſt china in the world; at one end of which is a ſmall, but commodious room, with a bed in it, whither the empreſs ſometimes retires to repoſe herſelf. The apartments are all ſplendid and nobly furniſhed, and among the paintings there are five matchleſs portraits of the ſovereigns of Ruſſia; namely, 1. Peter the Great. 2. The Livonian Villager, whoſe virtues raiſed her from a cottage to an imperial diadem, and to ſhare the bed of Peter the Great. 3. The empreſs Ann. 4. The empreſs Elizabeth; and, 5. The ſovereign now on the throne.

A few years ago there happened a moſt dreadful hurricane and inundation at Peterſburg, which did incredible damage, and by which the lives and property of many perſons were deſtroyed. The ducheſs of Kingſton, who was there at the time, was a great ſufferer by it; her yacht not only loſt its rudder, but all its maſts and ſails; the organ, which coſt her grace one thouſand five hundred pounds, was entirely broke to pieces; and the elegant coach, which lay in the hold, totally deſtroyed: the loſs was computed at upwards of three thouſand pounds. The bridge of boats thrown acroſs the river Nieva was entirely deſtroyed; ſo that the inhabitants have been obliged to paſs that rapid river, which is about half a mile broad and very deep, in ſingle boats, which was practiſed with great danger before Peter the Great would conſent to the formation of the grand bridge of pontons. An account of this calamitous event was inſerted in the London Gazette, October 18th, 1777, from a narrative dated at Peterſburg, in the ſame year: and is as follows: "On Sunday laſt (September 1777,) an inundation happened here, more extenſively deſtructive than has ever been remembered in theſe parts. A violent hurricane of wind at weſt ſouth-weſt, which began about two o'clock in the morning, raiſed the water, in the ſhort time of four hours, to the height of fourteen feet above the ordinary level of the Nieva, by which the whole town, and a great extent of the flat country in the neighbourhood, was rapidly overflowed. The water remained about half an hour at its extreme height; and the wind getting a little to the northward between ſix and ſeven o'clock it returned in a very ſhort time to its uſual bounds. It is impoſſible to eſtimate, with any degree of exactneſs, the loſs which the ſtate and individuals have ſuffered. The number of perſons drowned muſt amount to ſeveral hundreds. In the beſt parts of the town many houſes were unroofed, and the loſs of liquors and other proviſions in the cellars and lower apartments is very great. In the ſhops, which are all in the ſame quarter of the town, goods were deſtroyed to a very conſiderable amount. In the gardens of the ſummer-palace, great numbers of the fineſt trees are broken or torn up by the roots. The lower ſkirts of the town, where the houſes are moſtly of wood, and inhabited by the poorer ſort of people, preſented a ſcene of deſolation which can be more eaſily imagined than deſcribed. Many perſons were drowned in their beds, and others, who ſought for ſafety from the waters on the roofs of their houſes, were carried from thence by the violence of the wind; and thoſe who eſcaped with life were left deſtitute of habitations and effects.

"Great damage is done at the quay of the exchange, and the lower magazines and warehouſes. Numbers of barks, laden with iron, hemp, grain, wood, &c. to a very great amount, were ſtaved, ſunk, or driven to pieces in the ſtreets or fields. Several large veſſels, lying between this place and Cronſtadt, were driven aſhore into the woods and gardens. Many of the country houſes in the neighbourhood are deſtroyed. The village of Catherinehoff, and ſome others on the ſame coaſt, were intirely ſwept away, with all the cattle; and many lives were loſt there, as well as on the ſide of the Galley Haven, where the ground is very low. The great bridge of boats over the Nieva was carried away, and moſt of the bridges in the town, except thoſe on the new ſtone quay, no part of which has ſuffered any material damage, were torn up. We have the ſatisfaction, however, to hear, that the works or ſhipping at Cronſtadt, have received little or no damage.

"It appears from accurate obſervations, that the waters were a foot and a half higher than in the great inundation which happened here in the year 1752. The plays at the court theatre are ſtopped for ſome time, on account of this public calamity. Meaſures are taking to relieve the poor ſufferers by every poſſible means.

"It gives us ſome ſatisfaction to add, after the above melancholy account, that the empreſs, with a degree of humanity, that will ever do honour to her character, ordered the royal coffers to be opened to thoſe who have ſuffered moſt materially by the tempeſt; and that advice was received from St. Peterſburg, that four of the ſhips, which were ſuppoſed to have been loſt in the hurricane, were returned to that port, but in a very ſhattered condition; and likewiſe that nine of the Engliſh merchant ſhips had ſuffered."

Peter the Great, after having laid the foundation of his new city of Peterſburg, and made ſome progreſs in the buildings, thought it neceſſary to have a convenient harbour, in which the ſhipping might ride ſecure; and, for this purpoſe, pitched upon the iſland of Retriſani, at the mouth of the gulph of Finland. There he built a new town called Cronſtadt, and ſecured it with a caſtle called Cronſlot, ſituated on a ſand-bank near the ſide of Ingria; ſo that between the caſtle and the town, the ſhipping ride in a ſafe, deep and commodious harbour. The caſtle is built in the form of a round tower, and three tier of galleries, well furniſhed with cannon, ſurround it. Two ſmall batteries are at preſent placed on the oppoſite iſland, and, in caſe of emergency, the piers of the harbour may be mounted with a conſiderable train of artillery.

There are many elegant houſes between Cronſtadt and Peterſburg; and on an iſland formed by the river Nieva, near the weſtern banks of the lake Ladoga, is the ſtrong fortreſs and ſea-port of Noteburg or Oreſco. It was taken from the Swedes by Peter the Great, in the year 1702. The town of Nieuſcham is demoliſhed: Iwanogorod is a ſtrong caſtle oppoſite the Narva, from which, at the diſtance of forty-five miles, is the fortreſs of Caporia, ſituated on the banks of a ſmall river. Jama is another fortreſs, built on a river of the ſame name, fifteen miles to the north eaſt of Iwanogorod.

SECT. III.

Compriſing the ſecond Grand Diviſion of RUSSIA, containing MUSCOVY PROPER, or WESTERN RUSSIA.

WESTERN Ruſſia, or Muſcovy Proper, contains twenty-two provinces; namely, 1. Pleſkow, or Pſkow; 2. Great Novogorod Veleki; 3. Twere; 4. Rzeva or Reſchaw; 5. Biela or Bielſki; 6. Smolenſko; 7. Severia; 8. Czernichow; 9. Vorotin; 10. Rezan; 11. Bielgorod; 12. Mordoa; 13. Niſi-Novogorod; 14. Volodimer; 15. Suſdal; 16. Moſcow; 17. Roſtow; 18. Yeroſlawla; 19. Bilejeſora or Relozero; 20. Vologda; 21. Cargapol; 22. Dwina.

I. The lordſhip of Pleſkow or Pſkow, is ſituate between the duchy of Novogorod on the eaſt, Ingria and Eſtonia on the north, Livonia on the weſt, and the palatine of Polockz on the ſouth. It was formerly a republic, after which it had the title of duchy. It was at length ſubdued by Iwan Baſilowitz, anno 1509. It hath a lake of its name, which lies on the confines of Ingria and Livonia, and empties itſelf into the larger one of Peopus or Crudkow. It lies under fifty-ſix, fifty-ſeven, and fifty-eight degrees of latitude, and twenty-eight and thirty-two of eaſt longitude.

The chief towns in it are, Pleſkow, Abdova, Ferzur, Oſtrova, Fieburgh, Voronecks, and Poſtarzova.

Pleſkow, the capital, is ſeated on the mouth of the river Muldow, on the right hand of the lake of its name. It is divided into four wards or quarters, each of which is encompaſſed with its own walls, and is moreover defended by a ſtout caſtle built on a high rock. It is a Ruſſian archiepiſcopal ſee, and a conſiderable populous city. It ſtands in fifty-ſeven degrees, forty minutes of latitude, and twenty-nine degrees thirty minutes of eaſt longitude.

In this territory are ſome other inconſiderable cities, not worth farther notice, except for the ſtrength and fortifications, which gave the late czar no ſmall trouble to reduce; and are ſtill carefully kept up, for the defence of this advanced frontier. But that of Pleſkow is looked upon as the ſtrongeſt in all the north part of Ruſſia.

II. Great Novogorod Velcki, or the duchy of Novogorod, is ſituated on the eaſt of Pleſkow, laſt mentioned, with Ingria, and the lake of Ladoga, on the north; on the eaſt of the duchy of Belozera and Twere; and the province of Rzeva on the ſouth. It is divided into

into five principal diſtricts, viz. Ob Oneſkaia Petina or diſtrict on this ſide the Onega, Graſina Pagoſt or Graſinean tribe, Vichny Volock and Zauzolſi Volock, or the republics of Vichni and Zauzolſki, and Beſvolki Petina, or the dry or barren quarter. It hath four lakes, called the Ilmen, Voldai, Lutinſch, and Mſtim. It hath no leſs than ſixteen rivers, the moſt conſiderable of which are the Wolohowa, Vitegra, Bagda-konſa, Nieſca, Mſtaſua, Paiamil, Vidoca Phchega, and Longa. The moſt conſiderable cities and towns in it are, the Great Novogorod or Novogorod Veliki, Staraia or Old Ruſſia, Nova or New Ruſſia, Parcoff, Vitzgora al. Vitegra, Ochloma, Tiffina, Ladoga al. Ladiſkia, Soltza, Gorodna, Poliſſa, Crocka, Quelcor, Niewbochi, and S. Nicolas.

This duchy is called Novogorod Veliki, or ſuperior, to diſtinguiſh it from the Inferior or Niſi Novogorod. Its extent from eaſt to weſt, on the ſouthern part, is computed to be near two hundred and fifty miles, but grows more and more narrow towards the north. Its chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a conſiderable traffic, when it was governed by its own princes, though, even then, it was very often obſtructed by its wars with Moſcovy; but ſince it has become under its ſubjection, it is much decayed from its flouriſhing condition. In the middle of the ſouthern part is the lake Ilmen, out of which flows the river Wolohowa abovementioned, which paſſes through part of this province into the Ladogan lake.

Novogorod Veliki, the capital of this province, called by the French, Neugard, and by the Dutch, New Garten, ſtands on the Wolohowa abovementioned, and is a large and conſiderable place, very populous and well fortified. But it is plain from the remains of ſome old walls, towers, ſteeples, &c. that it was formerly a great deal more ſpacious: and, indeed, when one beholds the great number of thoſe towers and ſteeples which it hath ſtill ſtanding, one is apt to expect to find ſomething grand in the place, whereas it is indeed but ill built, the walls being made of timber and mud, as well as the greateſt part of the houſes. This change is owing to the ſeveral diſaſters that it ſuffered from the Polanders, Ruſſians, and other nations; for it was once in ſuch a flouriſhing condition, that it was a common ſaying, Who can hurt God or Novogorod? but ſince it fell into the hands of the Ruſſians, its great trade and ſplendor have ſenſibly decreaſed. It is however an archbiſhopric of the Ruſſian rite. The cathedral, called Santa Sophia, is large and beautiful, though in the antique ſtyle.

The caſtle is on the other ſide of the river, and is joined to the city by a large bridge, famed for the many thouſands of clergy, citizens, and others, whom the tyrant of Novogorod, duke Iwan Baſilowick, cauſed to be thrown from it into the river, anno 1569. The caſtle is the reſidence of the Vaivode, and near unto it is the archiepiſcopal palace, and a monaſtery dedicated to the miraculous St. Anthony of Padua, mentioned a little higher. There is another monaſtery, called Perunki Monaſtir, ſaid to have been built on the ruins of an antient temple, dedicated to Perun, or the God of Fire, formerly worſhipped here, under the figure of a deity, holding a thunderbolt in its hand. Here are beſides about a hundred churches, moſt of whoſe ſpires and towers are covered with copper gilt, eſpecially the cathedral; and about ſeventy monaſteries. It ſtands in fifty-eight degrees twenty minutes of latitude, and thirty-four degrees of eaſt longitude, about one hundred and fifty miles north-eaſtward from Pleſkow, one hundred and ſix almoſt ſouth from Peterſburg, and two hundred and ten north weſt from Moſcow.

Staraia, Stara Ruſſa or Old Ruſſa, from which ſome authors affirm the country of Ruſſia to have had its name, ſtands on the oppoſite ſhore of the lake Ilmen, from whence flows the river Lovat, which runs through the town, out of which the inhabitants make a good ſalt, of which they drive a conſiderable traffic. It ſtands about forty-two miles ſouth of Novogorod, and is well built and populous.

The town of New Ruſſa ſtands on the above-mentioned river, about ten miles from Old Ruſſa, but does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

Ladoga is about eighty miles north of Novogorod, in latitude fifty-nine forty-five, and thirty-four forty each. It ſtands on the left ſhore of the river Velcot or Velkova, which falls into the Ladogan lake.

Mologa ſtands on the confines of the duchy of Belozera; and at the confluence of the rivers Niſſa and Wolga.

St. Nicholas is a large and populous town, near the Wolga, and is famed for a ſpacious monaſtery dedicated to that ſaint.

III. The duchy of Twere is ſmall and compact, but populous and fertile, and takes its name from its capital, and that from the river Twerza. It is bounded on the north and weſt by the Great Novogorod laſt deſcribed, on the eaſt by the duchy of Roſtow, and on the ſouth by that of Moſcow, and the province of Rzeva. Its chief cities and towns are, Twere, Tuerſock, Wolkofkoi Starica, Preziſta, Oleſchna, Coſſin, Sattrite, Gerodin al. Gorodna, Clin, Maigrova, Czornaia-Sloboda, and Mitre.

The capital city Twere, is ſituate on the confluence of the rivers Twertza and Wolga; which laſt is by this time become ſo wide, that they are obliged to croſs it in ferry-boats. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſide of a riſing hill, on the banks of the Twertza, from which it has its name; and is a large, rich, and populous city, having no leſs than ſixty churches, and an epiſcopal ſee; and is the ſtation of a mint. It ſtands about ſixty leagues eaſt ſouth-eaſt of Pleſkow, and twenty-five north weſt of Moſcow. Latitude fifty-ſix fifteen, and longitude thirty-ſeven twenty eaſt.

A little below it, on the ſame river, ſtands the large town of Terſack, Torſack, or Tarſock, about twenty miles north from Twere. The other towns have nothing that merits particular attention.

IV. The duchy of Rzeva or Reſchaw, is bounded on the north, by that of Twere laſt deſcribed, and by that of Moſcow; on the ſouth, by the principality of Biela, and palatinate of Witepſk; on the weſt by the lordſhip of Pleſkow; and on the eaſt, by part of the territory of Moſcow. The towns belonging to it are,

Rzeva the deſart, Rzeva Volodimerſki, Toropeckz, Velikie-Louki, Borgo Cove, Boroveo, Zari, Lubieckze, and Dudure. Moſt of them are inconſiderable.

Rzeva the deſart, ſo called becauſe ruined and abandoned, was the capital, and ſtood on the weſtern ſide of the province, on the ſouth-weſt of Velikie-Louki; but hath yielded its dignity to Rzeva Volodimerſki.

This town is pleaſantly ſituated on the Wolga, on the eaſtern ſide of this province, near the ſmall lake Wolga, which is one of the head ſprings of that river. It is ſaid to have been built by prince Volodimer, who made very conſiderable conqueſts in this and the neighbouring provinces. It is but indifferently built, but well peopled, and drives ſome ſort of trade in hemp, fiſh, and other articles.

The town of Toropeckz is ſmall, but neat, and pleaſantly ſituated on a little river that falls into the Dwina.

V. The principality of Biela or Belſki, is bounded by Rzeva, on the north and eaſt, by Lithuania, and the palatinate of Witepſk on the weſt; and by Smolenſko on the ſouth. It was formerly governed by its own princes, though ſubject to Lithuania; and was then a conſiderable place, till ſubdued by the czar Baſilowitz. It ſtands on the river Opſcha or Oſca, which diſcharges itſelf into the Dwina.

VI. The province of Smolenſko extends about two hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and is uſually ſtiled the duchy and palatinate of Smolenſko. It hath, on the north, the principality of Biela; Lithuania, on the weſt; the duchy of Severia, on the ſouth; and Moſcow, on the eaſt. It hath been alternately ſubdued by the Poles and Ruſſians, and at length was finally ceded to the latter, by treaty, towards the concluſion of the laſt century. It is watered by the Nieper or Boriſthenes; the land is in general deſart; but the inhabitants derive ſome profit from the ſkins of the wild beaſts, with which it abounds.

The capital is called by the ſame name, and is agreeably ſituated on the banks of the Nieper, near the confines of Lithuania. It is a large, populous, and well finiſhed city, and contains eight thouſand houſes tolerably well built. It is two hundred and ten miles from Moſcow, has a citadel and garriſon to defend it, was once a metropolitan, and is now a biſhop's ſee. The ſurrounding woods are ſaid to produce the beſt furs in Ruſſia.

The town of Dragobuſa is ſituated on the ſame river, about fifteen leagues from Smolenſko, but is of no conſiderable note.

VII. The duchy of Severia or Severiſki, is ſituated to the weſtward of Little Ruſſia, to the eaſtward of Czernikow, to the weſtward of Bielgorod, and to the ſouthward of Smolenſko. It had formerly princes of its own, till the country was ſubdued by the czar Baſilowitz. It afterwards fell into the hands of Sigiſmund III. king of Poland, who incorporated it with his own dominions; but it was at length finally ceded to Ruſſia, as a member of the antient palatinate of Smolenſko.

The

The chief rivers that water this province are, the Ubick, Dwina, and Newin. The northern part is very full of woods; but the reſt is fertile and populous, though woody. In the ſouthern part there is one vaſt, extenſive foreſt, which is computed to be one hundred miles ſquare.

The chief town of this duchy, named Nogogrodeck, ſtands on the river Domza, and is tolerably well fortified in the Ruſſian manner.

Branſki, or Branzo, is another ſmall, but neat and ſtrong town in this duchy; it is about ſixty miles from Nogogrodeck.

Demetriowick is ſituated on the moſt northern verge of the province; was formerly in the palatinate of Smolenſko, and ſtands about forty leagues ſouth-eaſt of that capital.

VIII. The duchy of Czernichow is bounded on the weſt and ſouth, by the river Nieper, and the palatinates of Kiow; and on the north-eaſt by Servia and part of Lithuania. The river Domza waters it; but the land is exceedingly ſteril. The principal town, called Czernichow, is ſmall, thinly peopled, and inconſiderable. The town of Borma is only noticed for ſome fortifications to guard it againſt Poland. Others, ſtill leſs worth mentioning, are, Omby, Perecop, Vibbi, Soſnica, Kwalcſin, Puſca, &c.

IX. The principality of Vorotin, or Vorotinſki, is bounded northward by the river Ugra, and part of the duchy of Rezan; on the ſouth by Leſſer Tartary, or the land of the Coſſacks; on the weſt by the duchy of Severia; and, on the eaſt, by another part of the ſaid duchy of Rezan.

That portion of the province which is ſituated near the Leſſer Tartary has been almoſt deſolated by the continual incurſions of the Coſſacks; but the other parts, which are watered by the river Occa, are populous and fertile.

Verotin, the capital of the province, ſtands on the banks of the Occa. It is only a ſmall town, but well ſecured by a caſtle and other fortifications; and higher upon the ſame river ſtand the towns of Bolgoff, Aarol, and Crom, which are the ſtrongeſt and moſt conſiderable in this province.

X. The duchy of Reſan or Rheſan (now called the province of Veronis) includes a very large track of land lying between the Don, or Tanais, and the Occa, and extending near three hundred miles in length. It is watered by the above rivers; hath Little Ruſſia to the ſouth, Smolenſko to the weſt; Niſi-Novogorod to the eaſt, and the duchy of Moſcow to the north. The Ruſſians deem the ſoil of this province the moſt fertile in the univerſe; and affirm, that the corn grows ſo thick and ſtrong, that a horſe cannot make his way through it. This muſt be owing to the quantity of ſalts with which the ſnow enriches the ground by laying ſo many months upon it, as was hinted at the beginning of this article. The people here, likewiſe, are ſaid to be courageous and warlike, civil, and polite, and ſo very numerous, that they are able to ſend fifteen thouſand foot and forty thouſand horſe to the wars.

This country was formerly governed by its own dukes, who were eſteemed very powerful princes; but it hath long ſince been ſubdued by the czar, and become ſubject to Ruſſia, ſince which time it hath decreaſed much of its ancient ſplendor and traffic. It continues, however, ſtill fertile in corn, millet, and other grain, and abounds with all kinds of game, as the rivers do with fiſh; particularly the great river Don, which hath its ſpring head in this province, and runs almoſt acroſs it, and, after a long ſerpentine courſe, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis at Aſoph.

Theſe towns were moſt of them formerly conſiderable, rich, and well peopled; but have been ſo miſerably plundered and abuſed by the Crim-Tartars in the year 1568, and following, that they have not been able to recover themſelves ſince; particularly

Reſan or Rheſan, the ancient capital of this province, was formerly a fair, large, and populous city, and advantageouſly ſituated on the Occa. It is chiefly famed for the noble reſiſtance which it made againſt the Tartars in the year 1570, by which the whole empire was preſerved from their fury, though the city itſelf and almoſt the whole duchy, were deſtroyed by them. Since that time, the fertility of that ground, which reaches from this city and the river Occa, quite to the intrenchments which were afterwards made on the confines of Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of thoſe free-booters, induced the Moſcovites to gather up all the diſperſed inhabitants of this once flouriſhing place, and to cauſe the materials of the ruined city to be conveyed about eight leagues off, and to build the new town with them called Pereſta Rezanſki, becauſe many of the inhabitants of Pereſta went likewiſe and ſettled there. All that the antient Rezan now retains of its former grandeur, is its archiepiſcopal ſee, and its being ſtill the reſidence of that metropolitan.

The town of Voronetz, Woronitz, commonly now Veronis, is the moſt conſiderable place in this duchy, on account of the great ſhips of war built there by the direction and inſpection of the late czar Peter the Great; it being ſituated on a ſmall river of its own name, which falls into the Don, or Tanais, a little below it, and is deep enough to carry them into the great river, and thence down to the Black ſea, to which that prince opened himſelf a free paſſage by the taking of Aſoph. It is ſituated on a hill, and ſurrounded with a wooden wall almoſt rotten. It is divided into three parts; one of which, called Jakatoff, is the common reſidence of the Ruſſian merchants: it hath large and extenſive rope walks, and a ſpacious ſubterranean magazine of powder without the walls.

On the declivity of the hill, and along the water-ſide, are ſeveral ſpacious houſes, ſome of them four hundred paces long; which belong ſome to the Ruſſian admirals, vice-admirals, and perſons of rank. Moſt of them ſtand facing the citadel, and behind them are ſtreets for thoſe that are employed in ſhip-building. The city ſtands on the weſt ſide of the Veronis, and the citadel on the other; and a large bridge is built over it for communication between them.

The citadel is a large ſquare building, flanked with a tower on each corner, hath large apartments in it, and makes a great figure without. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong palliſadoes, and a wet foſſe, and is defended by a ſtrong garriſon. This is the chief magazine in this part of Ruſſia, in which there are about one hundred and fifty cannon, moſtly unmounted for ſpeedy carriage, conveniences for ſhip-building, and apartments three ſtories high for all kinds of naval ſtores; and the town is computed to have about ten thouſand ſouls in it. There are ſome handſome churches in it after the Ruſſian taſte; and at a ſmall diſtance from the town there is a high mountain almoſt mouldered away, and full of cracks, on which are ſome ancient monuments. It ſtands nearly twenty-five leagues ſouth of Moſcow, in about fifty-five degrees forty minutes of latitude, and forty degrees twenty-five minutes of eaſt longitude.

The town of Taverhoff was built by Peter the Great, on the ſouth banks of the river Veronis, and two thirds of the town are waſhed by that river and the Don. The place is very healthy, on account of the circumjacent low flat grounds being covered either with wood or water. This town is regularly built with ſtreets, interſecting each other at right angles; but the houſes are of wood, as is a palace which ſtands at the weſt end of the town. The citadel is made of earthen ramparts, palliſadoes, with baſtions at the corners, mounted with cannon. Taverhoff itſelf is inhabited principally by ſailors and fiſhermen; and what is very ſingular, three thouſand ſoldiers, who are the garriſon, and appointed to defend the place, dwell all together in a neighbouring village, and not in the town.

The other towns in this duchy, worth mentioning, are Donkarod, a large place about fourteen leagues ſouth from Rezan, ſituate near the ſpring-head of the Don, or Tanais, and Toul, or Tula, on the weſtern confines, near the borders of Vorotin, which is defended by a ſtout caſtle, built by the czar Baſilowick ſoon after he took it.

XI. The province of Bielgorod: it was formerly called Organia; but we find it ſtiled, in the map of the curious Mr. Theſing, the palatinate of Belgorod, or Bielgorod. It is a large tract of land lying on the ſouth of the province of Rezan laſt deſcribed; and is bounded by it on the north, as it is on the ſouth by the Nogay, and Don Coſſacks; on the weſt, by the Ukraine and palatinate of Kiow; on the eaſt, by the Don; and, farther north, by the Wolga. It is watered by ſeveral other rivers, and hath a ſoil ſufficiently fertile, were it well cultivated; but its vicinity to Little Tartary expoſes it ſo much to the continual inroads of the Coſſacks above mentioned, that it is neither rich, fruitful, nor well inhabited. It hath a conſiderable number of ſmall towns, moſt of them poor, and half-ruined; but it hath no cities, except that of Bielgorod, from which it hath its name, and which is itſelf hardly remarkable upon any other account. The Don Coſſacks on the ſouth-eaſt, called alſo Rodoni Donſki,

becauſe they chiefly inhabit along the Don, and the Nogay Coſſacks on the ſouth-weſt, are either very boggy or woody, and have few towns in their territory; which, with the palatinate of Bielgorod, was formerly part of Tartary, but hath been conquered from it by the Ruſſians.

Having now gone through the weſtern provinces of Ruſſia, from the lakes Ladoga and Onega, to the ſouthernmoſt part of it, called Little Tartary; we ſhall proceed towards the north, where, in our courſe, we meet the provinces above-named; the firſt of which is called

XII. Mordwa, or Mordva, and the inhabitants Morduates, or Mordua Tartars. They are ſurrounded on the ſouth by the Leſſer Tartary and Rezan, laſt deſcribed; on the weſt, by the dutchies of Moſcow, Volodomir, and Niſi Novogorod, or Leſſer Novogorod; on the north, by part of the ſame laſt named, and the river Wolga; and, on the eaſt, by the ſouthern Czeremiſſe. The inhabitants of this province are ſaid to be the moſt civilized of all the Tartarian Moſcovy, and have ſome towns; the chief of which are Adema, about forty leagues eaſt from Volodimir, and twenty from Niſi Novogrodeck; and Moruma, ſeated on the river Occa; but neither of them worth deſcribing. The people here are heathen, and worſhip one God, and a devil, the former out of love, the latter out of fear; but have neither temples, altars, or prieſts. Their country is ſmall, and full of large foreſts, and is by M. de L'Iſle placed between the rivers Occa, Sura, and Mokſcha-Reka.

The province or diſtrict of Czeremiſſe, or Scheremiſſe, which lies on the eaſt-ſide of the former, is a vaſt tract of land, extending from fifty-four to ſixty-one degrees of latitude; and is divided by the river Wolga into two parts; the ſouthern diſtrict, which adjoins to Mordva, has the name of Nagorho, which implies mountainous; the northern is called Logoai, or lowland.

The inhabitants, who are deemed the moſt ſavage of all the Tartars, breed vaſt herds of cattle. They are without towns, faithleſs in their dealings, ſuperſtitious in their notions, and cruel in their diſpoſitions. Some are called Mahometans; but the greater part, eſpecially towards Cazan, know nothing either of that or the Chriſtian religion. Their way of naming their children is, by chuſing a day ſix months after birth, and giving the name of the firſt perſon they meet.

They have no notion of a future life; but believe that God bleſſes, and the devil puniſhes, according to their deſert in this life. They go to a place called Nemda, forty leagues from Cazan, full of marſhes, to pay their devotions to the deity; and believe if they go empty handed, the devil will puniſh them with a lingering and incurable diſeaſe. They worſhip ſun, moon, ſtars, and animals; but to God they ſacrifice a horſe, ox, or ram, roaſted and baſted with liquor made of honey. A man is allowed three or four wives.

The women wear only a coarſe linen gown, which covers their whole body; and the head-tire of the married ones riſes over their heads like a horn growing out of their ſkulls, at the top of which hangs a little bell by a ſilk ſtring of ſeveral colours. The men have much the ſame garb about their bodies, with drawers under. The married ſhave their heads, and the unmarried let their hair grow to a conſiderable length. They are ſubject to the czar, and are free from all tribute except voluntary preſents. Their language is peculiar, underſtood neither by Ruſſian nor Tartar.

XIII. The duchy or lordſhip of Niſi Novogorod lies to the ſouth-weſt of Cazan, and to the eaſt of Moſcow. It is watered by the Wolga and Occa, abounds with foreſts, but is nevertheleſs pleaſant, populous, and fertile.

Niſi-Novogorod, the capital city, is ſituated on a rock at the confluence of the Wolga and Occa, ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, and defended by a ſtrong citadel. Near the river-ſide, and before the ſtately gate of the city called Iwanoffki, there is a ſpacious market-place. A noble ſtreet interſected by others, runs through the whole town; the cathedral, which is built after the model of Santa Sophia at Conſtantinople, is a ſtately edifice; it has five cupolas beautifully varniſhed with green, and adorned at the top with elegant croſſes. The ſuperb archiepiſcopal palace is near the cathedral, but contains a church within its own walls. The governor's palace, and the chancery, are noble fabricks, and the houſes in general are well built of timber. The city itſelf is ſmall, but the ſuburbs are large, and the whole has a good trade, and is well furniſhed with proviſions. The luxuries, as well as the neceſſaries of life, are remarkably cheap; but the inhabitants of both ſexes are given to exceſſive drinking.

The village of Baſiligorod is ſaid to have neither walls nor ſtone houſes, either public or private. It ſtands at the foot of a riſing ground near the Wolga, and was originally founded by the czar Baſilius, as a check upon the Tartars; but as the Ruſſian frontiers at preſent extend much farther, the fortifications have been ſuffered to go to decay. The other towns of inferior note are, Paſtoff, Balagna, Slaboda, and Niſi-Novogorod, the latter of which is computed to be diſtant from Moſcow about eight hundred werſts, or ſixty German, and one hundred common leagues, by water, but by land it is not above an eighth part ſo far.

XIV. The province, called alſo the duchy, of Volodimer, is bounded by that of Niſi-Novogorod, on the eaſt; by the duchy of Moſcow, on the ſouth; by thoſe of Roſtow and Suſdal, on the weſt; and the river Wolga, on the north. It is in many parts fertile, well watered by the rivers Occa, Cleſma, and Wolga, and hath a great number of foreſts and fens.

The capital city Volodimer, ſtands about ſeventy-five miles from Moſcow to the north-eaſt; it is ſituated on a fine hill, which is beautifully diverſified with plantations. Hence a moſt noble appearance is exhibited to the diſtant eye. It was built by prince Volodimer, in the commencement of the tenth century, and he and his ſucceſſors reſided here till the court was removed to Moſcow, ſince which period its ſplendor hath gradually decayed. There are, however, ſeven or eight fine ſtone churches in it, and ſeveral more of wood, and the territory about it is extremely fertile. The other towns are, Gorachowitz; Baluchna, which ſtands on the banks of the Wolga; and Ileſs, ſituated on the river Cleſma.

XV. The duchy of Suſdal is bounded, on the north, by the Wolga; on the ſouth and eaſt, by Volodimer; and, on the weſt, by the duchies of Roſtow and Jeroſlaw. It is very narrow, but extends in length near one hundred and twenty miles, and is watered by ſeveral rivers, which render the low lands exceedingly rich and fertile. It however contains many foreſts, which are well ſtored with fallow and other game, and with wild beaſts, whoſe furs bear a good price. This duchy was beſtowed, by the czar Jeroſlaws, on his ſon Andrew, who became a branch of the dukes of Suiſki, from whom Baſilowitz Suiſki was deſcended, who was choſen czar after the defeat of the ſham Demetrius, as was hinted at in the beginning of this article. John Baſilowitz ſubdued this whole country in 1565, and incorporated it with his own eſtates.

Its chief towns are Suſdal, the capital, Caſtro-Moigorod, Louch, and Yourieff.

The town of Suſdal is ſituate on the river Cleſma, on the ſouthern part of the duchy. It is an archiepiſcopal ſee, and was formerly the metropolis of Ruſſia, but is gone to decay ſince the ſeat was removed from it. It is built moſtly of wood, after the Ruſſian manner, and retains but little of its priſtine grandeur. It is, however, famed for a ſtately monaſtery of nuns, and for ſome other antient buildings. It ſtands about ſeven leagues north-weſt from Volodimir, and twenty north-north-eaſt from Moſcow; latitude fifty-ſix degrees twenty-five minutes, longitude forty degrees eaſt.

XVI. The province of Moſcow, or Moſcovy, properly ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from the great empire of which it is the principal province, bears alſo the name of duchy, becauſe, for a long time, the princes of it took only upon themſelves the title of dukes. It hath its name from its capital, Moſcow, or Moſcova; and this from the river of that name on which it is ſituated.

This province is bounded on the north by the duchies of Twerc, Roſtow, Suſdal, and Volodimer, already deſcribed; on the ſouth, by that of Rezan, from which it is parted by the river Occa; on the eaſt, by the little principality of Cachine and the ſame river Occa, which parts it from Niſi-Novogorod; and on the weſt, by the duchies of Rzeva, Biela, and Smolenſko. Its extent, from eaſt to weſt, is computed about ſixty-eight leagues, or a little above two hundred miles; and its breadth, from north to ſouth, about thirty-three leagues, or one hundred miles.

The chief rivers that run through it are, the Moſka, Occa, and Cleſma; all which fall into the Wolga: and on the weſtern ſide of this province is a large foreſt, out of which flows that famous one called the Boryſthenes, which, croſſing the duchy of Smolenſko, makes its courſe to Ukrania, Lithuania, and Poland. The ſoil, however, is nothing near ſo fertile as in ſome of the provinces we have lately gone through; but the air, though ſharp, is here very healthy; which, with the advantage of its ſituation,

tion, amidſt ſome of the beſt provinces, induced ſome of the monarchs to make it their chief reſidence, and the metropolis of the empire.

The chief cities and towns are, Moſcow, the capital, Treytza, Columna, Colomenſko, Moſaiſk, Wieſma, Golutwina-Slaboda, and Dmitroff.

The city of Moſcow, or Moſkova, which is the greateſt in the whole Ruſſian empire, is ſeated in a fine ſpacious plain, on the river of its name, over which it hath a ſtately bridge of twelve arches, of a prodigious height and breadth, becauſe that river often overflows. It was built by prince Gafiſchin, on the deſign of a Poliſh monk, and is the only ſtone bridge that we know of in all Ruſſia. The town ſtands in a gravelly ſoil, and wholeſome air, and almoſt in the centre of the beſt provinces of Moſcovy. It was founded in the year 1334, and we are told very ſtrange things concerning its largeneſs, populouſneſs, and number of houſes, which it ſeems once amounted to above eighty thouſand; though, if we may gueſs at theſe by what they are now, the far greater part of them might be more properly called low wooden huts than houſes; on which account, this city has been always liable to ſuch violent conflagrations as ſeldom failed of conſuming near two parts in three of it.

It was taken, and almoſt burnt down, by the Tartars, in 1572, and by the Poles, in 1611, in which laſt, we are told, forty-one thouſand houſes were deſtroyed, beſides the vaſt numbers of men and women that periſhed, either in the flames, or by the ſword. Notwithſtanding which loſs, we find in 1662, when lord Carliſle was ambaſſador there from king Charles II. it was ſo well recovered as to be twelve miles in compaſs, full of houſes and inhabitants; inſomuch that the number of the former is, by the loweſt calculations, ſaid to have amounted to forty thouſand; and by the Ruſſians affirmed to have been about double that number.

This city ſtands about ſix hundred and fifty miles from Caffa in Crim Tartary, nine hundred and fifty miles north-eaſt from Conſtantinople, ſeven hundred and twenty eaſt frow Cracow, ſix hundred and ſixty eaſt from Stockholm, and one thouſand three hundred and twenty from London; latitude fifty-five degrees forty-two minutes; longitude thirty-eight degrees forty-five minutes eaſt. It is of a circular form, and conſiſts of four diſtinct parts, or quarters, all ſurrounded with a diſtinct wall; viz. 1. Cataigorod. 2. Czargorod. 3. Skorodom. 4. Strelitze-Slaboda, ſo called becauſe it was formerly the quarter of the ſtrelitzes, or czar's guards, mentioned hereafter. The Cataigorod, or middle city, is ſurrounded with a brick wall; and on this ſtands the caſtle, which is two miles in circuit, and fortified with three ſtout walls, ſtately towers, and a foſſe: and in the caſtle are, 1. Two palaces of the czars, one of timber, the other of ſtone, and built after the Italian manner. 2. The patriarchal palace, a large antient building. 3. The exchequer, chancery, and other offices. 4. The grand magazine. 5. Two handſome monaſteries. 6. Five large churches, among which is that noble one of St. Michael, in which are, among other enrichments, the tombs of the great dukes, or czars. We omit ſeveral other ſtately buildings that are in this great caſtle, at whoſe gate ſtands that ſtately antient fabric called the church of Jeruſalem; and fronting the caſtle is the great market and monſtrous bell, mentioned farther on. This quarter is waſhed on the ſouth-weſt by the river Moſca, and on the north, or north-weſt, by the Negliga, which falls into the former on the back of the caſtle. It is called Cataigorod, not on account of its being ſituated in the middle of the city, as Olearius fancies, but from Catai, the antient and Ruſſian name of China, becauſe the chief merchandizes ſold in it came from that country: ſo that the name implies the ſame as the Chineſe city.

The quarter called Czargorod, or ducal city, encompaſſes the Cataigorod, and is itſelf ſurrounded with a white ſtone wall called Biela Stena; whence it is alſo called Biela Gorod, or White City. It contains, among other buildings, the great arſenal, and is watered by the Negliga, which runs through it, and thence flows into the ditch that ſurrounds the middle city.

The Skorodom, or Scoradum quarter, ſtands on the north-weſt ſide of the Czargorod, and is chiefly inhabited by timber-mongers and carpenters, who ſell houſes ready made. Theſe houſes are moveable, and ſold very cheap, and in great numbers: and, indeed, conſidering the frequent fires that happen in this city, owing, moſtly, either to their drunkenneſs, a reigning vice here; or to their neglect of putting out the candles which they light to ſome favourite ſaint in their houſes and chambers; they have need of ſuch a large market to repair to on thoſe occaſions. It is called Scoradum, which, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies done in haſte, alluding to the mud wall that ſurrounds it. And it well deſerves that name, if what they tell us be true, that it was finiſhed in four days, on a report of the Tartars approaching, though it was fifteen or ſixteen miles in compaſs, and the earth every where ſupported by planks and beams of fir.

The quarter, called Strelitze-Slaboda, formerly that of the ſoldiers or guards, ſtands on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt ſide of the Cataigorod and the caſtle; is ſurrounded and fortified with wooden ramparts; and is divided from the reſt by the river Moſca; for which reaſon it is ſtyled ſuburb, or ſlaboda.

As the houſes are ſo meanly built, for the moſt part, except thoſe of the noblemen, gentlemen, and rich merchants, the furniture of the inſide cannot be expected but to be of a piece; ſo that, excepting the lives and merchandize that may be loſt in ſuch frequent conflagrations, the damage is generally looked upon as ſo inconſiderable, that they never attempt to extinguiſh the fire, but by pulling down ſuch a great number of them as will prevent its ſpreading farther. But the merchants who have much to loſe, take care to depoſit their choiceſt wares in vaults of ſtone, which are proof againſt ſuch diſaſters.

There are reckoned in this whole city about three thouſand ſuch houſes of ſtone, or brick; which, if they ſtood cloſe to one another, would make a noble ſhew; but they ſtand at ſuch vaſt diſtances from each other, and are intermingled with ſuch long rows of theſe wooden huts, that they are almoſt loſt, eſpecially as they do not ſtand in the ſtreets, but, like moſt of our colleges at Cambridge, on the backſide of them, for the convenience of large courts and gardens, which moſt of them have, ſpacious and in ample order, and ſurrounded with high and ſtrong walls, to keep off thieves and fire. The ſtreets are not paved with ſtones, but boarded with thick fir planks; and the deſcription we have given of the houſes may afford ſome idea of their beauty.

Their churches and chapels, including thoſe that belong to monaſteries, are ſo numerous, as to be computed by ſome to amount to above one thouſand five hundred, and by others to two thouſand: and ſome of them are very large and ſtately; that, particularly, which is in the Kremelin, or palace in the caſtle, is a vaſt, antient, maſſy building: on the right ſide of the altar is the czar's throne, on the left that of the patriarch; and in the body of the church hangs a chandelier, of immenſe weight and value. The very jewels, and other coſtly ornaments, that enrich a picture of the Virgin Mary here, are valued at half a tun weight in gold, beſides a vaſt number of chalices, pixes, patins, ſtatues, and other church utenſils of gold and ſilver, finely wrought, and enriched with precious ſtones; a vaſt number of other prieſtly veſtments of great value, and an immenſe quantity of donatives and preſents offered to the reliques of three eminent Ruſſian ſaints; which makes the treaſures of this church equal to that of any European cathedral.

The learned and ingenious Dr. Cook has favoured us with the following account of the celebrated great bell of Moſcow: "I went, ſays he, to the great bell, which was then in a large pit. A fire had about two months before burnt down about two thirds of this great city; and the belfry, being all of timber, ſhared the ſame fate; the bell fell into the bottom of the pit, and had a piece broken out of its edge, large enough to admit a man into it. Its weight is four hundred and forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-two pounds, and its height about twenty-one feet four inches and a half. I then went to the top of a very high tower called Joan Velike, or the Great John. From this tower I had a complete view of the whole city, which indeed made a grand appearance. The weather being very cold, the Ruſſians heat their ſtoves before day-light, and make uſe of fire at no time of the day, except to get dinner ready, ſo that the view is never obſtructed by the ſmoke but at theſe times. On the top of this tower there are three bells, the leaſt of which, I think, exceeds in ſize the largeſt in London. The antient imperial palace, which is a large ſtone Gothic building, is under the tower. All theſe which I have mentioned, and all the imperial antient archives and different courts of juſtice, are in that part of the city called the Crimline, ſaid to be about two thouſand and ninety paces in circumference, and is ſurrounded by a high brick wall."

The magnificent church of the Saboor is ninety feet in length, hath a ſtately dome ſupported by four large pillars,

and is, though in the antient ſtile, quite ſuperb within and without, and ninety feet in length. That of St. Michael is the repoſitory of the dead czars, and of all the royal family of the male ſex. The bodies of the princeſſes of the blood are interred in the ſtately abbey of the nuns called Tzudoff Monaſtir, in the ſame caſtle, and near the church above-mentioned. The tombs of the princes who never reigned here, are in a ſeparate chapel. But nothing is more magnificent than the palls with which their coffins are covered; not conſtantly indeed, but only on holidays; thoſe of the czars, particularly, are of the fineſt velvet, and have either a maſſy or embroidered golden crucifix upon them, of curious workmanſhip, and enriched with a vaſt variety of coſtly ornaments, eſpecially inſcriptions, which are moſtly done with pearls and other precious ſtones of great value.

Here are many monaſteries of men and women, not only in the city and caſtle, but in the ſuburbs and avenues of the town. We have no room to enter into a detail of them; we can only ſay in general, that they are, next to the palaces and noblemens houſes, ſome of the beſt edifices in the city; the founders of them having ſpared no coſt to adorn them with curious architecture, paintings, gardens, and every thing that is convenient and beautiful. The only one we ſhall mention here, is that called Dewitze Monaſtir, about a mile out of the city; and is that in which the ambitious princeſs Sophia, who had hatched ſo many plots againſt her brother the late czar Peter I. was, at length, confined, and ended her days. It is ſituated on a ſpacious plain, and hath three hundred nuns belonging to it, who lead a very regular life, and never ſtir out of their limits, as ſome other ſorts are permitted to do: theſe are only allowed, on holidays, to walk on the terraces round their gardens, which are raiſed to a convenient height for them to enjoy the proſpect of the adjacent plain.

Peter I. the late czar, founded here three colleges, which he took care to fill up with men verſed in arts and ſciences, and all kinds of literature, for the poliſhing of the next ſpringing generation. The firſt is for humanity, rhetoric, and philoſophy; the ſecond for mathematics; and the third for navigation, aſtronomy, and other ſciences ſubſervient to it. In all theſe the youths that are taught are kept under ſtrict diſcipline, and have, at the ſame time, all due encouragement to excel in their reſpective ſtudies. To theſe the ſame prince added a diſpenſatory, which is not only one of the fineſt ſtructures in Moſcow, but, by all report, one of the beſt furniſhed with all ſorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in all Europe. It is put under the care of ſome Germans, who are allowed the beſt maſters in that art, though the moſt ſlovenly in their compoſitions, they never ſtudying to pleaſe the eye or taſte in their preſcriptions, as we do in England, but nauſeate their patients by the inelegance of their compoſitions, and, in that ſenſe, may do beſt for that country. This diſpenſatory hath a yearly revenue of twenty thouſand rubles, to renew their Materia Medica; and furniſhes not only all the army, but likewiſe all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

In this city the courts of judicature, cuſtom-houſe, and other offices, are generally large, and built of ſtone; and ſome of them rather reſemble a gaol, and, indeed, are ſuch, in ſome ſenſe; they having apartments for debtors, as well as criminals, who are kept there chained up. But this, and other particulars relating to the political government of this city, we ſhall avoid enlarging upon; and only obſerve here, for the benefit of thoſe who may have occaſion to viſit theſe parts, that though juſtice is, in general, adminiſtered with ſome ſtrictneſs and ſeverity, yet the Ruſſians being naturally lazy, and given to drinking, the whole city ſwarms with beggars and vagabonds, and moſtly of ſuch a ſturdy breed, that it is dangerous to deny them an alms. This makes it very dangerous to walk the ſtreets in the night; for they generally lurk in corners, with a ſhort truncheon, or bludgeon, in their hands, which they throw at the heads of paſſengers, with ſuch dexterity, that they ſeldom fail of knocking them down; after which, they rob and murder them, and go off. Theſe diſaſters happen more frequently on holidays, and eſpecially during the carnival; and when a perſon is found murdered, they carry the body to a certain place, where it lies expoſed a day or two; and, if it is not owned, it is flung into a deep large pit, made to ſerve on ſuch occaſions; and on the Whitſuntide holidays ſome prieſts come thither, to ſay maſs for the ſouls of the deceaſed.

Moſcow is much decayed from its antient grandeur and opulence, ſince the building of the city of Peterſburg, and the court ſo often repairing thither; however, it is ſtill very full of inhabitants; and all kinds of proviſions are brought in, in great plenty, and ſold very cheap. Fiſh is the only dear food, occaſioned both by the number of inhabitants, and the four lents, and other faſts, that are obſerved by the Ruſſians: and this great cheapneſs hath ſo far lowered the price of the land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great ſufferers by it, their eſtates being reduced to little more than one third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in a flouriſhing ſtate.

We cannot omit ſaying a word or two of its fine canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communication between this metropolis and his new-built and favourite city of Peterſburgh, and by that means, to the Baltic and German Ocean. This great and noble work, which has been ſome time finiſhed, at at immenſe charge and labour, between two cities, which, in a direct line, ſtand near ninety leagues aſunder, begins at Peterſburgh, on the river Nieva, or Neva, which empties itſelf into the gulph of Finland, and, going up that river quite to the lake of Ladoga, formerly deſcribed, croſſes it at the ſouth end, and enters into the Woltoff, another river, which flows thither from the province of Novorogod. From the capital of that province, begins what is properly called the artificial canal, which, paſſing through the territories of Brognitz, Chreſtitz, Chilolova, Witſchan-Voloſcha, Torſchock, the province of Twere, and the diſtrict of Kiln, reaches, at length, the city of Moſcow, and enriches it by the vaſt quantities of merchandizes that are brought to and from thence.

A late traveller into Ruſſia gives the following account of the monaſtery and church of Jeruſalem: "The church, biſhop's, and prieſts houſes, are all incloſed with high brick walls; the wall, forming one ſide of the biſhop's palace, is built on a beautiful detached hill, having on the eaſt, north, and weſt, the fineſt lawns in the world, through which glides a noble river. In the plain, upon the banks of the river, ſtands the builder's romantic houſe, all built of ſtone. It is quite alone, three ſtories in height, in every one of which are four rooms, except the ground ſtory, where are his kitchen, ſtore-room, and another room, I imagine for his attendants. The area of each of theſe rooms is about eight, or at moſt but nine feet ſquare. In every one is a ſmall ſtove; his bedſtead is of ſtone, as are his bed and pillow. His chairs are of the ſame materials; every ſtory of his houſe is vaulted, and is flat on the roof, for the conveniency of taking a view of the country. It has but one entry, and every room receives light from one window of the leaſt ſize. The builder was a hermit, and a profeſſed religious. The hoſpital is not large, but well enough provided with every neceſſary except medicine, prayers being, in their opinion, ſufficiently efficacious for the cure of all diſeaſes which appear in this holy place.

"At the weſt end of the church is one of the moſt capacious cupolas I have ever ſeen, only the middle of the arch had fallen down ſome years ago. The dome is very magnificent and high, with a gallery that ſurrounds it near the top: it is well lighted, the windows being large, and the walls are all hung round with various pictures of the ſaints, very richly adorned with ſilver, gold, pearls, and precious ſtones; and the altar is very grand, and adorned with various pieces of curious workmanſhip. This dome is a noble ſtructure; but I cannot ſay whether it is as large as that of St. Paul's or not."

Treytza, or Treytzki, is a ſmall, but handſome town, famed for the ſtately monaſtery of that name, or convent of the Trinity, a ſpacious building, with three large gates, and a noble church, ſtanding in the middle of the ſquare. The abbot here is ſo rich, that he has fifty-ſix thouſand peaſants dependent on him, beſides other revenues. The czars have here ſome apartments for themſelves, and a noble palace, ſtrongly fortified. In this monaſtery it was that the late czar Peter I. in his younger days, was forced to retire, to ſecure himſelf from the fury of the Boyard Couvanſki and his ſtrelitzes, who plundered and murdered all opponents in his metropolis; and from the plots and conſpiracies of his ambitious ſiſter.

The town of Columna, or Kolumna, is ſituated near the confines of the duchy of Rezan on the weſtern ſhore of the river Occa, which divides it from a ſlabode, or ſuburb, on the oppoſite ſide. It is almoſt of a round figure, half a mile in compaſs, well fortified with a ſtone wall, ſix fathoms high, and two thick, and flanked with ſtout and high towers, at the diſtance of two hundred paces from each other; but is now gone to decay, and is almoſt ruined on one ſide. The ſuburb, which is called Colutwina ſlaboda, is the place where the merchandizes

are expoſed to ſale. As for the city, it hath nothing conſiderable in it except the fine ſtately church of the Virgin Mary, and the archiepiſcopal palace; the city being dignified with the title of an archbiſhopric. It ſtands about fifteen leagues ſouth-eaſt from Moſcow; latitude fifty-five degrees, longitude thirty-nine degrees twenty-eight minutes eaſt.

Colomenſko, or Kolommenſki, is a ſmall city in the neighbourhood of Moſcow, ſituated on an eminence, from which it yields a beautiful proſpect. It hath a handſome church, with two high towers, and a ſtately monaſtery. It hath two avenues to it over the Moſca, which muſt be croſſed over a float of timber faſtened together, ſo as to be looſened and divided, to give paſſage to the veſſels that go up and down that river.

The town of Moſaiſch, ſituated on the ſame river, about nine leagues ſouth-weſt of the city of Moſcow, but not conſiderable enough at preſent to merit a particular deſcription.

XVII. The duchy of Roſtow, or Roſtoft, is bounded on the ſouth by that of Moſcow; on the north by that of Jaroſlaw, on the eaſt by that of Suſdal, and on the weſt by that of Twere. It is a rich and plentiful country, and was formerly the firſt duchy in all Ruſſia, next to that of Novogorod; and was governed by its own duke, till the czar Iwan Baſilowitz put the laſt of them to death, and ſeized on this territory, anno 1564. It was afterwards aſſigned for the maintenance of the zarowitz, or heir apparent. Roſtow abounds with corn, fruits, herbs, game, &c. The capital, called alſo Roſtow, is a large town and metropolitical ſee, ſituated on the lake of Roſtow, from whence iſſues the ſmall river Cobris, or Colſpar, which runs into the Wolga. There are ſome elegant ſtone churches in this city: it ſtands about one hundred and twenty miles to the north of Moſcow.

The town of Uglitz, ſituated on the Wolga, about eighty miles to the weſtward of Roſtow is celebrated for the excellency of the bread made in it. Here the young prince Demetrius, ſon of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, was murdered by order of his brother-in-law Trederowitz Gadenaw, during a tumult which was occaſioned by a conflagration made on purpoſe, and the throne was uſurped by the murderer. The town of Chlopigorod is now gone to decay, though it was formerly a place of conſiderable trade.

The town of Penſtaw is large and populous, ſtanding at an equal diſtance from Moſcow and Roſtow. The other towns and villages are known by the names of Mologa, Semabrataff, Guo, Imbilowa-Uova, and Baſnia Nova, but there is nothing remarkable in any of them.

XVIII. The duchy of Yeroſlawla lies between Moſcow and Vologda: it is exceedingly fertile, abounds with corn, cattle, and honey, and is watered by the Wolga, which runs through the heart of it. The capital of the ſame name, is a ſtrong, well-fortified, large, populous city, containing forty thouſand inhabitants. It is about thirty-ſix miles to the northward of Roſtow, and has a conſiderable trade in corn, cattle, leather, honey, &c. Roma Nova and Darnalofke, which are of little note, are the other towns of this diſtrict.

XIX. The dutchy of Bilejeſora is a very ſmall province, nearly circular, and derives its name from a lake called Biele-Ozoro, or the White Lake, which is forty miles long and twenty broad, and on the banks of which ſtands the capital of the ſame name.

This duchy is bounded, on the ſouth, by that of Twere; on the weſt, by Great Novogorod; on the north by Vologda; and, on the eaſt, by Yeroſlawla. The whole is ſo much encumbered with lakes, fens, bogs, woods, &c. that the roads in general are uſeleſs, except in the winter, when the froſt renders them paſſable. Some parts of the province afford corn and paſture; and there is plenty of fiſh: Biele-Ozoro, or Belozero, the capital, is a large populous, rich place, is ſtrongly fortified, hath an important caſtle, and is ſurrounded by the waters of the before-mentioned lake.

XX. The duchy of Vologda is bounded, on the weſt, by Bilejeſora; on the eaſt, by the river Dwina, on the north, by Cargapol and Ouſtriaug; and, on the ſouth, by Yeroſlawla. It abounds with fiſh and game, but is deſtitute of moſt other kinds of proviſions; being woody, mountainous, full of lakes, firs, &c.

The capital, which is called by the name of the province, is ſituated on both ſides of the river Vologda; is a capacious, populous, and commercial place, as, beſides natives, many Engliſh, Dutch, and other merchants reſide in it. This city is one of the moſt ancient Ruſſian archiepiſcopal ſees; is near two hundred and thirty miles to the northward of Moſcow, ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, and defended by a ſtrong fortreſs. The ſtreets are opened regular, the houſes handſome, and the markets well furniſhed, every commodity being ſold in a diſtinct quarter. The river is broad and navigable, and the cathedral magnificent, beſides which, here are twenty ſtone, and forty-three wooden churches, beſides three nunneries, each of which has an elegant chapel.

The town of Dwinitza, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which falls in the Vologda, a ſmall, but well-peopled town. There are likewiſe two other inconſiderable towns, named Sooſka and Strelitz, on the river Vologda.

XXI. The province of Cargapol is ſituated to the north of Vologda, from hence it ſtretches almoſt to the White Sea. It is woody and fenny, contains many lakes and rivers, but has no town except Cargapol, which is ſituated on the weſtern banks of the river Onega. The people are exceedingly rude and barbarous. The diſtrict of Wiga, which lies to the north weſt of Cargapol, is wild and deſolate, and contains only two ſmall towns called Waga Wied; and the diſtrict of Onega, which lies to the weſtward of that of Waga, is equally barren and wild, very thinly inhabited, and hath only one town named Korelſkoi, ſituated on the ſouthern coaſt of the Red-ſea, and near the mouth of the river Onega.

XXII. The province of Dwina is very extenſive, being computed near one hundred leagues long, in form of a lozenge or rhomb. It is bounded on the north and north-weſt by the White Sea, and part of Ingria; on the weſt by the provinces of Vaga and Onega, laſt mentioned, from which it is parted by the river Dwina; on the ſouth by that of Ouſtioug, or Uſtiug; and on the eaſt by part of that of Zirania. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, beſides the Dwina above mentioned; ſome of which, particularly the Pinega, fall into it a little above the town of Upſnaga, and run with it into the White Sea at the city of Archangel, or St. Michael the Archangel, called by the Ruſſians, Archania; it is advantageouſly ſeated on the eaſt ſide of the Dwina, which falls into the White Sea ſix leagues below it. It extends itſelf along that river only about two miles, or three quarters of a league, in length; and about one quarter in breadth; but yet is rich and populous, and of modern ſtructure; being chiefly become conſiderable by the Engliſh ſhips coming thither to traffic, and thereby bringing a great reſort of merchants thither from moſt parts of Moſcovy, as well as from Holland, Sweden, Denmark, &c. inſomuch that thoſe months in which the river is not frozen, for it will freeze at leaſt three months in winter, one may ſee between three and four hundred, and ſometimes more, ſail of ſhips, in that harbour.

This city was firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh, anno 1553, when Sir Hugh Willoughby having received a commiſſion to go to find out the north-eaſt paſſage to China, Richard Chancellor, maſter of one of the ſhips, was ſeparated from the reſt of the fleet, and accidentally fell into the bay of St. Nicolas, on the White Sea; from whence he was ſent for, and kindly received by the then czar Iwan Baſilowitz, who ſoon after granted the Engliſh free liberty to trade into his dominions. A company of merchants was accordingly incorporated in London, anno 1555, and had large privileges granted to them by that monarch; upon which encouragement, a conſiderable traffic was ſet on foot, to the great profit of both nations, which ours enjoyed ſolely, for ſome time. Till then, the Ruſſian commodities uſed to be conveyed to Narva, a ſea-port on the gulf of Finland, but this latter hath yielded, ſince, to Archangel, which is now, in a manner, the only port, of any conſideration, in Moſcovy.

After the Engliſh, the Dutch and other nations, ſoon ſtruck in for a ſhare of this traffic, though not with the ſame advantage with ours, by reaſon of the peculiar privileges granted to our company; but theſe were unhappily loſt in the time of our grand rebellion, when the czar was ſo exaſperated againſt the Engliſh nation, on his hearing of the murder of King Charles I. that he wholly deprived them of it; ſince which time, all our efforts have not been able to regain them: ſo that our merchants now trade thither upon the ſame footing with other Europeans.

The palace, or hall, is the moſt conſiderable edifice in this city: it is built of large ſquare ſtones, after the Italian manner, and divided into three parts: in one of which the merchants, both Ruſſians and ſtrangers, have large and convenient apartments, for themſelves and their wares; but after the ſhips are ſailed away, which they commonly do in October, they then are obliged to remove to other lodgings. This palace is a large ſtately building, with a

ſpacious court before it, which reaches quite to the river. The courts of juſtice, both civil and criminal, are held in it in their proper apartments.

The citadel, where the governor reſides, is built after the Ruſſian manner, and ſurrounded with wooden walls, which reach, alſo, quite to the river. In it are a vaſt quantity and variety of ſhops, where the Ruſſians ſtore up their merchandize againſt the fair: theſe, as well as the houſes of the town, are all of wood, but ſtout and large, and well furniſhed within, eſpecially thoſe of foreign merchants. They have all of them a ſtove within-ſide every chamber, to fence againſt the extreme cold. The ſtreets are paved with broken ſtumps, pieces of timber, and other rubbiſh, ſo roughly laid, that one is in continual danger of falling; only in winter the ſnow, which lies pretty thick and hard upon them, makes them ſmooth and eaſy, during that ſeaſon, which is here ſo ſevere, that there is no divine ſervice performed all that while. However, here is plenty of all proviſions, as fleſh, fowl of all ſorts, eſpecially wild; fiſh in great variety, and all ſold extraordinarily cheap: particularly partridges, which commonly ſell at about three-pence or four-pence per brace, and of which here are two kinds; one like the common ſort, and the other which turn white in winter, and reſume their natural colour in ſummer.

The government of this city was wholly lodged in the governor till the year 1700, when the czar created four burgomaſters to take care of the civil and mercantile affairs; ſo that the governor's power is now confined to the militia only. The court ſends hither yearly, a commiſſioner, to receive the cuſtoms laid on all merchandizes; and he, in his abſence, appoints four ſublegates, to collect and get them ready againſt the next year. The revenue which the czar receives from theſe cuſtoms, has been computed to be between one hundred and fifty thouſand and two hundred thouſand rubles per annum, and the number of ſhips that come hither from the foreign nations, is, communibus annis, between three and four thouſand. The chief commodities that are brought into this port are, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, other ſorts of lace, gold wire, cochineal, indigo, and other drugs for dying; wines, brandies, and other diſtilled liquors. However, the trade of this place is vaſtly decreaſed ſince the czars, by the conqueſt of Livonia, have made the ports of Peterſburg and Riga the rivals of this, and cauſed the flow of trade to paſs in a great meaſure, from it to them.

Archangel is the ſee and reſidence of a Ruſſian archbiſhop. Its latitude is variouſly fixed by geographers: Father Riccioli places it under ſixty-ſix degrees forty minutes, and the Dutch maps, after De Liſle, remove it farther north by almoſt three degrees. We hope ours will be found more exact, which give it ſixty-four degrees thirty-ſix minutes, and longitude forty degrees five minutes eaſt.

St. Nicolas is another ſea-port in this province, and ſtands on the ſouth coaſt of the White Sea, about ſeven leagues weſt of Archangel. It ſeems to have been formerly more conſiderable than it is; ſeeing it gave name to this whole bay, or ſea, which was, from it, ſtyled St. Nicholas's bay.

Colmogorod is ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the Dwina, about nine or ten leagues above, or ſouth of Archangel, and is reckoned one of the moſt conſiderable towns, next to it, in this province. It ſtands a little above the confluence of the river Pinega into the Dwina. M. Le Brun, who calls it Colmogora, ſays it is large, and the ſeat of a Ruſſian archbiſhop.

Here is a ſtrong fortreſs, called Nova Dwiniſka; it was lately built to defend the mouth of the new canal, or moſt northern mouth of the Dwina, on the White Sea. It hath a large wooden bridge over that river, with a draw-bridge in the middle, wide enough for two ſhips to paſs abreaſt of each other.

The city of Sottolitza is very populous and conſiderable, and inhabited by many wealthy merchants, and ingenious mechanics: it ſtands upon the ſouth limits of this province, in latitude ſixty-three degrees. A territory named Wollo-ſtuſgy, is near this place: it is inhabited by men of a different language, who are civilized, and belong to the Greek church: they are ſuppoſed to have come hither from Livonia.

There are a few iſlands near this part of the Ruſſian ſhore, but they are of very little importance: namely, Martinowitz, which is about one hundred and thirty miles long, and upwards of fifty broad. It ſtands near two degrees to the northward of the arctic pole, is full of woods, and watered by ſeveral rivers: this iſland is generally called Candenora, or Kandenoſs. Farther north there is another called Kelgon, from the extreme ſeverity of the climate. Theſe are but thinly inhabited, and but little known. The White Sea contains, beſides theſe, a few other ſcattered iſlands, which are for the moſt part uninhabited and barren.

SECT. IV.

Deſcribing the third grand Diviſion of RUSSIA, called EASTERN MUSCOVY, or RUSSIA. EASTERN MUSCOVY conſiſts of ten Provinces which follow: namely, 1. MAZZEN; 2. JUGORA; 3. CONDORA; 4. TEESCA; 5. PETZORA; 6. VOGULIZI; 7. PERMIA; 8. OUSTIOUG, 9. ZIRANIA; 10. VAITKA, or VIATKA.

I. THE territory of Mezzen is ſituated to the northward of Dwina and the river Prega, and extends northward to Jugora and the ſtraights of Kandanoſs. It is a long tract of land, narrow, woody, fenny, mountainous, cold, and barren. The whole region is gloomy and uncomfortable; and the chief town, called Mezzen, and the few villages which this province contains, are wretched places.

II. The province of Jugora, or Jugorſki, is bounded, on the ſouth-weſt, by Mezzen; on the north, by the northern ocean; on the eaſt, by the province of Petzora; and, on the ſouth, by thoſe of Ouſtioug and Permia. It is a very large territory, divided by the polar circle into two parts, the far greater of which lies on this ſide; however, its ſituation is cold enough to make the land barren and uncultivated; ſo that the country is almoſt over-run with foreſts, and covered with lakes and bogs: it hath alſo abundance of rivers, the principal of which are, the Fitza, Goloebintza, Goloebeica, Otma, Oymitza, Peitza, Peizitza, Voloingha, and Sudega; all which flow northwards into the gulf of Teeſca, called by the Ruſſians, Teeſkaia Gouba. There are ſeveral others on the ſouth end of the province, which take different courſes from theſe, and empty themſelves ſome into the Dwina, and others into lakes. The territory of Vaconitza Voloſt is in the middle of this province: it hath a few towns or great villages; and on the ſouth parts are the Jugorian mountains, which divide that part from the province of Zirania, and are always covered with ice and ſnow.

The town of Jugora, or Juhora, ſtands on a ſmall bay of that name, on the northern coaſt, in the latitude of ſixty-eight degrees, between the iſland of Candenois on the weſt, and the gulf of Petzerſkaia on the north-eaſt; and the iſland of Colgoya lies over againſt it, about twenty leagues from the land.

III. The province of Condora, or Condieſki, lies between the Dwina, on the weſt, Jugora on the north, Petzora on the eaſt, and Permia on the ſouth. It is a large province with the title of duchy, but ſo boggy, woody, and mountainous, that it ſcarce deſerves notice, otherwiſe than Wireatoura, the capital, ſeated on the northern parts in the latitude of ſixty-ſix degrees. Antient maps place this province between the White Sea and Siberia, which is the land of the Samoieds.

IV. The territory of Teeſca, north of Condora and Juhorſki, on the northern ſea; having the ſtraits of Candenois, and its iſland, on the weſt, and Samoieda, on the eaſt. It hath but one town worth naming, viz. Gorodiſche, which ſtands on a ſmall river that falls in about ten leagues below it, into the gulf of Teeſca; ſixty-ſeven degrees latitude, and fifty degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude.

V. The province of Petzora is a vaſt territory, extending itſelf from the lake Petzerſkie, on the ſouthernmoſt part of it, quite to the northern or Frozen ocean; that is, from the ſixty-third to almoſt the ſeventieth degree of north latitude. It is bounded, on the weſt, by Jugora; on the eaſt, by the Riphæan or Obian mountains; on the ſouth, by the province of Vogulizi; and by the northern ſea, on the north. The river Petzora, which riſes out of that lake, runs quite through it, in a direct courſe, from ſouth to north, and diſcharges itſelf into the above-mentioned ſea, by ſix different mouths, near the ſtrait of Weigatz, a little above the city of Petzora, which is ſituated upon the ſame river, about thirty leagues from the ſea; it is but a ſmall place, and is ſuppoſed to have been formerly called Puſte Oſoro, from ſome golden mines, or ſands, that fell from thoſe Obian mountains into that river. The cold is ſo extenſive and laſting here, that the rivers are frozen about eight months in the year. They begin to thaw in May, and in Auguſt freeze again.

Beſides the capital, there are three towns in this province: namely, Weliki Poyaſſa, near the ſpring head of

the above-named river; Papynowgorod, about thirty-four leagues below it; Botwanſkaia, on the gulf of its name, near the mouth of the Petzora; Puterſerſkoy, on the eaſt of the ſame; with ſome others.

VI. The territory of the Vogulizi, called alſo Vogulitzi, Vogolſkoi, and Volgolitzes, is ſeated ſouth of the laſt named province, and north of that of Permia. Their country is alſo divided by the Obian mountains from the country of Siberia, on the eaſt, and extends itſelf weſtward to the river Irtis. Theſe people differ ſo much from all their neighbours round about, that they have been ſuppoſed to be of Tartaric extraction, but without any probability; ſince all the Tartars, either of Siberia, Cazan, or Aſtracan, are all Mahometans; whereas theſe Vogulizi are heathens, and reſemble moſt, in their religion and cuſtoms, the Siberian pagans, but are more civilized than they are. The country reaches from ſixty-two degrees thirty minutes to almoſt ſixty-three degrees of north latitude.

With reſpect to their religion, they acknowledge a ſupreme Being, the creator and preſerver of all things; and ſacrifice to him once a year, at the end of ſummer, in one of the neareſt foreſts, ſome of the beſt cattle they are maſters of, one of each ſort; but can give no reaſon for ſo doing, but that their fathers did ſo. They believe in a future life of rewards and punithments, but will not bear being told that there are any devils, or malevolent ſpirits; alledging, that they have no inſtances among them of any ſuch. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Ruſſian peaſants, and they bury their dead in their beſt cloaths, together with ſome money. As little corn comes to perfection in their country, they live chiefly upon the milk of their cattle, and ſuch game as they kill. They never marry within the forbidden degrees of conſanguinity; but in other reſpects may have as many wives as they can maintain, which they purchaſe of their parents.

Here are neither cities nor towns, but villages made up of huts of a conic figure, with a hearth in the middle, and a hole at the top, to let the ſmoke out; which hole, however, they cover with a thin tranſparent piece of ice, to let ſome light into their huts, as ſoon as their fuel is burnt to a coal. When a woman is near the time of her delivery, ſhe is obliged to go into a private hut raiſed on purpoſe for her, and to live in it ſeparate from her huſband, and all matrimonial intercourſe. The men go a ſhooting of elks, fallow deer, and other game: they live quietly under the Ruſſian government, and pay their tribute in ſkins and furs, which are ſent into the public repoſitory at Siberia.

VII. The province of Permia, or Permeſky, is one of the largeſt in the Ruſſian empire, and is bounded, on the north, by the country of the Vogulizi; on the eaſt, by Siberia; on the ſouth, by the province of Vaſtka; and on the weſt by that of Ouſtioug, or Uſtiug, and reaches almoſt from fifty-two to ſixty-one degrees of north latitude, and in breadth above ſixty leagues where broadeſt, though much narrower in the ſouthern part towards Cazan, or Caſan. Notwithſtanding this vaſt extent, it is far from being conſiderable upon any account, if we except its rivers, ſome of which are large, and run a vaſt length; the moſt remarkable one is the Kama, which receives ſeveral others, and ſprings from that long chain of mountains which part it from Siberia, and which extend themſelves from the kingdom of Cazan quite to the Frozen Sea; that is, from fifty-five to almoſt ſeventy degrees of latitude. Beſides this ridge, the country abounds with many more, as well as lakes, ſo that its ſoil is ſo far from fertile, that the inhabitants are obliged to eat peas, beans, and other pulſe, inſtead of bread. They differ likewiſe much from the neighbouring nations in other reſpects, as in their cuſtoms, religion, &c. and have a language peculiar to themſelves. They are ſubject to the Ruſſians, and pay their tribute in horſes, and ſeveral kinds of furs. The chief town is Perma Velikaia, which authors repreſent as a place of little note, though its name implies ſomething conſiderable.

VIII. The country of Ouſtioug, or Uſtiug, hath its name from the capital, and is bounded, on the eaſt, by Permia, and by the foreſts of Zirania; on the north, by the rivers Waga and Dwina; on the weſt, by the province of Cargapol; and on the ſouth, by that of Vologda. It is not only ſmall, but barren, a great part being covered with vaſt and impenetrable woods. Theſe harbour ſuch a prodigious number of black foxes, that their furs are one of the chief commodities of this country. The rivers Jugh and Suchana riſe in this province, the former on the eaſt ſide; and the Suchana on the weſt; and both ſtreams meeting near the middle, form the great Dwina, or as its name imports, the double river. Other rivers, which fall into the Suchana on the eaſt ſide, are the Peetzenga Recca, which divide Ouſtioug from Vologda, the Bronſnaia, and Stritiuſka. There fall into it, on the weſt ſide, thoſe of Relſona, Ouſtioug, Souzenga, Verchna, Jorga, and a ſmaller one, at the mouth of which ſtands the monaſtery of Teelego. The Waga, which likewiſe falls into the Dwina, runs through ſome of the frontiers of this province; that of Ouſtioug, which hath its ſpring-head alſo in this province, and runs its courſe about four or five leagues from that of the Waga, and falls into the Suchana. This province abounds with the fineſt black foxes, whoſe ſkins bear a great value.

The chief town is Ouſtioug, Uſtiug, or Uſt Jugh: it is ſituated on the weſtern ſhore of the Suchana, which receives the Jugh a little below it. It is an archiepiſcopal ſee of the Ruſſian church, and hath ten or twelve neat churches built of white ſtone, the cupolas and ſpires of which are covered over with tin. The other churches, as as well as the houſes, are built of wood. The archbiſhop's palace, which is a large building, and the beſt edifice of this city, is on the weſt ſide of the river. The other part of it, over the water, is leſs conſiderable, but extends itſelf along the ſide of it, in form of a creſcent, a league in length, and a quarter in breadth. It is chiefly noted for a yearly fair for the ſale of fox-ſkins, and other furs. In Olearius's time it was, it ſeems, the only city in all the empire that was ſurrounded with ſtone walls: the reaſon of which was, that the czars uſed to ſend part of their moſt valuable treaſure thither in time of war. It is two hundred and twenty miles ſouth-eaſt from Archangel, in latitude ſixty-one degrees thirty-five minutes, longitude forty-five degrees fifty-five minutes eaſt.

IX. The province of Ziranza, or country of the Zarani, is a long deſart, woody tract of land, running from ſouth to north, from the ſixtieth to the ſixty-fifth degree of north latitude, but much narrower from eaſt to weſt. It deſerves rather the name of a foreſt than of a province, and ſo indeed it is called by ſeveral authors, there being but few ſpots inhabited, in compariſon of the vaſt and impenetrable woods that ſpread themſelves over it, and abound with innumerable herds of wild beaſts. The people who are here ſcattered in villages, or groups of ſorry huts, are fierce, brutiſh, and untractable; they live upon the game they kill, pay their tribute to the ſovereign in furs, and alſo make cloathing with it for themſelves, and covering for their houſes, and the reſt they ſell and exchange for other goods.

X. The province of Vaitka, or Viatka has the title of a duchy, and is the laſt province in this diviſion of Ruſſia. It is bounded, on the north, by Permia, Zirania, and Ouſtioug; on the weſt, by Vologda and Peroſlaw; on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Cazan; and on the eaſt, by that part of Siberia called the territory of Stoutka. It is moſtly woody, marſhy, and barren; yet yields great quantity of honey, wax, and furs. It was conquered from the Tartars by the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, but was at that time ſo ſubject to the incurſions of the Scheremiſſe Tartars, that he found it half abandoned, and nearly deſart. But ſince both nations have been ſubdued by the Ruſſians, it hath fared much better. It is watered by the river of its name, which ſprings a little above the town of Sextanoff, or Seſtakoff, and running through that and ſeveral other towns falls into the Kama; this laſt falls into the Wolga, a little above Cazan, and runs through another part of the country.

The principal towns in this province are, Viatka the capital, Coteliniz, Orlowa, or Orloof, Glinow, Overtoi, Catharina, Verſchoſenſkoi, Roigorod, Koigorodoc, Urſum, Seſtanoz, or Sextakoff, and Slaboda.

The town of Viatka is ſituated on the river of its name, or, according to Olearius, on a ſmall river that falls into it, a little below that city. It hath little or nothing worth notice, except its biſhop's ſee, and a good ſtout caſtle, built by the czar above-mentioned; to ſuppreſs the incurſions of the Scheremiſſe Tartars. There are two high roads that lead from hence to Moſcow; the one through Caſtroma and Galica; the other through Uſtioug; the former is much ſhorter, but the moſt troubleſome and dangerous, on account of the Scheremiſſe freebooters that infeſt thoſe parts, and alſo the vaſt marſhes that muſt be croſſed by the traveller.

The town of Coliſnitz, which is pretty conſiderable, is ſituated near the confines of the kingdom of Cazan, or Caſan: and Sladboda, another town, ſtands more to the north-weſt, on the borders of the Scheremiſſe Tartars.

This

This dutchy includes, beſides the above, Clinow, Kaigerod, and Ortow, all fortified in the Ruſſian ſtyle.

SECT. V.

Containing the fourth grand Diviſion of RUSSIA, termed MUSCOVITE TARTARY.

THIS diviſion of the Ruſſian empire compriſes the Crim, Leſgee, Baſkeer, Ralmuck, Uſbeak, and ſome leſs conſiderable tribes of Tartars; part of Circania, Siberia, Kamſchatka, Samoieda, and the kingdoms of Aſtracan, Cazan, and Bulgaria; but as the principal part of theſe belong to Aſia, we ſhall therefore refer our readers to that part of this work for an account of them, and confine ourſelves to a deſcription of the kingdoms of Cazan and Bulgaria, which are in the European quarter.

The kingdom of Caſan, which the Ruſſians call Czarſtwo Cazanſkoy, that is the Czariate, or Czarine kingdom of Cazan, was formerly ſubject to its own princes, who were eſteemed powerful monarchs; but was at length ſubdued by the czar Baſilowitz, after a long and bloody war: his ſon Iwan Baſilowitz, ſurnamed the Great, finiſhed the conqueſt, anno 1554, and added to it the kingdom of Aſtracan; ever ſince which theſe two kingdoms have been looked upon as the two richeſt jewels in the Czariſh diadem: this of Caſan, on account of its extraordinary richneſs and fertility; and that of Aſtracan, on account of its vaſt and valuable traffic.

Caſan is bounded on the north by the provinces of Vaitka laſt deſcribed, and Permia; on the eaſt by the Tumæan Tartary; on the ſouth by Baſkiria Bulgaria, and Aſtracan; on the weſt, by the Lower Novogorod, and Moſcovy, properly ſo called; but, according to Mr. Iſbrand's map, not ſo far to the eaſt as the common ones do generally place it. It is watered by the two rivers Wolga and Kama, which run through it, and enrich both its ſoil and its traffic.

The chief towns in this kingdom are, Caſan the capital, Laiſoff, Sabackzar, Pagantzina, Swiatſk, Koleio, Kockſcaga, Malmiſh, Tetul, Karakul, Sundir, Batula, Simburſki, Bur, Uza, and ſome others of leſs note.

The town of Caſan, Cazan, or Cazanum, is ſeated on a river of the ſame name, near its confluence with the Wolga, is a large and populous city, and the ſeat of a Ruſſian metropolitan. The vaſt number of churches, monaſteries, and ſteeples which adorn it, make it yield a fine proſpect both from the land, and from the veſſels that ſail up and down the Wolga. The deſcription which Olearius, who had been there, gives us of it, is to this purport: that it is ſituated on a fine ſpacious plain on the river Caſanka, about ſeven werſtes from the place where it falls into the Wolga, in latitude fifty-eight degrees thirty-eight minutes. Moſt of its houſes are of wood, as well as its ramparts, and towers. The caſtle alone is ſurrounded with ſtone walls; and this is well ſtored with artillery, and warlike ammunition; and the river which runs round it, ſerves it inſtead of a ditch, which renders the place very ſtrong. A garriſon is kept in it, all of Ruſſian ſoldiers; and the Tartars which inhabit the town are forbid to enter it, under pain of death. The caſtle is governed by its own Waywode, and the city by its own governor. About ſeven werſtes below the town, in a reach where the river is broad, there is a large dock for building ſhips of a conſiderable bulk, which are afterwards ſent down into the Caſpian ſea. The city is excellently well ſituated for being well ſupplied with all manner of neceſſaries and proviſions by land and water, and which are here in great plenty and cheapneſs.

The town of Kockſcaga, about ſeventy miles from Cazan, on the banks of the Wolga, is very ſmall. There is alſo an inconſiderable town on the ſide of the river Caſanka, near the frontiers of Bulgaria, ſurrounded by a wooden wall, and but thinly peopled.

At the diſtance of about three miles from the Wolga are the rivers of Scrilierſki; which was once an opulent city between Cazan and Aſtracan, till Tamerlane the Great deſtroyed it.

The kingdom of Bulgaria, otherwiſe ſtyled the Horda, or region of the Zavolani, was anciently inhabited by the Bulgares, or Volgares, a ſtrange race of men, who broke into theſe parts from Aſia, and ſo diſſolute in their morals, that their very name became a term of reproach among their neighbours; and from them the whole kingdom had that of Bulgaria given to it: it is divided into Great and Little, or Aſiatic and European. The latter, which lies along the ſouth coaſts of the Danube, having the Black Sea on the eaſt, and Macedonia on the weſt, became formerly part of the kingdom of Hungary, till ſubdued by Sultan Amurat II. ſince which it hath been, and is ſtill, part of Turky in Europe, and therefore is foreign to this article of Ruſſia, and will be ſpoken of in its proper place.

Bulgaria the Great is that of which we are now going to ſpeak, as part of Ruſſia in Europe, conquered from the Tartars by ſome of the former czars of Muſcovy. It hath its name, as well as Bulgar its capital, from the Bulgares before-mentioned, and is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Cazan, laſt deſcribed; on the eaſt, by Baſkiria; on the ſouth, by the Samara, which divides it from the kingdom of Aſtracan, and, on the weſt, by the Wolga. The large lake Kerghewl lies on the ſouthern ſide; and this is the moſt we can meet worth mention concerning the Ruſſian Bulgaria, whoſe capital ſtands on the north part of it, about twenty-four miles from Caan.

The city of Samara is ſituated on the left ſhore of the river of its name, eaſtward of the Wolga, into which it falls a little below it. It ſtands on the declivity of a mountain of a moderate height, and which terminates at the ſhore on which the city ſtands. It is large, but wretchedly built, of wood, as well as the walls and towers that ſurround it. The town covers almoſt the whole mountain, and the ſuburb extends itſelf along the banks of the river, about forty leagues ſouth of Bulgar, and in latitude fifty-two degrees forty minutes, and longitude fifty degrees thirty minutes eaſt.

SECT. VI.

Comprehending the fifth Diviſion of the Empire of RUSSIA, called RUSSIAN LAPLAND, and NOVA ZEMBLA.

RUSSIAN Lapland is bounded, on the north, by the northern ocean; on the eaſt and ſouth, by the White Sea; which forms there a ſpacious gulf; and by the river Zoloticza, which diſcharges itſelf into it on the eaſt ſide of Kierni, and on the weſt it hath the Daniſh Lapland. It is further divided into three parts, according to their ſituation; whereof one is called Leporia Mouremanſkoi; or maritime Leporia. Terrſkoi, or Inland Leporia; and Bellamoureeſkoi Leporia. The firſt is ſituated on the north and eaſt ſide, having the Norwegian or Daniſh Lapland on the north-weſt; the Swediſh, on the weſt; Terrſkoi on the ſouth-weſt; and Bellamourerſkoi on the outh-eaſt.

The circumjacent country is mountainous, woody, and barren; the air extremely cold; the inhabitants are as rude as ignorant; and, in general, the country is much like the Swediſh and Daniſh Lapland.

Moſt of the iſlands, cities, and towns, ſtand on the ſea-coaſts, and are as follow: Kierni, ſituated near the mouth of the river Zoloticza. Zoloſki a town and iſland, in which is a monaſtery of the ſame name. Kerſelli, or Kierlit, on the mouth of the freſh-water river. Kemelco, a town and iſland, with ſome ſmall ones about it. Kovoda, ſituated on the mouth of a river which flows from the lake Pajorſwoi into the gulf Ombai, on the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which empties itſelf into the Gouba, or Salt River, Wolna Oſtrof, or Iſland of Deer, with a town of the ſame name. Cape Touria, Soutkete, Caſcavaron, Warſiga, Palenga, and Pelitza; which are but ſmall towns. Sonſnowitz, or Iſland of the Croſs; three others on the mouth of the river Ponoi; Cape Orlogone, with a bay and haven, at the entrance into the White Sea. The iſles of Lombacho; the cape and iſles of Swetenoes, in a bay; at the further end of which is the town of Jockna, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which affords plenty of fiſh. Nookoſtrof, called by the Dutch Nagel Eyland, or Nail Iſland; the Mariners Bay. Seven iſlands more on the mouth of a nameleſs river, well-ſtored with ſalmon, as are indeed moſt of the rivers on this coaſt. The Golden Bay, Daelna Olignia, or Farther Olignia; to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name, and nearer the coaſt, namely, Daelna Silenſi, or Farther Silenſi, ſo named, on the ſame account; port Gabriel; port of Waronia; Bliesna, or Nearer Olignia; the iſland and town of Kildwin; the town, iſland, and lake of Kola; the Fiſhermen's iſland; Petzinſka river; with a monaſtery ſo named.

The lake of Polina, or Polina Ozero, with a town of the ſame name, are in the interior part of the country.

Mouſemanſkoi Leporia, is a mountainous and woody country, and hath few towns of note except Kola, a ſmall

A NEW and Correct MAP of SCOTLAND, Drawn from the Latest SURVEYS of that Part of GREAT BRITAIN.

ORKNEY ISLANDS

PENTLAND FIRTH

MURRAY FIRTH

FIRTH FORTH

Berwick upon Tweed

Farn Is.

Coquet I.

Tyne R.

Norro Bank

British Statute Miles.

Longitude West from London

ſmall port, ſituated on the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which falls into the ocean. It lies in latitude ſixty-eight degrees fifty-five minutes, longitude thirty-four degrees twenty-five minutes eaſt; is the chief place in the whole country, and ſtands between the town of Wardways and the White Sea.

The inland part of the Ruſſian Lapland, called Terrſkoi Leporia, is almoſt ſurrounded with the ſea, and is the land that makes the gulf of the White Sea. It is no leſs woody and barren than the reſt, and the chief town in it is Warſign, ſituated on the ſouth coaſt, over againſt Archangel; latitude ſixty-four degrees twenty-five minutes, longitude forty degrees eaſt. Lochena is another ſmall ſea-port, in latitude ſixty-eight degrees, at the mouth of a river of its name, which falls into the northern ocean.

The other diſtrict, called Bellamoureſkoi Leporia, lies at the bottom of the above-mentioned gulf called the White Sea, and, like the reſt, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town is Soma, ſituated on the frontiers of the province of Moſcovitiſh Carelia, and at the very entrance into the Ruſſian Lapland, on the White Sea; latitude ſixty-four degrees twenty minutes.

We ſhall cloſe our account of the different provinces of the Ruſſian empire with a deſcription of Nova Zembla, which name, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies New Land: it is ſeparated from the northern part of Ruſſia by the ſtrait called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north latitude ſeventy degrees. The land that forms this ſtrait is a promontory, advancing ſouthward from the main country, which is ſuppoſed to extend itſelf much farther north. It was long doubted whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the weſt, or of Tartary on the eaſt; but it is now known to be an iſland of great extent.

The Engliſh were the firſt diſcoverers of this country in the year 1553, when Captain Hugh Willoughby ſailed thither with three veſſels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark as far north as the ſeventy-ſecond degree of latitude, where he thought he had deſcried this land; but being obliged, through ſtreſs of weather, to put into a port of Lapland, he there periſhed with cold, with all his company. Three years afterwards, Captain Burroughs ſailed in ſearch of it; and having doubled the above-mentioned cape, diſcovered the ſtrait of Wygatz, between the ſouth part of Nova Zembla, and the north coaſt of Samoieda. Since that time it hath been often viſited, both by Dutch and Engliſh, in hopes of finding out the north-eaſt paſſage; but the coldneſs of the climate, and the mountains of ſnow that covered the whole country, prevented their making any great diſcoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, anno 1598, but found the cold ſo exceſſive, that they with great difficulty kept themſelves alive till the next ſummer. They ſaw no ſun from January 4th to June 24th, during which long and dark interval they had no light, except what the moon afforded them from the firſt to the laſt quarter, in which ſhe ſhone by day and night without intermiſſion. From their accounts of this country, it appears, that ſome part of it is inhabited by a people of low ſtature, who are idolaters, and barbarous. The attempts made afterwards by Captain Barentz, a Hollander, by Hudſon, Wood, and Haws, proved likewiſe of little or no conſequence to the public, and of a bad one to them, except that Wood made ſome remarks, which gave him reaſon to think there was a paſſage between this country and that of Greenland. He repreſents Nova Zembla as the moſt forlorn ſpot in all the world, the greateſt part of which is laid under ſnow and ice; and, where there are neither of theſe, one meets with nothing but diſmal quagmires, covered with moſs, and ſome blue and yellow flowers. Upon digging two or three feet into the earth, they find the ice as hard as marble, which ſhews how vain it would be to attempt to winter there in caves dug under ground. In other northern countries the ice and ſnow is obſerved to melt much ſooner on the ſea-coaſts than in the inland parts; but here it is quite the reverſe; and the ſea, which beats againſt mountains of it of a prodigious height, hath ſo undermined it, that it ſeems to hang in the air, and diſcovers ſuch monſtrous chaſms as ſtrike the beholder with horror.

As far as a view could be taken of this country, it is ſaid to breed ſome ſorts of wild creatures, ſuch as large and white bears, foxes, ſome little creatures like rabbets, but not bigger than rats, large penguins, &c. The laſt mentioned bird is of the ſize of a gooſe, and the feathers are ſomewhat like hairs, and are of an aſh colour. The wings are very ſhort, in proportion to the body, and the bill is black, but the legs are of a bright green. They keep in the water all the day, where they feed upon fiſh. As they cannot fly, they are unable to ſhun their enemies, except by leaping along, which they do pretty well, by the help of their ſhort wings. However, this bird is active upon the water, and ſeems to be very ſkilful in catching its food. When the ſun begins to ſet, they retire to the rocks near the ſea, where they continue till morning, at which time they are eaſily taken. Their eggs are very good; but the fleſh has a fiſhy taſte, and is never eaten but in caſes of great neceſſity. They build their neſts on the craggy points of the rocks, to which theſe birds can very eaſily climb.

The penguin is not only common in theſe northern parts of Ruſſia, but likewiſe in ſeveral countries of North America, and is every where known by the ſame name, with little or no variation, which in the Celtic, and in our preſent Welſh, ſignifies a white head, as that bird actually hath. This, together with ſome great affinity which is found in many of the radical words, and proper names uſed by people in thoſe diſtant regions, confirms a curious conjecture we have borrowed from the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, and before taken notice of, namely, that the deſcendants of Gomer, the eldeſt ſon of Japhet, were not only the firſt peoplers of Europe even in its remoteſt parts, but have preſerved their antient language more than any other nation we know of, except the Chineſe. The ſouthern part hath been ſince found to be inhabited by a ſquat, ſwarthy ſort of people, who cloath themſelves with ſeal-ſkins, or with the ſkins of a large bird, which they call penguin, with the feathers. They worſhip the ſun and moon, and have little wooden idols in human ſhape, but wretchedly carved, or rather notched. They live upon what game or fiſh they catch.

With reſpect to the late acquiſition of Carelia, or the government of Wiburgh, it muſt be obſerved that it compoſes part of the great duchy of Finland, which the Swedes ceded to Ruſſia, and contains the three diſtricts of Finlandiſh Carelia, Kexholm, and Sawolex.

This province hath frequently proved a bone of contention between Ruſſia and Sweden. In 1293 it fell under the Swediſh dominion, but in 1338 part of it was yielded up to Ruſſia. By the peace of Nyſtadt, concluded in 1721, a ſtill greater part was reſigned to the Ruſſians, the weſtern part alone being left in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes. Afterwards Sweden was obliged to give up, by the treaty of Abo, the fort of Frederiſham and Wilmanſtrand, with part of the pariſh of Pythis, ſituated on the other ſide of the eaſtern branch of the river Kymmene. In this part of Carelia are the following places:

The town of Suſterbec, which is ſeated in the gulf of Finland, is remarkable for the excellence of its muſkets, ſwords, and iron utenſils. The greateſt part of the arms uſed by the Ruſſian troops are made in this place.

The town of Wiburgh, once the capital of Carelia, a biſhop's ſee, and the bulwark of Sweden againſt Ruſſia, is ſituated on the gulf of Finland, has a convenient harbour, and carries on a conſiderable trade. Peter the Great having taken this town by capitulation, in the year 1710, improved its fortifications, which have ever ſince been kept in good condition, that Wiburgh may now be conſidered as the bulwark of Ruſſia againſt Sweden.

The town of Wilmanſtrand is ſeated on the lake Saima, and is called by the Finlanders Lappi Weſſi, or Lapp Water. It had formerly the name of Lapſtrand, and was only a market-place, but was afterwards made a town; yet it has no magiſtrate of its own, it being dependent on Frederiſham. It was a conſiderable mart for tar, and the reſidence of a Swediſh governor. On the twenty-third of Auguſt, 1741, an obſtinate battle was fought about an Engliſh mile from this town between three thouſand Swedes and ſixteen thouſand Ruſſians; but the former were at laſt obliged to yield to ſuperiority of numbers. The Ruſſians, after they had gained the victory, burnt Wilmanſtrand, which was before fortified with a wall and moat; but they have ſince cauſed it to be rebuilt.

The town of Frederiſham is ſituated on the gulf of Finland. The town was governed by two burgomaſters, and was defended by a caſtle built in 1722; it hath alſo a good harbour and a conſiderable trade in tar; but in the laſt war between the Ruſſians and Swedes it was burnt to the ground, and ceded to the latter; afterwards it was rebuilt, and the limits between Sweden and Ruſſian Carelia were fixed near this place.

Kexholm is a very extenſive diſtrict; but is chiefly covered with rocks and lakes. It has been frequently contended for by the Ruſſians and Swedes, and was reſtored to the former by the treaty of Nyſtadt. The moſt remarkable place in it is, the town of Kexholm, which

is a place of great ſtrength: it is ſituated on two ſmall iſlands at the influx of the river Woxen into the lake of Ladoga. The principal part of the town is built on one of theſe iſlands; but the houſes are all of wood; and the caſtle ſtands on the other iſland.

SECT. VII.

Giving an Account of the Perſons, Dreſs, and Manners of the RUSSIANS; the Houſes and Furniture of the common People; their Food, Fondneſs for ſtrong Liquors, their Roads, Manner of Travelling, Language, &c.

AMONGST ſuch a variety of people as are contained in this extenſive empire, the ſtature, features, complexion, genius and habits of the natives differ from one another, as they are differently ſituated.

The Laplanders and Samoieds, in the north, are low of ſtature, have flat faces, ſmall eyes, and tawny complexions; for it is obſerved, that extreme cold is as great an enemy to beauty as exceſſive heat; here they cloath themſelves with ſkins and furs from head to foot, and uſually ſew two ſkins together, that they may have the fur next their ſkins, as well as on the outſide.

The natives about Moſcow, Peterſburg, and in the middle provinces, are of a moderate ſtature, have good complexions, and hale, vigorous conſtitutions; but nothing is ſo much admired as a ruddy countenance: they are aſhamed of looking pale, and if they want red, do not fail to lay it on pretty thick. They are, it is ſaid, inclined to be corpulent, but thoſe I have ſeen, and we may ſee them every week at the Greek chapel in York-Buildings, are of a moderate ſize, both men and women. The veſt, gown and cap, were the uſual cloathing of the men; till Peter the Great obliged them to wear ſhort cloaths, like their ſouthern neighbours; and the people of faſhion now generally conform to the French mode; though I obſerved, that ſeveral had coats down to their heels, like a ſeaman's watch-coat; and it ſeems a little barbarous to compel the poor people to leave off theſe ſort of cloaths in ſo cold a climate as Ruſſia. The men and women both wear their hair long, and the virgins had their hair braided, as ſome of them have ſtill; the married women put theirs under a cap, but the gentry in general conform to our dreſs. The greateſt difficulty czar Peter met with, was, to make the men part with their long beards, which they ſeemed to look upon as ſacred, and took it as a favour (when they found they muſt part with them) if he would return them again after they were cut off, that they might be buried with them.

The women in general, ſays Mr. Hanway, are not ſo amiable in Ruſſia as in many other countries: indeed, they daub themſelves ſo much with artificial charms, as to conceal thoſe graces, which, it may be preſumed, nature has beſtowed on them. In general they profeſs, that if nature gives them ſufficient plumpneſs, they can procure beauty themſelves; and to this purpoſe we may obſerve, from the very idiom of their language, that craſna devitza, which literally ſignifies a red virgin, is a term for a pretty girl. Although it has been obſerved, that very cold climates produce the ſame diſpoſition to amour as very hot ones; yet this does not appear to be entirely the caſe in Ruſſia. Chaſtity, as a virtue, is not, indeed, more in repute in this country than in the ſouthern parts of Europe; but it ſeems as if the ſame cauſes in nature, which reſtrain them from a fierce reſentment of the illegal commerce of the ſexes, check, in ſome meaſure, their eager deſire of ſuch gratifications. As the Ruſſians are not ſo refined in their manners as to have a very delicate ſenſe of honour, ſo we find that the chaſtiſement of female infidelity is ſeldom carried beyond a beating, which the adulterer generally may compound for his offence by a pecuniary mulct. Among the common people, the eccleſiaſtical laws oblige a man to marry a woman whom he has debauched.

The Ruſſians, the ſame writer obſerves, are of a middle ſtature, though many of them are tall: the common people ſtill are fond of their ancient cuſtoms; and though a majority of them ſubmit to modern improvements, others chooſe to ſuffer great inconveniencies, and pay additional taxes, rather than forſake their beards, and ſome idle diſtinctions with regard to religion.

The common people, both men and women, are cloathed in long coats made of ſheepſkins with the wool inwards, which are very proper for that climate, and coſt only two rubles (nine ſhillings) and ſwaddle up their legs and feet in coarſe cloth: their caps are lined with fur, and cover their ears and neck as well as the head: they wear a ſaſh about the loins, and have double gloves, one pair of woollen and another of leather, which have no partitions for their fingers, only a place for the thumb. People of condition follow our modes, only they have a full great coat over all, lined with furs, and a deep quilted or furred cap when they go abroad. The ladies wear flowered ſilk cloaks lined with furs, uſually made of the ſkins of white hares.

Perſons of both ſexes hang on their breaſt a croſs, which is put on when they are baptized, and this they never lay aſide as long as they live. The croſſes of the peaſants are of lead, but thoſe worn by perſons of wealth are of gold or ſilver.

The Ruſſians ſeldom fail of bathing twice a week; for which purpoſe almoſt every houſekeeper is provided with a bath; and he that has none of his own, goes to thoſe that are public; and baron Mayerburgh affirms, that they pay ſo little regard to decency, that men and women make no ſcruple to go into them promiſcuouſly, and there appear naked to each other. It is alſo obſerved that they will often ſally out naked from the warm bath, run about in the cold, roll themſelves in the ſnow, and plunge again into the warm water: and this viciſſitude of heat and cold they conſider as beneficial to the conſtitution, by rendering them healthy and hardy.

In viſits of ceremony, the men and women uſually welcome each other with a kiſs; but thoſe of the lower claſs ſhew their profound reſpect for perſons of high rank, by proſtrating themſelves on the ground before them. Even the common people ſalute each other with great civility; but before a Ruſſian welcomes his gueſt, the viſitor is obliged to make the ſign of the croſs, and at the ſame time to bow to a picture of ſome ſaint, which is ſo placed as to be ſeen immediately at coming in.

With reſpect to their method of building, their moſt uſual way, both in the towns and country villages, is, to lay one beam of wood upon another; and, faſtening them at the four corners, fill up the crevices between the beams with moſs. The houſe is afterwards covered with ſhingles, and holes are made in the timber for doors and windows. A brick ſtove or large oven is commonly made in the houſes of the peaſants, and takes up a fourth part of the area: this is flat at the top, and boarded, and upon it, and on a kind of ſhelves round the room, the whole family ſleep without beds. The houſes in the villages are contiguous and built cloſe together, as thoſe in towns commonly are. Three benches, an oblong table, and the picture of a ſaint or two, compoſe the principal part of their furniture. Inſtead of candles or lamps, the peaſants uſually burn long ſplinters of deal. The apartments are as black as ſo many chimnies; for the fire-hearth being within the ſtove above-mentioned (which has no other vent for the ſmoke but into the room), the walls are covered with ſoot. It is no ſooner dark, than the houſes ſwarm with a ſpecies of inſects called tarralans, which are a kind of goat-chaffers. The beſt method of keeping them out is burning a light in the room till break of day.

As to their diet, the common people of Ruſſia, and indeed the whole nation, are much more uſed to fiſh than fleſh, eſpecially ſalt fiſh; their faſts taking up near two thirds of the year, when they are abſolutely prohibited by their religion to taſte of fleſh: and in this they ſeem to place the greateſt part of religion, even their children obſerving it with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs; and as they eat no fleſh at theſe times, neither will they taſte of milk or eggs, or any thing that has any relation to it. They eat melons, cucumbers, turnips, and other garden ſtuff in great abundance, and chuſe rye bread rather than wheat, though they have enough of both. They will march a fortnight or three weeks very contentedly when they are in the army, if you ſupply them but with ſaccary, which is rye bread broken into ſmall pieces and baked a ſecond time, eſpecially if they are allowed a dram now and then. Caviere made of the roes of ſturgeon ſalted and dried, is a great diſh amongſt them; and people of condition have out of Lent a variety of fleſh and fowl at their tables. But before the company ſits down, the maſter or miſtreſs of the houſe, of what quality ſoever, always preſents every one of the gueſts with a cup of brandy on a plate with her own hands; and among particular friends all the company ſalute the lady. The firſt courſe at an entertainment uſually conſiſts of hams, tongues, and other cold ſavoury diſhes, that the liquor may reliſh the better, I preſume; with theſe ſtand ſeveral made diſhes, dreſſed with oil, olives, onions, and garlick; which having remained upon the table about an hour, the ſecond courſe, conſiſting of ſoups and boiled


HABITS
of People in
RUSSIA
Grainger sculp.



Smith scalp.

Various CARRIAGES & SLEDGES used for the conveyance of Goods, Merchandize &c. during the Winter in RUSSIA.

and roaſt meat, is brought in; after which follows the deſert, and liquor in abundance; though this goes round pretty freely all the time, the healths being began at the beginning of the meal, in large cups made in the faſhion of a bell.

Their liquors are either mead, or quaz, a ſort of ſmall mead made with honeycombs; but they are of late years pretty much come into the drinking of beer: the profit of which the government engroſſes, all the brewhouſes and places where beer is retailed being the czarina's, and private houſes forced to have licences of the government to brew. It is generally very ſtrong, or the Ruſſians would not value it; and as it is, they ſeldom conclude without a dram of brandy or ſpirits, of which laſt they diſtil great quantities, and it may be had at reaſonable rates; but of theſe alſo the government has the profit. They uſed to begin their entertainments at ten in the morning, and by twelve or one would drink themſelves aſleep; and after a ſhort repoſe begin to drink afreſh: for it is a general cuſtom among the Ruſſians, whether rich or poor, to ſleep after dinner; and this probably may be one reaſon of plying foreigners ſo hard with liquor, ſo much complained of, that they want to get rid of them, that they may retire to reſt.

In Ruſſia, a perſon may travel cheap, and with great expedition both in ſummer and winter; the poſt-roads leading to the chief towns are very exactly meaſured, with the werſts marked, and the poſt-ſtage fixed at proper diſtances; for throughout the whole empire, and even in Siberia, a pillar, inſcribed with the number of werſts, is erected at the end of each. The expence of travelling in this manner is ſo eaſy, that between Riga and Peterſburgh the hire of a poſt-horſe for every werſt is no more than two copeiks and a half, which is one penny three farthings ſterling; between Novogorod and Peterſburgh, only one copeik; but between Novogorod and Moſcow, but half a copeik.

Carriages for merchants are drawn by one horſe: theſe vehicles are nine or ten feet long, and two or three broad, and are principally compoſed of two ſtrong poles, ſupported by four wheels of near an equal ſize, and about as high as the fore wheels of our ordinary coaches, but made very ſlight: many of the rounds of the wheels are of one piece of wood, and open in one part for near an inch; and ſome of them are not ſhod with iron.

Spring and autumn are very bad ſeaſons for travelling; as my caravan at this time experienced, ſays Mr. Hanway. There is a law in force, made in favour of the carriers, by which, any contract for tranſporting merchandize in the winter, becomes null and void, if the roads are broke up by a thaw, and thereby rendered impracticable to travel in ſledges; in which caſe, the carriers have the liberty of taking out their horſes, and leaving a caravan in any town they can moſt eaſily reach.

The caravans generally ſet out about twelve, both in the night and day, except in the heat of ſummer. In the winter, between Peterſburgh and Moſcow, they uſually travel ſeventy werſts in twenty-four hours (forty-ſeven miles Engliſh) but from Moſcow to Zaritzen, only forty or fifty werſts.

Nothing, ſays our author, can be accommodated more for eaſe and diſpatch, than travelling in ſledges in froſty weather, when the ſnow is well trodden. As a proof of this, I may mention, continues he, that I ſlept without waking whilſt I was carried a hundred werſts (ſixty-ſix miles Engliſh.) The whole road was marked out with fir-trees, ſet in the ſnow on both ſides, at the diſtance of about twenty yards; the conſumption of timber on theſe occaſions, at a moderate computation is a hundred and twenty-eight thouſand, four hundred and eighty trees. There were alſo great piles of wood at certain diſtances, to be ſet on fire, to give light to the empreſs and her court, if they paſſed by in the night.

Her imperial majeſty is drawn, on theſe occaſions, in a houſe or room, which contains her bed, a table, and other conveniencies; where four perſons may lodge, and be accommodated with every thing they want. This machine is ſet on a ſledge, and drawn by twenty-four poſt-horſes; if any of them fail on the road, others are ready to ſupply their place: ſhe is generally three days and three nights on the way: there are ſeveral ſmall palaces on the road, where ſhe ſometimes ſtops. Peter the Great once made the journey from Peterſburgh to Moſcow in forty-ſix hours, being four hundred and eighty-eight Engliſh miles. We are told, that it is not uncommon to go it with poſt-horſes in ſeventy-two hours; and that for fourteen or fifteen rubles a commodious ſledge may be hired for that journey, drawn by a pair of poſt-horſes.

The Ruſſian language is moſtly the old Sclavonic, or rather a dialect of it, as that was of the old Scythian; but is ſo corrupt, and intermingled with other languages, that it is hard for a perſon who hath been uſed only to the pure Sclavonian to underſtand it; and yet that is ſtill retained in their divine ſervice, in their bibles and homilies; and ſuch as affect any degree of learning or politeneſs, affect to ſpeak and write in it. Their character is a corrupt ſort of Greek, ill-ſhaped, whoſe letters they have increaſed to the number of thirty-eight; but ignorance, till of late, had ſo thoroughly covered this whole country, that even the clergy and nobility, as well as the common people, neither could write, or ſcarcely read. A greater encouragement was given to it, and to arts and ſciences, by their late great monarch, who, by beſtowing his favours, and places of honour and profit, on thoſe who were moſt learned, foreigners as well as ſubjects; and by ſetting up ſchools and academies, and inciting and careſſing ſuch as were moſt famed for all ſorts of learning, and ſending his young noblemen and gentlemen into foreign countries for education, hath gone a great way towards tranſplanting the muſes into a climate till then unknown to them: and, had he lived longer, would in all likelihood have wholly effected it, in ſpite of the innate averſion of his ſubjects to them. There are not many univerſities in this country, nor any ſeminaries of learning, except two or three academies for arts and ſciences, ſet up in the capital, and a few colleges or ſchools there, and in ſome other principal cities, for the inſtruction of youth, which yet, it is to be feared, have not met with that encouragement after that monarch's death as they did in his life-time, though more owing perhaps to the troubles that have happened in the enſuing reigns, than to diſlike in any of his ſucceſſors. But of this we ſhall treat more particularly under the article of learning.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Religion, Marriages, and Funeral Ceremonies of the RUSSIANS.

THE Ruſſians boaſt, that they profeſs Chriſtianity according to the pure antient rites and doctrine of the Greek church, though in many reſpects they have ſo far deviated from it, that they have introduced even more ſuperſtitious and ridiculous cuſtoms, and lay greater ſtreſs upon them, than the moſt bigotted papiſts in the world. They pretend, though without any foundation, that the apoſtle St. Andrew, whom they hold in great veneration, planted the goſpel among them; when it plainly appears, according to Zonaras, that they were all ſunk into the loweſt pit of idolatry till the time of the great Volodomir, duke of Ruſſia, in the year 989, when, having made ſeveral conſiderable conqueſts, he was honoured with a grand embaſſy from the emperor Baſilius, and with him a biſhop, and other clergymen, to convert the Ruſſians to Chriſtianity. Volodomir himſelf became one of the firſt converts, after which, having married the daughter of that emperor, he contributed all he could to eſtabliſh the Chriſtian faith through his dominions, and had the pleaſure to ſee it effected, in a little time; and as they received it from a Conſtantinopolitan prelate, ſo they have always continued in the faith and communion of the Greek church, ſome few articles and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms excepted, not worth troubling our readers with. They differ from the church of Rome in their diſbelief of tranſubſtantiation, purgatory, the Pope's ſupremacy and infallibility, &c. but they ſeem even to out-do them in their worſhip of the Virgin, and other ſaints, croſſes, reliques, and the like. They uſe auricular confeſſion; communicate in both kinds; make the Athanaſian creed the rule of their faith; and have a ſettled liturgy, viz. that of St. Baſil, which they uſe three times a day. They obſerve four lents in the year with great ſtrictneſs, beſides faſting every Wedneſday and Friday in the year. They reckon the creation of the world, which uſed to be their common æra, to have been above 7250 years ago, that is, about 1500 years earlier than any Chriſtian nation hath fixed it, but can give no ſhadow of reaſon for it. They begin, alſo, the year in September; alledging, that it was more probable that the earth was created in autumn, ſtored with all its fruits in full maturity, than in March, when its whole ſurface is covered with ice and ſnow. But the czar hath ſince introduced the Roman calculation, though not without great ſtruggle and difficulty. The time he choſe to do it in was on the firſt of January 1700, in which a grand

grand jubilee was celebrated, at his metropolis, with the ringing of bells, firing of guns, and other ſolemn rejoicings.

The common people, and even ſome perſons of rank, eitheir by way of penance, or from other motives of humiliation, proſtrate themſelves on their faces at the entrance of the churches: and thoſe that are conſcious of having contracted any impurity, forbear entering the church, but ſtand at the door. The church bells are often rung; and as ringing is counted a branch of devotion, the towns are provided with a great number of bells, whoſe ſound is almoſt continually heard.

They perform divine ſervice entirely in the Sclavonian tongue, which the people do not underſtand, as it is very different from the modern Ruſſian; and this ſervice conſiſts of abundance of trifling ceremonies, long maſſes, ſinging, and prayers; all which are performed by the prieſts, the congregation only repeating, "Lord be merciful to me." They ſometimes add a lecture from one of the fathers; but there are few churches in which ſermons are ever delivered, and even in thoſe they ſeldom preach.

There are neither ſeats nor forms in the Ruſſian churches, but the whole congregation perform their devotion ſtanding. On feſtival days the clergy are adorned with very rich veſtments, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the Levitical prieſts deſcribed in the Old Teſtament. The people know very little of the Bible, which has never yet been tranſlated into their language. They have, however, one in the Sclavonian tongue, with annotations; nor are there any proper meaſures taken for the inſtruction of young people among the vulgar, in the principles of religion. The people never ſing pſalms or hymns, nor have any hymn books in their houſes; for none but the choriſters are allowed to ſing pſalms in the churches, that office being conſidered as their peculiar province, on which account they are held in ſome eſteem among them.

Some of their great feſtivals are ordained by the Ruſſian church, beſides which there are every year others appointed by the civil power, when all public buſineſs and trades are ſuſpended with greater ſtrictneſs than even during the former; ſuch as the anniverſary of the birth, inauguration, and coronation of the perſon on the throne, and on the ſaint's day whoſe name he or ſhe bears; and likewiſe the feſtival of the birth and name-day of other perſons of the royal family; that of St. Alexander Neuſki, is kept on the thirtieth of Auguſt; and on the twenty-ſeventh of June the anniverſary of the battle of Pultowa.

In the Ruſſian empire, there are a great number of convents for the religious of both ſexes; but Peter I. prudently ordered that no perſon ſhould be allowed to enter on a monaſtic life before fifty years of age: yet this regulation has been repealed ſince his death, it being thought proper to ſhew a greater condeſcenſion to the monaſteries: however, no man is permitted to turn monk till he is thirty, nor no woman to turn nun till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without the expreſs approbation and licence of the holy ſynod. The abbot, or head of an abbey, is here called archimandrite, and the prior of a convent, igumen; and an abbeſs, igumenia.

There is in every village a church and a prieſt to officiate in it, and in the towns there is a church almoſt in every ſtreet. A creſcent under the croſs is erected on the tops of the towers of all the old churches.

As they acknowledge themſelves conceived and born in ſin, they therefore baptize their children immediately after the birth: if they are weak, this is done at home; but if well, in the church; the child being received at the church-door by the prieſt, who, ſigning the forehead with the ſign of the croſs, ſays, "The Lord preſerve thy coming in and going out." He then faſtens nine wax candles given by the godfathers, ready lighted, round the font. Having incenſed the godfathers, and conſecrated the water, each of them takes a wax-candle, and they all walk three times round the font, which always ſtands in the middle of the church, the clerk carrying the picture of St. John before them, and the prieſt reading out of a great book. The prieſt then aſks the godfathers the name of the child, which having given him in writing, he puts it upon a ſmall picture, which he holds upon the child's breaſt, while he mutters certain prayers; and then aſks, whether the child believes in God the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghoſt; and the godfathers having anſwered in the affirmative, they inſtantly turn their backs to the font, to ſhew their averſion to the three next queſtions, whether the child forſakes the devil, his counſels, and his works? To each queſtion the godfathers anſwer, yes, and as often ſpit on the ground. Then turning again to the font, the prieſt aſks, whether they promiſe that the child ſhall be brought up in the true Greek religion? and then, laying his hands upon him, ſays, "get out of this child, thou unclean ſpirit, and make room for the Holy Ghoſt." He then blows upon the child three times to drive away the devil, by whom they ſuppoſe children before baptiſm are poſſeſſed. After this, he cuts off a little of the child's hair, which he puts into a book; and having aſked the godfathers, whether they deſire the child ſhould be baptiſed, he dips him three times in the water; with the uſual words. He then puts a corn of ſalt into the child's mouth, and making the ſign of the croſs on his forehead, hands, breaſt, and back, with conſecrated oil, puts him on a clean ſhirt, ſaying, "Thou art as clean from original ſin as this ſhirt." They afterwards put a ſmall croſs on the child's neck, which he muſt wear till his death, or be denied Chriſtian burial; a peculiar ſaint is alſo aſſigned him.

They never baptiſe two children in one font at the ſame time, as they imagine that the water is defiled by the original ſin of the preceding child. As they ſuppoſe that children are regenerated by baptiſm, they therefore adminiſter the ſacrament to the infant, who is ever afterwards admitted to partake of it. They baptiſe their adult proſelytes in a river, immerſing them three times, mentioning the uſual words.

The government of the church was, till the late czar Peter's time, by patriarchs, archbiſhops, and biſhops. The metropolitan of Moſcow was patriarch of all Ruſſia, but was ordained by that of Conſtantinople till about the year 1588, when one Hieronymo, then the worthleſs patriarch of Conſtantinople, having been degraded by his clergy, came into Moſcovy, and, under pretence of having been depoſed and perſecuted by the Turks, found means to revenge himſelf on his clergy, and to get an immenſe ſum of money for himſelf, by propoſing to the then czar, Theodore Iwanowitz, to make his capital the patriarchal ſee of the whole Greek church, and thereby ſaving the trouble and charge of going to receive of its metropolitan his induction from that of Conſtantinople, as they had done till then. His propoſal was accepted by the czar, and the whole clergy; and Hieronymo having, January 15, of that year, met the whole body of them in his pontificals, in the cathedral of Moſcow, and made an harangue to them, ſuitable to the occaſion, did, with great ceremony, reſign his patriarchal ſtaff, tiara, &c. into the hands of Jacob, the then metropolitan, and inſtalled him, in a ſolemn manner, patriarch and head of the Greek church. This was followed by an inſtrument of his reſignation, and his ſucceſſor's inſtallation, drawn in form, and laid up among the archives of that cathedral; after which, he retired, with all his wealth, to Rome.

On the elevation of this metropolitan (who had been, till then, the only one in all Ruſſia) to his new patriarchate, two other archbiſhops were made metropolitans; viz. that of Novogorod Veliki, and that of Roſtow; and ſince then two more were added, whereof one reſideth at Caſan, the other at Sarſcow. Theſe metropolitans, we are told, were choſen by the czar, and the patriarch by them and the biſhops; but ſince by the czar alone. This patriarchal dignity continued till the time of the late Peter the Great, who being juſt returned from his travels, upon the demiſe of the laſt incumbent, declared, that he would have no more prelates raiſed to that dignity, but that himſelf would be ſole head and governor of the Ruſſian church. However, he nominated the metropolitan of Rezan, a Pole by birth, and a man of learning, to take upon him the adminiſtration of all eccleſiaſtical affairs under him, and to be accountable only to him. Such oppoſition was made to this great change, by the biſhops and clergy, that the czar, who could brook no controul, cauſed one of thoſe biſhops to be degraded, in order to deter the reſt; and theſe inſiſting, that they had no power to depoſe one of their claſs, the Poliſh metropolitan was ordered to do it, who took away his mitre and dignity accordingly. Ever ſince, the czar hath taken upon himſelf the ſupreme authority in the Ruſſian church, and hath introduced learning among his biſhops and clergy, who were before ſo groſsly ignorant, that they could not ſo much as preach to their flocks, but, inſtead of ſermons, uſed only ſome ſhort homilies of ſome of their Greek ſaints, with which they generally concluded the divine ſervice, after they had ſung ſome pſalms and hymns, the Athanaſian creed, and the goſpodo, or litany. The monaſtic life is indulged to both ſexes, though of the women more are forced into it than take it up out of choice.

Till the late glorious reign of Peter I. not only perſons of different religions, but even of any country, were for-

bid to come into these dominions; at present, that absurd law is repealed, and all strangers are invited to come and settle there, of what country or religion soever. The Lutherans and Calvinists have the free exercise of theirs, excepting that they are not allowed bells in their churches. Those of the church of Rome are the only ones, of all Christian denominations, that ever, till of late, could obtain that privilege, though no endeavours and interpositions from Poland, France, Germany, and other Roman Catholic countries, have been spared to obtain it; and though there are great multitudes of artists, merchants, soldiers, and officers of that religion, settled in Moscovy. But though they are tolerated, the Jesuits are forbid to come among them. The Arminians have their churches without bells, and other sects meeting houses. The Mohamedans are also tolerated, and make up about a thirtieth part of the inhabitants; and the Pagans are still more numerous, especially towards the north: these differ much in their notions and worship, and some of them are so stupid and ignorant, that they are but one remove from brutes.

Several popes, in the thirteenth century, laboured hard to put the great duke of Russia out of conceit with the Greek religion, but without success. The doctors of the Sorbonne at Paris have since made the same attempt; for, when Peter the Great suppressed the patriarchate, they endeavoured, but in vain, to persuade him to bring about an union with the church of Rome. For further particulars relative to the Greek church, we must refer our readers to what we have given on that head, in treating of their religion in the Ottoman empire, p. 155.

We shall now proceed to give an account of the marriages and funeral ceremonies of the Russians. With respect to the former, when every thing is agreed upon between the parents, if they are of quality, a woman, called the suacha, is appointed by the friends of the bridegroom, and another by those of the bride, to take joint care of the nuptials: and these provide every thing fit for the chamber of the new-married couple. The bed is made of forty sheaves of rye laid in good order, and encompassed with several barrels of wheat, barley, and oats: when all is ready, the bridegroom goes late in the evening, accompanied by his kindred, the priest who is to marry him leading the van on horseback. They are received at the bride's door by her relations, invited to come in, and to sit down at table, where only three dishes of meat are served up, and even these are not to be touched by any one present. At the upper end of the table a place is left for the bridegroom, which is taken up by a young lad appointed for that purpose, while the bridegroom is talking with the bride's friends: but at length he having prevailed on the youth by some presents to resign his place to him, takes his seat, and the bride, richly dressed, is brought in with a vail over her face, and placed next the bridegroom; two lads, at the same time holding a piece of taffety between them, to prevent their seeing each other. The suacha then comes in, and paints her, ties up her hair in two knots, puts a coronet on her head, and all the ornaments of a married woman. The coronet is of gold or silver gilt, and lined with silk, having on both sides, near the ears, five or six rows of pearls, hanging down in strings on her breast. The upper garment, which has sleeves an ell and a half wide, is embroidered at the edges with gold and silver, especially about the neck, where it is stiff with embroidery, for the breadth of three inches. They sometimes bestow a thousand crowns upon this robe. The bridegroom is then painted by his suacha, whilst the women upon the benches sing together. After this, the company go to church, where the young couple stand upon a piece of taffety, and have a canopy of the same silk over their heads. Here having made offerings of fryed meats, fish, and pastry, the priest gives them his benediction, and taking the man by his right hand, and the woman by her left, he asks them three times, whether they are both willing to be married, and to love one another as they ought to do. To which having answered yes, the whole company join hands, and the priest sings the 128th psalm; which being ended, he puts a garland of rue upon the heads of the young couple, and if one of them be a widow or a widower, about their shoulders, saying, "Increase and multiply. Whom God hath joined together, let no man put asunder." While the priest pronounces these words, each of the people invited to the wedding lights a wax candle, and one of them gives a glass of wine to the priest, which he drinks; and the married couple having pledged the same three times each, the bridegroom throws down the glass, and he and the bride, treading it under their feet, say, "May they thus fall under our feet, and be trodden to pieces, who shall endeavour to sow division or discontent between us." The women then throw some flax or hempseed on the young couple, wishing them much prosperity; and some pull the bride by the robe, as if they would take her from the bridegroom, to whom she sticks close, while they seem unable to remove her away from him.

When the nuptial ceremony is ended, the bride returns in a sledge or coach by the light of six flambeaux, and the bridegroom on horseback. The men immediately sit down at the table, which is covered with provisions; while the women conduct the bride into her chamber, undress her, and, having put her to bed, come to the bridegroom, who rising from the table, is conducted to the bride's chamber by six or eight young men, each with a wax candle in his hand, which they stick in the barrels of wheat, barley, and oats, that stand round the bed. The bride no sooner sees the bridegroom, than she slips on a morning-gown lined with fur, and rising meets and salutes him with a low inclination of the head; and this used to be the first time of the bridegroom's seeing her face. They then sit down to a table, where, among other provisions, they have a roasted fowl, which the bridegroom pulls asunder, and throwing over his shoulder the part he lights on first, they eat the rest, and then go to bed; while the guests employ themselves in several charms to promote the happiness of the new-married couple. Some time after, an old servant of the house, who attends at the door, comes and asks whether the business be done; and the bridegroom answering, yes, the word is given for the trumpets and timbrels to strike up, and these sound till the new-married couple are conducted to the stoves, where they bathe themselves apart. After they have been well washed in the bath with water, mead, and wine, the bride sends the bridegroom a shirt richly embroidered, especially at the neck, and a rich habit. The two next days they spend in the farther celebration of their nuptials.

The lower class of people are satisfied with fewer ceremonies; for the night before the wedding the bridegroom sends some clothes, a comb, and a looking-glass; and the next day the priest is brought in by two lads, carrying lighted wax-candles. As soon as he enters the house, he gives his benediction first to the lads, and then to the guests. The young couple being set down at the table, the lads holding a piece of taffety between them, the suacha dresses the bride's head, which being done, a looking-glass is brought, and the young couple joining their cheeks, look and smile one upon the other, while the two suachas cast hops upon them; after which they go to church, where they are married with the usual ceremonies.

Marriage being esteemed a very sacred thing among them, polygamy is forbidden under pain of death, the emperor himself being allowed only one wife at a time; though if she proves barren, he may send her into a monastery, and marry another. Second marriages they consider as allowable, but not very commendable; a third marriage is not to be undertaken but upon very weighty considerations; and a fourth deemed a capital offence.

Funerals, like other public actions here, are performed with great ceremony; for the soul of the sick person is no sooner departed than the widow sends for her kindred and friends, who standing round the corpse break out into lamentations. They then wash the body, and having put a clean shirt or shroud about him, with a new pair of thin Russia leather shoes on his feet, they lay him, with his arms across his breast, in a coffin made of the trunk of a tree, and in the mean while send a present to the priest to pray for his soul. The coffin is covered with a piece of cloth, or the coat of the deceased.

The richer sort, if the season will permit, keep the body eight or ten days, during which the priest comes every day to purify it with incense, and by sprinkling it with holy water. At length the priest proceeds with the picture of the patron saint of the deceased, followed by four virgins, who are nearest related to the latter, and make very mournful lamentations, but begin and leave off exactly at a time. Then comes the dead body, carried by six men upon their shoulders; but if the deceased be a monk or a nun, this office is performed by those of his or her own profession. The corpse is surrounded by several priests, who pour incense upon it to keep off the evil spirits, all the while they are singing psalms: then follow the kindred and friends with wax-candles, but without any order.

On their coming to the grave, the coffin is uncovered; and the priest holding over it the picture of the patron saint, says several prayers, in which he often repeats, "Lord, look upon this soul in righteousness." Mean while the widow continues her lamentations, and the re-

lations and friends, after kiſſing either the deceaſed or his coffin, take their leave. The prieſt then takes a piece of paper, which is a kind of ticket for his entrance into paradiſe, ſigned by the biſhop of the place and the confeſſor. This he puts into the coffin, which is then ſhut and put into the grave, with the face turned towards the eaſt; while thoſe who return to the houſe of mourning are ſupplied with good liquor to drown ſorrow.

They allot forty days for the time of mourning; during which three feaſts are made for the relations of the deceaſed, on the third, ninth, and twentieth day after the burial; during which the prieſt ſays certain prayers morning and evening over the grave, which for that purpoſe is covered with a ſmall hut of mats: for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, they maintain that there are two places to which the ſouls retire after their ſeparation from the body, there to wait till the day of judgment, ſome in a pleaſant and delightful abode, where they enjoy the converſation of angels; others in a gloomy and diſmal valley, where they ſee nothing but devils; and believe that, while the ſoul is yet on its way, it may be diverted from the evil road by the prayers of the prieſts and monks, provided they are ſufficiently fee'd for that buſineſs.

SECT. VIII.

Treating of the Learning, Arts, Manufactures, Trade, Weights, Meaſures, Coins, &c. of the RUSSIANS.

BEFORE the reign of Peter the Great, learning was but little known in Ruſſia; but this illuſtrious monarch ſpared neither expence nor pains to diſpel the clouds of ignorance which overſpread his empire, and to inſpire his ſubjects with a taſte for arts and ſciences: he founded an academy of ſciences, an univerſity, and a ſeminary at Peterſburg, beſides other ſchools in the different parts of his empire; invited perſons of learning from England, Germany, France, and Holland. to ſettle at Peterſburg; collected a great number of books; and encouraged his ſubjects to travel into thoſe countries where the arts and ſciences flouriſhed. The Ruſſians are far from wanting talents and a diſpoſition for learning. Hiſtory, geography, and the mathematics, are the ſtudies to which they chiefly apply themſelves.

There are only three univerſities in this vaſt empire; namely, thoſe of Peterſburg, Moſcow, and Kiow; ſo that learning may be ſaid to be yet only in its infancy; however, the members of the academy of ſciences not only publiſh collections of their own memoirs, but compoſe a variety of books for the inſtruction of youth in the ſciences, and make tranſlations of the moſt uſeful books publiſhed in foreign countries. Peter the Great eſtabliſhed the myſtery of printing, that everlaſting guardian and friend of the arts, in Ruſſia. His types, and other implements for that purpoſe, were brought from Holland. A preſs, with types, had been indeed ſent from Poland to Moſcow, and a printing-houſe erected, by the approbation of one of the former czars; but the building was ſet on fire in the night, and burnt to the ground, by the procurement, as was generally ſuppoſed, of the ignorant and ſuperſtitious prieſts, who thought all books, eſpecially ſuch as treated on their own hiſtory and the miracles of the ſaints, to be of very miſchievous tendency.

In Ruſſia, the mechanic arts and trades, are continually improving, and theſe improvements are far from being entirely owing to the foreigners who reſide among them; for the natives being ſpurred on by emulation, frequently equal, and ſometimes excel their maſters. They were formerly almoſt ſolely employed in agriculture, feeding of cattle, hunting and fiſhing. It is true, they excelled in making Ruſſia leather, which had been long practiſed by them; but they were entirely unacquainted with the more ingenious mechanic arts. Great numbers of excellent artificers, invited hither by Peter the Great, ſettling in his dominions, the Ruſſians ſhewed that, with proper inſtructions, they did not want the capacity of being taught; and they have now flouriſhing manufactures of velvet, ſilk, linen, and woollen ſtuffs; alſo copper, braſs, iron, ſteel, and tin, are wrought; and great guns, fire arms, gunpowder, wire, cordage, ſail-cloth, paper, parchment, and glaſs, are made in Ruſſia. All theſe manufactures, however, are not brought to ſuch perfection as to be carried on without the aſſiſtance of foreigners, and the additional ſupplies of thoſe commodities from abroad. Beſides, thoſe made by Ruſſian workmen are ſold for one half, or a third part leſs than thoſe made by foreigners at Peterſburg and Moſcow; and the latter ſort will not do more than half or a third part of the ſervice. The Ruſſian peaſants are their own artiſts, and make all the utenſils they want. Shipbuilding is carried to great perfection here, the Ruſſian navy conſiſting, at this time, of a great number of capital ſhips of war.

It may not be improper, in this place, to relate the manner in which caviar is prepared, as it forms a conſiderable branch of their commerce. It is made of the roes of the fiſh called beluga, and the ſturgeon. The beſt is made of the beluga roes, and is of two ſorts, the granulated, and the preſſed. The former, which is moſt eſteemed, is prepared in autumn and winter, but the latter is made in ſummer, and both ſorts are expoſed to the ſouthern parts of Europe. The granulated ſort is firſt ſalted, after taking away the ſtringy part, with ſalt well cleaned, and made into brine: and, being drained from the oily parts, it is put into kegs for exportation. Caviar is moſt palatable when freſh and ſpread on bread with ſalt, leeks, and pepper, and is therefore ſent in the winter, frozen, to all parts of the empire; but it cannot well be exported freſh, as, without ſalt, it is ſoon tainted by warmth.

The Ruſſian empire is extremely well ſituated for commerce; and her exports are, iron, hemp, wood, hides, grain, pot-aſh, wax, cordage, copper, flax, furs, lintſeed, fiſh, leather, tallow, materials for ſhip-building, &c. The imports are, ſugar, beaver-ſkins, tin, dye-woods, ſhalloons, Norwich ſtuffs, braſs-wire, ſpirituous liquors, ſilk, ſpices, indigo, Engliſh beer, lead, cloths, flannels, Mancheſter velvets, wines, fruits, china, paper, &c. The commerce is with Great Britain, Ireland, Holland, France, Germany, Poland, Turky, Perſia, China, &c.

The Ruſſians were ſtrangers to the courſe of exchange, till it was introduced among them in the year 1670. Money was then ſo very ſcarce in this empire, that foreigners were obliged to barter their goods for thoſe of Ruſſia. Moſt of the foreign merchants then reſided at Moſcow, but took a journey in the ſummer to Archangel, where they had their warehouſes and factors. This practice continued till 1721, when, by order of Peter the Great, the ſeat of commerce was removed from Archangel to Peterſburg; on which the foreign traders removed their factories thither, where they are not allowed to keep the goods conſigned to them in their own warehouſes, but are obliged to depoſit them in magazines built for that purpoſe by the government, to which they pay rent for warehouſe room, in proportion to the quantity of their goods.

In Peterſburg, the merchants and traders, as in other countries, conſiſt of natives and foreigners. The former may ſell either by wholeſale or retail; but the latter by wholeſale only, and that to none but the natives: for they are not permitted to ſell any thing to one another, or to have any commercial dealings together. Moſt of the foreign traders at Peterſburg are only factors, and the reſt, who trade on their own bottoms, deal chiefly in grocery. The factors are intruſted with large capitals, and, without engaging in commerce for themſelves, may raiſe handſome fortunes. The Ruſſian traders, who bring goods to Peterſburg, and carry foreign commodities farther into the continent, do not reſide in that city, but annually bring their goods thither in May or June by water, and in September, October, and December, return with foreign commodities; but the wealthy ſave the fatigue of travelling, by ſending their factor to Peterſburg.

Foreign merchandize is generally ſold at a twelvemonth's credit; but Ruſſian commodities muſt be paid for on the delivery of the goods, except the natives find a difficulty in ſelling their ſtock; in which caſe they deal by way of exchange; yet will not barter goods for goods, but generally inſiſt on one fourth, one third, or one half of the value of the whole in ſpecie; and of late foreign merchants deal for the Ruſſian commodities by contract, and even advance the money to the Ruſſians in winter, upon condition of their delivering in the goods at a ſettled price the following ſummer; but theſe contracts are entered in the cuſtom-houſe books, for the greater ſecurity.

Conſiderable privileges in trade were enjoyed by the Engliſh, ſo early as the reign of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, to whom Captain Chancellor delivered a letter from Edward VI. in 1553, and received a licence to trade, which was renewed by Peter the Great. In 1742 a treaty of commerce was concluded between Ruſſia and England, by which it was ſtipulated, that the Engliſh ſhould be allowed the privilege of ſending goods through Ruſſia into Perſia; but Captain Elton, an Engliſhman, having entered into the ſervice of Nadir Shah, and built ſhip on the Caſpian Sea

Sea for that monarch, the Ruſſians put a ſtop to this trade, to which the troubles in Perſia contributed. The Engliſh, however, ſtill carry on a conſiderable trade with Ruſſia, which exceeds that of any other nation.

Next to the Engliſh, the Dutch carried on the greateſt trade with the Ruſſians. Bills of exchange are drawn at Peterſburgh on Amſterdam only; on which account the traders of other countries, who give commiſſion for buying Ruſſian commodities at Peterſburgh, are obliged to procure credit, or to have proper funds at Amſterdam.

The trade to Peterſburgh is now carried to a great height, for the number of ſhips which entered that port in 1751, from England, Holland, France, Norway, Denmark, Lubec, Hamburgh, Stetin, Roſtoc, Kiel, Pruſſia, Sweden, and Dantzic, amounted to two hundred and ninety. Indeed there is no nation in the world more inclined to commerce than the Ruſſians are at preſent; but they are ſo full of chicanery and art, that a foreigner cannot be too much on his guard in his dealings with them.

The Ruſſian weights are a ſolothnic, which is one ſixth of an ounce, and is divided into halves, quarters, and eighths: a Ruſſian pound, equal to ninety-ſix ſolothnics: a pud, or pood, equal to thirty-ſix pounds averdupois: a berkowetz, equal to ten puds. The other weights are the ſame with thoſe of Germany. The meaſures of length are the arſhine, or Ruſſian ell, equal to twenty-eight inches and one tenth Engliſh meaſure; a werſoc, which is one ſixteenth of an arſhine; and a ſarſhen, or fathom, contains three arſhines.

The Ruſſian coins, ducats excepted, have all of them inſcriptions in the Ruſſian tongue. The gold coins are imperial ducats; and the largeſt ſilver coin is the ruble, the value of which riſes and falls according to the courſe of exchange. A ruble in Ruſſia is equal to an hundred copeiks, or four ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling. The other ſilver coins are half rubles, which are called poltinnics, and quarter rubles. A gryphe, or griwe, is of the value of ten copeiks, and ten griwes are equal to a ruble. The copper coins are, a copeik, which is of the value of about a halfpenny; a denga, or denuſhka, two of which make a copeik; and a poluſhka, which is a quarter of a copeik.

No foreign pieces are current in Ruſſia except ducats, Holland rixdollars, and Albert dollars.

The following coins, beſide the Ruſſian, are all current in Livonia: a white ſchelling, which is worth two black ſchellings: three of the former make one groſh; which is ſeven fifteenths of a penny: a farding, which is one groſh and a half: a Riga mark, which is ſix groſhes: a Poliſh guider, which is five Riga marks: a kopa-ſhock, or lowenthaler, equal to twenty-five groſhes; and a rix-dollar, at ſixty fardings value.

SECT. IX.

Containing the Ancient and Modern Hiſtory of the RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

IF we trace the Ruſſians to their original, they will appear to be as antient a people as any upon the face of the earth: for their anceſtors were thoſe Scythians who poſſeſſed Mount Caucaſus, or the Dagiſtan mountains, which lie between the Euxine and the Caſpian Seas, immediately after the flood; even before their brethren deſcended from the mountains of Armenia or Arrarat, into the plains of Meſopotamia between the Tigris and Euphrates, as has been ſhewn in the hiſtory of Germany. The term Ruſſe ſignifies a wanderer, as all the Scythians, or northern nations were, till very lately. If we only regard the time, when the Ruſſians and other tribes of Scythians, or Tartars, came to fix their habitations, and live in towns, we need not deſcend far into antiquity: for Kioff, or Kiow, upon the borders of Poland, is held to be the firſt town the Ruſſians built, and Volodomir their firſt prince, who reigned about the year of our Lord 1000. But it is not to be underſtood that the Scythians lived without any government till then; for government was certainly coeval with the world; but till then, the patriarchal form generally prevailed in Scythia, as it does in ſome parts of it (now called Tartary) to this day: and, indeed, in many other parts of the world, both in the eaſtern and weſtern continent, we find the patriarchial government ſtill prevail; and theſe, like other ſtates, will probably be united in time by force or compact, and grow up into kingdoms and empires. This country of Ruſſia, after the patriarchal form was aboliſhed, was governed by a multitude of petty ſovereigns, which are uſually ſtiled dukes, till Volodomir united ſeveral of theſe dukedoms into one, about the year 1000, and obtained the name of The Great Duke, and ſometimes was called Czar or Cæſar; forming one potent ſtate, which the ſovereigns of Cazan and Aſtracan becoming jealous of, made war upon the Ruſſians, and compelled them to become tributary to thoſe princes.

After this, John Baſilowitz, or Vaſiliwits Grotzden, united many more of theſe duchies under his government, and expelled the Tartars, who were then in poſſeſſion of the caſtle of Moſcow, in 1450, and ſubdued the provinces of Novogorod and Twere. His ſon added thoſe of Pleſkow and Smolenſko, and John Baſilowitz his grandſon, in 1540, conquered the kingdoms of Cazan and Aſtracan, and added Siberia to the Ruſſian domninions: and in his reign it was, that the Engliſh, commanded by captain Chancellor, arrived at Archangel, and began to trade with Ruſſia, which till then had never been viſited by the ſhips of any nation. The Caſſacks and Circaſſians, ſituated near the mouths of the Wolga, Don, and Nieper, ſubmitted to the czar Alexis Michaelowitz; and many of the Calmucks alſo acknowledged themſelves to be the ſubjects of this kingdom.

In 1613 Michael, deſcended from the czar John Baſilowitz, aſcended the throne of Ruſſia, by the unanimous conſent of the ſtates. He was ſucceeded in 1645, by his ſon Alexis Michaelowitz; after whoſe death, his ſon Theodore Alexowitz ſucceeded to the throne; who dying without iſſue in 1682, appointed John, his brother by the ſame mother, and Peter his half-brother, to reign, jointly, which they did, until the year 1696, when czar John died, leaving three daughters by his conſort Proſcovia Federowna Solticow, viz. the princeſs Anne, married to Frederic William, duke of Courland, the 13th of November, 1710; the princeſs Catherine, married to Charles Leopold, duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, the 10th of April 1716, and the princeſs Proſcovia, who died unmarried.

The czar Peter was the ſon of czar Alexis Michaelowitz, by his ſecond wife Natolia Keritroun Neriſkin: he married the princeſs Ottokeſa Federowna, a ſubject of Ruſſia, by whom he had iſſue the czarowitz Alexis, born in 1690; but was divorced from his wife, in 1692. The young czar married the princeſs Charlotta Chriſtina Sophia, daughter of Lewis Adolphus, duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, and ſiſter of the empreſs, conſort of Charles VI. in 1711, and died in priſon in 1721, being then under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt his father Peter the Great, leaving iſſue a ſon named Peter Alexowitz, born in 1715, and afterwards emperor.

Peter the Great married to his ſecond wife the lady Catherina Alexonna, in 1711 (with whom he had cohabited ſome years before;) he had iſſue by her the princeſs Anne, married to Frederick duke of Holſtein, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who was afterwards crowned empreſs of Ruſſia. In the year 1695, Peter the Great entered into a war with the Turks; and the year following took Aſoph ſituated near the Palus Mæotis, which opened him a way into the Euxine ſea; and having determined to build a fleet, and ſhare the navigation of that with the Turks, and traffick with the nations bordering upon it (though he had not at that time a ſingle ſhip of war, or a ſhip carpenter in all his dominions) he reſolved to travel into the maritime countries of Europe, where he might meet with artiſts that could inſtruct him in ſhip-building, and to procure carpenters to return home with him, and aſſiſt in raiſing a royal navy. Nor did he propoſe only to qualify himſelf and his people for the ſea-ſervice, but to encourage all other arts and ſciences; and, by offering great rewards to learned men and mechanics, induce them to accompany him to Ruſſia.

Peter the Great firſt viſited Holland incognito, and, arriving at Amſterdam, took a houſe near the principal dock-yards, where he lived with ſome of his noblemen, and worked part of the day with the ax among the ſhipbuilders, as he obliged the noblemen, who attended him, to do, dreſſed in the habit of Dutch ſkippers. Another part of the day was taken up with rowing and ſailing upon the water; and ſometimes he made viſits to the Dutch burghers, with whom he would be very merry, having learned Dutch of the factors of that nation, before he ſet out from Moſcow; but having ſeen ſome Engliſh ſhips while he was in Holland, he was much better pleaſed with their beauty and proportion, than with thoſe of the Dutch: whereupon he determined to viſit England, and having communicated that deſign to king William, who was then in Holland, a convoy was provided to attend him thither; but

but ſtill chuſing to remain incognito, a houſe was taken for him, when he arrived at London, in York Buildings, near the Thames, where he reſided but a little while; for the conſtruction of ſhips being his chief buſineſs, he removed to Mr Evelin's houſe at Deptford, which opened into the king's yard, being attended by the marquis of Carmarthen, ſon to the duke of Leeds, who was then one of the Engliſh admirals. Here the builders communicated to the czar their draughts, and the manner of laying down by proportion any ſhip or veſſel of any bulk whatever, with the rules for, and building a ſhip according to it, which he ſaw practiſed with much pleaſure both in the king's and merchants yards, which made him repent his having ſpent ſo much time in Holland, where their method is leſs artificial, obſerving, that he ſhould have been a bungling ſhip-builder, if he had not viſited England, and declaring he would have all his ſhips built after the Engliſh model: he took ſeveral builders home with him, to whom he offered conſiderable ſalaries. The chief of theſe builders, was a ſon of Sir Anthony Dyer, who was ſent to France by the court of England, in the reign of Charles II. to inſtruct the French in ſhip building, who choſe alſo to follow our models, and, it is ſaid, have improved upon us of late. He ſeemed extremely pleaſed with the marquis of Carmarthen, who worked with him in the king's yards, and ſailed with him on the Thames, ſhewing him how near the wind a veſſel might ſail, and what way ſhe would make when the wind was contrary, as well as when it was fair; and as an acknowledgment for the ſervices the marquis had done him, he made him a grant of the ſole importation of Tobacco in his dominions.

During his ſtay in London, the czar was never idle: he attended the founderies for great guns and mortars, and enquired into almoſt every mechanic art: and having reſided here between three and four months, king William made him a preſent, on his return, of the fineſt yacht in England, called the Royal Tranſport, built like a frigate, and carrying twenty-four guns, which had been contrived by the marquis of Carmarthen, to carry the king over to Holland, during the war with France.

In 1698, the czar arrived at Vienna, in his way from England towards Ruſſia, and received advice of a conſpiracy in his dominions to depoſe him, and declare his throne vacant, ſince he had remained ſo long abſent from his dominions: but arriving at Moſcow, he found that general Gordon, a native of Scotland, had defeated the diſaffected, and all was quiet there. The next year was taken up in improving his revenues, and diſciplining his army; but, above all, in increaſing his navy, which, in three years time conſiſted of forty men of war, ten frigates, bomb-veſſels, &c. twenty whole gallies, and thirty half gallies.

This prince, in the year 1700, entered into a confederacy with the Poles, Danes, and Brandenburghers, againſt the young king of Sweden, under pretence that the Swedes had poſſeſſed themſelves of ſome places in Ingria that belonged to the Ruſſians; and the reſt of the confederates made much the ſame pretenſions; for which ſome of them paid very dear in the enſuing war, and particularly the czar, who having beſieged Narva with one hundred thouſand men, his army was defeated by eighteen thouſand Swedes commanded by Charles XII. in perſon, and the ſiege raiſed. Voltaire relates, that there were but eight thouſand men in the Swediſh army, and that it was one of the moſt terrible defeats that ever was known, the Swedes killing eighteen thouſand Ruſſians, and taking as many priſoners, among whom were moſt of their general officers. But a more particular account of this battle will be found in the hiſtory of Sweden.

The czar, at the time of this battle, was marching at the head of forty thouſand men towards Narva, in order to ſurround the Swedes on every ſide; but receiving advice of the defeat of his army before that town, he thought fit to retire; ſaying, "he knew the Swedes would be victorious for ſome time; but, they would, in the end, teach the Ruſſians to beat the Swedes." The citizens of Moſcow were in ſuch a conſternation, when they underſtood the ill ſituation of their affairs, that they imputed their misfortunes to the force of magick: nothing but a ſupernatural power, they imagined, could have defeated ſo fine an army as lay before Narva: ſo much were they perſuaded of this, that prayers were ordered to be put up to St. Nicholas, the patron of their nation, to protect them againſt theſe deviliſh Swedes: the form of one of them being of the following tenor: "O thou, who art our perpetual comforter in all our adverſities, great St. Nicholas, infinitely powerful; by what ſin have we offended thee, in our ſacrifices, genuflexions, bowings, and thankſgivings, that thou haſt forſaken us? We have implored thy aſſiſtance againſt theſe terrible, inſolent, enraged, dreadful, inſuperable deſtroyers; when, like lions and bears, who have loſt their young, they have fallen upon us, terrified, wounded, and ſlain by thouſands, us who are thy people. As it is impoſſible this ſhould have happened without diabolical influence and inchantment, we beſeech thee, O great St. Nicholas, to be our champion and ſtandard-bearer, to deliver us from this troop of ſorcerers, and drive them far from our coaſts, with the recompence which they deſerve."

After the victory gained by the king of Sweden at Narva, he marched the whole length of Livonia, and having obliged the Saxons to raiſe the ſiege of Riga, gained another victory over them upon the banks of the Dwina. He then purſued the Saxons into Poland, and obtained a third victory near Cracow: but having left no more than eight thouſand men in Livonia, the Ruſſians, who had introduced near one hundred thouſand men into that province, ſurrounded the Swediſh general Slippenbock, and deſtroyed all his infantry, though that general broke through with his horſe, and retreated to Pernaw, a port-town on the Livonian ſea; and there remaining no force to defend the open country, the Ruſſians plundered Livonia from one end to the other, making a multitude of priſoners, and driving them in chains as far as Aſtracan, where moſt of them periſhed. The Ruſſians afterwards ſurpriſed Dorpt, and took Narva by ſtorm, putting to death all they found in arms, and giving the plunder of the town to the ſoldiers. Thus did this hero, the king of Sweden, abandon his faithful Livonian ſubjects, in order to depoſe Auguſtus king of Poland.

Riga was afterwards ſurrendered to the czar, being in a manner depopulated by the plague: the whole province was ſoon after reduced by the czar's forces, and Marienburg among the reſt, where a young virgin, or, as ſome relate, a wife, was taken priſoner, in 1702, whom czar Peter advanced to the imperial throne in his life-time, and appointed his ſucceſſor after his deceaſe. She was called by the name of Catharine, being the daughter of a poor woman, who lived in a neighbouring village, as Voltaire relates. She never knew her father, but was baptized by the name of Martha, and regiſtered among the baſtard children. The vicar of the pariſh took her, and charitably provided for her until ſhe was fourteen years of age, and then ſhe was retained in the ſervice of a Lutheran miniſter, whoſe name was Gluck, in the city of Marienburg. Being about eighteen years old, ſhe married a Swediſh dragoon, in 1702, who going out the ſame day, or the next, upon a party that was defeated by the Ruſſians, he was never heard of more; and ſome few days after, ſhe herſelf was made priſoner by the Ruſſian general Czeremetoff, who made a preſent of her to prince Menzikoff, who finding her genius as well as beauty, exceeding any thing he had ever met with in the ſex, could not forbear boaſting before the czar, of the preſent which had been made him; and he repreſented her in ſo amiable a light to that prince, that he immediately commanded her to be ſent for; at which, it is ſaid, Menzikoff trembled, when, too late he ſaw his error, being deeply ſmitten with her charms himſelf, as the czar alſo was, as ſoon as ſhe appeared; and from that hour he entertained her in his palace, he obſerving in her an aſtoniſhing capacity; and after a thorough experience of the greatneſs of her ſoul, he proceeded to marry her in the year 1711. During his reign, ſhe acted the part both of a miniſter and a general; her advice was regarded more than that of any of his council, and ſhe attended him both in his land and naval expeditions, extricating him out of the greateſt difficulties, particularly in the battle he fought with the Turks on the banks of the river Pruth, and in the ſea-fight with the Swedes in the gulf of Finland: ſhe renounced the Lutheran religion, in which ſhe had been educated, on her marriage with the czar, and profeſſed herſelf of the Greek communion, being re-baptized according to the rites of the Ruſſian church. But to return to the part the Ruſſians had in this war.

While the king of Sweden was employed in depoſing king Auguſtus, and advancing Staniſlaus to the throne of Poland, the czar marched into Lithuania at the head of fifty thouſand men, and made himſelf maſter of that whole province, and of the duchy of Courland: king Charles being at that time purſuing Auguſtus into his German dominions: The Ruſſians and Saxons alſo having united their forces in Great Poland, defeated an army of eight thouſand Swedes and fourteen thouſand Poles, of

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the party of king Staniſlaus, commanded by the Swediſh general Mardefield, which would have given Auguſtus an opportunity of remounting his throne, if his plenipotentiaries, appointed to treat with thoſe of Sweden, had not, at that inſtant, concluded a treaty, whereby king Auguſtus was obliged to relinquiſh the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Staniſlaus the lawful king; which he thought fit to ſubmit to, rather than provoke king Charles to deſtroy Saxony, of which he was then poſſeſſed.

As the czar paid no regard to the treaty Auguſtus had concluded with the Swedes, he therefore introduced ſtill more forces into Poland, with which he plundered the eſtates of all ſuch as appeared to be in the intereſt of Staniſlaus, ſending all the furniture, pictures, libraries, ſtatues and curioſities he found in the palaces or noblemen's houſes, to Moſcow, and rendering the country a perfect deſart. The czar afterwards taking up his quarters at Grodno, and cantoning the greateſt part of his army in the province of Lithuania, the king of Sweden advanced towards him in the month of January, and having paſſed the river Niemen, within two leagues of Grodno, before the czar knew any thing of his march, the czar left the town by the north gate, when Charles entered by the ſouth. The king had with him about ſix hundred of his guards, the reſt not being able to follow him, and the czar fled with above two thouſand men, upon ſuppoſition that the whole army was entering into Grodno; but having learnt that very day from a Poliſh deſerter, that he had quitted the place to no more than ſix hundred men, and that the body of the enemy's army was ſtill above five leagues diſtant, he loſt no time, but ſent a detachment of one thouſand five hundred horſe in the evening to ſurprize the king of Sweden in the town. The one thouſand five hundred Muſcovites, aſſiſted by the darkneſs of the night, advanced as far as the firſt Swediſh guard without being known; this guard conſiſted of thirty men, and they alone ſuſtained the effort of one thouſand five hundred for half a quarter of an hour.

The king, who lay at the other end of the town, came up preſently with his ſix hundred guards, and the Muſcovites fled with precipitation: his army was not long without joining him, nor he without purſuing the enemy. All the Muſcovite troops, diſperſed in Lithuania, retired in haſte eaſtward into the Palatinate of Minſky, near the frontiers of Moſcovy, where the rendezvous was appointed. The Swedes, whom the king alſo divided into ſeveral bodies, did not ceaſe to purſue them for above thirty leagues of their way: thoſe who fled, and thoſe who purſued, made exceſſive hard marches almoſt every day, though in the midſt of winter. All ſeaſons had been long equal to the ſoldiers of Charles and of the czar; the ſole terror which the name of Charles carried with it, then made the difference between the Moſcovites and the Swedes.

Nothing but moraſſes, deſarts, mountains, and immenſe foreſts, lie eaſtward from Grodno to the Boriſthenes: in ſuch places as are cultivated, there was no proviſion to be found: the country people buried all their grain under-ground, and whatever elſe could be preſerved there. In order to diſcover theſe ſubterraneous magazines, they were obliged to ſound the earth with long poles pointed with iron. The Muſcovites and Swedes ſerved themſelves with theſe proviſions by turns: but they were not always found, and, when they were, they did not prove ſufficient.

Theſe difficulties were foreſeen by the king of Sweden, who had provided biſcuit for the ſubſiſtence of his army, ſo that he met with no interruption in his march. After he had croſſed the foreſt of Minſky, where his men were obliged to cut down trees to make way for his artillery and baggage, he found himſelf, on the 25th of June 1708, before the river Berezine, over againſt Boriſlow. The czar had collected together in that place the beſt part of his troops, and intrench'd himſelf to advantage; his deſign being to hinder the Swedes from paſſing that river. Charles poſted ſome of his regiments on the banks of the Berezine, directly againſt Boriſlow, as though he meant to attempt the paſſage in ſight of the enemy. At the ſame time he led his army about three leagues up the river; and having thrown a bridge over it, made his way through a body of three thouſand men, who defended that poſt, and marched to the enemy without ſtopping. The Muſcovites did not wait, however, for his coming up, but immediately decamped, and retreated towards the Boriſthenes, ſpoiling all the roads, and ſpreading deſtruction wherever they paſſed, that by this means they might retard the progreſs of the Swedes. But Charles ſurmounted all difficulties; and advancing ſtill towards the Boriſthenes, he met with twenty thouſand Muſcovites in his way, intrenched in a place called Holloſin, behind a moraſs, which could not be come at without paſſing a river. The Swediſh hero did not wait for the aſſault till the reſt of his infantry joined him, but threw himſelf into the water at the head of his foot guards, and croſſed the river, with the water ſometimes above his ſhoulders. While he thus marched againſt the enemy, he ordered his horſe to paſs round the moraſs, and fall upon them in flank.

The Muſcovites, aſtoniſhed that no barrier could defend them, were routed; and the Swediſh horſe, having made their way through the enemy, joined the king in the midſt of the battle. He then mounted on horſeback; but ſome time after, finding a young Swediſh gentleman, named Gullenſtiern, whom he very much eſteemed, wounded in the field, and unable to march, he obliged him to take his horſe, and continued to command on foot at the head of his infantry. Of all the battles he had ever fought, this, in all probability, was the moſt glorious; for here he was expoſed to the moſt dangers, and ſhewed the greateſt abilities: the memory of it is preſerved by a medal, with the inſcription, "Sylvæ, paludes, aggeres, hoſtes victi, that is, "woods and marſhes paſſed, armies and enemies ſubdued," on one ſide; and on the other, "Victrices copias alium laturum in orbem," that is, "marching with his victorious troops into a new world." The Muſcovites, being thus obliged to fly, repaſſed the Boriſthenes, which ſeparates the dominions of Poland from their own country.

Charles loſt no time in the purſuit; he croſſed that river after them at Mohilou, the laſt town in Poland, which ſometimes belongs to the czar, and ſometimes to the Poles, according to the common fate of frontier places. And the czar, thus ſeeing his empire, in which he was giving birth to arts and trade, become a prey to a war which in a little time might ruin all his projects, and perhaps take from him his throne, was inclined to a peace, and even condeſcended to tranſmit propoſals, by a Poliſh gentleman, to the Swediſh army. Charles XII. who had not been uſed to grant peace to his enemies, anſwered, "I will treat with the czar at Moſcow." When this haughty anſwer was reported to the czar, "my brother Charles, ſays he, ſtill affects to act the Alexander; but I flatter myſelf he will not find a Darius in me." About thirty leagues northward from Mohilou, the place where the king paſſed the Boriſthenes, along the river, and ſtill upon the frontiers of Poland and Moſcovy, is ſituated the country of Smolenſko, in which lies the great road from Poland to Moſcow. The way the czar retreated, and the Swedes followed by long marches, and ſo cloſe, that part of the rear-guard of the Moſcovites was frequently engaged with the dragoons of the Swediſh van-guard. The latter had generally the advantage; but they weakened themſelves even by conquering, in theſe ſmall ſkirmiſhes, which were never deciſive, and in which they always loſt abundance of men.

On the 22d of September, in the year 1708, the king attacked a body of ten thouſand horſe, and ſix thouſand Calmucks near Smolenſko. He fell upon this army with only ſix regiments of horſe, and four thouſand foot, broke their ranks upon the firſt onſet, at the head of his Oſtrogothick regiment, and forced the enemy to retreat. He advanced upon them through rough and hollow ways, where the Calmucks lay hid; they then appeared again and threw themſelves between the regiment where the king was fighting, and the reſt of the Swediſh army. The Moſcovites and Calmucks in an inſtant ſurrounded this regiment, and made their way quite up to his majeſty. They killed two aides de camp who fought near his perſon; the king's horſe was ſlain under him, and as one of his equerries was preſenting him another, both the equerry and horſe were ſhot dead upon the ſpot.

Charles fought on foot, encircled by ſome of his officers, who immediately flew to relieve him by ſurrounding him. Several of them were taken, wounded or ſlain, or carried off to a diſtance from the king by the multitude that fell upon them, ſo that only five men were left about him. He was quite ſpent with fatigue, having killed above a dozen of the enemy with his own hand, without receiving ſo much as one wound, by that inexpreſſible good fortune, which, till then, had ever attended him, and upon which he ſtill relied. At laſt Colonel Dardoff forced his way through the Calmucks, with a ſingle company of his regiment, and came time enough to diſengage the king. The reſt of the Swedes put the Tartars to the ſword, the army recovered its ranks, Charles mounted his horſe,

horſe, and fatigued as he was, purſued the Moſcovites for ſeveral miles.

The king was ſtill in the great road from Smolenſko (near to which this great battle was fought) to Moſcow, which is about three hundred miles diſtant, and the roads in themſelves not worſe than thoſe through which the Swedes had already paſſed; but they had information, that the czar had not only made all theſe roads impaſſable, either by laying ſuch parts of them under water as lay near the marſhes, or by digging very deep ditches at certain diſtances, or by covering the way with the wood of whole foreſts, which his ſoldiers had cut down; but alſo they learnt that he had ſet fire to all the villages, both on the right and left of the road.

The winter was now coming on, and there was little appearance of making any ſpeedy advances into the country, and none of ſubſiſting there; and as the whole body of Moſcovite forces might unexpectedly fall upon the king of Sweden through bye-ways, which he was not acquainted with; Charles therefore made a review of his whole army, and by an account taken of their proviſions, found that he had not enough to ſubſiſt them above fifteen days. General Lewenhaupt, who was appointed to bring him a ſupply, with a reinforcement of fifteen thouſand men, was not come up; ſo he reſolved to quit the road to Moſcow, and turn to the ſouth towards Ukrania, into the country of the Coſſacks; whereupon the Swediſh army was ordered to march towards that ſide of the country, to the great aſtoniſhment of all the officers.

Charles ſent orders to Lewenhaupt to bring his troops and proviſion with all ſpeed into Ukrania, where he deſigned to paſs the winter; that having ſecured that country to himſelf, he might conquer Moſcovy the next ſpring, and in the mean time he advanced towards the river Deſna, which falls into the Boriſthenes at Kiof. The obſtacles they had hitherto encountered in their march, were trifles to thoſe they met with in this new road. They were obliged to croſs a foreſt full fifty leagues broad, which abounded in marſhes. General Lapcom, who marched before with five thouſand men and pioneers, led the army thirty leagues eaſtward out of the right way, and they had marched four days before the king diſcovered the miſtake. They with difficulty gained the right road again, but left almoſt all their artillery and waggons behind, which were either ſtuck faſt, or quite ſunk in the mud. In this painful and laborious manner they marched for twelve days, till they had eat up the little biſcuit that was left, and then they arrived, quite ſpent with hunger and wearineſs, upon the banks of the Deſna, in the place where Mazeppa, general of the Coſſacks, had appointed to meet them; but inſtead of that prince, they found, on the other ſide of the river, a body of Muſcovites advancing towards them.

Charles was very much aſtoniſhed, but reſolved immediately to paſs the Deſna, and attack the enemy. The banks of the river were ſo ſteep, that they were obliged to let the ſoldiers down with cords; and they croſſed it in the uſual manner, ſome by ſwimming, and others by floats haſtily made. The body of Moſcovites, which arrived at the ſame time, were not above eight thouſand men, ſo that they made but ſmall reſiſtance, and this obſtacle was alſo ſurmounted. The king advanced farther into this wretched country, uncertain of his road, and Mazeppa's fidelity. Mazeppa appeared at laſt, but rather as a fugitive, than a powerful ally. The Muſcovites had diſcovered and prevented his deſign of joining the Swedes: they had fallen upon the Coſſacks, and cut off many of them: his principal friends were taken, and thirty of them had been broke upon the wheel. His towns were laid in aſhes, his treaſures plundered, the proviſions he was preparing for the king of Sweden ſeized; and he was ſcarce able to eſcape himſelf with 6000 men, and ſome few horſes loaded with gold and ſilver. However, he gave the king hopes of ſupporting him by his intelligence in this unknown country; and the Coſſacks, enraged againſt the Muſcovites, came in troops to the camp, and brought them proviſions. Charles hoped alſo that general Lewenhaupt would have come and repaired this ill fortune. He was to bring with him fifteen thouſand Swedes, (more valuable than one hundred thouſand Coſſacks) with proviſions and ammunition; and he arrived at laſt, but almoſt in the ſame condition as Mazeppa had done.

General Lewenhaupt had paſſed the Boriſthenes above Mohilou, and advanced twenty leagues farther on the road to Ukrania, with eight thouſand waggons, and the money he had raiſed in Lithuania; but as he was upon his march near the place where the rivers Pronia and Soſſa join and fall into the Boriſthenes, the czar appeared at the head of fifty thouſand men. The Swediſh commander, who had not quite ſixteen thouſand men, reſolved not to intrench. Their many victories had inſpired the Swedes with ſo much confidence, that they never enquired after the number of the enemy, but only where they lay. Lewenhaupt therefore marched againſt them without heſitation, on the 7th of October, 1708, in the afternoon. Upon the firſt onſet, they killed fifteen hundred Muſcovites. The czar's army fell into confuſion, and fled on all ſides, and the emperor of Ruſſia was upon the point of ſeeing himſelf entirely defeated. He perceived that the ſafety of his dominions depended upon the action of that day, and that he was utterly undone, if Lewenhaupt joined the king of Sweden with a victorious army. As ſoon as he ſaw his troops begin to fall back, he ran to the rear guard where the Coſſacks and Calmucks were poſted: "I charge you (ſays he) to fire upon every man that runs away, and even to kill me, if I ſhould be ſo cowardly as to turn my back." From thence he returned to the van guard, rallied his troops in perſon, aſſiſted by Prince Menzikoff and Prince Galliciſin. Lewenhaupt, who had preſſing orders to join his maſter, choſe rather to continue his march, than renew the fight, thinking he had done enough to diſcourage the enemy from haraſſing him in his way. The czar, at eleven the next morning, attacked him at the entrance of a moraſs, and drew out his army at length, that he might ſurround him. The Swedes faced about, and the fight laſted two hours with equal reſolution. The Muſcovites loſt three times as many men as the Swedes; but ſtill kept their ground. At four in the afternoon, general Bauer brought the czar a ſupply of troops: The battle was then renewed for the third time, with more fury than ever, and laſted till night came on: at laſt numbers carried it. The Swedes were broke, routed, and driven as far as to their baggage: Lewenhaupt rallied his troops behind his waggons, and though the Swedes were conquered, they did not fly; they were about nine thouſand, and not a man of them ran away; and the general drew them up as eaſily in order, as though they had never been beaten. The czar, on the other ſide, paſſed the night under arms, and commanded his officers under pain of being caſhiered, and his ſoldiers under pain of death, not to ſtir for plunder.

The next morning at day-break, he ordered a freſh aſſault; Lewenhaupt having retired to an advantageous ground at ſome miles diſtance, after having nailed down part of his cannon, and ſet fire to his waggons. But the Muſcovites coming time enough to hinder the whole convoy from being conſumed in the flames; they ſeized upon ſix thouſand waggons, which they ſaved. The czar, who was deſirous of completing the defeat of the Swedes, ſent General Flug to fall upon them again, the fifth time; and the general offered them an honourable capitulation. Lewenhaupt refuſed it, and the fifth battle was as bloody as any of the former: Of the nine thouſand ſoldiers he had left he loſt one half, and the other remained unbroken. At laſt, night coming on, Lewenhaupt, after having ſuſtained five battles againſt fifty thouſand men, ſwam over the Soſſa, followed by the five thouſand men, he had left alive, and the wounded were carried over on floats. The czar loſt about twenty thouſand Muſcovites in theſe five engagements, in which he had the glory of conquering the Swedes, and Lewenhaupt the reputation of diſputing the victory for three days, and of retreating without being broken at laſt. He then came to his maſter's camp with the honour of having made ſo good a defence, but brought with him neither ammunition nor army. King Staniſlaus would have been glad to have joined Charles at the ſame time; but the Muſcovites, who had defeated Lewenhaupt, lay in his way. The king of Sweden thus found himſelf without proviſions or communication with Poland, ſurrounded with enemies, in the midſt of a country where he had ſcarce any refuge but his courage.

The memorable winter of 1708, which was ſtill more terrible in thoſe frontiers of Europe, than it was in France, carried off part of his army. Charles reſolved to brave the ſeaſons, as he had done his enemies, and ventured to make long marches with his troops during the exceſſive ſeverity of the weather. It was in one of thoſe marches, that two thouſand of his men were ſtarved to death, almoſt before his eyes: The horſemen had no boots, and the foot had no ſhoes, and almoſt without cloaths: they were forced to make ſtockings of the ſkins of beaſts in the beſt manner they could: they often wanted bread: they were obliged to throw the beſt part of their cannon into quagmires and rivers, for want of horſes to draw them. So that this once flouriſhing army was reduced to twenty-four thouſand men, ready to periſh with hunger. They neither received news from Swe-

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den, nor were they able to ſend thither. In this condition, one ſingle officer complained: how, ſays the king, are you uneaſy, that you are ſo far from your wife? if you are a ſoldier indeed, I will carry you to that diſtance, that you ſhall ſcarce hear from Sweden once in three years. A ſoldier grumbling, ventured to preſent him, in the preſence of the whole army, with a piece of bread that was black and mouldy, made of barley and oats, the only food they then had; nor had enough of this. The king received the piece of bread without the leaſt emotion, ate it up entirely, and then ſaid coldly to the ſoldier, "It is not good, but it may be eaten." This little turn (if any thing may be called little that ſerves to increaſe reſpect and confidence) contributed more than all the reſt to ſupport the Swediſh army under thoſe extremities, which under any other general would have been intolerable.

The czariſh monarch, who was as active as the king of Sweden, after having ſent freſh forces into Poland, to the aſſiſtance of the confederates united under general Smianſki againſt Staniſlaus, advanced very ſoon into Ukrania, in the midſt of this ſevere winter, to oppoſe the king of Sweden. He continued there with a view of weakening the enemy by ſmall engagements; for by this means he thought the Swediſh army muſt be ruined entirely at laſt, as it could not be recruited whilſt he was able to draw freſh forces continually out of his own dominions. The cold there muſt have been exceſſive indeed, ſince it obliged the two enemies to agree upon a ſuſpenſion of arms.

On the firſt of February, they began to engage again, in the midſt of ice and ſnow; after ſeveral ſmall ſkirmiſhes, and ſome diſadvantages, the king's army was reduced in April, to eighteen thouſand Swedes. Mazeppa alone, the prince of the Coſſacks, ſupplied them with the neceſſaries of life: without his aſſiſtance, the army muſt have periſhed by hunger and hardſhips. The czar, in this conjuncture offered conditions to Mazeppa, to draw him again into his ſervice. But the Coſſack continued faithful to his new ally, whether it were through fear of the terrible puniſhment of the wheels by which he had loſt his friends, or whether through a deſire of revenge.

Charles, with his eight thouſand Swedes and as many Coſſacks, had not laid aſide the deſign or hopes of penetrating as far as Moſcow. Towards the end of May he went to lay ſiege to Pultowa, upon the river Vorkſlat, on the borders of Ukrania, about thirteen long leagues eaſt of the Boriſthenes, where the czar had a magazine. If the king took it, the road to Moſcow would then be open to him; and in the abundance he ſhould then poſſeſs, he could at leaſt wait for the coming up of the ſuccours he ſtill expected from Sweden, Livonia, Pomerania, and Poland. His ſole refuge, then, being in the conqueſt of Pultowa, he carried on the ſiege with vigour. Mazeppa who had a correſpondence in the town, aſſured him, he would ſoon be maſter of it; and hope began to revive in his army. His ſoldiers looked upon the taking of Pultowa as the end of all their miſeries. The king perceived, from the beginning of the ſiege, that he had taught his enemies the art of war. Prince Menzikoff, notwithſtanding all his precautions, threw freſh troops into the town; and the garriſon by this means, amounted to almoſt ten thouſand men. The king continued the ſiege with ſtill more warmth: he carried the advanced works, gave two aſſaults to the body of the place, and took the courtine.

The ſiege was in this condition, when the king, having rode into the river, to take a nearer view of ſome works, received a ſhot from a carbine, which pierced through his boot, and ſhattered a bone of his heel. There was not the leaſt alteration obſerved in his countenance, by which it could be ſuſpected that he was wounded; he continued calmly to give orders, and remained near ſix hours on horſeback afterwards. One of his domeſtics, at laſt, perceiving that the ſole of his boot was bloody, made haſte to call the ſurgeons; and his pain then began to be ſo ſharp, that they were forced to take him off his horſe, and carry him to his tent. The ſurgeons, looking upon the wound, obſerved, that it already began to mortify, and were of opinion that the leg muſt be cut off. The army was in the utmoſt conſternation; but one of the ſurgeons, named Newman, who was better ſkilled, and more courageous than the reſt, was poſitive, that, by making deep inciſions, he could ſave the king's leg. "Fall to work, then, preſently, ſaid the king; cut boldly, fear nothing." He held the leg himſelf with both his hands, looking upon the inciſions that were made, as though the operation had been performed upon another perſon. As they were laying on the dreſſing, he gave orders for an aſſault the next morning; but the orders were ſcarce given, before word was brought him, that the czar appeared with an army of above ſeventy thouſand men: he was, therefore, obliged to take another reſolution. Charles, wounded and incapable of acting, ſaw himſelf incloſed between the Boriſthenes, and the river which runs to Pultowa, in a deſart country, without any places of ſecurity, or ammunition, and expoſed to an army, which had prevented him either from retreating, or being ſupplied with proviſions. In this extremity he aſſembled no council of war, as might have been expected; but, on the 7th of July, at night, he ſent for mareſchal Renchild into his tent, and ordered him without deliberation, and without uneaſineſs, to prepare to attack the czar the next morning. Renchild did not diſpute his maſter's will, but went out with a reſolution to obey him. At the door of the king's tent, he met count Piper, with whom he had long been at variance, as it often happens between the miniſter and the general. Piper aſked him if any thing new had happened? no, ſays the general, coldly, and paſſed on to give his orders. As ſoon as Piper was entered into the tent, "has Renchild ſaid any thing to you?" ſays the king to him. "Nothing," anſwers Piper. "Well then, replies the king, I tell you, that to-morrow we ſhall give battle." Count Piper was aſtoniſhed at ſo deſperate a reſolution; but knew well, that his maſter could not be prevailed on to change his opinion; he only expreſſed his aſtoniſhment by his ſilence, and left the king to ſleep till break of day.

On the 8th of July 1709, the deciſive battle of Pultowa, was fought between the two moſt celebrated monarchs then in the world: Charles XII. illuſtrious by a courſe of nine years victories, and Peter Alexowitz, by nine years of fatigues ſpent in training up his troops to an equality with the Swedes: the one glorious for having given away others dominions, the other for having civilized his own; Charles in love with danger, and fighting only for glory; Alexowitz not flying from danger, and making war only for intereſt: the Swediſh monarch liberal through a greatneſs of ſoul, and the Moſcovite never generous but for ſome private end: the one ſober and continent beyond example, naturally brave, and never cruel but once; the other, having not yet worn off the roughneſs of his education, or the brutality of his country, as terrible to his ſubjects, as wonderful to ſtrangers, and much addicted to exceſs of pleaſures that ſhortened his days. Charles had the title of invincible, which one unhappy moment robbed him of; but the nations around had already given Peter Alexowitz the name of Great, of which no defeat could deprive him, as no victories gave it to him.

In order to have a clear idea of this battle, and the place where it was fought, we muſt imagine Pultowa lying on the north, the camp of the king of Sweden on the ſouth, drawing a little towards the eaſt, and his baggage about a mile behind him; and the river of Pultowa on the north of the town, running from eaſt to weſt.

The czar had paſſed the river about a league from Pultowa towards the weſt, and was beginning to form his camp. At day-break, the Swedes appeared out of their trenches with four cannon, being their whole artillery; the reſt were left in the camp with about three thouſand men; and four thouſand remaining with the baggage. So that the Swediſh army, which marched againſt the enemy, conſiſted of about twenty-five thouſand men, whereof there were not above twelve thouſand regular troops.

The Swediſh generals Renchild, Field, Lewenhaupt, Slippenback, Hoorn, Sparre, Hamilton, the prince of Wirtemberg, who was related to the king, and ſome others, moſt of whom had ſeen the battle of Narva; put the ſubaltern officers in mind of that day, when eight thouſand Swedes had deſtroyed an army of an hundred thouſand Ruſſians in their intrenchments: the officers ſaid the ſame thing to the ſoldiers, and all encouraged one another as they marched. The king conducted the march, carried in a litter, at the head of his foot. A party of horſe advanced by his order to attack that of the enemy: the battle began with this engagement at half an hour after four in the morning. The enemy's horſe lay weſtward on the right of the Ruſſian camp, prince Menzikoff and count Gallowin had placed them at diſtances between redoubts fortified with cannon. General Slippenback, at the head of the Swedes, fell upon them. All who had ſerved in the Swediſh troops knew that it was almoſt impoſſible to reſiſt the fury of their firſt ſhock. The Muſcovite ſquadrons were broken and routed; the czar himſelf began to rally them, and his hat was ſhot through with a muſket ball; Menzikoff had three horſes killed under him, and the Swedes cried out victory.

Charles did not doubt but the battle was gained; he had

had diſpatched general Creuts, about midnight, with five thouſand horſe or dragoons, who were to take the enemy in flank, whilſt he attacked them in front; but his misfortune was, that Creuts loſt his way, and did not appear. The czar, who began to deſpair, by this accident had time to rally his horſe, and fell upon the king's cavalry in his turn, which not being ſupported by Creuts's detachment, was broken, and Slippenback taken priſoner in the engagement: at the ſame time ſeventy-two cannons from the camp played upon the Swediſh horſe, and the Ruſſian foot advanced to attack the Swediſh infantry. The czar, by a preſence of mind and a penetration, which in ſuch moments belongs only to men that are truly great, immediately detached prince Menzikoff to poſt himſelf between Pultowa and the Swedes. Prince Menzikoff executed his maſter's orders with dexterity and readineſs, and not only cut off all communication between the Swediſh army and the troops remaining in the camp before Pultowa, but meeting with a corps de reſerve of three thouſand, he ſurrounded and put them to the ſword.

The Muſcovite foot, in the mean time, came out of their lines, and advanced in order into the plain. On the other ſide, the Swediſh horſe rallied within a quarter of a league from the enemy's army; and the king, aſſiſted by general Renchild made a diſpoſition for a general engagement. He ranged what troops were left him in two lines; his foot were poſted in the center, and his horſe made up the two wings. The czar diſpoſed his army in the ſame manner, he had the advantage of numbers, and of ſeventy-two cannon; whilſt the Swedes had no more than four, and began to want powder. The emperor of Ruſſia was in the centre of the army, having then the title only of major-general, and ſeemed to ſerve under general Czeremetoff: but he went as emperor from rank to rank, mounted on a Turkiſh horſe, which was a preſent from the Grand Signior, exhorting the officers and ſoldiers, and promiſing every one of them rewards.

Charles did all he could to ſit his horſe, at the head of his troops; but finding the poſture too painful, he returned to his litter, holding his ſword in one hand, and a piſtol in the other. At nine in the morning, the battle was renewed: one of the firſt diſcharges of the Muſcovite cannon carried off the two horſes of the king's litter; he cauſed two others to be put to it, and a ſecond volley broke the litter in pieces, and overturned the king. The troops which fought near him, believed him killed. The Swedes in a conſternation loſt ground, and their powder failing, and the enemy's cannon continuing to play upon them, the firſt line fell upon the ſecond, and the ſecond fled. In this laſt action, the Swediſh army was routed by a ſingle line of ten thouſand men of the Muſcovite foot; ſo much were matters changed. The king carried upon pikes by four grenadiers, covered with blood, and all over bruiſed by his fall, and ſcarce able to ſpeak, cried out, Swedes, Swedes! Anger and grief renewing his ſtrength he tried to rally ſome of his regiments: but the Muſcovites cloſely purſued them with their ſwords, bayonets and pikes. The prince of Wirtemberg, general Renchild, Hamilton, and Stakelberg, were already taken priſoners, the camp before Pultowa forced, and all in confuſion, which did not admit of any remedy. Count Piper, with all the officers of the chancery, had quitted the camp, and neither knew what to do, or what was become of the king. They ran from one ſide of the plain to the other; major Bere offered to lead them to the baggage; but the clouds of duſt and ſmoke, which covered the field, and their own confuſion, carried them ſtrait to the counterſcarp of the town, where they were all taken priſoners by the garriſon. The king would not fly, and could not defend himſelf; general Poniatoſky chanced to be by him that inſtant: he was a colonel of the Swediſh guards of king Staniſlaus, and a perſon of uncommon merit, whom his attachment to the perſon of Charles had engaged to follow him into Ukrania without any poſt in the army. He was one, who in all the occurrences of his life, and in dangers, where others at moſt would have only behaved with courage, ſhewed a command of underſtanding which was ever attended with ſucceſs. He made a ſign to a young Swede, named Frederick, the king's firſt valet de chambre, and as intrepid as his maſter; they took the king under their arms, and, aſſiſted by a Drabant who came up to them, mounted him on a horſe, notwithſtanding the exceſſive pains of his wound: Frederick got up behind his maſter, and ſupported him from time to time. Poniatoſky, though he had no command in the army, being made a general on this occaſion by neceſſity, drew up five hundred horſe near the king's perſon, ſome of them Drabants, others officers, and others private troopers. This body, re-animated by the misfortune of their prince, made their way through more than ten regiments of Moſcovites, and conducted Charles through the midſt of the enemy, the ſpace of a league, to the baggage of the Swediſh army.

This ſurpriſing retreat was of great conſequence in ſuch diſtreſs; but the king was under a neceſſity of flying ſtill farther. They found amongſt the baggage Count Piper's coach, for the king never had one ſince he left Stockholm. They put him into it, and made towards the Boriſthenes with all poſſible ſpeed. The king, who, from the time he was ſet on horſeback, till he came to the baggage, had never ſpoke one ſingle word, then aſked what was become of count Piper? they told him he was taken with all the officers of the chancery: and general Renchild, and the prince of Wirtemberg? added the king. They are priſoners too, ſays Poniatoſky. Priſoners to Moſcovites! replies Charles, ſhrugging up his ſhoulders: come on then, rather let us go to the Turks! They did not obſerve, however, the leaſt alteration in his countenance, and whoever had then ſeen him, and not known his condition, would have never ſuſpected him to have been either conquered or wounded. Whilſt he was getting off, the Moſcovites ſeized upon his artillery in the camp before Pultowa, his baggage, and the money he had raiſed for carrying on the war, where they found ſix millions of ſpecie, the ſpoils of Poland and Saxony. Near nine thouſand Swedes were killed in the battle, about ſix thouſand were taken, three thouſand or four thouſand ran away, and were never heard of afterwards.

There ſtill remained near eighteen thouſand men, comprehending the Coſſacks with Swedes and Poles, who fled towards the Boriſthenes, under the direction of general Lewenhaupt; he marched on one ſide with theſe fugitive troops, while the king took another road with ſome of his horſe. The coach, in which he rode, broke down in his march, and they ſet him again on horſeback; and to finiſh his misfortune, he rambled all night in a wood: there his courage not being able to ſupply any longer his exhauſted ſpirits, and the pains of his wound becoming more inſupportable by fatigue, and his horſe falling under him through exceſſive wearineſs, he reſted himſelf ſome hours at the foot of a tree, in danger of being ſurprized every moment by the conquerors, who ſought for him on all ſides. At laſt, on the 9th of July at night, he found himſelf upon the banks of the Boriſthenes, and Lewenhaupt juſt arrived with the remains of his army. The Swedes ſaw their king again, whom they judged to have been dead, with a joy mixed with ſorrow. The enemy drew nigh, and they had no bridge to paſs the river, nor time to make one, nor powder to defend themſelves againſt the enemy, who came upon them, nor proviſions to hinder the army from periſhing with hunger, who had eat nothing for a whole day; but what gave the Swedes the greateſt uneaſineſs, was, the danger of their king. By good fortune, there was ſtill left a ſorry calaſh, which they had brought along with them, this they embarked in a little boat, and the king and general Mazeppa in another. The latter had ſaved ſeveral cheſts of money; but the current being very rapid, and a violent wind beginning to blow, the Coſſack, to lighten his boat, threw more than three parts of his treaſures into the river.

Count Poniatoſky, who was now more than ever neceſſary to the king, for his remarkable preſence of mind under difficulties, together with Mullern, the king's chancellor, croſſed over in other barks with ſome of the officers; three hundred troopers of the king's guard, and a very great number of Poles and Coſſacks, relying upon the goodneſs of their horſes, ventured to paſs the river by ſwimming; their troops, keeping cloſe together, reſiſted the current, and broke the waves; but all who attempted to croſs ſeparately, a little below, were carried away by the ſtream, and ſunk in the river. Of all the foot who tried to paſs over, not one was able to reach the oppoſite ſhore.

During this extremity to which the routed part of the army were reduced, prince Menzikoff came up with ten thouſand horſe, having each a foot ſoldier behind him. The carcaſes of the Swedes that lay dead in the way, of the wounds, fatigue, and hunger, ſufficiently pointed out to the prince the road which the body of the army had taken. The prince ſent a trumpet to the Swediſh general, to offer him a capitulation; four general officers, were preſently ſent by Lewenhaupt, to receive the law of the conqueror. Before that day, ſixteen thouſand of king Charles's ſoldiers would have attacked all the forces of the

Ruſſian-empire, and have periſhed to the laſt man, rather than have ſurrendered; but after a battle loſt, and a flight of two days, not having their eyes any longer upon their prince, who was conſtrained to fly himſelf, the ſtrength of every ſoldier being ſpent, and their courage no longer ſupported by any hope, the love of life took place of intrepidity. The whole army were made priſoners of war; ſome of the ſoldiers, rather than fall into the hands of the Muſcovites, threw themſelves into the Boriſthenes, and the reſt were made priſoners. They all filed off in the preſence of prince Menzikoff, laying their arms at his feet, as thirty thouſand Muſcovites had done nine years before, at the king of Sweden's at Narva; but whereas the king then ſent back almoſt all the Muſcovite priſoners but the general officers; the czar retained all the Swedes that were taken at Pultowa, and ſent them into Siberia. We ſhall relate, in the hiſtory of Sweden, the king's eſcape to Bender, and his conduct there, and afterwards.

No ſooner had the czar obtained the deciſive victory of Pultowa, than Auguſtus re-aſcended the throne of Poland, his rival Staniſlaus and the Swediſh forces retiring into the territories of Sweden. The czar at the ſame time reſtored the duke of Courland, whom he married to his neice, the princeſs Anne, daughter of the late czar John, his eldeſt brother, and completed the conqueſt of Livonia; he alſo made himſelf maſter of Wiburg, and the territory of Kexholm in Finland. The czar, however, ſtill quartered great part of his army in Poland, though the diet inſiſted on his withdrawing them, complaining that their country had been ravaged and plundered twelve years by foreign troops already, and deſired that they might enjoy ſome reſt after ſo many calamities: that the Swedes were now reduced ſo low, that the Poles wanted no foreign aſſiſtance, and they could not underſtand what the czar intended by quartering his troops ſtill in Poland, unleſs he had a deſign upon their liberties: but they were for a time relieved from the outrages committed by the Ruſſian forces, by a rupture between the Ruſſians and the Turks: the king of Sweden having prevailed on the grand ſeignior to declare war againſt Ruſſia, the pretence for which was, that the Ruſſians had purſued the Swedes into the Turkiſh territories, and made priſoners of many of them there.

The czar did not wait to be invaded by the Turks, but marched into Moldavia, being aſſured by a Tartarian prince, that the Moldavians and Tartars would join his army with a good body of troops on his appearance among them. He marched into Moldavia, therefore, before he had provided ſufficient magazines for the ſubſiſtence of his troops, relying on the Moldavians to furniſh him with proviſions; but whether the treaty between the czar and the Moldavians had been diſcovered by the Porte, or by what other accident it happened, the Moldavians did not join him as he expected. The Ruſſian army was deſtitute of proviſions, and being ſurrounded by the numerous forces of the Turks, was attacked three days ſucceſſively on the banks of the river Pruth, viz. on the 11th, 12th, and 13th days of July. The Ruſſians, though they defended themſelves very well, yet being deſtitute of all proviſions and neceſſaries, it was thought proper to hang out a white flag, and demand a treaty with the vizir, who commanded the Turks, which he was not averſe to, if he could procure advantageous terms; and having ſufficiently tried the reſolution of the Ruſſians, whom he looked upon as deſperate men, he conſented to parly with them.

The miniſters on both ſides, being met, the Turks inſiſted that the czar ſhould deliver up Aſoph, and all his forts on the Black Sea, and renounce all pretences to the navigation of it, which the czar conſented to; and thereby his favourite project of building a fleet of men of war at Woronets, to ſail on that ſea, and trade with the countries on the coaſt of the Euxine Sea, and perhaps diſpute the dominion of it with the grand ſeignior, proved abortive. But even upon theſe hard terms, it is preſumed the vizir, who knew the Ruſſian army to be in a ſtarving condition, would not have ſuffered them to retire to their own country, if the czarina Catharine had not borrowed of the officers all the money they could raiſe, and made a preſent of it to the covetous vizir; whereupon the Ruſſians were permitted to march off unmoleſted, and were ſupplied with proviſions even by the Turks themſelves; but their numbers were ſo diminiſhed by ſickneſs or the ſword, that of ſeventy thouſand men, which entered Moldavia, ſcarce forty thouſand remained alive.

The king of Sweden arrived juſt as the Ruſſians were marching off, reproached the vizir with betraying his maſter, and offered with twenty thouſand men to attack the Ruſſians, and carry the czar priſoner to the grand ſeignior; but the vizir refuſed to violate the treaty he had made, and the czar returned to his dominions, quartering a body of his forces in Poland again, which the Poles proteſted againſt, deſiring he would withdraw them; but either under pretence of money due to him for his protection againſt the Swedes, or ſome other demands he had on the republic, the Ruſſians continued in Poland ſeveral years, where they raiſed what contributions they ſaw fit; and the war ſtill continuing between the Swedes and Ruſſians, the czar with his ally the Dane, ſubdued the Swediſh Pomerania, in 1713. The year following, he defeated the Swediſh fleet in the gulf of Finland, afterwards made himſelf maſter of almoſt the whole province of Finland, and proceeded to invade the provinces of Sweden on the weſt ſide of the Bothnick gulf, where he demoliſhed ſome of their iron and copper works, in which the gallies he had built were of great ſervice to him; this being a ſhallow ſea, in which he met with little oppoſition, as large ſhips of war could not enter it; but the king of Sweden returning from Turky, put a ſtop to his incurſions on that ſide; and as he had now no other enemy, he applied himſelf again to the poliſhing of his ſubjects, and promoting arts and ſciences; but navigation and traffic more particularly engaged his attention.

He made another journey to Holland, in 1717, not incognito, as before, but as a ſovereign prince, and was received with all the honours due to his rank. From thence he viſited France, and made himſelf acquainted with every thing he thought worth his attention: but his principal view being to improve his own people, he engaged the artiſts in all profeſſions in his ſervice, and, by the ſalaries and rewards he offered them, prevailed with many of them to go with him to Ruſſia. Nor did he only introduce arts and ſciences among his people, but imitated the politeſt nations in their diverſions at his return.

Before his arrival at Peterſburgh, he received advice, that a conſpiracy had been formed to depoſe him, and ſet his only ſon the czarowitz upon the throne; to which that prince, it is ſaid, was privy. A great many of the conſpirators were put to death on the czar's return; and the czarowitz fled to the court of Vienna, to avoid his father's reſentment: and as his conſort was ſiſter to the then empreſs of Germany, it was given out that the court of Vienna had obtained his pardon; but, however that might be, when the czarowitz returned to Ruſſia, he was apprehended and impriſoned; and, being tried by a court of officers of his father's appointing, condemned to die: however, the ſentence was not executed; the prince dying a natural death in priſon.

The king of Sweden being now returned to his dominions, and invading the Daniſh territories; the czar, to make a diverſion in favour of his old ally the Dane, was preparing to invade Sweden again; when he heard that king Charles was killed in the trenches before Frederickſhall in Norway; and that his youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, had ſucceeded him in that throne; who, deſiring to live at peace with the czar, a treaty was ſet on foot in the iſland of Aland, in 1718, between the two nations, which being abruptly broken off, the czar invaded Sweden again the year following, and deſtroyed ſome of their moſt conſiderable copper and iron works, which obliged the Swedes, in 1721, to ſubmit to the terms he offered them; namely, that the Swedes ſhould confirm to him the provinces of Livonia, Ingria, and Carelia, and the eaſtern provinces of Finland. The czar aſſumed the title of emperor of all the Ruſſias, in the above year.

In the year 1722, the Perſians being engaged in a civil war, and having lately depoſed Sultan Hoſſein, their ſovereign; the czar aſſembled an army of thirty thouſand men at Aſtracan, and invaded the provinces on the weſt of the Caſpian ſea; having publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring, that it was not any ambitious views of enlarging his dominions, that brought him to the frontiers of Perſia; but to reſcue their king out of the hands of his rebellious ſubjects; and being arrived with his army near Derbent, a difficult paſs on the coaſt of the Caſpian ſea, and eſteemed the gate of Perſia from Ruſſia, the governor and inhabitants agreed to ſurrender that city to the czar upon the firſt ſummons; whereupon the czar having confirmed the governor in that office, and left a garriſon of two thouſand men in that citadel, returned to Aſtracan, without any farther attempt at that time.

In the year 1723, however, the Ruſſians aſſembled an army near Derbent, and the whole province of Ghilan ſubmitted to them as ſoon as they took the field; and ſoon after the Ruſſian troops marched into the province of

Shirwan, and took the port-town of Baku: prince Thomas, ſon of the late ſultan Hoſſein, having made his eſcape from the uſurpers at Iſpahan, and aſſembled ſome forces in the north of Perſia, ſent a miniſter to Peterſburgh, to deſire the czar's protection; and a treaty was concluded on the 23d of September 1723, wherein the czar promiſed his aſſiſtance to prince Thomas againſt the rebels; and the prince, on the other hand, ceded the provinces of Ghilan, Shirwan, Mazenderan, and Aſtrabad, to Ruſſia. There was ſoon after a treaty concluded between the Turks and Ruſſians, guaranteeing to each other the ſeveral provinces they had poſſeſſed themſelves of on the frontiers of Perſia: in which they declared, that if prince Thomas, ſhould refuſe his conſent to this treaty, they would keep them by force, but yield up the reſt of the kingdom to prince Thomas, or any other prince, who ſhould be deemed heir to the throne of Perſia, and afford their aſſiſtance againſt the uſurper.

The czar, in the mean time, cauſed the czarina to be proclaimed his ſucceſſor, and crowned; and the nobility and officers of ſtate took the oaths of allegiance to her: ſoon after which he fell ſick, and died on the 8th of February, 1724-5, in the fifty-third year of his age. Whereupon the ſenate proclaimed the czarina Catherine, empreſs of all the Ruſſias, and renewed their oaths of allegiance to her, who was about forty years of age, at her acceſſion to the throne.

The czarina applied herſelf immediately to perfect what the late czar had begun: encouraging all arts and ſciences, and inviting learned foreigners and artificers, by offering them large revenues, to ſettle in the Ruſſian dominions; and obliged her ſubjects to ſend their ſons and dependents abroad, to qualify themſelves in every ſcience. We had, and have ſtill, ſeveral of them in England; but wherever they travel, the court of Ruſſia takes an account of them; they are all regiſtered, and never remove from one kingdom to another for improvement, without the leave of the Ruſſian miniſter, who reſides in the kingdom to which they are deſtined, and return home whenever they are commanded.

Catherine applying herſelf to the increaſing and diſciplining her forces both by ſea and land, at the beginning of her reign, gave the king of Denmark ſome apprehenſions, that theſe preparations were intended againſt his kingdom, as he had lately ſeized upon the territories of the duke of Holſtein, her ſon-in-law, which lie in Sleſwick; whereupon that prince applied himſelf to the Britiſh court, to ſend a ſquadron of men of war to his aſſiſtance; and a fleet was accordingly, in 1726, ſent into the Baltick, under the command of Sir Charles Wager, and a letter ſent to the czarina at the ſame time, to juſtify this meaſure, wherein his late majeſty obſerves, That the warlike preparations ſhe was making both by ſea and land, had alarmed him and his allies, and that he had ſent his fleet into the Baltick, to obviate the dangers which might ariſe from ſuch an extraordinary armament, eſpecially as he was informed, that meaſures were taking at the Ruſſian court, in favour of the pretender to his crown. He had given orders, therefore, to his admiral, to prevent her imperial majeſty's fleet from coming out. The czarina, in her anſwer to this letter, declared, that ſhe had never entertained a thought of diſturbing the Britiſh nation, by eſpouſing the intereſt of the pretender; and was ſo far from having any hoſtile intentions againſt Britain, that ſhe had ordered her port-towns in Livonia to furniſh the Britiſh fleet with all manner of proviſions.

The Britiſh fleet had undoubtedly other reaſons for viſiting the Baltic, than the preventing the Ruſſian invaſion of England in favour of the pretender. If they had intended it, ſo weak a naval power, and ſo diſtant from our ſhores, as Ruſſia lies, could never have expected any ſucceſs in ſuch an enterprize: nor can it be imagined, what motives they ſhould have to attempt it, while our traffic with them was more beneficial to them, than that of any other nation: the true reaſon, therefore, of ſending the Britiſh fleet to the Baltick, is ſuppoſed to have been to protect the Danes and Swedes. The Danes had ſold Bremen and Ferden to Hanover, and Britain had guaranteed their poſſeſſion of Sleſwick, the property of the duke of Holſtein; and the Swedes, in their diſtreſs, offered to confirm Bremen and Ferden to Hanover, on condition, that the Engliſh fleet protected the reſt of the Swediſh dominions; which were ſubſtantial reaſons for ſending Sir Charles Wager into the Baltick, but not proper to be owned at that time; and, therefore, ſome other plauſible pretence for it was to be given out, and nothing could be more popular than defending the nation againſt the pretender.

The Ruſſians making great preparations by ſea for ſome expedition the next year, 1727, another Britiſh fleet was ſent into the Baltick, commanded by Sir John Norris; but the czarina falling ſick, no attempt was made either on the Daniſh or Swediſh coaſts, and our fleet returned to England. The czarina, apprehending ſhe ſhould not live long, appointed prince Peter, the ſon of the czarowitz, and grandſon of the emperor, Peter the Great, to ſucceed her, and died on the 17th of May 1727, in the forty-third year of her age. Peter II. at his acceſſion, was in the twelfth year of his age, being born on the 22d of October 1715. He was immediately proclaimed emperor on the death of the late empreſs; in which proclamation it was ſhewn, that he had a right to the Ruſſian throne by hereditary deſcent, as well as by the appointment of the late emperor and empreſs. The mother of the young emperor was the princeſs Charlotta Chriſtiana Sophia, of Bruniwick Wolfenbuttle, ſiſter to the conſort of the late emperor, Charles VI. It was by the particular direction of Peter the Great, that the late czarina appointed Peter to ſucceed her, for otherwiſe ſhe would have transferred the empire to one of the princeſſes her daughters, of whom ſhe left two, namely, Anna Petrowna, then nineteen years of age, married to Charles Frederick, duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and Elizabeth Petrowna, only thirteen years of age.

The young emperor was almoſt prevailed on to eſpouſe the eldeſt daughter of prince Menzikoff, who was prime miniſter of Ruſſia at the death of the empreſs. The nobility of Ruſſia were ſo incenſed at this, that they immediately reſolved on ruining him, and cauſed him to be brought to trial, wherein he was charged with being the cauſe of the death of the czarowitz, his imperial majeſty's father; with cauſing the firſt conſort of Peter the Great to be continued in priſon, and with embezzling the public revenues; with cauſing ſeveral great men to be deprived of their honours and eſtates, and with a boundleſs ambition, as appeared in his deſign of marrying his daughter to the emperor; for all which, his eſtate was ordered to be confiſcated, and himſelf ſentenced to be baniſhed to Siberia.

The young emperor's relations next proceeded to give the late czarina, the firſt conſort of Peter the Great, her liberty, and reverſe the ſentence of her divorce. They alſo repealed that law made by Peter the Great, which ſubverted the right of primogeniture, and the natural order of ſucceſſion in the imperial family, and the reſt of the Ruſſian families, and made void the proceſs againſt the late czarowitz, the preſent emperor's father, and reſtored the noblemen who had been baniſhed to Siberia, under the adminiſtration of prince Menzikoff: and having concluded a peace both with Sweden and Denmark, they proceeded, on the 7th of March, 1727-8, to the coronation of the czar at Moſcow.

The poſt of prime miniſter was conferred on prince Dolgoruki, who appeared to have no leſs ambition than his predeceſſor, contriving to get his eldeſt daughter eſpouſed to the preſent emperor, and was congratulated thereupon, and their nuptials appointed to be celebrated; but the czar died of the ſmall-pox, on the 29th of January 1729-30, three days before the marriage was to have been ſolemnized; whereupon the ſenate and great officers of the crown cauſed the princeſs Anne, ducheſs dowager of Courland, to be proclaimed empreſs. She was the ſecond daughter of the late czar John, eldeſt brother of Peter the Great; Charles, duke of Mecklenburg, having married Catharine her eldeſt ſiſter.

As the court reſided at Moſcow on the death of the czar, prince Dolgoruki and three others, were therefore appointed to attend the empreſs Anne, and convoy her to Moſcow. Theſe gentlemen arriving at Mittau, the capital of Courland, congratulated her ſucceſſion; but inſiſted on limiting the prerogatives of the crown, and veſting part of the legiſlative authority in the ſtates, which ſhe conſented to, and ſigned the capitulation they had provided for her, the principal articles whereof were, that ſhe ſhould not make peace or war, or raiſe taxes, without the concurrence of the ſtates; that ſhe ſhould not marry, appoint a ſucceſſor, or diſpoſe of any conſiderable office without a like aſſent. But the czarina appeared to have ſo many friends on her arrival at Moſcow, that the nobility and great officers attended her with an addreſs, declaring, that monarchical government was moſt agreeable to the Ruſſians, deſiring that her imperial majeſty would accept of the ſovereignty entire, and with the ſame authority it was enjoyed by her predeceſſors; and the articles ſhe had ſigned at Mittau were thereupon cancelled, and both the clergy and laity took the oaths to her majeſty in as abſolute terms as they had done to

Peter the Great, without any reſerves or limitations whatever.

The prince Dolgoruki, his ſon, and ſeveral of their relations and friends, were ſoon after baniſhed, and their eſtates confiſcated, being principally concerned, it is ſuppoſed, in putting limitations on the prerogative, as mentioned above; but the declaration publiſhed on this occaſion charged Dolgoruki and his ſon with behaving inſolently to the late czar Peter II. and endeavouring to marry him to Dolgoruki's daughter, and with embezzling the public treaſure.

The death of Auguſtus II. king of Poland, happening in February 1733, N. S. the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the emperor of Germany, by their joint intereſt, cauſed the elector of Saxony, his ſon, to be advanced to the throne of Poland, though Staniſlaus, father-in-law to the French king, became a candidate for that crown, and was ſupported by all the power of France; at which Lewis was ſo incenſed, that entering into a confederacy with Spain and Sardinia, he invaded the German emperor's dominions both in Italy and Germany, expelled the Auſtrians from all their Italian dominions, and took Philipſburg upon the Rhine, though the czarina ſent thirty thouſand of her troops as far as the Rhine, in 1735, to the aſſiſtance of the Germans; but a peace being concluded, the dominions of the Auſtrians were reſtored, both in Germany and Italy, except Naples and Sicily, which were yielded to Don Carlos, the king of Spain's eldeſt ſon by the princeſs of Parma.

This war with France and Spain was no ſooner ended, but a rupture happened with the Turks in 1736, in which the Ruſſians and Auſtrians were confederates, and the Ruſſians were very ſucceſsful the two firſt campaigns on their ſide, over-running both Crim and Little Tartary; but the Auſtrian army being almoſt deſtroyed by a peſtilential fever, the emperor made a ſeparate peace, and the Ruſſians were obliged to relinquiſh all the places they had taken in this war.

Nadir Shah, or Kouli Khan, as he is uſually called, becoming very powerful, and recovering all the places the Turks had taken on the frontiers of Perſia, the czarina, without waiting to be attaked, in the year 1738, reſigned all the provinces Peter the Great had poſſeſſed himſelf of in Perſia, on the weſt of the Caſpian ſea.

On the twenty-eighth of October, 1740, the empreſs Anne died, having nominated for her ſucceſſor prince John, an infant, ſix months old, ſon of Anthony Ulrick, duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, and of Anne his wife, daughter of Charles duke of Mecklenburg, and of the princeſs Catherine, eldeſt daughter of the late czar John: and during the minority of the infant emperor, ſhe appointed her favourite, count Biron, duke of Courland, to be regent. The mother of the young emperor, the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg, looking upon herſelf much better entitled to the regency, and even to the throne itſelf, as her ſon could not have the leaſt title to the Ruſſian throne but by her, ſhe ordered count Munich to take the duke of Courland priſoner, and, cauſing him to be tried for high treaſon, he was condemned to die; but his ſentence was afterwards changed to a Siberian baniſhment, and ſhe aſſumed the regency herſelf; in which change at court the general count Munich, being moſt inſtrumental, was mightily careſſed by the princeſs at firſt; but ſhe ſoon removed him from all his poſts, for what reaſon does not appear, though it is probable the regent might imagine he aſſumed too great a ſhare in the adminiſtration; however, the diſplacing this great man contributed, no doubt, to her own ruin.

While the ſoldiers were under the command of the count, the princeſs Anne had not much to fear from them; but he was no ſooner diſplaced, than they began to cabal in favour of the princeſs Elizabeth, the youngeſt daughter of Peter the Great, by his laſt conſort the empreſs Catherine; and on the fifth of December, 1741, all the avenues to the palace, and the chief poſts in the city, were ſeized by the guards, who, with the friends of the princeſs, aſſembling in the palace, proclaimed her empreſs of Ruſſia. The late regent and her conſort, the duke of Brunſwick, and their infant ſon were made priſoners, as were alſo count Munich, and Oſterman the chancellor. The Dolgoruki's, the duke of Courland, and other ſtate priſoners, were recalled from Siberia, and their ſentences revoked. In the mean time count Oſterman, Munich, and ſeveral more, that were thought not well-affected to the preſent government, were tried for high treaſon, and condemned to die; but when they had been brought to the ſcaffold, and prepared for their execution, it was declared, that the reigning empreſs had given orders for them to be baniſhed.

At firſt, it had been reſolved, that the late regent, the princeſs Anne, ſhould be ſent with her conſort and her ſon to Germany; but upon ſecond thoughts it was judged more politic to keep the royal family in their power, to prevent rivals attempting any change in the government; and though they were on their journey to Germany, they were ordered to be ſtopped and detained priſoners at Riga; and when the Auſtrian and Pruſſian miniſters interceded for their liberty, the czarina anſwered, that ſhe had given directions that the family of the late regent ſhould be treated agreeable to their rank, and ſhe ſhould convince the world of the regard ſhe had for them, notwithſtanding what had happened.

The czarina obſerved, that as the duke of Holſtein, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, might be urged to inſiſt on his right to the Ruſſian throne, ſhe invited him to reſide in her court, adopted him her heir, and cauſed him to profeſs himſelf of the Greek church, without which he could not ſucceed to that empire; and thus her authority ſeemed pretty well eſtabliſhed, as ſhe had now in her power all the royal family that could make any pretenſions to the Ruſſian throne.

In the year 1742, the war with Sweden ſtill continuing, general Lacy was ſent to command the army in Finland, who, having blocked up the Swediſh forces in Helſingfort, would grant them no better terms, than that they might embark for Sweden with part of their baggage, but that their artillery and magazines ſhould be delivered up to the Ruſſians; and in the courſe of that campaign the whole province of Finland was reduced under the dominion of Ruſſia.

During theſe tranſactions, the Swedes, in hopes of obtaining better terms for the czarina, had made choice of her nephew, the duke of Holſtein, to ſucceed to that crown; but he having profeſſed himſelf of the Greek communion, had rendered himſelf incapable of it; for it is one of the fundamental laws of Sweden, that their ſovereign muſt be of the Lutheran perſuaſion, and indeed the crown of Sweden was ſcarce worth the accepting, after the poſſeſſor became obliged to acknowledge the people for his ſovereign, and was made entirely dependent on the ſtate.

The czarina having, in the mean time, adopted the duke of Holſtein her heir, cauſed him to be ſtiled grand duke of Ruſſia, and married him to the princeſs Catherina Alexowna, the daughter of Chriſtian Auguſtus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbſt, to whom he has been married ſeveral years, and has yet had no iſſue; and as the empreſs of Ruſſia herſelf is unmarried, it is very uncertain who will ſucceed to that throne, if the grand duke ſhould die before her.

In purſuance of a treaty concluded between Ruſſia and Sweden, the czarina inſiſted on retaining that part of Finland, which lies eaſt of the river Kymen, and the lakes to the northward of it; but reſtored all the reſt of Finland to the crown of Sweden, in which ſtate it remains at this day; and by a treaty between his Britiſh majeſty and the czarina, entered into the twelfth of June, 1747, her imperial majeſty agreed, that during the war between Great Britain and France, in conſideration of a ſubſidy to be paid her, ſhe would keep on the frontiers of Livonia, next to Lithuania, a body of fifty thouſand foot, and forty or fifty gallies upon the ſame coaſt, to act wherever his Britiſh majeſty ſhould require, and in ſuch places as his majeſty and his allies ſhould think proper; which treaty was ſigned, Hyndford, C. R. Beſtuchef, Woronzow; one hundred thouſand pounds whereof were paid down at the ratification of the treaty. Sir Charles Hanbury Williams, the Britiſh miniſter at Dreſden, thereupon demanding a paſſage for the Ruſſian troops through Poland, in the beginning of the year 1748, his Poliſh majeſty anſwered, that this did not depend on him; and as there was no diet ſitting, he could determine nothing in relation to this affair. However the Ruſſians began their march through Poland, in April, 1748, at which the French being alarmed, preliminary articles of peace were ſigned ſoon after, and a convention was entered into between Great Britain, France, and the States-general, with reſpect to thoſe troops, of the following tenor:

"We, the underwritten miniſters plenipotentiary of his Britannick majeſty, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, and the lords, the States-general of the United Provinces, at the conferences at Aix-la-Chapelle, have agreed, that in order the more ſpeedily to reſtore a general pacification, and to give reciprocal proofs of the ſincere deſire their Britannick

tannick and moſt Chriſtian majeſties, and the lords the States-general have to execute the preliminaries of the thirtieth of April laſt; his Britannick majeſty, and the States-general, immediately after the ſignature of the convention, ſhall ſend orders to the auxiliary corps of thirty-ſeven thouſand Ruſſians in pay, and actually in march through Germany towards the Low-countries, to return immediately towards Ruſſia; and that the ſaid corps of Ruſſian troops ſhall return thither as ſoon as poſſibly they can, according to the conditions of the treaty concluded and ſigned at Peterſburg, the nineteenth of November laſt, between his Britannick majeſty and the States-general on the one ſide, and her Imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias on the other; and that it ſhall not be permitted to the ſaid Ruſſian troops, upon any pretext, to march any further towards the Low-countries: and that his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, immediately after the ſignature of this convention, ſhall ſend into the interior parts of France, a like number of regular troops, now in the Low-countries, as well infantry as horſe and dragoons, of which a liſt ſhall be given at the ſame time to the miniſters plenipotentiary of his Britannick majeſty, and the States-general at Aix-la-Chapelle; which troops, or a like number, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty ſhall reform in a month after he knows, in an authentic manner, of the actual departure of the ſaid body of Ruſſian troops towards Ruſſia; and his ſaid moſt Chriſtian majeſty ſhall communicate to his Britannick majeſty and the States-general this reform within a month. His Britannick majeſty and the States-general of the United Provinces engage, moreover, that the ſaid auxiliaries ſhall not be employed in the ſervice of any other power, while they are in their pay; and that in caſe they cannot return home to their own country before the firſt year for which they are engaged, and during which, according to treaty, they are ſtill to remain in their pay and ſervice; it is expreſsly ſtipulated, that they may not be employed under any pretext whatſoever, either againſt his moſt Chriſtian majeſty or his allies, after the reform above-mentioned is made and executed to the troops paid by his ſaid moſt Chriſtian majeſty. In witneſs whereof, &c. Signed, Sandwich; St. Severin d'Arragon; W. Bentinck; F. H. Waſſenaer; G. Haſſelaer; W. Boſſelle."

The Ruſſian troops, in purſuance of this convention, were ordered to halt in Germany, and ſoon after to march back again into their own country: but it ſeems to have been a very great overſight on the part of the allies, that the Ruſſians were not permitted to join the confederate army, and remain in the Netherlands, until the French had executed their part of the treaty; as nothing but downright force could ever induce that people to execute their treaties according to the true meaning of the articles; and we had tamely ſubmitted to give hoſtages for the performance of our part, without inſiſting from them. This was certainly the moſt inglorious tranſaction that ever Britain could be upbraided with, and has no doubt placed her in a deſpicable point of view to her envious neighbours.

It may with ſome degree of probability be ſurmiſed, that many political, and ſome private reaſons determined the princeſs Elizabeth to take part with the houſe of Auſtria, againſt the king of Pruſſia, in the year 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the war; and her conqueſts were ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was ſaved only by her critical death, January 5, 1762, when ſhe was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein Gottorp. This prince was a great admirer of the king of Pruſſia, which was diſpleaſing to his people in general; he had many diſagreeable peculiarities, and, what was worſt of all, aimed at innovation, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt. Hence a conſpiracy was formed againſt him; ſo that he ſcarce knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life. He was ſucceeded by his wife, who has reigned many years by the title of Catherine II. The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign was, the death of prince Iwan, who loſt his life in an ill-concerted conſpiracy which had been entered into by ſome officers, in order to advance him to the throne; and the moſt public tranſactions were, the late war with the Ottoman Port, which the reader will find an account of in our hiſtory of Aſiatic Turky, p. 160, 161.

We cannot with propriety take leave of Ruſſia, without inſerting a recent and important tranſaction, which has originated from the preſent ſovereign of this great empire; namely,

"Declaration from the empreſs of Ruſſia to the courts of London, Verſailles, and Madrid;" and which is expreſſed in the following terms:

"The empreſs of all the Ruſſias has ſo fully manifeſted her ſentiments of equity and moderation, and has given ſuch evident proofs during the courſe of the war that ſhe ſupported againſt the Ottoman Porte, of the liberty of univerſal commerce, as all Europe can witneſs. This conduct, as well as the principles of impartiality that ſhe has diſplayed during the preſent war, juſtly inſpire her with the fulleſt confidence, that her ſubjects would peaceably enjoy the fruits of their induſtry, and the advantages belonging to a neutral nation. Experience has nevertheleſs proved the contrary. Neither the above-mentioned conſiderations, nor the regard to the rights of nations, have prevented the ſubjects of her imperial majeſty from being often moleſted in their navigation, and ſtopped in their operations by thoſe of the belligerent powers.

"Theſe hindrances to the liberty of trade in general, and to thoſe of Ruſſia in particular, are of a nature to excite the attention of all neutral nations. The empreſs finds herſelf obliged, therefore, to free it by all the means compatible with her dignity, and the well-being of her ſubjects; but, before ſhe puts this into execution, and with a ſincere intention to prevent any future infringements, ſhe thought it but juſt to publiſh to all Europe the principles ſhe means to follow, which are the propereſt to prevent any miſunderſtanding, or any occurrences that may occaſion it. Her imperial majeſty does it with the more confidence, as ſhe finds thoſe principles coincident with the primitive right of nations, which every people may reclaim, and which the belligerent powers cannot invalidate without violating the laws of neutrality, and without diſavowing the maxims they have adopted in the different treaties and public engagements.

"They are reducible to the following points:

"Firſt, That all neutral ſhips may freely navigate from port to port, and on the coaſts of nations at war.

"Secondly, That the effects belonging to the ſubjects of the ſaid warring powers ſhall be free in all neutral veſſels, except contraband merchandize.

"Thirdly, That the empreſs, as to the ſpecification of the above-mentioned merchandize, holds to what is mentioned in the tenth and eleventh articles of her treaty of commerce with Great Britain, extending her obligations to all the powers at war.

"Fourthly, That to determine what is meant by a blockading port, this is only to be underſtood of one which is ſo well kept in by the ſhips of the power that attacks it, and which keep their places, that it is dangerous to enter into it.

"Fifthly, That theſe principles ſerve as a rule for proceedings and judgments upon the legality of prizes.

"Her imperial majeſty, in making theſe points public, does not heſitate to declare, that to maintain them, and to protect the honour of her flag, the ſecurity of the trade and navigation of her ſubjects, ſhe has prepared the greateſt part of her maritime forces. This meaſure will not, however, influence the ſtrict neutrality ſhe does obſerve, and will obſerve, ſo long as ſhe is not provoked and forced to break the bounds of moderation and perfect impartiality. It will be only in this extremity that her fleet have orders to go wherever honour, intereſt, and need may require.

"In giving this ſolemn aſſurance with the uſual openneſs of her character, the empreſs cannot do otherwiſe than promiſe herſelf that the belligerent powers, convinced of the ſentiments of juſtice and equity which animate her, will contribute towards the accompliſhment of theſe ſalutary purpoſes, which manifeſtly tend to the good of all nations, and to the advantages even of thoſe at war. In conſequence of which her imperial majeſty will furniſh her commanding officers with inſtructions conformable to the above-mentioned principles, founded upon the primitive laws of people, and ſo often adopted in their connections."

The courts of France, Spain, Portugal, the republic of Holland, and moſt of the naval powers in Europe have acceded to this treaty, and have, in conſequence of it, eſtabliſhed an armed neutrality for the protection to their trade againſt the interruptions that may be given to it on the high ſeas, by nations at war with each other. Thus it may be juſtly remarked, is the empire of Ruſſia become the arbitreſs of the liberties of Europe in general.

SECT.

CHAP. II.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

NORWAY.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account of the Country, its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Roads, Bridges, Marble and other Stones; and particularly of the Aſbeſtos, precious Stones, Mines, &c.

THIS country is called by the Danes and the Norwegians themſelves Norge. It is bounded, on the north and weſt, by the north ſea; on the eaſt, by Swediſh Lapland and Sweden; and, on the north, by the ſea called Categate, extending in length from the fifty-ſeventh degree forty-ſeven minutes to the north cape in the ſeventy-firſt degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in breadth from the fourth degree thirty-five minutes to very unequal diſtances within land, it being in ſome places two hundred and eighty miles broad, about one hundred and fifty in others, and not above thirty in others.

The air is pure and ſalubrious in moſt parts of Norway, but more ſo in the middle and eaſt ſide than on the weſtern coaſt; for in the latter the air is damp, and the weather extremely variable, on which account the Norwegians are frequently afflicted with ſcorbutic diſorders.

When the horizon, in the ſummer nights, is unclouded, it is ſo clear and bright, that at midnight one may read, write, and do all kinds of work as in the day; and in the extremity of this country, towards the iſlands of Finmark, the ſun is continually in view in the midſt of ſummer, and is obſerved day and night to encircle the north pole, contracting its orbit, and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon. On the other hand, in the depth of winter the ſun is for ſome weeks inviſible, all the light perceived at noon being a faint glimmering that continues about an hour and a half, which as the ſun does not then appear above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of the rays on the higheſt mountains, whoſe ſummits are ſeen more clearly than any other objects; but the bountiful Creator has granted the inhabitants all poſſible aſſiſtance; for, beſides the moonſhine, which is rendered very bright in the vallies by reflection from the mountains, the people frequently receive as much light as is neceſſary for performing their ordinary buſineſs, from the aurora borealis, or northern lights.

The cold of winter, in the weſtern parts of this country, generally ſets in about the middle of October, and continues till the middle of April. The waters are congealed to a thick ice, and the mountains and vallies covered with ſnow: yet even this is of ſo much importance to the welfare of the country, that the peaſants, who live among the mountains, are conſiderable ſufferers in a mild winter; for without this ſevere froſt and ſnow they can neither convey to the rivers the timber they have felled, nor carry their corn, butter, furs, and other commodities, in their ſledges, to the market-towns; and, after the ſale of them, carry back the neceſſaries with which they are there ſupplied: for the largeſt rivers, with their roaring cataracts, are arreſted in their courſe by the froſt, and the very ſpittle is no ſooner out of the mouth than it is congealed, and rolls along the ground like hail. But Providence has afforded the inhabitants of this cold climate a greater variety of preſervatives againſt the weather, than moſt countries have.

Their extenſive foreſts ſupply them with plenty of timber for building and for fuel; the wool of the ſheep, and the furs and ſkins of wild beaſts furniſh them with warm lining for their cloaths, and covering for their beds; innumerable flights of wild fowl ſupply them with down and feathers; their caverns afford them ſhelter, and the mountains ſcreen them from the north and eaſt winds.

But while the winter thus rages in the eaſt of Norway the lakes and bays on the weſt ſide are kept open by the warm exhalations of the ocean, though lying in a direct line with theſe frozen eaſtern parts; and the froſts are ſeldom known to laſt above a fortnight or three weeks. Even in the centre of Germany, which is two hundred leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more ſevere, and the froſts ſharper than in the dioceſe of Bergen; for the inhabitants here are often ſurpriſed at reading in the public papers of froſt and ſnow in Poland and Germany, when they feel no ſuch weather; and the learned Dr. Pontoppidan obſerves, that the harbours of Amſterdam, Hamburgh, Copenhagen, and Lubeck, are much oftener froze than thoſe of Norway, where this ſeldoms happens above two or three times in a whole century. Thus the winter at Bergen is ſo moderate, that the ſeas are almoſt always open to fiſhermen and mariners; and there the north ſea continues navigable during the whole winter as far as the eightieth or eighty-ſecond degree. Thus while the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts have, by means of the ice and ſnow, the convenience of bringing their commodities in ſledges to the market-towns, thoſe of the weſtern ſide on the ſea-coaſt are at the ſame time employed in their profitable fiſheries. All the eaſtern coaſt of Bergen is however ſo ſubject to frequent rains, that the men, whenever they go abroad, wear rain-hats made like umbrellas; and the women ſecure themſelves, in all weathers, by wearing over their heads a black woolen or ſilk vail.

The weather in ſummer is extremely hot. But the violent heats, which are only of ſhort duration, may be owing to the vallies being incloſed within high mountains, where the reverberation of the rays of the ſun on all ſides heat the air; and as there is very little night, the atmoſphere and the mountains have ſcarcely time to cool. There cannot be a more convincing proof of the ſummer's heat in Norway, than that ſeveral vegetables, and particularly barley, grow up and ripen within ſix weeks or two months in ſome places.

The weſtern coaſt of Norway is ſurrounded by a great number of iſlands and rocks, ſome of the former being three, ſix, or nine Norway miles in length, and pretty fertile; but moſt of them are ſmall, and inhabited by only a few fiſhermen and pilots. The rocks, which riſe ſeveral fathoms above the ſurface of the water, are a kind of rampart that defends the coaſt, and amount to ſome hundred thouſands. They form abundance of good harbours; and in many places iron rings are faſtened to them for mooring ſhips, where there is not ſea-room or good anchorage. As the water is calm and ſmooth, they are of great ſervice to coaſters, the violence of the waves being broken againſt theſe barriers, while the open places are very dangerous, and every year prove fatal to many ſmall veſſels. The ſhore of Norway is generally ſteep and perpendicular, ſo that cloſe to the rocks, the depth of the ſea is from one to four hundred fathoms. Several gulfs and creeks run from forty to ſixty miles into the land; and in ſome of them, which are but from fifty to one hundred fathoms in breadth, there runs a narrow channel four hundred fathoms deep; but the depth does not exceed one hundred fathoms on the ſides.

Norway being a very mountainous country, the arable land is but inconſiderable in compariſon of the waters and deſarts, which obliges the inhabitants to procure half their ſubſiſtence from the ſea. Hence the villages are ſmall, and the houſes ſcattered among the vallies; but in ſome places thoſe of the peaſants ſtand ſo high on the edge of ſteep precipices,

that ladders are fixed to climb up to them; so that when a clergyman is sent for, who is unused to the road, he risques his life in ascending them, especially in winter, when the ways are slippery. In such places the bodies of the dead are let down with ropes, or brought down on men's backs, before they are laid in a coffin; and at some distance from Bergen, they are obliged to draw the mail over the steepest mountains, in the winter season.

A great inconvenience experienced by travellers arises from the roads; for they cannot, without terror, pass even the king's road, which in several places extends up the sides of steep and craggy mountains on ways that are either shored up, or suspended by iron bolts fixed in the mountains; and though not above the breadth of a foot-path, have no rails on the side. If two travellers were to meet there in the night, and not see each other soon enough to stop where the road will suffer them to pass, they must stop short, without being able to pass by each other, or to find a turning for their horses, or even to alight. The only resource I can imagine in this difficulty, says the bishop of Bergen, is, that one must endeavour to cling to some cliff of this steep mountain, or, if help be at hand, be drawn up by a rope, and then throw his horse headlong down a tremendous precipice, in order to make room for the other traveller to pass. The caverns of the mountains also afford shelter to the wild beasts, which render it difficult to extirpate them; and it is not easy to describe the havock made by the lynxes, foxes, bears, and especially wolves, among the cattle, goats, hares, and other animals.

The cows, sheep, and goats belonging to the peasants often fall down the precipices, and are destroyed. Sometimes they make a false step into the projection called a mountain-hammer, where they can neither ascend nor descend: on this occasion a peasant chearfully ventures his life for a sheep or a goat; descending from the top of a mountain by a rope of some hundred fathoms in length, with his legs over a cross stick, till he sets his foot on the place where he finds his goat, when he fastens it to the rope, and it is drawn up along with himself. But the most amazing circumstance is, that he runs this risque with the help of only a single person, who holds the end of the rope, or fastens it to a rock, if there be one at hand proper for that purpose. There are instances of the assistant himself having been dragged down, sacrificing his life from his fidelity to his friend, on which both have perished. When a man or beast has thus the misfortune to fall some hundred fathoms down the precipices, it is observed, that the air presses with such force against the bodies thus falling, that they are not only deprived of life for some time before they reach the ground, but their bellies burst, and their entrails come out, which is always the case when they fall into deep water.

The multitude of springs that issue from the mountains, and the vast masses of snow accumulated on their summits, which gently dissolve in summer, form many lakes, in some of which are floating islands, and a considerable number of rivers, the largest of which is the Glommen, or Glamer; but none of them are navigable far up the country; the passage being every where interrupted by rocks, and in some places by dreadful cataracts, in which the stream precipitates itself from the height of forty, fifty, and even a hundred fathoms. The bridges over these rivers are nor walled, but formed of timber cases filled with stones, which serve for the piers on which the timbers are laid. The largest bridge of this kind has forty-three stone cases, and is a hundred paces in length. In those places where the narrowness and rapidity of the current will not admit of sinking these cases, thick masts are laid on each side of the shores, with the thickest end fastened to the rocks: one mast being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it, and then a third or fourth in like manner to the middle of the stream, where it is joined by other connected masts from the opposite side. Thus in passing over the bridge, especially in the middle, it seems to swing, which to those who are not used to these bridges appears extremely dangerous, so that filled with terror they alight and lead over their horses.

Some advantages, however, attend the mountains of Norway; a great chain of them serves as a barrier between this country and Sweden; and besides, they exhibit the most delightful prospects; for here nature has added greater beauties to the situation of cottages and farm-houses, than in other countries can be enjoyed by royal palaces, though assisted by all the varieties of groves, terraces, canals, and cascades. A predecessor of mine, says the bishop of Bergen, is said to have given the name of the Northern Italy to the district of Wans, which lies some leagues to the eastward of Bergen; and certainly there cannot be a more enchanting prospect. The buildings in it are the church, the parsonage, and a few farm-houses scattered on different eminences.

The beauty of this place is much heightened by two uniform mountains gradually rising to a vast height, betwixt which runs a valley near half a league in breadth, and a river which sometimes precipitates itself down the rocks in foaming cataracts, and at others spreads itself into small lakes. On both sides it is bordered with the finest meadows intermingled with little thickets, and by the easy declivities of the verdant mountains covered with fruitful fields and farm-houses, standing above each other in a succession of natural terraces. Between these a stately forest presents itself to the view, and beyond that the summits of mountains covered with perpetual snow, and ten or twelve streams, issuing therefrom, form an agreeable contrast in their meanders along the blooming sides of the hills, till they lose themselves in the rivers beneath.

The bowels of some of the mountains contain several of the most beautiful kinds of marble, some white, others veined with blue, and others variegated with a variety of colours; there is likewise black marble spotted with white, green marble with greyish veins, and blue marble with white veins. They also contain such quantities of the magnet or loadstone, that some tons of them have been exported: they likewise yield the asbestos, of which incombustible linen and paper have been made, and which is thus described by Dr. Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen: "Having heard of some wood petrified by a certain spring, I wrote, says he, for some samples, and a large parcel of it was sent me. At first I thought it resembled hazel, that had lain a long time in the water; but upon a narrow inspection, and drawing out some of the filaments, I found it to be amianthus, much finer than the Greenland stone-flax, which the reverend Mr. Egede says is used there as wick in the lamps, without being in the least wasted, while supplied with oil or fat. This amianthus, from the softness and fineness of its fibres, deserves to be called stone-silk, rather than stone-flax: I also made a wick for a lamp of it, and it was not consumed; but its light being much dimmer than that produced by cotton, I laid it aside. I have also in my possession a piece of paper of this asbestos, which when thrown into fire is not destroyed; but what was written on it totally disappears.

"The manner of preparing this stone-silk or stone-flax is this: after its being softened in water it is beaten with a moderate force, till the fibres, or long threads, separate from each other; afterwards they are carefully and repeatedly washed till clear of all terrene particles; then the flax is dried in a sieve: all that remains now is to spin these fine filaments, wherein great care is required; besides which the fingers must be softened with oil, that the thread may be the more supple and pliant."

Nothwithstanding this country abounds in stones, yet no flints have hitherto been found there, so that those for fire-arms are imported from Denmark or Germany: but though there are no flints, there are amethists, garnets, chalcedonies, crystals, agate, and jasper.

This country formerly produced gold; but the expence of working the mines, and separating the gold from the ore, being greater than the profit, they have been neglected. There are, however, silver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to several thousand persons: the principal of these is at Kongsberg. Other silver mines are worked at Jarlsberg, but not to the same advantage, the ore being mixed with lead and copper. In many parts of this country copper mines have been discovered, the richest of which is at Roraas, about a hundred English miles from Drontheim, which annually yields eleven hundred ship-pounds of pure copper, each ship-pound being equal to twenty English stone. Here are likewise some lead mines, but none either of tin or quicksilver. Iron is in great plenty, many hundred thousand quintals being annually exported, chiefly in bars, and the rest cast in cannon, kettles, stoves, and the like.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Natural History of NORWAY: namely, of the Produce of the Country; also of the Beasts, Birds, Insects, and Fishes.

NOTWITHSTANDING the northern situation of this country, it produces rye, barley, white, grey, and green peas, and vetches, which last are used as provender

vender for horſes; hops, flax, and hemp; many kinds of roots and greens for the kitchen, with a conſiderable number of hardy flowers. Here are ſeveral kinds of cherries, of which the peaſants ſell great quantities dried; alſo many ſorts of wholeſome and well-taſted berries, as ſtraw-berries, raſberries, red and white currants, gooſeberries, ſun-berries, bilberries, barberries, cranberries, blackberries, &c. Several kinds of plums attain to a tolerable ripeneſs; but this is ſeldom the caſe with peaches, apricots, and grapes. However, ſeveral ſorts of apples and pears are found all over the country; but the greateſt part of theſe are ſummer fruit, which ripen early; for winter fruit ſeldom comes to perfection, except the ſummer proves hotter, and the winter ſets in later than uſual.

Though Norway is inferior, with reſpect to its fruits, to many other countries in Europe, yet this deficiency is compenſated by its immenſe foreſts, from which moſt of the provinces receive prodigious ſums from foreigners for beams, maſts, planks, and boards; beſides the great conſumption for houſes built at home, entirely of beams of wood; alſo for ſhips, bridges, and a great number of founderies, which require an immenſe quantity of charcoal in the fuſion of metals. In many places the woods are only felled to clear the ground, and are burnt for the ſake of the aſhes, to enrich the ſoil.

Their horſes are of greater uſe in riding than drawing; they have an eaſy pace, are full of ſpirit, and very ſure footed. When they mount or deſcend a ſteep rock on ſtones, like ſteps, they firſt tread gently with one foot, to try if the ſtones they touch be faſt; and in this they muſt be left to themſelves, or the beſt rider will endanger his neck; but when they are to go down a very ſteep or ſlippery place, they draw their hind legs under them in a very ſurpriſing manner, and ſlide down. They ſhew great courage in fighting with the wolves and bears, which is very uſual with them; for when a horſe perceives any of theſe ferocious animals advancing towards him, and has a mare or gelding with him, this generous animal places them behind him, and then attacks his antagoniſt by ſtriking at him with his fore-legs, with ſuch courage, that he commonly remains conqueror. Both the Norway horſes and cows are in general of a yelloviſh colour; but the latter are ſmall, and yield no great quantity of milk; however, their fleſh has a fine grain, is juicy, and well taſted.

Their ſheep are ſmall, but the fleſh is delicious, and the fleeces profitable. Goats, in many places, run wild in the fields, both in winter and ſummer, till they are ten or twelve years old; and when the peaſant, to whom they belong, is reſolved to take them, he muſt either do it by ſome ſnare, or ſhoot them: they are ſo bold, that, on the approach of a wolf, they ſtay to receive him, and, if they have dogs with them, will reſiſt a whole herd. They alſo frequently attack the ſnakes; and when they are bit by them, not only kill, but eat them, though they are ill for ſeveral days. If theſe goats are tame, the owner waſhes the wound with their own milk warmed.

Swine are not plenty in Norway; nor are there many of the common deer; but the hares, which in the cold ſeaſon change from brown or grey to a ſnow white, are taken in great numbers in winter. In ſome parts of the country there are elks, but they are not very numerous. The reindeer run wild in herds, and are ſhot by the inhabitants for food. The biſhop of Bergen obſerves, that when the reindeer ſheds his horns, and others riſe in their ſtead, they appear at firſt covered with a ſkin, and, till they are of a finger's length, are ſo ſoft, that they may be cut with a knife like a ſauſage, and are delicate eating, even when raw. The huntſmen, therefore, when far out in the country, and periſhing for want of food, eat them, and find that they ſatisfy both their hunger and thirſt. But when the horn is grown, there breeds within the ſkin a worm, which eats away the root. It is alſo remarked of this animal, that he can draw a kind of ſkin over his eyes, and can ſee through it, otherwiſe in the hard ſnows he would be obliged to ſhut his eyes entirely.

In this country are alſo found the lynx, vaſt numbers of black, red, and white foxes; and the glutton, which receives its name from its voracious appetite. Thoſe of this country, in their ſhape and ſize, have ſome reſemblance to a long-bodied dog with thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his colour is black, variegated with brown and yelloviſh ſtreaks: he has the boldneſs to attack every beaſt he can poſſibly conquer; and if he finds a carcaſe ſix times as big as himſelf, he will not leave it, while there is any left: when fully gorged, he ſqueezes himſelf between two trees that ſtand near together, and thus empties himſelf of what he has not time to digeſt. As his ſkin ſhines like damaſk, and is covered with ſoft hair, it is much valued: the huntſman therefore ſhoots this animal with a bow, and blunt arrows, that he may kill him without wounding the ſkin.

They likewiſe hunt the martin for the ſake of the ſkin; and the ermine and ſquirrel, both of which are ſhot with blunt arrows. The ſkin of the ermine is of a beautiful white, and the tip of the tail black. Theſe little animals run after mice like cats, and drag away what they catch, particularly eggs, which are their greateſt delicacy. Here are alſo otters, beavers, hedge-hogs, and badgers. Some of the mice are thought to be poiſonous and others are remarkable for their being white, and having red eyes.

The moſt pernicious vermin here is a little animal called the lœmus, or lemming, which is between the ſize of a rat and a mouſe; the tail is ſhort and turned up at the end, and the legs are alſo ſo ſhort, that they ſcarce keep the belly from the ground. They have very ſoft hair, and are of different colours; many of them are black, with yellow and brown in ſtreaks, and ſome in ſpots. It is ſaid of theſe creatures, that about once or twice in every twenty years, they aſſemble from their ſecret abodes in prodigious numbers, like the meſſengers of heaven, to puniſh the neighbouring inhabitants. They proceed from Kolen's rock, which divides the Nordland manor from Sweden, and is held to be their peculiar and native place, marching in vaſt multitudes through Nordland and Finland to the Weſtern ocean; and other bodies of them through Swediſh Lapmark to the Sinus Bothnicus, devouring all the graſs and vegetables in their way. They do this in a direct line, and going ſtraight forward, proceed into the rivers or the ſea: thus, if they meet with a boat in any river, they run in at one end or ſide, and out again at the other, in order to keep their courſe. They carry their young with them on their backs, or in their mouths; and if they meet with peaſants who come to oppoſe them, they will ſtand undaunted, and bark at them like dogs. This evil is, however, of ſhort duration; for, on entering the ſea, they ſwim as long as their ſtrength laſts, and then are drowned. If any are ſtopped in their courſe, and unable to reach the ſea, they are killed by the froſts of winter, and if any of theſe eſcape, moſt of them die as ſoon as they eat the new graſs.

Toads and ſnakes are only in the ſouthern parts of this country, and theſe ſnakes are leſs poiſonous than in warmer climates. Lizards are here of various colours, as brown, green, and ſtriped; thoſe that are green are found in the fields, and the others in the cracks and holes in the rocks near the ſea.

Moſt of the fowls found in the reſt of Europe are here, and ſome that appear peculiar to this country. Among the former are common poultry, turkies, tame and wild geeſe, peacocks, ducks, and pigeons; nightingales, larks, quails, partridges, ſtarlings, wrens, magpyes, bats, water-wagtails, ſtorks, herons, gulls, owls, ravens, cormorants, falcons, eagles, and many others. Of the latter, there are only two ſpecies, the rock-eagle and the fiſh-eagle.

The rock-eagle is ſomewhat leſs than the other, and ſpotted with grey; it haunts the higheſt places in the country, and frequently kills hares, ſheep, lambs, and the like animals, as well as birds. The farmers here ſay, that he will ſometimes attack a deer, in which caſe he makes uſe of the following ſtratagem: he ſoaks his wings in water, and then covering them with ſand, and flying about the deer's face, blinds him for a time, when the pain makes him run about as if mad, and he frequently falls down a rock and breaks his neck, upon which the eagle ſeizes upon him for his prey. Young children are ſaid to be ſometimes carried away by this ravenous bird.

The other, called the fiſh-eagle, is of a large ſize, and of a light brown. Though it does not diſlike a dead carcaſe on ſhore, it lives principally on fiſh, which it often takes from the otters, and frequently ſeizes fiſh on the ſurface of the water. When this bird flies out to ſea in order to ſtrike a fiſh with his talons, he ſometimes lays hold of ſuch as are too ſtrong for him, particularly the fiſh here called the queite, whoſe high and prominent back makes him appear much leſs than he really is: when the eagle ſtrikes his talons into him, he cannot eaſily diſengage them, on account of their crookedneſs and length, in which caſe the fiſh drags him down with him; while the bird, making a miſerable cry, ſtrives to keep himſelf up, and works with his wings ſpread as long as poſſible, though in vain; for at laſt he muſt yield, and fall a prey to thoſe he intended to devour. Another inſtance is mentioned in order to ſhew that this king of birds, as he

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is called, extends his attempts beyond his power. Near Bergen, an eagle ſtanding on the bank of a river, ſaw a large ſalmon as it were juſt under him; on which he inſtantly ſtruck one of his talons into the root of an elm near it, and partly hanging over the river, ſtruck the other into the ſalmon, which being large and ſtrong, ſwam away, and ſplit the eagle to the neck.

The ſrancolin is ranked among the birds in a manner peculiar to this country, it is an excellent land-bird, which ſerves the Norwegians inſtead of a pheaſant, its fleſh being of a delicious taſte, white and firm.

Here is alſo a pretty large ſea-bird, called the great northern diver, which is bigger than a gooſe. It has a long neck, the upper part of which is black, as well as the beak and feet; but from the breaſt downwards it is white. There are alſo ſome white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are ſo ſhort, that they can hardly raiſe themſelves with them; and the legs ſtand ſo far backward, that they are leſs fit to walk with than to paddle along the water, on which account they are ſeldom ſeen to come aſhore. They are ſaid to lay but two eggs, and that under their wings there are two pretty deep holes big enough to put one's fiſt in. In each of theſe they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfectly, and with leſs trouble than others do on land.

The Norway parrot is a middle-ſized ſea-bird, ſomewhat larger than a pigeon. Its feathers are black and white, and its beak, which is hooked like that of a parrot, is ſtriped with yellow, red, and black, and ſo ſharp, that when he bites any of the bird-catchers, he takes away a piece of fleſh: his claws are alſo very ſharp, with which, and his beak, he defends himſelf againſt the raven, whom he holds by the throat, and will carry out to ſea, and drown him before he loſes hold. This bird builds his neſt between the cleſts of the rock, and alſo in a ſlanting hole in the ground, two or three ells deep.

The bird called the black-cap is almoſt as ſmall as the wren; the body is black and yellow, white under the belly and the top of the head black. Theſe birds keep near the houſes, and are ſuch lovers of meat, that the farmers can hardly keep them from it, and therefore catch them in a trap like mice. In ſhort, there are ſuch incredible numbers of ſea and land fowl near the rocks on the ſea ſhore, that they ſometimes obſcure the ſight of the heavens for many miles out at ſea, ſo that one would imagine that all the fowls in the univerſe were aſſembled in one flock at the ſame time.

This country is alſo as plentifully ſupplied with fiſh as any in the world. Here are whales of ſeveral kinds, porpoiſes, ſword-fiſh, and ſharks; ſturgeon, ſalmon, ſalmon-trout, turbot, cod, thornback, rock, flying-fiſh, whiting, carp, gurnet, flounders, plaiſe, mackarel, herrings, bream, anchovies, eels, and many others well known in other parts.

The fin-fiſh, which is not very common, is forty feet or more in length; their liver alone yields ſeveral caſks of train oil. On their backs they have a high round and ſharp bone, with which they tear open the bellies of other fiſh. They are covered with a kind of hair, ſomething like a horſe's mane, and are often ſeen about the boats of the fiſhermen, who are as much afraid of them as of the moſt dangerous monſters that infeſt the ſea.

One of the moſt extraordinary creatures produced in the ocean, is the ink-fiſh, called by ſome the ſea gnat: it is from nine inches to upwards of two feet in length. The head has two large eyes, and the mouth has ſome reſemblance to a bird's beak; above which there ſtand two long arms or horns, each of which is octangular, and covered with a number of ſmall round balls, ſomewhat larger than a pin's head. At the back of the head are two of theſe horns twice as long as the reſt, and broader towards the end. The body is almoſt round, it reſembles a ſmall bag, and is blunt at both ends. On each ſide of it are two ſkinny membranes, with which the animal can cover itſelf over; and it aſſumes various forms by the motion of its ſkin and arms: but what muſt appear very extraordinary, the fore part of the body is filled with a fluid, which makes the fiſh appear of a blue colour, though this fluid is of a fine black, and may ſerve for ink to write with. When theſe creatures are in danger, they diſcharge this liquid, which blackening the water all round them, they become inviſible to their purſuers, and by this means make their eſcape. Thus this otherwiſe helpleſs animal is provided by the wiſe Creator for its defence. If any of this black fluid happens to drop upon the hand, it burns like a cauſtic, and cauſes great pain.

Here are alſo a vaſt variety of ſhell-fiſh, as lobſters, crabs, craw-fiſh, prawns, ſhrimps, oyſters, muſſels, cockles, ſea-ſnails, ſtar-fiſh, hermit-fiſh, and many others: one of the moſt curious of which is the ſea-urchin, known alſo by the name of the ſea-apple, a name that repreſents the ſize and figure of the thin and tender ſhell that ſurrounds this extraordinary fiſh, which is very common on the coaſt of Norway, where they are ſeen every day. They are of various ſizes, from that of a walnut to the head of a new-born infant: ſome are of the form of a cone, and others are quite round, except the under part, which is pretty flat, and of theſe are the greateſt number. The ſhell is covered with a multitude of ſmall ſharp prickles like ſmall pins, which they probably ſhed once a year, and have new ones. When they are juſt taken out of the ſea, they have a beautiful greeniſh luſtre; but their greateſt beauty appears when they are dried, boiled, and the prickles rubbed off. This beauty conſiſts in certain regular interchangeable ſtripes of a cylindrical form, running from the top to the bottom; ſome are white, others of an orange colour, others are of a light red, and others of a deep red: and theſe ſtripes are ſtrewed over with as many little white knobs as there were originally prickles. When this fine ſhell is broken, which is eaſily done, there is found in it a quantity of ſlime and water, with a ſmall fiſh, of a black, or dark-red colour; and from this little body there runs into all parts of the ſhell a great number of fine threads, that ſeem only compoſed of a thicker ſlime, and have a communication with the external prickles; and a yellow ſpawn is diſpoſed in ſtripes between thoſe. The fiſh lies ſtretched from the bottom to the top of the ſhell, where there is an almoſt imperceptible opening through which the excrements paſs. The mouth, which is extremely curious, is formed of five bones, part convex and part concave, all running to a ſmall point, where they join together like the bill of a bird, and have ſome reſemblance to a flower. The ſea-urchin rolls himſelf about on his prickles wherever he pleaſes, and is generally found in a ſandy bottom.

Here is alſo that extraordinary production of nature, ranked among fiſhes, called the ſea-nettle, and is of two kinds; one comprehending thoſe that always remain fixed in one place like ſea plants; and the other conſiſts of thoſe that change their place. Reaumur deems them real animals, becauſe they have organized bodies, and give ſigns of feeling when they are touched; beſides which, they lay hold of ſhell-fiſh, and others, which they eat; and have alſo a progreſſive motion. Theſe nettles aſſume ſo many different ſhapes, that it is impoſſible to deſcribe them under any determinate figure; but in general their outward form approaches neareſt to a truncated cone, having its baſe fixed to ſome ſtone, to which it is found always adhering. Some are greeniſh, others whitiſh, and others again of a roſe colour; there are others likewiſe of all the degrees of brown. In ſome of theſe nettles, theſe colours appear every where on the ſurface, and in others they are mixed with ſtreaks or ſpots. Sometimes again theſe ſpots are diſtributed in a regular, and at others in an irregular manner, but always very agreeably.

The wandering ſea-nettles have nothing common with the preceding except in the name, and they have different appellations in different places, as alſo according to their ſizes.

Many Norwegians of credit have affirmed, that the northern ocean produces ſome very extraordinary animals, the exiſtence of which had been doubted by mankind in general; theſe are, the merman, mermaid, great ſea-ſnake and kraken, or korven; of which, for the ſatisfaction of the curious reader, we ſhall here give ſome account.

A learned and ingenious gentleman, writing concerning the merman and mermaid, tells us, that "they are ſea animals which bear ſome reſemblance to the human form. In the year 1719, one of the males of this ſpecies was found dead on a point of land in Norland. His colour was of a dark grey; the face reſembled that of a man, with a large mouth, and flat noſe; the arms were attached to the ſides by a thin membrane, and terminated in paws like thoſe of the ſea-calf. The body tapered into a fiſh's tail, like that of a porpoiſe, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mermaid is formed in the ſame manner, abating the difference of ſex, which is diſtinguiſhed like that of the human race. Theſe creatures have been ſeen of various magnitudes, from two feet to three fathoms, and have been found in many parts of the north ſeas.

"Three fiſhermen of Elſineur, in Denmark, being examined upon oath, before the privy counſellor, Frederick Van Gram, declared, that in the month of July 1723,



HABIT of a MOSCOVITE WOMAN.



ARMS and DRESS of a CALMOCK.

W. Grainger Sculp!

in calm weather, between Hveen and Saedland, they approached, in their boat, ſomething that juſt floated on the ſurface like a dead body; which lay without motion till they were within ſeven or eight fathoms of it; then it ſunk inſtantaneouſly, and roſe again nearly in the ſame place. There he ſtood near a quarter of an hour ſtaring at them; and was then above the water to his breaſt. They, being terrified at the ſight of this monſter, began to row away; then he blew up his cheeks, uttered a kind of muttering roar, and dived under water. He appeared like an old man, with broad ſhoulders, and a ſmall head covered with ſhort, black, curled hair; his eyes were hollow, his face meagre and weather-beaten, and his ſkin was coarſe and hairy.

"One of theſe deponents further declared, that about twenty years before he had ſeen a mermaid, with long hair and large breaſts. The marmiele, or marmate, belongs to the ſame claſs, and is perhaps the young of this family; it is formed of different ſizes, and often caught on hooks by the fiſhermen of Norway. Some are no bigger than infants half a year old, others are as large as children of three years of age.

"In the year 1746, captain Laurence de Tercy, of Bergen, ſhot a ſea-ſnake, which immediately diſappeared; and when the boat was rowed, near the place, the water appeared tinged with blood. The head of this animal, which it held at leaſt two feet above the ſurface of the water, was of a greyiſh colour, and reſembed the head of a horſe; the mouth was very large and black, the eyes were of the ſame colour, and a long white mane hung down from its neck, and floated on the ſea. Beſides the head, they ſaw ſeven or eight coils of this ſnake, about the diſtance of a fathom one from the other.

"We find in Egede's journal of the Greenland miſſion, that on the 6th of July 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. It plunged itſelf back in the water, and then raiſed its tail above the ſurface, a whole ſhip's length from the head. Though the exact dimenſions of the ſea-ſnake cannot be aſcertained, we may conclude, from the concurrent teſtimony of thoſe who have ſeen it at ſea, that he is an hundred fathoms in length; and that his body is as large as a hogſhead. That his ſenſe of ſmelling is very acute, the fiſhermen conjecture from the circumſtance of his avoiding the ſcent of caſtor, a quantity of which they therefore provide themſelves with when they go out to fiſh in the ſummer; and they throw a ſmall portion of it overboard, when they meet the ſea-ſnake.

"The kraken, or korven, is the moſt ſurpriſing creature in this ſea, and perhaps in the whole world. This animal is of the polypus kind, but ſeemingly a mile and a half in circumference. The Norwegian fiſhermen ſometimes, in a ſummer-day, find no more than twenty or thirty fathoms water, where the depth uſed to be eighty or one hundred; and here they catch great plenty of cod and ling. They know the kraken is below them, and that they are fiſhing upon his back. When they perceive, by their lines, that the water grows more and more ſhallow, they judge he is riſing ſlowly to the ſurface, and row away with great expedition. At a proper diſtance they lie upon their oars, and in a few minutes part of him appears above the water like a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, covered with ſea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of fiſh, that leap about, and roll off his ſides into the water. At length a great number of pellucid antennæ riſe upon his back, as large and as high as the maſts of moderate veſſels: by means of theſe inſtruments, or tentacula, he moves himſelf and gathers in his food, which conſiſts of ſmall fiſhes; after he has remained a little time at the ſurface, he begins to ſink again gradually, and this motion produces a dangerous ſwell and whirlpool in the water. In all probability, the back of this huge monſter has been miſtaken for the floating iſlands which have been deſcribed by ſo many voyage-writers. The whale bone or blubber whale, the ſpermaceti whale, the great ſea-ſnake, and the kraken, ſeem to have been all deſcribed, in the holy ſcriptures, under the general name of leviathan: for that word implies not a particular fiſh only, but a huge ſea-monſter, or fiſh of a prodigious ſize. For want of knowing this, thoſe beautiful paſſages in the book of Job, where leviathan is deſcribed, have been frequently miſunderſtood.

SECT. III.

Deſcribing the Inhabitants of NORWAY: their Perſons, Dreſs, Diet, Manners, Hoſpitality, their various Employments, Fiſhing, Agriculture, Fowling, and Trade, &c.

THE people of this country are in general tall, well made, and of lively diſpoſitions; yet thoſe on the coaſt are ſaid to be neither ſo tall, nor ſo robuſt as thoſe that inhabit the mountains, but are remarkable for being fatter, and having rounder faces. The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are of a lighter colour than thoſe of moſt other nations; and a dark complexion is as rare here, as a fair complexion in Italy. Indeed their eyes are generally blue, or of a light grey; and they differ in every reſpect from the Laplanders, who lie farther to the north, are of a ſmaller ſtature, have a flatter viſage, black hair, and a brown complexion. The Norwegians are in general briſk, active, and ſo ingenious, that the peaſants employ neither hatters, ſhoe-makers, weavers, taylors, tanners, carpenters, joiners, nor ſmiths; all theſe trades being exerciſed in every farm houſe; and they think, that unleſs a boy becomes maſter of all theſe arts, he can neither be a uſeful member of ſociety, nor a good man.

The dreſs of the Norwegians, who live in tents, has nothing remarkable in it; but the peaſants do not trouble themſelves about faſhions. Thoſe termed ſtrile farmers have their breeches and ſtockings of one piece. They have a wide looſe jacket made of warm woollen cloth, as are alſo their waiſtcoats; and thoſe who are fond of appearing fine, have the ſeams covered with cloth of different colour. The peaſants of one pariſh are remarkable for wearing white cloaths edged with black; the dreſs of another pariſh is black edged with red; and that of another all black; others wear black and yellow; and thus the colour of the cloaths of the inhabitants varies in almoſt every pariſh.

On their heads they wear a flapped hat, or a little brown, grey, or black cap, made quite round, and the ſeams adorned with black ribbands. They have ſhoes of a particular conſtruction without heels, conſiſting of two pieces, the upper leather ſitting cloſe to the foot, and the ſole being joined to it by many plaits and folds. In winter, and when they travel, they wear a ſort of half boots, that reach up to the calf of the leg, and are laced on one ſide; and when they go on the rocks in the ſnow, they put on ſnow-ſhoes: but as theſe are troubleſome, when they have a great way to travel, they put on ſnow-ſkaits, which are about as broad as the foot, but ſix or eight feet long, and pointed before; they are covered underneath with ſeal-ſkin, ſo that the ſmooth grain of the hair turns backwards to the heel. With theſe ſnow-ſkaits they ſlide as faſt upon the ſnow as upon the ice, and with a ſwiftneſs exceeding that of any horſe.

The lower claſs of people never wear a neckcloth, or any thing of that kind, except when they are dreſſed; for their neck and breaſt are always open, and they let the ſnow beat into their boſoms: on the contrary, they cover their veins, binding a woollen fillet round their wriſts. They wear about their body a large leather belt, adorned with convex braſs plates, to which hangs a braſs chain that holds their large knife, gimblet, and other uſeful articles.

The dreſs of the women when at church, and in general aſſemblies, conſiſts of jackets laced cloſe: they have alſo leather girdles, with ſilver ornaments about them. They alſo wear a ſilver chain three or four times round the neck, with a gilt medal hanging at the end of it. Their handkerchiefs and caps are almoſt covered with ſmall ſilver, braſs, and tin plates, buttons, and large rings, ſuch as they wear on their fingers, to which they hang again a parcel of ſmall ones, which make a jingling noiſe when they move. A maiden bride has her hair plaited, and hung as full as poſſible with ſuch kind of trinkets, as alſo her cloaths.

They generally build their houſes of fir and pine-trees, the whole trunks of which are only chopped to make them lie cloſe, and then laid one upon another, and faſtened with mortices at the corners. Theſe trunks are left round as they grow, both on the inſide and outſide of the houſes, and are frequently boarded over and painted, eſpecially in the trading towns, which make them appear very genteel.

In the country villages, the people build their houſes at a diſtance from each other, with their fields and grounds about them. The ſtore-houſe for the proviſions is generally at a diſtance from the dwelling houſe, for fear of

fire, and placed high upon poles to keep the proviſions dry, and preſerve them from mice and all kinds of vermin. The kitchen alſo ſtands ſeparate, as do the cow-houſes, barns, ſtables, &c.

A farm has generally a mill belonging to it, ſituated by ſome rivulet; beſides a ſmith's forge. Up the country, where timber for building is of little value, there are many farm-houſes as large as the ſeats of noblemen: theſe are frequently two ſtories high, and have a railed balcony in the front, and the additional buildings reſemble a village. The common farm-houſes have, however, only the ground-floor, and no other window but a ſquare hole in the wall, which in ſummer is left open; but in winter, or in wet weather, is covered with a wooden frame, over which is the inward tranſparent membrane of ſome animal that is very ſtrong. This hole, which is as high as poſſible, anſwers the purpoſe of a chimney, by letting out the ſmoke. Under the above hole there is generally placed a long thick table, with benches round it; and at the upper end is a high ſeat, which belongs ſolely to the maſter. In the towns theſe houſes are covered with tiles; but in the country the people lay over the boards the ſappy bark of birch trees, which will not decay in many years. They cover this again three or four inches thick with turf, on which there always grows graſs or moſs.

The Norwegians are extremely civil in their behaviour, and are willing to do to another any friendly act in their power. They are ſo hoſpitable, that a traveller is ſeldom permitted to pay for his lodging; for they think it their duty to treat a ſtranger as well as they can, and think he does them an honour by accepting of their civilities; yet the peaſant never gives his place at the upper end of the table to the greateſt gueſt that ever comes under his roof; for he claims a peculiar right to that place. At Chriſtmas, they keep open houſe for three weeks, during which their tables are ſpread and loaded with the beſt proviſions they can afford. At Chriſtmas-eve, their hoſpitality extends to the very birds, for whoſe uſe they hang on a pole at the barn-door an unthreſhed ſheaf of corn, which draws thither the ſparrows, and other ſmall birds, that feaſt upon the proviſion.

The diet of the inhabitants in the trading towns is much the ſame as that of the Danes; but the peaſants adhere to the manners of their forefathers: Oat cakes are their common bread; but upon particular occaſions, as at weddings, or other entertainments, they have rye-bread. However, if grain be ſcarce, which is uſually the caſe after a very ſevere winter, the peaſants have recourſe to what even they eſteem a diſagreeable method of preſerving life, by boiling and drying the bark of the fir-tree, mixing it with a little oatmeal, and making it into a ſort of bread; and that they may think this food leſs diſagreeable in times of ſcarcity, they accuſtom themſelves to eat ſome of it, when there is plenty of the better ſort.

The Norway peaſants eſteem their beſt dainties to conſiſt in milk, meats, and different ſorts of cheeſe, on which they ſpread butter, as on bread. The highland peaſants are ſo fond of angelica, which grows very plentifully in the mountains, that they chew it in a morning dried, and alſo uſe it as ſnuff.

The people furniſh themſelves with game in the mountains, and the lakes and rivers afford plenty of freſh-water fiſh. They kill cows, ſheep, and goats, for their winter ſtock, part of which they pickle and ſmoak; and ſome of it they cut in thin ſlices, ſprinkle it with ſalt, then dry it in the wind, and eat it like hung beef. They chew and ſmoak tobacco, and are fond of brandy.

The lower claſs of people are generally employed in cutting wood, felling and floating of timber, burning of charcoal, and extracting of tar. Many are alſo employed in the mines, furnaces, and ſtamping mills; alſo in navigation and fiſhing, beſides hunting and ſhooting; for every body is at liberty to purſue the game, eſpecially in the mountains, and on the heaths and commons, where every peaſant may make uſe of what arms he likes beſt.

Theſe people are inured to cold and hardſhips from their childhood: for in the latter end of November they run about bare-footed, even upon the ice. The mountaineers, who daily go in the woods have frequently their beards full of icicles, and their boſoms full of ſnow. Our author ſays, that in his travels over the higheſt mountains of Norway, which are covered with ſnow, and where horſes are of no ſervice, he has ſeen the peaſants in great numbers do the work of theſe animals, whom they ſeem almoſt to equal in ſtrength. When they have been in a profuſe ſweat, he ſaw them throw themſelves every half hour upon the ſnow, for the ſake of its refreſhing coolneſs, and even ſucked it to quench their thirſt. This they undergo without the leaſt apprehenſions of a cold, or a fever, and without murmuring, or betraying the leaſt diſcontent. On the contrary, they go on ſinging merrily, and with incredible chearfulneſs and alacrity undergo the hardeſt labour imaginable for nine hours, without intermiſſion.

No leſs remarkable are the ſtrong conſtitutions of the fiſhermen and ſea-faring people of this country. The peaſants of both ſexes aſſemble together in prodigious numbers about the middle of January, to make their winter-harveſt of the rich produce of the ocean. The people of every family at theſe times take with them five or ſix weeks proviſions, which chiefly conſiſt of dried fiſh. They keep out at ſea all day and a great part of the night, by moonſhine, in open boats; and after that crowd together by ſcores into little huts built in the iſlands near the coaſt, where they have hardly room to lay themſelves down in their wet cloaths. Here they repoſe themſelves the remainder of the night, and the next morning return to the ſame laborious employment with as much pleaſure and chearfulneſs as if they were going to an entertainment.

In this country, agriculture is leſs burthenſome to the huſbandman than in other parts; for he does not here toil in the fields of an oppreſſive lord; but the fruits of his labour, as in the Britiſh dominions, are his abſolute and certain property. But, on the other hand, it is in many places attended with great inconvenience and fatigue: for the fields conſiſt of little ſpots of ground among the rocks, many of which muſt be dug inſtead of being plowed, particularly in the dioceſe of Bergen, where the ſoil is leſs fruitful, and affords few places where the plough can be uſed. Inſtead of this, they ſometimes uſe a crooked ſtick, with an iron at the end, which yielding eaſier to the ſtones, is not ſo ſubject to break. Nor is the harveſt without its difficulties; the grain, according to the old cuſtom of the peaſants, not being mowed with a ſcythe, except about Chriſtiana, where it is lately come into uſe, but cut with a ſickle; for the corn often grows ſo thick and cloſe, and the ſtalks are ſo apt to bend with the weight of the ears, that the reapers graſp the ſtems with one hand, while they cut them with the other, and then bind them in ſheaves: that they may be thoroughly aired and dried, a great number of poles are ſet up in the fields, and ſix or eight ſheaves hung to each pole.

No waggons are uſed in harveſt work, except on the frontiers, where they have been introduced; but inſtead of them, the Norway peaſants uſe ſledges, and are prejudiced againſt any other kind of vehicle, even in places where waggons might eaſily travel, though their work would be performed with much greater eaſe and expedition. But in this and every thing elſe they are ſo ſuperſtitiouſly tenacious of the cuſtoms tranſmitted to them by their forefathers, that they will not venture to move a ſtone which their parents had placed in a particular ſpot.

Some of the inhabitants procure a very good maintenance by catching of birds; but it is impoſſible to give a juſt idea of the fatigue and danger with which the people ſearch for the birds in the high and ſteep rocks, many of which are above two hundred fathoms perpendicular. Theſe people, who are called birdmen, have two methods of catching them: they either climb up theſe perpendicular rocks, or are let down from the top by a ſtrong and thick rope. When they climb up, they have a large pole of eleven or twelve ells in length, with an iron hook at the end. They who are underneath in a boat, or ſtand on a cliff, faſten this hook to the waiſtband of the man's breeches who climbs, by which means they help him up to the higheſt projection he can reach, and fix his feet upon. They then help up another to the ſame place; and when they are both up, give each his bird-pole, and long rope, which they tie at each end round their waiſt. The one then climbs up as high as he can; and where it is difficult the other, by putting his pole under his breech, puſhes him up, till he gets to a good ſtanding-place. The uppermoſt of the two then helps the other up to him with a rope; and thus they proceed till they get to the part where the birds build, and there they ſearch for them.

As they have many dangerous places ſtill to climb, one always ſeeks a convenient ſpot where he can ſtand ſecure by being able to hold himſelf faſt, while the other is climbing about. If the latter ſhould happen to ſlip, he is held up by the other, who ſtands firm; and when he has paſſed in ſafety thoſe dangerous places, he fixes himſelf in the ſame manner, that he may enable the other to come ſafe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they pleaſe. But ſometimes accidents happen; for if one does not ſtand firm, or is too weak to ſupport the other when

when he ſlips, they both fall and are killed; and every year ſome periſh in this manner. On their thus reaching the places that are ſeldom viſited, they find the birds ſo tame, that they may take them with their hands, they being unwilling to leave their young; but where they are wild, they throw a net over them in the rock, and entangle thoſe that are flying, with a net fixed to the end of their poles. Thus they catch a vaſt number of fowls, and the boat keeping underneath them, they throw the dead birds into it, and ſoon fill the veſſel.

If the weather continues favourable, and there be a great deal of game, the birdmen ſometimes continue eight days together on the rocks; where they find holes or caverns in which they can ſecurely take their repoſe. In this caſe they draw up proviſions with lines, and boats are kept coming and going to carry away the game they have caught. As many of the rocks are ſo ſteep and dangerous, that they cannot poſſibly climb up them, they are then let down from above; when they have a ſtrong rope, eighty or a hundred fathom long, and about three inches in thickneſs. One end of it the birdman faſtens about his waiſt, and then drawing it between his legs, ſo that he can ſit on it, he is let down with his bird-pole in his hand, by ſix men at top, who let the rope ſink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to ſlide on, to prevent its being torn to pieces by the ſharp edge of the ſtones. Another line is faſtened round the man's waiſt, which he pulls to give ſigns when he would have them pull him up, let him lower, or keep him where he is. He is in great danger of the ſtones looſening by the rope, and falling upon him; he therefore wears a thick furred cap well lined, which ſecures him from the blows he may receive from ſmall ſtones; but if large ones fall, he is in the greateſt hazard of loſing his life.

Thus do theſe poor men often expoſe themſelves to the moſt imminent danger, merely to get a ſubſiſtence for their families. There are ſome indeed who ſay there is no hazard in it, after they are accuſtomed to it; but at firſt the rope turns round with them, till their heads are giddy, and they can do nothing to ſave themſelves. They who have learnt the art, make a play of it; they put their feet againſt the rock throw themſelves ſeveral fathoms out, and puſh themſelves into what place they pleaſe. They even keep themſelves out on the line in the air, and catch with their poles numbers of birds flying out and into their holes. The greateſt art conſiſts in throwing themſelves out, ſo as to ſwing under the projection of a rock, where the birds gather together: here they fix their feet, looſen themſelves from the rope, and faſten it to a ſtone, to prevent it ſwinging out of their reach. When a man has done this, he climbs about, and catches the birds either with his hands or the pole; and when he has killed as many as he thinks proper, he ties them together, faſtens them to the ſmall line, and, by a pull, gives a ſign for thoſe above to draw them up.

The birdman works all day in this manner; and when he wants to be drawn up, he either gives a ſignal to thoſe above, or, with his belt full of birds, works himſelf up with his hands and feet. If there are not people enough to hold the rope, he fixes a poſt in the ground, faſtens his rope to it, and ſlides down without any help; after which, he goes to work as before. In ſome places there are ſteep clefts of prodigious ſize lying under the land, and yet above two hundred yards above the water, which are likewiſe very difficult to be got at. They help one another down theſe clefts in the above manner; and taking a ſtrong rope with them, faſten it here and there in the cleft where they can; and leave it all the ſummer; they will run up and down upon this, and take the birds very eaſily.

To the beholders, this bird-catching appears inconceivably dreadful and dangerous, from the vaſt height and exceſſive ſteepneſs of the rocks, many of which hang over the ſea. It ſeems impoſſible for men to enter the hole under theſe projections, or to walk a hundred fathoms high on crags of rocks, where their toes can barely fix.

They eat part of theſe birds freſh, and part is hung up to dry for the winter ſeaſon. Theſe birds afford the inhabitants a good maintenance, partly from their feathers, which are plucked and ſent to foreign parts, and partly from their fleſh and eggs, and are ſent to market, though their colours and ſizes are different.

The people of Norway carry on a conſiderable trade, both to Denmark and foreign nations. They import wine, and many other articles of luxury; but their exports are much more numerous, conſiſting of maſts, timber, deal boards, oak planks, copper wrought and unwrought, iron in bars and caſt into cannon, pots, and ſtoves; lead in ſmall quantities; marble, mill-ſtones, ſalmon, herrings, cod, ling, lobſters, cow-hides, goat-ſkins; the furs of ermines, martens, beavers, foxes, wolves, bears, &c. down feathers, butter, tallow, train oil, tar, pitch, juniper and other berries, nuts, alum, ſalt, vitriol, and pot-aſhes.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the Language, Laws, Religion, and Government of NORWAY; alſo of its Four Chief Governments, or Prefectorſhips, and the principal Places in them; particularly of the Silver Mines of KONGSBERG, the remarkable Whirlpool of MOSKOESTROM, &c.

THE Norwegian language, in moſt places, is the ſame with that of Iceland, which proves them to be of the ſame original; but the language differs but little from that of Denmark, in the civilized part of the country.

King Olave is ſaid to have been the firſt legiſlator of this country, and to have inſtituted a law for the puniſhment of robbery, fraud, and aſſaults; king Chriſtian IV. publiſhed a new body of laws for Norway, which were in force till the reign of Chriſtian V. who cauſed a new digeſt to be drawn up, and theſe are the only laws now obſerved in the kingdom. This law-book was printed in one volume in quarto at Copenhagen, in 1687; the ſubſtance of it is taken from that of Denmark, with only a few neceſſary alterations on account of the different circumſtances of the two kingdoms. Juſtice is adminiſtered here in ſeveral courts, from which appeals lie to the ſupreme court ſettled in the capital of the kingdom where the viceroy reſides, who governs this ſtate with an abſolute power.

The Chriſtian religion is ſaid to have been planted here about the middle of the tenth century; and the reformation was eſtabliſhed by the Danes; ſo that Lutheraniſm is almoſt the only religion in Norway, except in the province of Finmark, where are ſtill no inconſiderable number of pagans; but no hardſhip, expence, or labour, is ſpared for their converſion. The firſt meaſures for the reformation of religion in Norway were taken in the year 1528, and were completed in 1537. In 1607 a new hierarchy or church government was eſtabliſhed: in every ſee there is a biſhop: the biſhop of Chriſtiana is the principal, and takes place of all the reſt. Under the biſhops are the provoſts, the preachers, and the chaplains, or curates, with inferior church-officers. A pariſh uſually contains more churches than one; when the parochial incumbent has often many ſouls under his care.

Norway is divided into four dioceſes or general governments, each of which has its general governor, and under theſe are the prefects; and the office of both is the ſame as in Denmark. Next to the prefects, are the ſecretaries and the collectors, who levy the king's taxes, and pay them into the receiver's hands.

They have nine provincial courts, over which are the ſame number of judges: there are alſo inferior judges, each of whom, in conjunction with eight aſſiſtants, has the power of deciding cauſes within his diſtrict. Beſides, in the four chief cities of Norway, viz. Chriſtiana, Chriſtianſand, Bergen, and Drontheim, are preſidents appointed by the king; and under theſe, as in all other towns, are collectors. There are likewiſe collectors of the toll, comptrollers over the farmers of the duties, and commiſſaries of proviſions, in this part of the dominions of the king of Denmark.

Nature has divided the main land of this kingdom into two parts by the immenſe chain of mountains called Doſrefield and Langfield, which ſeparates the weſtern and northern parts, that lie near the ſea, from the ſouthern and eaſtern, or inland parts. Here it muſt be obſerved, that the highlands which lie to the ſouth and eaſt of theſe mountains are called Sondenfield or Southland; while that is called Nordenfield, or Northland, which lies north of Doſrefield, and weſt of Longfield towards the ſea.

This country, according to the political diviſion of it, conſiſts of four general governments, two of which, namely, Chriſtiana and Chriſtianſand, which lie on the ſouth; and Bergen and Drontheim in the north part of the kingdom. The eccleſiaſtical diviſion into four biſhoprics, is agreeable to the civil; and the biſhoprics are ſubdivided into provoſtſhips and pariſhes, as the general governments are ſubdivided into prefectures, and diſtricts or fiefs.

The king of Denmark receives annually a revenue of upwards

upwards of eight hundred thouſand rix-dollars from Norway.

I. The largeſt and richeſt government in all Norway is that of Chriſtiana, or Aggerhuus, in the ſouth part of the kingdom. Its principal city is Chriſtiana, which is ſaid to be the beſt built city in the kingdom: it is regularly built, is of a conſiderable extent, and carries on a great trade. There the governor and biſhop of Chriſtiana reſide, and here are held the general and provincial high courts of judicature. It has a work-houſe and two ſuburbs called Waterland and Peper-Vigen; through the firſt runs a river, which riſes in Maridalen. The city ſtands in fifty-nine degrees fifty-minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. The land is mountainous and woody, but the valleys are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which paſs through the country, and fall into the Baltick. Here are ſeveral ſea-ports, particularly Heakeren, where the fiſhing-trade affords a pretty conſiderable income.

The town of Kongſberg, in this government, contains about eleven thouſand ſouls, among whom are a congregation of Danes, and another of Germans. In the year 1686, a mint was ſet up in this town, and in 1689, the mine college was erected. Kongſberg is moſt remarkable for its ſilver mines, which are the richeſt in all Norway. Theſe were diſcovered in 1623, upon which the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, forty-one ſhafts and twelve veins were wrought in the four reviers of this mine, in which three thouſand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers are uſually employed. The rich ore in this mine is found only in diſperſed ſtrata and interrupted veins. Even pure ſilver is ſometimes dug out of it; and in 1647, ſome gold was found among the ſilver, of which king Chriſtian IV. cauſed the famous Billen ducats to be coined, with this legend, Vide Mira Domini, "See the wonderful works of the Lord." In the year 1697, a vein of gold was diſcovered here, of which ducats were coined, which on one ſide had this inſcription, Chriſtian V. D. G. Rex Dan. Norw. V. G. The legend on the reverſe was from the book of Job: Von mitternacht kommt gold: that is, "Out of the north cometh gold." Kongſberg, December 1, 1697.

Moſt of theſe mines are in a mountain between Kongſberg and the river Jordal; but it has been found that the ſilver ore is not, as was at firſt imagined, limited to that mountain, but extends its veins for ſome miles throughout the adjacent diſtricts; which is proved by the new mines which are from time to time undertaken in ſeveral places, and moſt of them carried on very proſperouſly.

One of the moſt antient and rich of all the mines, named Old God's Bleſſing, has ſometimes within a week yielded ſeveral hundred pounds weight of rich ore. This mine never fails to fill the beholder with amazement at its aſtoniſhing depth, which is no leſs than an hundred and eighty perpendicular fathoms; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear of ſome hundred of fathoms. Here the ſight of thirty or forty piles, burning on all ſides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed, in order to mollify the ſtone in the proſecution of the mines, ſeems, according to the common idea, an image of hell; and the ſwarms of miners, covered with ſoot, and buſtling about in habits according to their ſeveral employments, may well paſs for ſo many devils, eſpecially when, at a ſignal that a mine is going to be ſprung in this or that courſe, they roar aloud, Berg-livet! Berg-livet! Take care of your lives!

The celebrated town of Frederickſhall is near the borders of Sweden, ſituated in latitude fifty-five degrees, twenty-ſix minutes, at the north of the river Tiſtedal, where it diſcharges itſelf into the Spineſund. This town was formerly called Halden, and was a mean place, under the juriſdiction of the magiſtracy of Frederickſtadt; yet it made a very gallant defence againſt the Swedes in 1658 and in 1659, by means of a ſmall intrenchment or rampart. It was afterwards ſtrengthened with additional fortifications; and in 1660 ſuſtained a third ſiege from the Swedes; and Charles Guſtavus is by ſome thought to have received here the wound of which he died. Five years after, this town received a charter, with the privileges of a city.

In 1716 and 1718, the inhabitants again diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the vigorous defence they made againſt the attacks of the Swedes; and here, on the eleventh of December, 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was ſhot in the trenches. King Frederick IV. ordered a pyramid twenty feet high to be erected on the ſpot where that hero fell. Its ſides were decorated with military trophies, the arms of Sweden, and the king's name; and the top was ſurmounted with a gilt crown. On four marble tables at the baſe, were one Latin and two Daniſh inſcriptions in golden letters. But king Chriſtian VI. in compliment to Sweden, ordered this pyramid to be taken down. The town itſelf is of no great ſtrength; but on a high rock oppoſite to it, ſtands the ſtrong fortreſs of Frederickſtein, and there are other ſmaller forts near it. This city has ſeveral times been deſtroyed by fire.

The town of Frederickſtadt was built in 1567 by Frederick II. who granted it a favourable charter, and removed the provincial court thither. It lies forty-four miles to the ſouth of Frederickſhall, and is governed by a town magiſtrate, and its chief trade is in timber. Frederickſtadt was regularly fortified in 1655 by Frederick III. and new works have been ſince added to it; ſo that its ſtrength by nature and art, and its convenient ſituation, render it the moſt important fortreſs in this country.

II. Chriſtianſand is ſituated in the moſt ſouthern extremity of Norway, and is bounded on the north by the government of Chriſtiana; and, on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, by the North ſea. This province is fertile in corn, and has ſeveral rivers, one of which is the Mandel, which in one place has a bridge laid over it from one rock to another, thirty-ſix feet above the ſurface of the water. At a ſmall diſtance from this bridge is a cataract, where a very uncommon method of fiſhing is practiſed; the fiſhermen go under the cataract, which forms an arch over their heads, to catch the ſalmon, at the extreme hazard of their lives, in a hole in the rock.

This government conſiſts of four prefectures, five diſtricts, and has two provincial courts. The principal city is Chriſtianſand, which is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt, in the fifty-ninth degree three minutes north latitude, and is the reſidence of the biſhop and the general governor, where is a cathedral and epiſcopal ſchool. This city was built by Chriſtian IV. between the year 1641 and 1643, and is thus called from its founder, and the great ſande, or ſtrand, on which it is built. It is of a ſquare form, and the ſtreets are broad, regular, and handſome. Its ſituation is very commodious, three ſides of it being ſurrounded either with freſh or ſalt water, and on the fourth it has a communication with fine meadows and the mountains. In 1734 the church, with the greateſt part of the city, was deſtroyed by fire.

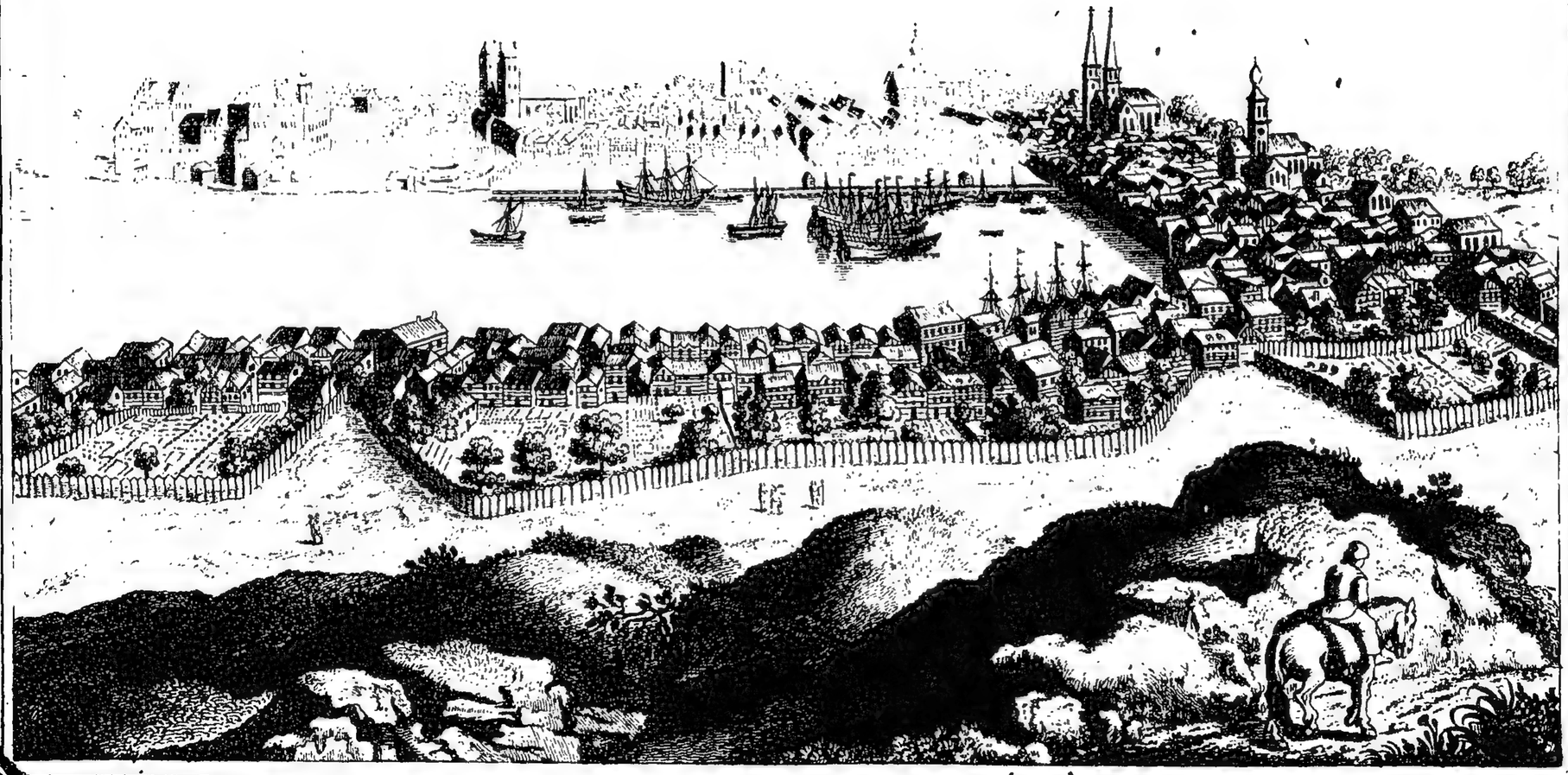
Arndal, though a ſmall town, is remarkable for its ſituation on a rock in the midſt of the river Nid. It has a good wharf, and moſt of the houſes ſtand on the acclivity of the rock, the reſt being built on piles in the water. The ſtreets are only formed of bridges of boats, by means of which the inhabitants go from houſe to houſe. The water is of ſufficient depth for the largeſt ſhips to lie along ſide of the bridges. As the church ſtands high, and almoſt on the ſummit of the rock, there is an aſcent to it from the houſes by a great number of ſteps hewn out of the rock. The inhabitants make a good uſe of the commodious ſituation of this town for trade, by employing many ſhips, and dealing largely in timber.

III. Bergen is from two hundred and forty to three hundred miles in length. This government contains only the ſingle prefecture of Bergenhuus, including ſeven diſtricts, and the ſame number of provoſtſhips. This country is very populous, and is remarkable for its having ſeven marble quarries; but produces little corn.

The city of Bergen, which is the capital of this government, has the greateſt trade in all Norway. It is ſituated in the ſixty-firſt degree eleven minutes north latitude, in the midſt of a valley, and built in a ſemicircular form, on the ſides of a bay, called by the inhabitants Waag. It is well fortified by nature on the land ſide by lofty mountains, ſeven of which are remarkably high, while the defiles or paſſes between them are quite impaſſable to an enemy, and towards the ſea the harbour is well defended by ſeveral fortifications. All the churches, public edifices, and moſt of the houſes along the ſtrand are built with ſtone. The number of inhabitants are computed at thirty thouſand. This city formerly contained thirty churches and convents; but it has at preſent only four pariſh-churches, three of which are Daniſh, and one German, with a church in the large hoſpital of St. Jurgen, and a ſmall chapel in St. James's church-yard. The caſtle of Bergen is a noble ſtructure.

The large cathedral ſchool was founded in 1554, by biſhop Petrus, who alſo endowed it, and, by the liberality of king Frederick II. and others, twelve ſcholars are maintained and educated in it. The navigation ſchool founded here, which once flouriſhed greatly, is now fallen to decay. The Seminarium Fredericianum alſo deſerves

notice,



Perspective View *of* BERGEN, *the Capital of* Norway

notice, it being a noble foundation, where moral and natural philoſophy, the mathematics, hiſtory, with the Latin and French languages, are taught. This city carries on a large trade in all kinds of fiſh, tallow, hides, and timber; and the returns are moſtly made in corn and foreign commodities.

A range of iſlands extends from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt of Drontheim, and between them and the continent runs a large bay called Weſt Fiorden. Among the iſlands above-mentioned is a remarkable kind of current, or whirlpool, called the Moſkoeſtrom, in the ſixty-eighth degree of latitude, near the iſland of Moſkoe, from which this whirlpool takes its name. Its impetuous roarings are heard at a great diſtance, and have no intermiſſion, except for a quarter of an hour at the turn of high and low water, when its violence ſeems at a ſtand, and fiſhermen venture upon it with their boats: but this motion ſoon returns, and gradually increaſes till it forms a vortex, capable of abſorbing whatever comes within its influence: this is ſuppoſed to be cauſed by the colliſion of the waves riſing and falling at the flux and reflux, againſt a ridge of rocks and ſhelves, which confine the water, ſo that it precipitates like a cataract; and thus, as the higher the flood riſes, the deeper muſt be the fall, ſo a whirlpool is the natural conſequence.

At the time of flood, the ſtream runs up the country between the iſlands of Lafoden and Moſkoe, with a boiſterous rapidity; but the roar of its impetuous ebb to the ſea is ſcarce equalled by the loudeſt and moſt dreadful cataracts, the noiſe being heard at ſeveral leagues diſtance. The whirlpool is then of ſuch extent and depth, that if a ſhip comes within its attraction, it is inevitably abſorbed, and daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks at the bottom. But when the ſtream is moſt boiſterous, and its fury heightened by a ſtorm, it is dangerous to come within one Norway or ſix Engliſh miles of it; for that boats, ſhips, and yachts, have been drawn into it from a diſtance which they imagined ſecured them from its attraction. It frequently happens, that even whales coming too near the ſtream are overpowered by its violence, which they no ſooner feel, than they fill the air with dreadful howlings during their fruitleſs ſtruggles to diſengage themſelves. Even large firs and pine-trees, after being abſorbed by the current, are thrown up again with their trunks ſo broken and torn, that they ſeem as if covered with briſtles. A bear once attempting to ſwim to the iſland of Moſkoe, in order to prey upon the ſheep at paſture in the iſland, afforded the like ſpectacle as that of the whale did to the people; for the ſtream bore him down, while his hideous roarings reached the ſhore.

IV. Drontheim, Trontheim, or Dronthen, is the largeſt government of Norway. It lies along the coaſt of the North ſea, being about five hundred miles in length, from ſouth to north. It has the North ſea on the weſt, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Bergen on the ſouth, and on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the ſixty-firſt to the ſixty-ninth degree of latitude: its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is not above one hundred and twenty miles, and in many places it is much leſs. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; ſo that, though it be large, the towns are not very conſiderable. It is divided into two parts, namely, the government of Drontheim, properly ſo called, where is the city of that name, and ſeven ſmall bailiwics; and the ſub-government of Salten, which contains ſeven other ſmaller diſtricts, or valleys, on the ſea-coaſt. This whole province was yielded to the Swedes in 1658, but the king of Denmark recovered it in 1660, by the treaty of Copenhagen. The valleys of Nomendall, Heligeland, or Halgoland, Froſten, Hinder, Hero, and ſome others, belonged formerly to this province, but were given up to the Swedes in 1645, by the treaty of Bromſbroe, together with the province of Jempland, or Jemterland. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but along the ſea-ſhore, till within twenty-five or thirty miles from it.

The moſt conſiderable town here is Drontheim, in Latin Drontheima, or Nidroſia; formerly the capital of Norway, is ſeated on the coaſt of the Northern ocean, on a little gulf at the mouth of the river Nider, from whence it was antiently called Nidroſia. It is about two hundred and twenty miles diſtant from Bergen to the north-eaſt. It has a harbour, pretty well frequented by ſmall veſſels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obſtructed by rocks. It was formerly the reſidence of the kings of Norway, but the town being only built with timber, was ſeveral times burnt down, and is very much decayed from its antient ſplendor. It has neither ditches nor fortifications, being only encloſed by a ſingle wall. Its caſtle is not ſtrong, and ſuſtained but a few days ſiege, when the town was taken by the Swedes, in 1658. The Danes took it again that ſame year, the 21ſt of December, after a ſiege of two months and a half, as Puffendorf obſerves, in the life of Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden. It is the ſeat of an archbiſhop, the only one in Norway. The cathedral, which was dedicated to St. Olaus, was a ſtately building, and reckoned one of the moſt magnificent in the northern countries; but it lies now in ruins, being deſtroyed by fire in the year 1522.

This town has a pretty conſiderable trade, conſiſting in ſmall maſts, and fir-deals. They alſo ſhip off here a large quantity of copper, the mines of which are eighteen or twenty miles diſtant from this town, near the village of Steckby. At the diſtance of ſix miles from theſe mines there is a ſilver one, belonging to the king. The other merchandize exported from thence are, iron, tar, furs, aſhes, goat-ſkins, &c. and they import, in exchange, ſpices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheeſe, tobacco, coarſe cloths, and a great many old rix-dollars. This is the ſeat of the governor of the province, who generally reſides in the caſtle. The town is almoſt intirely ſurrounded by the ſea and the river Nider, being joined to the continent only by a ſmall neck of land; and it is encompaſſed by high mountains, which command it on every ſide. The country round about is very barren; and even wood is ſo ſcarce, that, a little beyond the town, the people are obliged to uſe fiſh-bones for fuel, and for ſeveral utenſils.

To the governments above deſcribed, we may add the province of Wardhus, which is bounded, on the north and weſt, by the ocean; on the eaſt, by the Ruſſian Lapland, on the ſouth, by Swediſh Lapland; and, on the ſouth-weſt, by the government of Drontheim. It is three hundred and ten miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and two hundred in breadth from north to ſouth.

This province is divided into two parts; namely, 1. The weſtern, or maritime part, which is called Finland; and, 2. The eaſtern part, which is called Norwegian or Daniſh Lapland. The town of Wardhus, from whence this province hath its name, is the ſeat of a governor, but conſiſts only of a ſtreet of cottages inhabited by fiſhermen, with a caſtle belonging to it.

Bahus, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, is yet reckoned a part of Norway, being its moſt ſouthern province. It is ninety miles long, but not above twenty-five broad where wideſt, and only ten in ſome places. It hath Weſt Gothland to the ſouth, Dalia on the eaſt, the government of Aggerhuus on the north, and the Categate on the weſt.

The principal places in this province are, 1. The ſtrong caſtle of Bahus, built on a ſmall iſland made by the river Nore-Elf, which there receives the Giotha-Elf, and both together are called Trolhetta. It is one hundred and ſixteen miles diſtant from Chriſtiana; was built in 1309 by Haquin the ſecond king of Norway, and ſtands on a ſteep rock near the banks of the river. The kings of Denmark had fortified it after the modern faſhion; but ſurrendered it to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roſchiled. 2. Maeſtrand, a ſtrong town built on a rock in a kind of peninſula, about ten miles below Bahus. It is a place of great trade for fiſh, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

CHAP. III.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

SWEDEN.

SECT. I.

Containing the Situation, Extent and Boundaries, Climate, Lakes, Soil, Animals and other Particulars relative to the Natural Hiſtory of SWEDEN.

THIS extenſive kingdom lies between Denmark, Norway, and Ruſſia, and ſtretches from fifty-five degrees forty minutes, to the ſixty-ninth degree north latitude, and from the twelfth to the thirty-ſecond degree of eaſt longitude from London; being about two hundred and thirty Swediſh, or one thouſand four hundred Engliſh miles in length; its breadth is computed at one hundred and fifty Swediſh miles, or nine hundred and twenty Engliſh, and its area at ten thouſand ſquare Swediſh miles; but when proper abatements are made for vaſt lakes, inland ſeas or gulfs, ſterile mountains, extenſive rocky tracts, barren heaths, moraſſes, &c. the inhabited or cultivated parts are very ſmall, in proportion to the whole dominion. It has Ruſſia, the Baltick, and the gulf of Finland, on the eaſt; the Baltick and the Sound, on the ſouth; the ſtupendous and impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; and Norwegian Lapland, on the north.

Though the ſeaſons of the year are regular in themſelves, they do not altogether anſwer thoſe of other climates, as a French ambaſſador obſerved, who, in raillery, ſaid, there were in Sweden only nine months winter, and all the reſt was ſummer: for as winter commonly begins very ſoon, ſo ſummer immediately ſucceeds it, and leaves little or no ſpace to be called ſpring. The productions, therefore, of the earth ought to be, as they really are, more ſpeedy in their growth than in more ſouthern countries; the reaſon of which ſeems to be, that the oil and ſulphur in the earth (as appears by the trees and minerals it produces), being bound up all the winter, are then on a ſudden actuated by the heat of the ſun, which almoſt continually ſhines, and thereby makes amends for its ſhort ſtay, and brings to maturity the fruits proper to the climate. The heat in ſummer is ſo intenſe, that it often ſets the woods on fire, which ſometimes ſpreads itſelf many leagues, and can ſcarce be ſtopt, till it comes to ſome lakes, or very large plain. In the ſummer ſeaſon the fields are cloathed with variety of flowers, and the whole country overſpread with ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and the like; which grow upon every rock. In their gardens melons are brought to good perfection in dry years, but apricots, peaches, and other wall-fruits, are almoſt as ſcarce as oranges. They have cherries of ſeveral ſorts, and ſome tolerably good, which cannot be ſaid of their apples, pears, and plums, which are neither common, nor well-taſted. All kinds of roots are in plenty, and contribute much to the nouriſhment of the poor people.

The ſun, at the higheſt, is above the horizon of Stockholm eighteen hours and a half, and for ſome weeks makes a continual day: in winter the days are proportionably ſhorter, the ſun being up five hours and a half; which defect is ſo well ſupplied as to lights, by the moon, the whiteneſs of the ſnow, and the clearneſs of the ſky, that travelling by night is as uſual as by day; and journies are begun in the evening, as frequently as in the morning. The want of the ſun's heat is repaired by ſtoves within-doors, and warm furs abroad; inſtead of which, the meaner ſort uſe ſheep-ſkins, and other ſuch defences; and are generally better provided with clothing, befitting their condition, and the climate they live in, than the common people in any part of Europe: though where any neglect or failure happens, it uſually proves fatal, and occaſions the loſs of noſes, or other members, and ſometimes of life; unleſs the uſual remedy to expel the froſt, when it has ſeized any part, be carefully applied, which is, to remain in the cold, and rub the part affected with ſnow, till the blood returns to its proper channel.

Their woods and vaſt foreſts overſpread much of the country, and are, for the moſt part, of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak; eſpecially in the province of Bleking in South Gothland; the trees growing, in moſt places, ſo cloſe together, and lying to rot, where they fall, that the woods are ſcarce paſſable. Theſe afford a plentiful and cheap firing; and, being generally very ſtrait and tall, are eaſily convertible into timber fit for all uſes. So that the Dutch begin now to export, from hence, boards, and maſts for their ſhipping, which prove as good as thoſe of Norway. In the parts near the mines the woods are much deſtroyed, but that want is ſo well ſupplied from diſtant places, by the conveniency of rivers and winter-carriages that they have charcoal above ſix times as cheap as in England; though, indeed, it is not half ſo good.

The principal lakes in Sweden are, the Vetter, the Wener, and the Maeler. The firſt is in Oſtrogothia, or Eaſt-Gothland; and is remarkable for its foretelling of ſtorms, by a continual thundering noiſe, the day before, in that quarter whence they ariſe; as alſo, for the ſudden breaking of the ice upon it, which ſometimes ſurpriſes travellers, and in half an hour it becomes navigable. It is extremely deep, in ſome places above three hundred fathoms, though no part of the Baltick ſea exceeds fifty. It ſupplies the river Motala, which runs through Norkoping, where it has a fall of above thirty feet, and, ſome winters, is ſo choaked up with ice, that, for many hours, no water paſſes. The ſecond is in Weſtrogothia, or Weſt-Gothland, from which iſſues the river Elve, that, falling down a rock, near ſixty feet, paſſes by Gottenburgh. The third empties itſelf at Stockholm, and furniſhes one ſide of the town with freſh water, as the ſea does the other with ſalt. Theſe, and abundance of other lakes, whereof many, like ponds, have no vent, are not ill ſtored with variety of fiſh; as ſalmon, pikes, perch, tench, trout, eels, and many other ſorts, unknown elſewhere; of which the moſt plentiful is the ſtreamling, a fiſh leſs than a pilcher, taken in great quantities, ſalted in barrels, and diſtributed all over the country. Beſides, the gulf of Finland, which ſeparates Sweden from that province, abounds with ſeals, of which a conſiderable quantity of train-oil is made, and exported; and in the lakes of Finland are great quantities of pike, which they ſalt, dry, and ſell at very cheap rates. Theſe lakes are of great uſe for the conveniency of carriage, in ſummer, by boats; and, in winter, by ſleds: and among them, and on the ſea coaſt, are almoſt innumerable iſlands, of different ſizes; whereof there are, in Sweden, above ſix thouſand which are inhabited: the reſt are either bare rocks, or covered with woods.

In places capable of cultivation, the ſoil is tolerably fruitful, though ſeldom above half a foot deep; and therefore more eaſily ploughed, as it frequently is, by one maid and an ox: and it is generally beſt where there is leaſt of it, that is to ſay, in the little ſpaces between the rocks; and frequently the barren land, being enriched by the aſhes of trees, burnt on the place where they grow, and the ſeed raked among the aſhes, produces a plentiful crop, without further cultivation. This practice is ſo antient, that their writers derive the name of Sweden from a word in their language that expreſſes it; but the danger of deſtroy-

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ing the woods, has of late, occaſioned ſome laws to limit that cuſtom. If the inhabitants were induſtrious, above what neceſſity forces them to, they might, at leaſt, have corn ſufficient of their own; but, as things are managed, they have not, nor can they ſubſiſt without great importations of all ſorts of grain from Livonia (a country once belonging to Sweden), and other parts of Germany adjacent to the Baltick ſea: and, notwithſtanding theſe ſupplies, the pooreſt ſort, in many places remote from traffic, are obliged to grind the bark of birch-trees to mix with their corn, and make bread, of which they have not always plenty.

In this, as in other northern countries, the cattle are generally of a very ſmall ſize; neither can the breed be bettered by bringing in larger from abroad, which ſoon degenerate; becauſe, in ſummer, the graſs is much leſs nouriſhing than in the places from whence they came; and in winter they are uſually half-ſtarved for want of fodder of all kinds, which often falls ſo very ſhort, that they are forced to unthatch their houſes to keep a part of their cattle alive. Their ſheep bear a very coarſe wool, only fit to make clothing for the peaſants. Their horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Finland, are hardy, vigorous, ſtrong, ſure-footed, and nimble trotters, which is of great uſe to the people, becauſe of the length of their winter, and the fitneſs of theſe horſes for ſleds, which is their only carriage in that ſeaſon: and the ſoldiers pretend that, in war, their cavaly are not only able to reſiſt, but even to break a body of the beſt German horſe.

The farmers, in ſome parts of Sweden, when the winters are uncommonly ſevere, and the cattle almoſt ſtarved, in order to nouriſh them, and cauſe the fodder to hold out during the ſeaſon, make hay-tea; that is, they boil about a handful of hay in three gallons of water, and the drink thus made is ſo extremely nutritive, that it nouriſhes the cattle aſtoniſhingly, repleniſhes the udders of the cows with a prodigious quantity of milk, and makes one truſs of fodder go as far as ten would otherwiſe do. If this experiment were tried, on ſimilar occaſions, in England, there is no room to doubt that it would prove equally beneficial.

Some parts of Sweden are much infeſted with lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, wild cats, otters, martens, weaſels, &c. Theſe are hunted either for their fleſh, ſkins, or furs; the Swediſh huntſmen, uſing guns, are excellent markſmen in general. Here are alſo plenty of all ſorts of deer, elks and hares; the latter of which have this remarkable property, that in winter they become as white as ſnow.

Tame and wild fowls are very numerous in Sweden, and are very good. The keder, which is as large as an ordinary turkey, is much admired; as is alſo the orras, which reſembles a partridge. In winter, the Swediſh ſportſmen amuſe themſelves in killing great numbers of blackbirds, thruſhes, and ſydenſwans; the latter is a beautiful bird of the ſize of a field-fare, whoſe feathers are tipt with ſcarlet, and are ſuppoſed to come from Lapland in the hard ſeaſon. They have but few pigeons, on account of the great number of eagles, hawks, vultures, and other large birds of prey which deſtroy them.

There are many excellent mines in Sweden, and in them their wealth chiefly conſiſts. The principal of theſe is the great ſilver mine, into which the workmen are let down in baſkets to the firſt floor, which is an hundred and five fathom under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, ſupported by vaſt arches of oak; thence the deſcent is by ladders, or baſkets, to the loweſt mine, above forty fathom. They have no records ſo antient as the firſt diſcovery either of this, or the copper mine, which muſt needs have been the work of many ages. The ore ſeldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it; they are alſo at the charge of a water-mill to drain the mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. It yearly produces about twenty thouſand crowns-worth of fine ſilver, of which the king has the pre-emption, paying one fourth leſs than the real value. This mine is at preſent much diminiſhed in its value.

Their large copper mine is about eighty fathom deep, of great extent, but ſubject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is ſometimes recompenſed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though moſt commonly the loſs, in that caſe is very great. The occaſion of theſe falls is aſcribed to the throwing the earth and ſtones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way: and the reaſon of this is ſaid to be, that the profit ariſing, to thoſe who are concerned, is ſo little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbiſh to a greater diſtance: and unleſs the king abates a conſiderable part of the profit ariſing to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a ſtand, eſpecially if the deſigns of making copper, which are on foot elſewhere, do take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about two hundred thouſand pounds, of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of pre-emption, but in kind; beſides which, he has, upon the remainder, a cuſtom of twenty-five per cent. when it is exported unwrought. Some years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with propoſals to make copper a ſhorter and cheaper way than had till then been practiſed, ſo as to make that in five days which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made, and his reward to be an hundred thouſand crowns. The firſt eſſay he made ſucceeded to admiration; but when he came to work in earneſt, and had got his new-invented ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worſt ore, and were otherwiſe ſo envious and untractable, that he failed of ſucceſs, and loſt his reward: nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practiſe his invention at his own charge.

Here are great numbers of iron mines and forges, eſpecially towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From theſe, beſides ſupplying the country, there is yearly exported iron, to the value of near three hundred thouſand pounds. But of late years the number of theſe forges has been ſo much increaſed, that each endeavouring to under-ſell others, the price has been much lowered. And ſince the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange of which iron was plentifully take off; it is grown ſo cheap, that it is found neceſſary to leſſen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are likely to fall of themſelves, becauſe they cannot work but with loſs, in which caſe, many thouſands of poor people, whoſe livelihood depends upon theſe forges and mines, will be deprived of the means of ſubſiſtence.

As the account which Mr. Wraxall, a late traveller, has favoured us with, of his deſcent into the iron mines at Danmora, is both curious and intereſting, we ſhall here tranſcribe it for the ſatisfaction of our readers: "We lay, ſays this gentleman, at a pretty village called Oſtarby, and went about three miles, the next morning, to ſee the mines at Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the fineſt iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country, and conſtitutes one of the moſt important ſources of the national wealth and royal revenue. The ore is not dug, as in the mines of tin and coal which we have in England, but is torn up by powder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the moſt tremendous and awful that can be conceived.

"We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an Engliſh mile in circumference) in time to be preſent at it. Soon after twelve, the exploſion began: I cannot compare it to any thing ſo aptly as ſubterraneous thunder, or rather vollies of artillery diſcharged under ground. The ſtones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vaſt height above the ſurface of the earth; and the concuſſion is ſo great, as to ſhake the ſurrounding earth, or rock, on every ſide. I felt a pleaſure, mingled with terror, as I hung over this vaſt and giddy hollow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As ſoon as the exploſions were finiſhed, I determined, however, to deſcend into the mine; which there is no way of doing, but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three perſons, and faſtened to chains by a rope.

"The inſpector, at whoſe houſe I had ſlept the preceding night, took no little pains to diſſuade me from the reſolution; and aſſured me, not only that the rope or chains ſometimes broke, but that the ſnow and ice which lodged on the ſides of the mines frequently tumbled in, and deſtroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant any abſolute ſecurity from one or both of theſe accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonſtrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it, to accompany me. I wrapped myſelf, therefore, in my great coat, and ſtepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down.

"I am not aſhamed to own, that when I found myſelf thus ſuſpended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyſs below me, to which I could ſee no termination, I ſhuddered with apprehenſion, and half repented my curioſity. This was however, only a momentary ſenſation; and before I had deſcended an hundred feet, I looked round on the ſcene with very tolerable compoſure. I was near nine minutes before I could

I could reach the bottom, it being eighty fathom, or four hundred and eighty feet. The view of the mine, when I set my foot to the earth, was awful in the highest degree. Whether terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling as I looked at it, is hard to say. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns. In many places it was absolutely lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. I saw beams of wood across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other, where the miners sat employed in boring holes for the admission of powder, with as much unconcern as I would have felt in any ordinary employment, though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and dash them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. A confinement for life, in these horrible iron dungeons, must surely, of all punishments which human subtilty has devised, be one of the most terrible.

"I remained three quarters of an hour in these gloomy and frightful caverns, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the cold of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which runs a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence produced from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them; and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet at their fire, which were wet with treading on the melted ice.

"There are no less than one thousand three hundred of these men constantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, or three-pence English a day. They were first opened about 1580, under the reign of John III. but have been constantly worked only since the time of Christina.

"After having gratified my curiosity with a full view of these subterranean apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up; and can most seriously assure you, I felt so little terror while ascending, compared with that on letting down, that I am convinced in five or six times more I should have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have solved a problem in mathematics, or composed a sonnet to my mistress, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehension. So contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarised by continual repetition, and so strong is the effect of custom on the human mind!"

Speaking of the manner in which the peasants manufacture the iron, the same person makes the following remarks: "I have visited six or seven forges on my journey, each of which constantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen only in iron. Wherever there is a country seat, you may be certain to see one of these fabrics; and no cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have seen them stand close to, and hammer, in their coarse frocks of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and refulgence of which were almost insupportable to me at ten feet distance, and with the sparks of which they are covered from head to foot. I had the pleasure of viewing the whole process used to reduce the ore into iron, and must own it is very curious. They first roast it in the open air, for a considerable time: after which, it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fusion, is poured into a mould of sand about three yards in length. These pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge, heated to a prodigious degree; they break off a large piece with prickers when red-hot, and this is beat to a lesser size with hammers. It is put again into the fire and from thence intirely finished by being laid under an immense engine resembling a hammer, which is turned by water, and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is the sole guide, and it requires an exquisite nicety and precision.

SECT. II.

Treating of the several Grand Divisions of SWEDEN, their different Provinces, Islands, Towns, &c. particularly of SWEDEN, properly so called.

THE kingdom of Sweden has always been considered, by geographers, as divided into seven provinces: namely, Sweden Proper, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swedish Lapland, and the Swedish islands in the Baltick; but, as we observed, in our description of Russia, Livonia and Ingria at present appertain to that empire, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and afterwards, by posterior treaties, ceded to the Russians.

Those provinces which at present remain in the possession of the Swedes, are divided in the following manner:

Sweden Proper contains, Uplandia, Sudermania, Westmania, Nericia, Gestricia, Helsingia, Dalecarlia, Medolpadia, Angermania, Iniptia, and West Bothnia.

Gothland, or Gothia, contains East Gothland, West Gothland, and South Gothland.

Finland contains Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavastia, and Cajunia.

Swedish Lapland contains, Augermanice Lapmark, Uma Lapmark, Pitha Lapmark, Lula Lapmark: Torno Lapmark, Kima Lapmark. As Lapland is subject to Sweden, Russia, and Denmark, we shall therefore treat of it distinctly after the last-mentioned.

The Swedish islands are, Gothland, Oeland, Oesel, Dago, Aland, Hagland, and Rugen.

Sweden Proper is bounded on the north by Lapland; on the south by Gothland; on the east by the gulf of Bothnia; and the mountains part it on the west from Norway; extending seven hundred and ten miles from south to north, and about two hundred and twenty-five from east to west, though in many places it is much narrower. The country is fruitful though mountainous in some parts; abounds with rich mines of copper, and affords conveniency of water and fuel for working them. It is divided, as we have already observed, into eleven parts; which are as follow:

Upland, in Latin Uplandia, is surrounded on the north-east and east by the Baltick sea; on the south it has part of the same sea, and part of Sudermania, from which it is separated by the lake of Maeler; on the west it is bounded by Westmania, and on the north-west by Gestricia, from which the river Dala parts it. It extends about seventy-five miles from north to south, and about sixty-five from east to west. Here are many mines of iron and lead, and some of silver. The country is very fruitful, and produces, amongst others, excellent wheat. The most considerable cities and towns here, are as follow:

The city of Stockholm, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the residence of the king, had its name from its situation, and the great quantity of timber used in building it; Stock signifying timber, and Holm an island. It stands two hundred and eighty miles north-east from Copenhagen, two hundred and twenty-four from Gottenburg, three hundred and forty-two from Wyburg, three hundred and eighty-seven west from Petersburgh, four hundred and sixty-five from Warsaw, six hundred and sixty north from Vienna, eight hundred and forty from Paris, and seven hundred and ninety north-east from London. It is built upon piles, in several little islands which lie near one another. It takes up at present six of those islands, together with the southern and northern suburbs; the one in the peninsula of Toren, and the other in Athundria. It is commonly divided into four parts, which are South-Malm, and North-Malm, the two suburbs, between which the city stands in an island; the fourth part is called Garceland: these four make together one of the greatest towns in Europe, with regard to the number of houses. The isle, within which the greatest part of Stockholm is inclosed, is surrounded by two arms of a river, which run with great force out of the lake Maeler: over each of these arms there is a wooden bridge. There are some other islands separated from the city but by small canals. From the city there is a prospect, on one side over the lake, and on the other over the sea, which here forms a gulf, which running between several rocks, seems as if it were another lake. The water is so little brackish before Stockholm, that it might be drank; which is owing to the great quantity of fresh water which runs from the lake into the sea.

This place, about three hundred years ago, was only a bare island, with two or three cottages for fishers; but upon the building of a castle there, to stop the inroads of the Russians, and the translation of the court thither, it grew by degrees to surpass the other more antient cities, and is now supposed to be as populous as Bristol. The castle, which is covered with copper, is a place of no strength or beauty, but of great use; for it is a spacious building where the court lodges, and which also furnishes room for most of the great officers, the national court of justice, the colleges of war, chancery, treasury, reduction, liquidation,



View of STOCKHOLM, the Capital of Sweden.

liquidation, commerce, execution: here is alſo an armoury, chapel, library, the public records, &c. It lodges very few of the inferior officers and ſervants of the court; they, together with the foot-guards, being quartered upon the burghers, at their landlord's charge for fire, candles, and lodging.

There are nine large churches in this city, built with bricks, and covered with copper; and three or four wooden chapels. The palace of the nobility, which is the place of their aſſembly at the convention of the ſtates, and the depoſitory of their privileges, titles, and ſuch other records as concern their body, is a very ſtately pile, and one of the fineſt in the kingdom: it is, as it were, but one large pavilion, adorned on the outſide with marble figures and columns, aud within with pictures and ſculptures; eſpecially in two large halls, where the nobility meet. Next to this palace, is that of the lord high chancellor; and a little farther are two other palaces belonging to noblemen. Theſe four palaces ſtand on the banks of the lake, are built after the ſame manner of architecture, and are all covered with copper. The bank, built at the city's charge, is alſo a noble edifice, and, together with ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility, all covered with copper, afford a handſome proſpect.

The burghers' houſes are chiefly built with brick, except in the ſuburbs, where they are of timber, and thereby ſubject to the danger of fire, which commonly, when it gets a-head, deſtroys all before it in the quarter where it happens. To repair which misfortune, they ſometimes ſend the dimenſions of the houſe they intend to build, into Finland; where the walls, and ſeveral ſeparations, are built of pieces of timber laid one upon another, and joined at the corners; and afterwards marked, taken down and ſent by water to Stockholm, there to be ſet up and finiſhed; and, when they are kept in good repair, they will laſt thirty or forty years; and are warmer, cleanlier, and more healthful than thoſe of either brick or ſtone. To prevent the danger of fire, the city is divided into twelve wards; and in each of theſe there is a maſter, and four aſſiſtants; who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair to it; as alſo all porters and labourers, who muſt range themſelves under the maſter of their reſpective ward. There is, beſides, a fire-watch by night, who walk about only for that purpoſe; and in each church-ſteeple a watch is kept, who tolls a bell upon the firſt appearance of fire.

This city is governed by the great ſtadtholder, who is alſo a privy-counſellor. He ſits once a week in the town-houſe, and preſides alſo in the college of execution, aſſiſted by an under-ſtadtholder, and a bailiff of the caſtle. Next to him are the four burgomaſters; one for juſtice, another for trade, the third for the policy of the city, and the fourth has the inſpection over all public and private buildings, and determines ſuch caſes as ariſe on that account: with them the counſellors of the city always ſit, and give their votes, the majority of which concludes. Their number is uncertain, but uſually about twenty, moſt merchants and ſhop-keepers, or ſuch as have ſerved the king in ſome inferior employments. Beſides their ſalary, they have an immunity from ſuch impoſitions as are laid on the inhabitants to ſupport the government of the city; which pays all its officers and ſervants, maintains a guard of three hundred men, and defrays the charge of all public buildings and repairs.

To ſupport the expence, beſides a duty belonging to the city, of goods imported and exported (which is about four per cent, of the cuſtoms paid to the king, and amounts to about five thouſand pounds per annum), the magiſtrates impoſe a yearly tax on the burghers; in which they are aſſiſted by a common-council of forty-eight (which chuſes its own members), and meet every ſpring, to proportion the payments for the enſuing year. On the traders they uſually impoſe forty, fifty, or ſixty pounds ſterling; and upon others of a meaner condition, as ſhoemakers, taylors, &c. five or ſix pounds, and on no houſekeeper leſs than fifteen ſhillings: beſides quartering the guards, inferior officers and ſervants of the court, with other leſſer charges; which altogether would be thought a great burden, even in richer countries: neither is it otherwiſe eſteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can ſcarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as well in cuſtoms as in the trade of the place; which muſt needs paſs through their hands: for the natives of other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners, are obliged to deal only with the burghers; except thoſe of the gentry, who make iron; they having the privilege to ſell it to ſtrangers as ſoon as it is manufactured.

Stockholm is in a manner the ſtaple of Sweden; to which moſt of the goods of their own growth, as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, maſts, deals, &c. are brought to be exported. The greateſt part of the commodities imported from abroad come to this port, where there is a haven capable to receive one thouſand ſail of ſhips, and has a bridge or key near an Engliſh mile long, to which the greateſt veſſels may lie with their broad-ſides. The only inconvenience is, that it is ten miles from the ſea, the river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the Baltick, but is of dangerous acceſs, by reaſon of the rocks; within, it is one of the moſt commodious in Europe; for the ſhips of the largeſt ſize lie cloſe to the key, where they are ſo ſecure from the wind, that they need neither anchors nor cables to hold them. Its entrance is defended by two forts.

The city of Upſal ſtands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala, which falls into the lake of Ekolon, and is forty-two miles diſtant from Stockholm towards the north-weſt. It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the north, and the ſeat of the king. It is divided into two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and is ſo hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept there upon the ice in that month. The town is large, but without any conſiderable fortifications. Here is to be ſeen the fineſt church in the whole kingdom; namely, the cathedral. It is all covered with copper, and adorned with ſeveral tombs, eſpecially thoſe of many kings. In the chapel behind the altar, ſtands the monument of king Guſtavus in marble, between the ſtatues of his two wives, who lie alſo buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigiſmund III. king of Poland: it is made of white marble. Above the city, on a ſteep hill, there is a beautiful caſtle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble proſpect over the city, which it commands.

This city was at firſt a biſhop's ſee, and was created into an archbiſhopric by pope Alexander III. at the requeſt of king Charles, ſucceſſor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the firſt archbiſhop of this ſee; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refuſed to admit the Lutherian confeſſion, and removed to Rome, was the twenty-ſixth. Since his time there have been only proteſtant archbiſhops, who do not live with the ſame pomp and magnificence as the Roman catholic prelates uſed to do; for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of four or five hundred people on horſeback to attend them.

In the univerſity of Upſal there is a chancellor, who is always a great miniſter of ſtate; a vice-chancellor, always the archbiſhop; a rector, choſen out of the profeſſors, of whom there are about twenty that have each one hundred and twenty pounds a year ſalary. The ordinary number of ſtudents is about ſeven or eight hundred, fifty of which are maintained by the king, and ſome few others were formerly by perſons of quality. The reſt, that cannot ſubſiſt of themſelves, ſpend the vacation in gathering the charities of the dioceſe they belong to, which is commonly given them in corn, butter, dried fiſh or fleſh, &c. upon which they ſubſiſt at the univerſity the reſt of the year. They do not live collegiately, but in private houſes, wear no gowns, nor obſerve any other diſcipline than what they are led to by their own neceſſity or diſpoſition.

The town of Engkoping is a place of conſiderable trade: it ſtands about twenty-five miles from Stockholm, to the weſtward, and twenty-four from Upſal to the ſouth, on the lake Maeler.

Sudermania is the next diviſion of Sweden Proper: it is ſeparated from Upland, on the north by the lake Maeler; bounded, on the ſouth, by Eaſt Gothland; on the weſt by Nericia; and by the Baltick, on the eaſt. It is a populous country, extending ſixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth; fruitful in corn, wines, and timber, of which laſt many ſhips are built in this province. It is divided into Sudermania Proper, and the iſland of Feren, formed by the lake Maeler and Rekarne. It produces abundance of corn, and has ſeveral mines.

The capital city of this province, called Nicoping, ſtands on the Baltick, forty-eight miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm. It has a good harbour, and a caſtle, in which the dukes of Sudermania uſed to reſide, and is a place of ſome trade.

The ſmall town of Strengthneſs is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the lake Maeler, and is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the metropolitan of Upſal. Oppoſite to the town, an annual fair is held upon the ice. Some Gothic inſcriptions in the Runic character evince the antiquity of

the place. Charles IX. lies buried in the cathedral, which is an an antient Gothic edifice.

About forty miles from Stockholm is ſituated the town of Troſa, or Treſen, which has a very good harbour.

Weſtmania, Weſtermania, or Weſtmanland, is a very barren province; its greateſt length, from ſouth-eaſt, to north-weſt, is about ninety miles, and it is about three-ſcore miles in breadth from north to ſouth. The country is barren, but was formerly conſiderable by its ſilver mines.

The capital of Weſtmania is Aroſon: it is ſituated on the ſide of the lake Maeler, between Koping and Engkoping, about thirty-five miles from Stockholm. The hereditary convention was ſettled here in the year 1544, by which the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden was ſettled in the family of Guſtavus Vaſa. This city is a biſhop's ſee, and well defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

The town of Arbogen is ſituated on the little river Arbon, which falls into the lake Maeler; it is about ſixty miles to the weſtward of Stockholm. Koping is a ſmall town between Aroſon and Arbogen, and there are ſome tolerable mines of iron and copper in its neighbourhood. Nora is another ſmall town at the diſtance of twenty-eight miles to the weſtward of Arbogen. Lindeſzas is ſituated to the eaſtward of the Lindenberg mines: it is an inconſiderable place, and built near a rivulet, which diſembogues itſelf into the lake Maeler.

Nericia is bounded on the eaſt, by Sudermania; on the north by Weſtmania; on the ſouth by Eaſt Gothland; and on the weſt by part of Weſt Gothland, and the northern extremity of the lake Vetter, or Veter. This province contains ſeveral lakes end rivers, of which the river Troſa ſeparates the country into two parts, from weſt to eaſt. Silver mines were formerly worked in this province, but at preſent it produces only iron, ſulphur, and allum. The chief places here, and which are not very conſiderable, are Arebro, Hellſmerberg, Aſkerſcind, and Glanſhamme.

Geſtricia is ſituated between Dalecarlia, the Bothnian gulf, and the rivers Tynea and Dala. This province contains three towns, namely, Gevalia, Borna, and Corperberget: the former, being at the mouth of the river Haſunda, which forms a gulf that ſerves as a good harbour; carries on a conſiderable trade, but the two latter contain nothing very remarkable.

Helſingia is a very extenſive province, being bounded on the north by Jemptia and Medolpadia; on the weſt and ſouth-weſt by Dalecarlia; on the ſouth by Geſtricia; and on the eaſt by the Bothnian gulf. The inhabitants employ themſelves principally in fiſhing and hunting: the country is mountainous and woody. Hudwickſwald is the capital of this province, and is ſituated near the Bothnian gulf: roſin, corn, timber, and hides, are its principal commodities, in which it carries on a conſiderable traffic.

The town of Soderhamn has a good haven belonging to it, formed by the mouth of the river Luiſpa; the other towns, viz. Hien, Swegh, Korbole, Luſdal, and Alta, are of very little importance.

Delecarlia, or Dalecarlia, is bounded on the weſt and north by the mountains of Norway; on the eaſt by Helſingia and Geſtricia; and, on the weſt by Weſtermania and Weſtmanland. This province is one hundred and ſixty-five miles in length, and one hundred in breadth: it is ſubdivided into what are called three vallies; yet though it is ſo extenſive, it contains only a few very inconſiderable villages. The mountains abound with iron and copper, and ſome of the mines are extremely deep. It hath been frequently obſerved, that the greateſt number of the revolutions in Sweden have originated in this province; on which account the inhabitants have been characterized as more courageous, bold, and ferocious than any of the Swedes, as well as poſſeſſed of a more liberal ſpirit of independency.

The principal villages are, 1. Idra, on the river Elſinam, one of the ſprings of the Dala, or Dalecarlia, which runs into the Silian lake. This town is one hundred and twenty-ſix miles diſtant from Hudwickſwald to the weſt. 2. Lima is thirty-ſix miles from Idra to the ſouth; and 3. Hedemora, on the river Dala, near the borders of Weſtermania, is forty-two miles diſtant from Upſal.

Medolpadia is a very mountainous country, and full of foreſts; it has the gulf of Bothnia on the eaſt, Angermani on the north, Jempterland on the north-weſt, and Helſingia on the ſouth-weſt. It is watered by three rivers, the moſt northern of which is called Indal, and runs through the whole province lengthways. The moſt meridional one is named Niſarund. The third, which runs betwixt theſe two, is the ſmalleſt. Beſides theſe, there is a rivulet called Stamming-Back, which waters the ſouthern borders of this province. The ſea-coaſt here is about forty miles long, and full of rocks, to the ſouth of Sundſwald, the capital of this province, at the mouth of the middle river, with a pretty good harbour. Other places of ſome note are, Haſio, a ſea-port town; at the mouth of the river Indal, over-againſt which lies the iſland of Alvon. Nirunda, alſo a ſea-port town on the Niſarund. Trop and Tuna ſtand higher up on the ſame river. Tors, Indal, and Carlobec, on the river Indal. Anas, Sion, and Guarp, lie on the ſame coaſt.

Angermania, or Angermanland, is bounded on the north by Weſt Bothnia and Lapland; on the eaſt, by the gulf of Bothnia: on the ſouth by Medolpadia; and, on the weſt by Jempterland. It is above ninety miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The river Anger-man-Flodt runs through it. But it is a mountainous and rocky country, full of rocks and foreſts; ſo that there are here very few villages, and but one town of ſome note, which is Hernoſand, on the Bothnick gulf, where it has a pretty good harbour, which affords it ſome trade. It lies about ſeventy miles from Hudwickſwald to the north. Natra, in the ſame province, ſtands on a bay of the ſame gulf, forty-five miles diſtant from Hernoſand to the north.

Jemptia, Inipdia, or Jempterland, has Lapland on the north; Angermania on the eaſt; Medolpadia, Helſingia, and Dalecarlia, on the ſouth; and the high mountains of Norway on the weſt. It is watered by two pretty conſiderable rivers; namely, the Indal, which forms in the middle of this province a large lake, and runs into Medolpadia, and the Hamerdal, which runs from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and enters into Angermania. Here are no cities, but only a few villages and hamlets; the moſt conſiderable of which are Reſſund, a fortreſs ſixty-ſix miles diſtant from Hernoſand towards the weſt. Lidh, or Lida, reckoned the chief place of this province, ſtands about twenty miles north of Reſſund.

Weſt Bothnia, thus called to diſtinguiſh it from Cajania, which lies on the other ſide of the gulf, and is ſometimes called Eaſt Bothnia, lies along the northern part of the gulf, thence called the Bothnick gulf, which bounds it on the eaſt: it has Angermania on the ſouth, and is ſurrounded by Swediſh Lapland on the weſt and north. That part of this province which lies along the coaſt, is pretty well peopled, and has many villages, but few towns of any note. The country is well watered by ſeveral rivers which ariſe from the lakes in Lapland. The chief of theſe rivers going from ſouth to north are, Uma, Skellefta, Pitha, Lula, Rana, Torno, and Rimi; the laſt of which, together with the gulf, divide Weſt from Eaſt Bothnia.

The chief towns here are, Uma, on the gulf, at the mouth of the river of that name, about ninety-ſix miles from Hernoſand to the north-eaſt. Pitha, at the mouth of the river of that name, about eighty miles north from Uma. Lula, alſo at the mouth of a river of that name, eighteen miles from Pitha to the north. Torno, at the mouth of the river thus called, fifty-four miles diſtant from Lula to the north-eaſt, ſtands at the bottom of the gulf of Bothnia, near the borders of Lapland. It is a place of ſome trade, and has a good harbour.

SECT. III.

Deſcribing the Second Grand Diviſion of SWEDEN called GOTHLAND.

GOTHLAND, or Gothia, is a large fruitful country, and the moſt ſouthern of all Sweden: it compriſes Eaſt Gothland, Weſt Gothland, and South Gothland.

The firſt of theſe, called Eaſt Gothland Proper, includes the country properly ſo called Smaland, and the iſland of Ocland. It is a fertile, open, flat country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, veniſon, fiſh, &c. and is bounded on the north by Sudermania; on the eaſt by the Baltick; on the weſt by the lake Vetter, or Veter; and on the ſouth by Smaland.

Norkoping is the chief town. It ſtands about ſeventy miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm, on the bank of a ſtream which runs from the lake Vetter to the gulf of Brawiken. The town is populous, large, and hath conſiderable commerce. It is likewiſe celebrated for a ſalmon fiſhery, by which many people are maintained.

The town of Sudercoping carries on ſome trade; it ſtands on a branch of the ſea, about ſixteen miles from the Baltick; is unfortified; but has been remarkable for ſome curious

curious cryſtal ſtones which have been found in the neighbouring places.

Stegeburg ſtands ten miles to the eaſtward of Sudercoping: it is a ſmall town, has ſome commerce, and a tolerable harbour.

The town of Waſtena, or Vadſtan, is ſituated on the eaſtern bank of the lake Vetter, at twenty-five miles diſtance from, and is only remarkable for the ruins of, an antient royal palace.

The town of Smaland is ſituated between Eaſt Gothland, the Baltick, Bleking, and Halland. It is ſeventy miles in length, and about ſeventy-five in breadth, and abounds in cattle, wood, iron, copper, lead, and other uſeful articles.

Calmar, which is the capital of this province, is a conſiderable city, ſituated on a ſtrait of the Baltick formed by the iſle of Oeland, which lies over-againſt it. That ſtrait is called from thence Calmar Sund. This city is one hundred and ſixty miles diſtant from Stockholm towards the ſouth. It is divided into the Old and New town: Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were ſettled on the head of queen Margaret. This is called in hiſtory the union of Calmar. Erick, Margaret's ſucceſſor, founded thirteen prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the diviſion of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard of the Danes, who were in poſſeſſion of Schonen. It was often taken, retaken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, it was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547, nothing eſcaped the fire but the church, and about threeſcore houſes. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a muſquet-ſhot's diſtance from the old town, in a little iſland called Owarnholm.

This new city is large, the ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, and houſes well built; but the town is not populous. The new fortifications conſiſt only of thick walls built with large pebble ſtones taken out of the ſea, and a few ramparts, built only with ſand, and therefore ſupported by another wall, which the ſea ſurrounds almoſt on all ſides, except the gate. The ſituation of this city renders it very ſtrong, all the avenues to it being full of marſhes, or cut off by water from the ſea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, ſo many abyſſes, that it is impoſſible to approach the place either in boats, on horſeback, or on foot. On the ſea ſide there is a long mole, built with ſtone; along which boats and ſhips ride ſecure. This mole is defended by a fortreſs called Grimſkar, built at about fifty paces from it, on a rock ſurrounded by the ſea, and where a garriſon is conſtantly kept. Behind the old town ſtands the caſtle, which is of a very difficult acceſs, having on one ſide the ſea, which is full of rocks; and on the other good ramparts, large baſtions, and ditches full of water. This city is at preſent the reſidence a ſuperintendant for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public conſiſtory of the kingdom.

About ſeventy miles diſtant from Calmar towards the north-weſt, ſtands Weſterwick, a ſea-port town of good trade on the Baltick.

On the banks of the lake Salen, and forty-five miles diſtant from Calmar, towards the north-weſt, is Wexio, a biſhop's ſee, where ſome of the firſt plaſters of Chriſtianity lie buried; and the ſame number of miles to the weſt, and eighteen from the lake Vetter to the eaſt, the town of Ekeſio is ſituated.

The town of Jonkioping is ſituated on a bank of the lake Vetter, about ſixty miles north-weſt of Calmar. It is without walls or ditches, but defended by a citadel, which is ſurrounded by ramparts. It is rather a briſk place, as the lake on which it ſtands affords it ſome trade. The ingenious Mr. Wraxall, a very late traveller into the northern parts of Europe, has favoured us with a very intereſting and curious account of his journey from Helſinberg (the firſt town belonging to the Swediſh dominions on the ſide of Denmark) to this place; from which we ſhall, for the ſatisfaction of our readers, tranſcribe ſome of the moſt material paſſages: his letter is dated from Jonkioping, May 18, 1774.

He thus expreſſes himſelf: "I croſſed the celebrated paſſage of the Sound, though it blew very freſh. We were over in little more than half an hour. At Helſinberg, where I entered the Swediſh dominions, I had the pleaſure of viewing the beautiful landſkip reverſed which I had ſeen the preceding evening from the iſland of Zealand. Which of the two is the moſt charming, I leave connoiſſeurs to determine. I drove twenty miles in the afternoon; and was then obliged, by the approach of night, and the want of horſes, to ſtop at a miſerable little inn, or rather cabin, where I could procure nothing beſides milk: I lay down five hours in my cloaths, and then got into the carriage at three o'clock in the morning. Had I underſtood properly the manner of travelling in this country, which is, to ſend a peaſant forward from every poſt-houſe, to procure horſes in readineſs, I ſhould have doubtleſs made a conſiderable progreſs in my way; but as I neglected this neceſſary ſtep, I was obliged to wait at every ſtage an hour or two, while the horſes were brought from the neighbouring villages. I was forced to ſpend this night in a more deſolate and dirty hovel than the firſt, where I wrapped myſelf up in my great coat, and ſlept upon a table. In the morning, when I continued my journey, the whole aſpect of nature was changed. The ſnow lay upon the ground two feet deep, and the winter ſeemed to have renewed its empire over theſe inhoſpitable plains, from whence the ſmiling month of May cannot baniſh him.

"In the hope of reaching Jonkioping at night, I ſat out, however, in defiance of the inclemency of the weather, which, from having been very warm, was become in a few hours as cold and piercing as our Decembers. The drivers ſeemed totally unaffected by this ſudden alteration, which did not produce any in their dreſs or cloathing; and the peaſants, both men and women, were all barefooted as before. The ſnow, however, conſpiring with the want of horſes, prevented me from reaching Jonkioping; and I ſtaid all night at a houſe, which for horror of ſituation I never remember paralleled. It is quite detached from any village or hamlet, and the ſpot on which it ſtands is a bare rock, deſtitute of any covering or earth, and ſurrounded on every ſide by the deepeſt woods it is poſſible to conceive, and in which I had not ſeen one human creature for two leagues before my arrival. Yet, in this ſituation, fatigue made me ſleep very ſound, and my ſervant by me, till three in the morning, when, with the return of day I entered my carriage, and left this moſt melancholy and wretched habitation.

"The next morning, about ten o'clock, I arrived at Jonkioping, and gladly enjoyed a few hours of relaxation, after ſo many pleaſing occurrences. It is difficult to give a picture of the country through which I paſſed from Helſinberg, the colours of which you will not imagine are heightened by fancy or invention. The firſt twenty miles exhibited ſome few marks of cultivation and agriculture; and though there was not one collection of huts or houſes, which could be denominated a village, yet ſcattered cottages, and a little ploughed land, amidſt an immenſe waſte, informed the paſſenger that it was not totally unoccupied or unpeopled. But as I advanced farther into the province of Scamia, and afterwards into that of Smaland, even theſe faint traces of human reſidence vaniſhed. Groves of fir or aſpin covered the country; and in the courſe of ſixty miles, I can ſafely aſſure you I ſaw not an hundred people, and not ten hamlets; but there are not any villages. I have driven from one ſtage to another, of twelve or fourteen Engliſh miles, without meeting or ſeeing a ſingle perſon, though, in hopes of diſcerning the countenances of man, I impatiently caſt my eyes around on every ſide.

"The firs on either ſide the road, in many places, formed avenues as noble as thoſe which are often planted at the entrance to palaces, or noblemens ſeats; and through the whole was ſpread a kind of rude and gloomy magnificence, which, ſuperadded to their ſilence and lonelineſs, very ſtrongly affected the mind. Even the birds ſeem to have abandoned theſe dreary foreſts; and I heard or ſaw none, except wood-peckers, and now-and-then a cuckoo. I enquired if they did not afford refuge to wolves or bears, as theſe animals are commonly found in thoſe places and countries which want population; but the peaſants aſſured me, that the former were only in ſmall numbers, and rarely ſeen; and that there are not any bears.

"With reſpect to the peaſants, they are civil and humble to obſequiouſneſs, grateful for the third part of a halfpenny, and infinitely leſs uncivilized and barbarous than one would be tempted to ſuppoſe, from the appearance of every thing around them. Had I not taken the precaution to carry wine and proviſions with me, I muſt have been almoſt ſtarved in my journey through theſe miſerable provinces, where the peaſants are ſtrangers to every kind of aliment, except bread, and ſalt pork or fiſh. It is indeed a queſtion whether the former of theſe deſerves the name of bread, as it is a compound of rye and oats; among which

which they mingle, in times of dearth and famine, a kind of flour made of the internal bark of trees raſped: it is of a colour approaching to black, and of a very diſagreeable taſte.

"The ſervant that attended me, who is a German, and has wandered over half Europe in various ſervices, was quite tired with four days of ſuch miſerable accommodation, and exclaimed, in a rapture, at the ſight of this place, that it was, "le paradis terreſtre." It is indeed, of itſelf, a very neat country town, and moſt delightfully ſituated on the lake Vetter. I am juſt returned from looking down from the top of the church on it, and the ſurrounding meadows, which are all cultivated, and after the deſarts I have paſſed, are peculiarly grateful to the eye. The lake itſelf, which is near an hundred Engliſh miles in length, rather reſembles the ſea, than a piece of inland water, and extends, far beyond the view, to the north."

We ſhall give an account of Ocland, being an iſland, when we come to treat of the iſles belonging to Sweden.

The province of Weſt-Gothland is very extenſive, having Smaland on the ſouth-eaſt, Halland on the ſouth-weſt; the river Gothelba on the north-weſt, by which it is parted from the government of Bahus, and the province of Dalia; on the north, it has the lake Wenner, and part of Vermeland; and on the eaſt, it has part of Nericia, and the lake Vetter, which divides it from Eaſt-Gothland Proper. It is watered by a great many lakes and rivers, and abounds with excellent paſtures, where great numbers of cattle are bred, and by the ſale of which the country is enriched.

In this province are ſeveral conſiderable towns, the principal of which is Gottenburg, which ſtands on the Schager Rack, or Categate, on the ſouthern branch of the river Gothelba, which there falls into the ſea, and forms the harbour of this city. It is one hundred and ſeventy miles diſtant from Calmar towards the weſt, and two hundred and twenty-five from Stockholm to the ſouth-weſt. It is no antient town, being built in the year 1607, under the reign of king Charles IX. His ſucceſſors have granted it great privileges, by which it is become a conſiderable mart-town. The Dutch drive a large trade here. In the war of 1644, the Danes exerted their utmoſt efforts to ruin this city, but to no purpoſe; and it has been ſo well fortified ſince, that it is now one of the ſtrongeſt maritime towns in the kindom.

The Swedes have of late years eſtabliſhed an Eaſt-India company at Gottenburg, whence they ſend ſome ſhips annually to China, and to the coaſts of Coromandel and Malabar. They have no kind of merchandize to ſend from Sweden to India, except ſome iron and copper, and theſe articles they cannot find a market for in any conſiderable quantity; ſo that the greateſt part of their cargo muſt be paid for in ſpecie. How far this part of trade is beneficial for Sweden, where there is ſo little ſpecie, and where the merchants are obliged to procure ſilver at a conſiderable premium, muſt be left to the judgment of the reader. If the cargoes of the Eaſt-India ſhips, which are landed in Sweden, were for the conſumption of that kingdom, this branch of commerce would ſoon bring the inhabitants to deſtruction. But we find, by the cuſtom-houſe books of Gottenburg, that they export Eaſt-India goods to the amount of two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling yearly; which are ſmuggled into Scotland and Ireland, and entered regularly into ſeveral ports of the Baltick, to Hamburg and to Bremen, which is rather more than the prime coſt and freight of all the goods they bring from India, and, conſequently, Sweden has her own conſumption free of all charges; and as long as the merchants of this kingdom can find a market for the ſurplus of their Eaſt-India goods, this trade cannot be detrimental to them, but the contrary. The uniting the Iſle of Man to the crown of Great Britain was a terrible blow to the Swediſh and Daniſh companies, as the merchants of Gottenburg, and thoſe of Copenhagen had in that iſland conſiderable magazines of Eaſt-India goods.

Skara, Skaren, or Skar, is a biſhop's ſee, about twelve miles diſtant from the lake Wenner to the ſouth, and eighty-four from Gottenburg to the north-weſt, was the ſeat of the antient kings of Sweden, and had a palace, one of the ſtatelieſt not only in the north, but in all Europe, as may ſtill be judged by its ſituation, walls, and ſtructure. It is now a fenceleſs town, though formerly the metropolis of Weſt-Gothland. Near the lake Wenner, and the antient palace we have been mentioning, ſtands the mountain called Kindakulle, which is very high, and produces all kinds of herbs and plants, except vines. Every thing grows there naturally; and this mountain, which may be reckoned one of the moſt fruitful in the north, is alſo one of the moſt delightful, by the ſweet warbling of an infinite number of birds that frequent it.

The town of Linkoping, which implies the mart of Lida, ſtands on the lake Wenner, at the mouth of the river Lida, which there falls into the lake. It is fifteen miles diſtant from Skara.

The town of Falcoping ſtands on the ſouth bank of a little lake which empties itſelf into the river Lida; it is twenty miles north from Skara.

On the eaſtern bank of the lake Wenner ſtands Mariaſtadt, being thirty miles diſtant from Linkoping, to the north-eaſt. This town had its name from Mary-Anne, conſort to king Charles IX. who built it.

Theſe three laſt cities are not very conſiderable at preſent.

The province of Vermeland, or Wermeland, has Dalecarlia on the north; Weſtermania and Nericia, on the eaſt; the lake Wenner, on the ſouth; and Norway, with part of Dalia, on the weſt. Its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about ninety-ſeven miles; and from north to ſouth, about one hundred and forty-four. It has a great many lakes and marſhes, is but indifferently cultivated, and thinly peopled. Here are one copper, and ſeveral iron mines.

The chief towns are, 1. Carloſtad or Carlſtad, which ſtands on the northern bank of the lake Wenner, one hundred and twenty miles weſt from Stockholm. It was built by Charles IX. king of Sweden, in the place of the antient city of Tingwalla. 2. Philipſtad, about twenty-five miles from Carloſtad, to the north-eaſt. This is a place of difficult acceſs, being ſeated amongſt brooks and marſhes. 3. Ruſcoy is about the ſame diſtance from Philipſtad, ſouthward.

The province of Dalia, which the Swedes ſpell Daal, is one of the ſmalleſt in the kingdom; has the lake Wenner on the eaſt, Weſt-Gothland Proper, on the ſouth-eaſt; the government of Bahus, and port or Aggerhuus, on the weſt and north-weſt; and Vermeland, on the north-eaſt. Its extent, from north to ſouth, is about eighty-four miles, and from eaſt to weſt, not above twenty-four. It is full of mountains; and has ſeveral lakes and rivers, which fall into the lake Wenner. The country is in general barren; though in ſome places there are pretty good paſtures for cattle, which are of a larger ſize than ordinary.

The places of moſt note in this province, are, 1. Daleburg, which is the chief place in this province, and ſtands on the weſtern bank of the lake Wenner, ſixty miles from Gottenburg, towards the north-eaſt. 2. Tweta, on the ſame lake, twenty miles more to the northward.

South Gothland is divided into three provinces; namely, Halland, Schonen, and Bleking. It hath Eaſt and Weſt Gothland, on the north, and is ſurrounded every-where elſe by the ſea.

The province of Halland has the ſea of Denmark, or Categate, to the ſouth-weſt; Schonen, on the ſouth; and part of Eaſt Gothland and Weſt Gothland, on the north-eaſt and north. Its extent, along the ſea coaſt, is about ſeventy-five miles; but its greateſt breadth is not above twenty-two miles. This is a pleaſant and fruitful country, which belonged formerly to Denmark, but was, in 1645, engaged to the Swedes, as a ſecurity for a free paſſage of the Sound: and was afterwards, by the treaty of Roſchild, ceded to them for ever.

The principal towns are, 1. Halmſtad, the capital of this province, which ſtands on the Categate, one hundred and forty miles from Calmar, to the weſt; and forty-ſix from Gottenburg to the ſouth. It has a good harbour, and is a place of trade. It was fortified by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, but given up to Sweden by the treaty of Bromſbro, in 1645. 2. Laholm, a ſmall town on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Laga, eighteen miles diſtant from Halmſtad, to the ſouth-eaſt. It has a citadel, and a good harbour. 3. Falkenberg, on the ſame ſea, at the mouth of a large river of the ſame name, is eighteen miles diſtant from Halmſtad, to the north-weſt. It is a ſea-port, defended by a caſtle. 4. Warberg, a ſmall town with a ſtrong caſtle and a large harbour, is twenty-ſeven miles diſtant from Halmſtad, towards the north; and twenty ſouthward of Gottenburg.

The province of Schonen, which is a peninſula, is ſeparated from Zealand by the Sound, which waſhes its coaſt, on the weſt; it is bounded, on the north, partly by Halland, and partly by Smaland; on the eaſt, by part of Bleking, and the Baltick ſea, which waters it alſo on the ſouth. It is about eighty miles from north to ſouth,

ſouth, and about ſixty from eaſt to weſt. As it is the moſt ſouthern, it is alſo the moſt fruitful province, abounding with corn, cattle, fowl, and all the conveniences of life. It has alſo mines of ſilver, lead, and iron.

This province is liable to be the theatre of war, whenever a rupture happens between Sweden and Denmark, becauſe of the vicinity of theſe two kingdoms. It belonged formerly to the Danes, but was yielded to the Swedes, in 1660. The Danes ſeized again the greateſt part of it, in 1676 and 1677, but were obliged to reſtore it the Swedes by the treaty concluded at Fontainbleau, in France, September 16, 1679.

The city of Lunden, the capital of this province, is but a few miles diſtant from the ſea-ſhore, and ſtands over-againſt Copenhagen, from which it is about twenty-four miles diſtant, to the eaſt; one hundred and twenty from Gottenburg, to the ſouth; and about two hundred and ſeventy-three from Stockholm, to the ſouth-weſt. It was formerly the ſee of an archbiſhop; but in 1658, when the Swedes took the city, that dignity was removed to Copenhagen; and it is now only an epiſcopal ſee. It was adorned with an univerſity erected by Charles IX. in 1668, and which has produced eminent men; and, particularly, the celebrated Samuel Puffendorf: but this univerſity has been ſuppreſſed, as we have obſerved above. This was formerly a very conſiderable city, in which were twenty-two churches, whereof the cathedral of St. Laurence is a magnificent ſtructure, having a very high ſpire, which is a landmark for ſailors; and a clock, of the moſt ingenious contrivance, ſaid to be the work of Caſpar Bartholinus. It not only ſhews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the feſtivals, but the movements are ſo artificially contrived, that, at the hour, two horſemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving ſo many blows as the hammer is to ſtrike upon the bell: then a door opens, diſcovering the Virgin Mary ſitting on a throne, with Chriſt in her arms, and the magi, or wiſe men, paying their homage, while two trumpeters ſound a note of triumph. Near the city is a hill, on which the kings of Sweden uſed to be elected in antient times.

The town of Malmoe is populous, though ſmall: it is ſituated on the Sound, and enjoys a conſiderable ſhare of commerce. Landſkroon is likewiſe ſituated upon the Sound; has a good harbour, much commerce, is ſtrong, and well fortified. Elſinburg, alſo ſituated on the Sound, is a place of conſiderable trade; but the fortifications are gone to ruin at preſent.

Bleking is ſituated between Smaland, Schonen, and the Baltick. This province ſtretches above eighty miles in length from eaſt to weſt; and is about fifty from north to ſouth, at the broadeſt part. The coaſts are rocky, and the interior parts mountainous, woody and barren.

The chief towns in this province are, 1. Chriſtianſtadt, which is eight miles from the ſea, and ſituated in the midſt of moraſſes: it has been ſeveral times taken and retaken in the courſe of the wars with Denmark. 2. Chriſtianople, once the capital of this province: it had formerly a good harbour, which Charles XI. took a great deal of pains to ruin, and render uſeleſs. 3. Ahuys, ſituated on the Baltick, at the mouth of the river Hellean: it has a ſafe, capacious, and much-frequented harbour. 4. Carlſcroon, ſituated on a ſmall iſland, which it entirely covers; it is joined to the continent by a long bridge. It is near forty-ſix miles to the eaſt of Ahuys, has an excellent harbour, and is well fortified. There is another ſmall ſea port, called Carſholm, between this place and Ahuys.

The next grand diviſion of Sweden is Finland, which is about three hundred and eighty-ſix miles in length, from north to ſouth, and two hundred and fifteen from eaſt to weſt: it is bounded by the Bothnian gulf, part of Ruſſia, and part of Lapland. It abounds in grain, cattle, fiſh, &c. of which exports are made to other parts of the kingdom; it likewiſe furniſhes other provinces with butter, cheeſe, &c. The inhabitants ſpeak a very peculiar dialect, ſo as to be ſcarcely intelligible to the Swedes of other provinces; and their religion is, for the moſt part, the Lutheran.

Till about the middl eof the thirteenth century, the Finlanders had kings of their own: but they were at that time ſubdued by Erick IX. king of Sweden; however, part of the province of Savolax, all that of Kexholm, a portion of Carlia, and the fortreſs of Nyſlot, were ceded for ever to Ruſſia, by the treaty of Abo, in 1743.

This country is divided into ſeven provinces, viz. Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kexholm, Savolax, Tavaſtia, and Cajania.

The town of Abo, which is the capital of the whole duchy, and of Finland Proper in particular, is ſituated on the Bothnic gulf, at the mouth of the river Aurojoki, oppoſite to the iſle of Aland. The town is the ſee of a biſhop; and here is a univerſity; which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Chriſtina.

A very late traveller, in a letter to a friend, thus remarks, concerning this town, "There is not any thing in Abo which has entertained me in the ſurvey, or can amuſe you by the deſcription. It is a wretched capital of a barbarous province. The houſes are almoſt all of wood, and the archiepiſcopal place is compoſed of no better materials, except that it is painted red. I inquired if there was not any thing in the univerſity to merit attention; but they aſſured me it would be regarded as a piece of ridicule to viſit it on ſuch an errand, there being nothing within its walls except a very ſmall library, and a few philoſophical inſtruments." The town, however, derives ſome trade from its harbour, in the neighbourhood of which is a rock ſurrounded by the water. It is ſingular, that when any ſhip paſſes this rock, the needle no longer points towards the north; from whence a vulgar conjecture hath ariſen, that the rock contains a loadſtone mine.

The other towns of Finland Proper, namely, Biorno, Hangant, Bioneburg, and Nyſtadt, are exceedingly inconſiderable.

Nylandia hath South Finland Proper, on the weſt, Tavaſtia on the north, the river Kimen on the eaſt, and the gulf of Finland on the ſouth. This province contains the following towns: 1. Helſingfors, the capital of this province: it is a ſmall town, ſituated on a gulf of the ſame name, at the mouth of the river Winda, which falls here into the gulf of Finland. It lies over-againſt the city of Revel, and is about ninety miles diſtant from Abo towards the eaſt. It has a pretty good harbour, and a very large fortreſs, lately built, which is garriſoned by about eight thouſand men. 2. Burgo; which is a ſmall and not very populous, but antient town on the coaſt of the Finnic gulf, on the eaſtern bank of a little river: it ſtands over-againſt the iſle of Paling, and is twenty-one miles diſtant from Helſingfors to the north-eaſt; and has a ſmall harbour. 3. Raſeburg, a little town, the capital of an earldom of the ſame name, ſtands on the gulf of Finland, thirty-eight miles from Helſingfors to the weſt, and forty-eight from Abo to the ſouth-eaſt. 4. Ekenes, that is to ſay, the peninſula of oaks, ſtands on the ſame gulf, about ſix miles from Raſeburg to the ſouth-weſt. This town is very dangerous of acceſs, on account of the many rocks and ſhelves that are before it.

Carelia is a very fruitful province, and extends, from eaſt to weſt, about one hundred and fifty miles. The principal towns are, 1. Wyburg, which is ſituated at the bottom of the gulf of Finland, is a biſhop's ſee, has conſiderable trade, is well fortified, commanded by a caſtle, and greatly benefited by having a good harbour. 2. Mala, which ſtands on a ſmall bay, that communicates with the lake Ladoga. 3. Wekelao is a very ſmall poor place, and, 5. Wilmanſtradt, which belongs to the Ruſſian dominions.

Kexholm is a very extenſive, but unfertile province, containing many large lakes and barren mountains. It is bounded, on the north, by part of Lapland; on the eaſt, by part of Ruſſia and the Onega lake; on the weſt, by Savolax; and on the ſouth, by the lake Ladoga.

In this province are only the two following towns of any note; namely, Kexholm, from which the province has its name, is called by the Ruſſians, Carelogorod, and in Latin, Kexholmia, or Carelogroda. It is a ſmall city, ſituated among marſhes, on the weſtern bank of the Ladoga lake, ſixty miles from Wyburg to the north-eaſt. It is defended by a very ſtrong citadel, and was formerly, with the whole province, ſubject to the Ruſſians, till about the beginning of the laſt century, when the czar promiſed Charles IX. king of Sweden, to ſurrender the town and province to him, if he would aſſiſt him againſt the Poles, by whom he was then cloſely beſet; but being freed from the danger, he refuſed to perform his promiſe; which made the Swedes invade his dominions, and obliged him to yield up by treaty, in the year 1616, not only this town and country, but alſo the moſt conſiderable places in Ingria. But in the late wars the Ruſſians have taken all again, as we obſerved above.

The town of Lexa, in the north part of this province, ſtands on the banks of a lake, one hundred and twenty miles diſtant from Kexholm to the north.

Savolax, an inland province, has Cajania on the north, the province of Kexholm on the eaſt, Carelia on the ſouth, and Tavaſtia on the weſt. It is a barren and deſert country, covered with foreſts, and abounding with lakes, which

afford its few inhabitants plenty of fish. It is divided into the greater and leſſer Savolax: the former, which lies towards the ſouth, contains five diſtricts. The eaſtern part of this province was yielded to the Ruſſians, by the late treaty of Abo.

The moſt conſiderable towns here are as follow: 1. Koſkimpe, or Koſnipe, the chief town of this province, ſtands on a lake, about ſeventy-five miles from Wyburg to the north. 2. Nyſlot, a ſtrong fort, is alſo ſeated on a lake, fifty miles from Koſkimpe to the eaſt. It was built in the year 1475, by Erick Axelſon, governor of Abo, and was of uſe againſt the invaſions of the Ruſſians, but belongs now to them. 3. Runal is named by Luytz as one of the chief towns of this province; but, by the maps, Saminge, which ſtands on the banks of the ſame lake, a few miles diſtant from Nyſlot to the ſouth, as Runal does about thirty more to the weſt, ſeems rather to deſerve that character.

Tavaſtia, or Tavaſtland, has Cajania on the north, and partly on the weſt, where it is alſo bounded by Finland, properly ſo called. It has Nyland on the ſouth, and Savolax on the eaſt. It is a marſhy country, and is divided, according to d'Audiffred, into four territories, called Sermaki by the inhabitants; namely, the diſtricts of Hattula, Hauho, Offre-Haredt, and Nedra-Haredt. Here are reckoned eight lakes, the moſt conſiderable of which is the Peinde. This country is not much cultivated nor populous: there are however iron mines, which afford a pretty conſiderable profit.

The moſt noted places are as follow: 1. Tavaſtus, the capital of the province, which borrows its name from it, otherwiſe called Croneburg, in Latin, Tavaſtia, or Croneburgum, is ſeated in the ſouthern part of the province, on a ſmall river, which a little lower falls into the lake Wana, about an hundred miles from Abo to the north-eaſt, and an hundred and twenty-ſix from Wyburg to the north-weſt. It is ſtrong, by its ſituation in a marſhy ground, which renders it of a very difficult acceſs. Martin Zeiller aſſerts, that Birger Jarl, a Swediſh general, fortified this city in 1250, in order to keep the inhabitants in awe, whom he had obliged to embrace the Chriſtian religion. 2. Sermaki, the moſt northern town of this province, near the borders of Cajania, is an hundred and ſixty-five miles diſtant from Tavaſtus to the north. 3. Hattula, forty-eight miles from Sarmaki to the ſouth. 4. Mahatan, fifteen miles from Hattula towards the ſouth-eaſt. 5. Rautalanby, on a branch of the lake Peinde, twelve miles from Hattula to the ſouth. 6. Jemſe, on the weſtern bank of the lake Peinde, thirty-ſix miles from Rautalanby to the ſouth-weſt. 7. Siſme, on the eaſtern bank of the ſame lake, forty miles from Jemſe to the ſouth-eaſt: and, 8. Padasjoki, over-againſt Siſme, on the ſame lake, forty miles from Tavaſtus to the north-eaſt; are ſmall towns of very little note.

The lake called Peinde, or Pe Jende, is about eighty miles long from north to ſouth, and communicates with ſeveral other lakes, particularly with that called Rotzlain, by means of which its waters run into the river Kymen, and ſo into the gulf of Finland.

Cajania, called by ſome Eaſt Bothnia, lies along the Bothnic gulf, which bounds it on the weſt; it has that part of Lapland called Kimi-Lapmark on the north; part of Muſcovite Lapland and Tavaſtia on the eaſt, and Finland Proper on the ſouth. It abounds with rivers, which empty themſelves into the gulf of Bothnia, and has ſeveral lakes; amongſt which there is a pretty large one, called Ula-Treſk, which receives the waters of ſeveral other lakes, and runs into the ſea, by means of the river Ula. This lake is about forty-five miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. In the midſt of it ſtands a little iſland, called Ula, about fifteen miles long, and nine miles broad. The northern and eaſtern parts of this province are covered with mountains, the reſt of the country is reaſonably fruitful.

The chief towns here are as follow: 1. Cajaneburg, the chief place of this province, from which it borrows its name, is ſituated on the north-eaſt ſide of the lake Ula-Treſk, about two hundred and ſeven miles from Tavaſtia towards the north, ninety-ſix from the coaſt of the Bothnic gulf to the eaſt, and about thirty from the neareſt borders of Lapland towards the ſouth-weſt. It is defended by a good citadel. 2. Ula, a little town at the mouth of the river to which it gives its name, ſtands on the Bothnic gulf, eighty-eight miles from Cajaneburg to the weſt. 3. Ulaburg, a fortified town, lies in a little iſland over-againſt the mouth of the river Ula. 4. 5. Carelby; there are two towns of that name, the one called Old Carelby, and the other New or Ny Carelby; they are both on the coaſt of the Bothnic gulf, the former about ſeventy, and the latter eighty-four miles from Ula to the ſouth. Between theſe two towns ſtands, 6. Jacobſtadt, ſix miles from Old Carelby to the ſouth, and eight from Ny Carelby to the north. 7. The ſmall town of Lockto is ſituated on the ſame coaſt, eight miles from Old Carelby to the north, near the mouth of the river Locktoa, which ſprings from a ridge of mountains that divide Cajania from Tavaſtia, and, being ſwelled by the waters of a lake, called Leſtjervi, runs to the north-weſt, and falls into the Bothnian gulf, between Locktoa and the rock called Kala. 8. Waſa, or, as the inhabitants of this country call it, Muſtaſar, is alſo a ſea-port town on the ſame gulf, ſixty miles from Old Carelby to the ſouth. It is the native place of the famous Guſtavus Vaſa, who reigned in Sweden with ſo much glory. 9. Chriſtianſtadt alſo ſtands on the gulf of Bothnia, is fifty miles from Biorneburg to the north, and fifteen miles diſtant from Waſa towards the ſouth.

SECT. IV.

Containing a Deſcription of thoſe Iſlands which form a Part of SWEDEN.

THE moſt conſiderable iſlands belonging to the king of Sweden are, 1. Gothland. 2. Oeland. 3. Oeſel. 4. Dago. 5. Hagland. 6. Aland. 7. Rugen.

Gothland or Gothia Inſula, is ſituated in the Baltick ſea, over-againſt the coaſt of Eaſt-Gothland in Sweden, from which it is about fifty-two miles diſtant, to the eaſt. It lies between fifty-ſeven and fifty-eight degrees of north latitude, and between eighteen degrees, thirty minutes, and twenty degrees of longitude eaſt of London. Its greateſt length, from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, is about fifty-ſix miles; but its breadth is not above eighteen miles, from eaſt to weſt. Olaus Magnus ſays, it was called Gothland, that is to ſay, Good Land, becauſe it is fruitful, abounding with all neceſſaries of life, and ſo well provided with all the bleſſings of nature, that it may be reckoned among the beſt iſlands in the north. It is, ſays he in another place, a good land, in ſeveral reſpects; the inhabitants are a good ſort of people; there are good harbours all round the coaſts; the ſoil is good, it abounds in paſtures, cattle, wild-fowl, fiſh, good water, woods, and beautiful marble. This iſland belonged formerly to the Pruſſian knights, who quitted it to the Danes in 1408, for nine thouſand crowns. The Swedes got it in 1645, but it was retaken by the Danes in 1677, and reſtored to the Swedes by the treaty of Fontainbleau in 1679. There is here but one conſiderable city, namely,

Wiſby, Wiſbuy, or Wiſburg, the chief place of this iſland, on the weſtern coaſt of it. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the ſea-ſhore, is ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, and defended by a pretty ſtrong caſtle, built near the harbour, where the governor of the iſland uſually reſides. Olearius relates, that the ruins of fourteen churches, and of ſeveral houſes, gates, and walls, of free-ſtone and marble, which he ſaw there in 1635, made him judge that this was formerly a very large city; but it is now very much decayed. It began to be conſiderable towards the end of the eighth century; ſince which time it became ſo populous, that it contained ten thouſand inhabitants, moſt of them merchants, without reckoning the Danes, Swedes, Vandals, Saxons, Muſcovites, Jews, Greeks, Pruſſians, Polanders and Livonians, who traded there. Theſe foreigners were ſo numerous, that they could make head againſt the inhabitants; and in the year 1288, there aroſe a quarrel amongſt them, and a battle was fought, in which a great many men were killed on both ſides. However, the inhabitants gained the victory, and Magnus, king of Sweden, reconciled them with the foreigners.

The inhabitants of Wiſby are ſaid to be the firſt who made hydrographical tables and ſea charts: they alſo pretend to the glory of being the firſt that made laws for regulating trade and navigation. But Monſieur La Martinier obſerves, that they have rather admitted than invented them. He ſays, that being grown rich by navigation, they introduced among themſelves the famous laws of Oleron, an iſland of France, in order to decide by them the diſputes that might ariſe amongſt merchants. They tranſlated thoſe laws into their own language, and made ſome additions to them; by which means, they were not only looked upon as the authors of them, but acquired alſo the reputation of being the moſt famous traders in Europe.

In

In 1597, the Hans-Towns ſent deputies to Lubeck, in order to draw up laws relative to navigation, which laws are ſtill obſerved throughout the whole Baltick; but they are, properly ſpeaking, the very laws of Wiſby, with ſome additions and improvements: and what ſhews that theſe laws are more modern than thoſe of Oleron, is, that thoſe of Lubeck are fuller than thoſe of Wiſby, as the latter are more complete than thoſe of Oleron.

Oeland is a narrow ſlip of land over-againſt the continent of South Gothland, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtrait, which is not above nine or ten miles broad, and is called Calmarſan, or the ſtrait of Calmar. This iſland, whoſe name ſignifies the land of hay, is about ſeventy miles long from ſouth to north; but its greateſt breadth is not above twelve miles. The ſoil affords good paſture, and many herds of oxen, horſes, and fallow deer.

On the weſtern coaſt are only two villages, and theſe not populous, named Alebeck and Smedeby, with the city of Borkholm, in Latin Borcholmia, the capital of this iſland. It lies under fifty-ſix degrees, fifty-ſeven minutes, north latitude, and eighteen degrees, ten minutes, of longitude, eaſt of London. It is about fifteen miles diſtant from Calmar towards the north-eaſt, and is defended by a caſtle.

The eaſtern coaſt is very well peopled, and contains, going from north to ſouth, the towns of Boda, Koningſgard, Hogaby, Kilda, Stapeling, Genſtala, Remaſten, Mokelby, Stenaſa, with the villages of Hulderſtad and Ottenby. There are many forts and caſtles to defend this iſland, that have been often attacked. In 1530, It was taken by the Danes, ſoon after which the Swedes recovered it; but, being loſt again, Guſtavus Adolphus finally retook it in 1613, ſince which the crown of Sweden has poſſeſſed it without moleſtation.

The iſland of Oeſel is about fifty miles in length, but the breadth varies in different parts. It is oppoſite to the coaſt of Livonia, and has no town of conſideration but Arenſberg, which is ſituated on the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland, and defended by a caſtle. There is alſo a fortreſs called Someburg, on the northern coaſt. The whole is now in the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſians, who took it from the Swedes ſome years ſince.

To the northward of Oeſel is ſituated the iſland of Dago: they are ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Honſwick: it is of a triangular form, the ſides being from twenty to twenty-five miles in length. On the weſtern cape there is a high tower, which was built by the ſenate of Revel, as a light-houſe and land-mark. Between this iſland and the continent of Eſtonia are ſome ſand-banks, ſmall iſlands, rocks, &c. The northern and north-eaſt parts are mountainous.

The iſland of Hogland is about nine miles in length, and is ſituated in the gulf of Finland. It conſiſts only of a cluſter of rocks interſperſed or covered with fir-trees, brambles, &c. and has on it a few hares that in the winter grow white.

The iſland of Aland, in the Baltick, is ſituated between forty and fifty miles from the ſouth-weſt part of Finland; the circumference is near an hundred and eighty miles, and the inhabitants near ſix thouſand in number. They live in ſmall hamlets, as there is no regular town in the iſland; for indeed the peaſants have almoſt remonſtrated againſt the building any, which the Swediſh government have been deſirous of effecting. The unhappy king, Erick XIV. was confined in a caſtle in this iſland, which goes under the name of Caſtleholm. The apartment where the king was impriſoned is compoſed of ſtone, and vaulted over head, and is entered into through a trap-door: it is about twenty-three feet long, and twelve broad. Any perſon muſt be ſtruck with compaſſion and horror on reflecting that a ſovereign had been the tenant of ſuch a dungeon, which is too miſerable for the worſt malefactor. The light is admitted by a narrow window, through a wall five feet in thickneſs.

There are abundance of cattle on this iſland, ſome wild beaſts, and plenty of fiſh in the circumjacent ſeas. It is ſurrounded by many ſand-banks, rocks, and ſmall iſlands, ſome of the latter being inhabited and others not. To the ſouth of Aland there are ſeveral other iſles, the chief of which are Flys, Landſweden, Rodan and Nyan. The iſle of Ekero, in the weſt of Aland, extends from north to ſouth about ſix miles; and is ſeparated from Aland by a narrow channel, about three miles broad.

The laſt iſland we ſhall take notice of is Rugen, which is ſituated in the Baltick, oppoſite to Straſlund; is twenty-three miles in length and fifteen in breadth, with the title of a principality. It is ſtrong by nature, and well fortified by art. It abounds with corn and cattle, and contains a town, called Bergen.

An ingenious gentleman, among other particulars relating to theſe iſlands, has favoured us with the following: "About nine o'clock, ſays he, I went on ſhore on an iſland called Lappo. I walked to a little hamlet at a mile diſtance from the ſhore: the poor peaſants very chearfully brought me ſome cream, and aſſiſted in boiling my coffee. Nothing could exceed their poverty: a little black bread, fiſh, pork, and a ſort of mixture they called beer, conſtituted all their ſuſtenance. After having made a very comfortable breakfaſt on this unknown and ſequeſtered iſland, I returned again to the boat. During the whole day we purſued our voyage through a labyrinth of ſmall rocks and iſles; many of them covered with firs and aſpins; ſome few green and beautiful, but the far greater part brown and rugged. I could have fancied myſelf among the Cyclades, ſo famous in antient ſtory; but here were no temples ſacred to Apollo or Juno, nor had genius and poetry conſpired to render every cliff and promontory immortal. Many of the proſpects were, however, wonderfully picturesque and romantic, and I frequently ſtopt the boatmen for a minute, to gaze upon the extraordinary ſcenes around me. Sometimes we went through channels of only twenty or thirty feet in breadth; ſometimes the water opened into a conſiderable expanſe, and often there appeared to be no avenue on any ſide. I was aſtoniſhed how they ſo exactly knew their track in this intricate and perplexing maze, through which nothing could have conducted them but long experience and practice.

SECT. V.

Deſcribing the Inhabitants of SWEDEN, their Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Employments, Soil, Cloathing, Language, Learning, Religion, Arts, Manufactures, Trade, Coins, &c.

IN general, the Swedes are a very ſtrong and robuſt people; and the climate affording a healthy and dry air, they have excellent conſtitutions, and are capable of enduring hardſhips and fatigues. Where they are not too much expoſed to the weather, they have good complexions, and their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of a juſt proportion; they have alſo good features, and thoſe who are employed at home are generally fair; but the peaſants are accuſtomed to make their females undergo an equal ſhare in all laborious employments: they go to the plow, threſh their corn, row upon the water, and carry burdens in common with the men. The inhabitants are, however, far from being ſufficient to people the country; a remarkable inſtance of this in one place, though not the moſt northerly, is, that in the compaſs of one thouſand, two hundred, and ſeventy ſquare miles, there are hardly four thouſand ſeven hundred people to be found.

Some learned Swedes have computed the number of inhabitants of Sweden and Finland at about three millions, reckoning eighty thouſand farms, on which are one million, ſix hundred thouſand ſouls, including the women, children and ſervants; and it ſaid that theſe farms make up above half the number of inhabitants in the whole kingdom. Indeed, ſome pariſhes are at preſent ſo extenſive, and at the ſame time ſo thinly inhabited, that a peaſant muſt travel ſeveral Swediſh miles to viſit his next neighbour; others contain not more than ſeventy farms, and yet take up a track of land equal to the whole province of Holland, though perhaps that flouriſhing country contains more towns than there are cottages in ſuch a pariſh.

In Sweden, the common people ſubſiſt by agriculture, working in the mines, grazing, hunting, fiſhing, and commerce, both domeſtic and foreign. The inhabitants of the northern parts are ſtrangers to delicacies, and live very hardy. They eat a ſort of bread made of the bark of birch and pine-trees, ſtraw and roots. The hocky or ſtampe, is alſo a kind of bread very common in the north; and in times of ſcarcity is ſometimes uſed in the ſouthern parts. This is made of the ears of corn cut from the ſtems and chopped ſmall; after which it is dried and ground: on this kind of meal they pour boiling water, and mix it with leaven and corn-meal, where it is to be had. In ſpring they alſo take the bark of firs, which at that time comes the eaſieſt off the trees; but not the thick bark next the wood. Having pared off the outward coarſe knots, it is dried in an oven, or placed over a wood fire, till both ſides become brown, ſwell, and undergo a kind of fermentation,

tion, by which the reſin is conſumed. They make bread of the meal which proceeds from theſe pieces of bark, after being thus dried and ground.

Theſe poor people are alſo taught by neceſſity to make bread of a plant called miſſe, and by the ſins, wekka (called, in Latin, calla foliis cordatis), which is gathered during the ſpring in the moraſſes. After it is dried in the ſun, it is baked in an oven, or half dried in a warm room, where it is ſprinkled with water. It is then put into the oven a ſecond time, and dried till the leaves fall off, and the outward tegument detaches itſelf at the knot from the ſtem; then the ſtems are chopped ſmall in a trough, and, being afterwards ground, the meal is ſifted, and dough made of it, by pouring hot water on the meal; it is uſual alſo to pour ſome brandy lees amongſt it, to give the bread a more agreeable flavour. The dough is afterwards kneaded with great labour; after which, they mix a third part of corn-meal with it. Their other food conſiſts of fiſh and dried fleſh.

Perſons in affluent circumſtances here, as in other countries, keep a good table; and the rich, and ſuch as live in great towns, are not unacquainted with delicious fare.

In the winter ſeaſon, their cloathing is ſuitable to the climate: the rich wear cloaths lined with warm furs; inſtead of which, thoſe who cannot afford them, make their cloaths of ſheep-ſkins with the wool on; and thus, as a modern writer obſerves, are better provided with cloathing adapted to the ſeaſon, and to their own condition, than people of moſt other countries are found to be.

With reſpect to their dreſs, the faſhion of it reſembles that of the Germans and other European nations; they wear, in ſummer, ſuch cloaths and ſtuffs as their wealth enables them to procure, the great adorning themſelves with lace and embroidery; and imitate, as much as poſſible, the faſhions and manners of the French.

There is ſuch an affinity between the Swediſh and the Daniſh and Norwegian tongues, that the inhabitants of the three kingdoms readily underſtand one another; but Finland and Lapland have their reſpective dialects. It appears, from the Runic ſtones, ſtill to be ſeen in moſt of the provinces near the ſepulchres of the dead, that the Swedes, in the time of paganiſm, made uſe of a particular alphabet, termed Runic characters.

Of late years, the Swedes are greatly improved in arts and ſciences; but the branches of literature which they chiefly ſtudy are œconomics, natural philoſophy, with the antiquities, hiſtory and geography, of their own and other countries. The moſt curious piece of learning amongſt them is a tranſlation of the evangeliſts into the Gothic tongue, done above one thouſand three hundred years ago, by Upſala, a biſhop of the Goths in Thracia, of which they have the ſole antient manuſcript copy that is known to be in the world.

The univerſity of Upſal is the moſt ancient and conſiderable one in Sweden; there is alſo one at Lund in Schonen, and another at Abo, in Finland. There is likewiſe, a royal academy of ſciences at Stockholm: in the ſame city is a royal academy of painting and ſculpture, and another for that part of the mathematics which relates to the military art. An academy for the polite arts has alſo been lately inſtituted at Dromingholm.

There are ſeminaries for the education of youth inſtituted in ten towns of Sweden; epiſcopal ſchools are founded at Upſal and Abo, and inferior ſchools in ſeveral other places. In ſhort, an ordinance for the improvement and regulation of the art of printing was publiſhed by his Swediſh majeſty in 1752, by which a new ſociety was inſtituted for the encouragement of it.

Sweden was formerly involved in the groſſeſt darkneſs and idolatry with reſpect to religion. The city of Upſal was the ſeat of their ſuperſtitious worſhip. The emperor, Charles the Great, ſent hither an eminent eccleſiaſtic, named Herbert, who preached the goſpel in Eaſt Gothland; and for the ſame purpoſe, the emperor Lewis ſent into Sweden the famous Anſcharius, who was ſucceeded by ſeveral others. In the middle ages the clergy had obtained the poſſeſſion of ſeveral eſtates, and the pope aſſumed a great power over the temporal concerns of the kingdom.

Theſe abuſes procured Olaus Petri, a diſciple of Luther, a favourable reception in Sweden, where he promulgated the pure doctrines of the goſpel: and that great king, Guſtavus Vaſa, happily introduced the reformation in Sweden, in ſpite of all the numerous difficulties he had to encounter. Indeed, it afterwards met with great oppoſition, and underwent many trials in the reigns of John and Sigiſmund; yet it was at laſt eſtabliſhed by the diet and ſynod held at Upſal in 1593, when the ſtates of the kingdom ſolemnly engaged to adhere to the doctrines of Luther; and this religion, ſince the decree of uniformity paſſed in 1613, is to be eſteemed both by the ſovereign and his ſubjects the only eſtabliſhed church in the kingdom. Indeed, in 1741, his majeſty was pleaſed to permit, by a royal edict, that the Calviniſts and members of the church of England ſhould, in all the ſea-ports, except that of Carlſcroon, enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion.

In Sweden, the hierarchy is compoſed of the archbiſhop of Upſal, who performs the coronation ceremony, and ten biſhops, with three ſuperintendants, one of whom reſides at Carlſtadt, another at Hernoſand, and the third in Gothland. The other eccleſiaſtics, who are ſubordinate to theſe, are the provoſts, deacons, chaplains, or curates, and the miniſters or incumbents in villages.

In a diſſertation delivered in the year 1749, Mr. A. Birch obſerves, that in this kingdom, excluſive of the German provinces, there are in all three thouſand eccleſiaſtical benefices, one thouſand three hundred civil poſts, filled by perſons learned in the laws; one thouſand three hundred military poſts, occupied by men of literature; ſix hundred officers, relating to the ſeveral departments belonging to the government, and two thouſand ſix hundred phyſicians and ſurgeons.

Within a century or two arts and manufactures have made great progreſs. Formerly no manufactures were eſtabliſhed in this kingdom; the Hanſe-towns not only exported unwrought iron and copper, but the ore of thoſe metals, and when they were wrought into various tools and utenſils, ſold them again to the Swedes. The inhabitants of the coaſts were all fiſhermen, and the towns had no artificers. The Swedes firſt began to work their metals, and even their wood, in the reign of the great Guſtavus Vaſa, anno 1530; and towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century began to ſet up all kinds of manufactures, but chiefly employed foreigners, particularly the Dutch and Flemings. In the year 1641, a glaſs-houſe was firſt erected in Sweden; in 1643, the Swedes began to make ſtarch; in 1646, they erected tin-works. They had no bookſellers ſhops till the year 1647, nor needle and ſilk manufactures till 1649. Leather-dreſſing and ſoap-boiling were introduced into this country in 1651; ſawing-mills were erected in 1653; iron and ſteel manufactures in 1654; ſugar-baking in 1661; but the woollen and ſilk manufactures flouriſhed more than all the reſt, till the wars of Charles XII. put a ſtop to trade, and conſequently to the progreſs of the arts. But in the reign of Frederick I. trade and manufactures revived; the breeding of ſheep was encouraged, tobacco planted, and foreign artiſts and manufacturers allowed the free exerciſe of their religion without moleſtation.

There are at preſent in Sweden manufactures of ſilk, cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; linen, ſail-cloth, Morocco leather, dying, and printing of cottons; they have houſes for boiling or refining of allum, ſugar, ſoap, and ſalt; for making glaſs, porcelain, and paper; they have alſo gunpowder mills, ſtamping mills, boring mills, wire and ſlatting mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, iron, and ſteel, are wrought in Sweden, which has founderies for great guns, pots, and the like, and forges for fire-arms, and anchors: great numbers of ſhips are alſo built, and wooden veſſels and utenſils made here.

This kingdom is conveniently ſituated for commerce, as it lies between the Baltick and the North ſea. The towns which are allowed to import and export goods in their own ſhips, and to trade both with natives and foreigners, are called ſtaple-towns; there are thirty-four in number: but thoſe that lie near the ſea, and yet have no foreign commerce, and are only permitted to carry on a domeſtic trade, to have ſhares in the freight of goods, and to purchaſe by wholeſale the goods imported by the ſtaple-towns, are called land-towns: ſome of theſe are within land, and others ſea-port towns; others again are mine-towns.

The chief ſtaple-towns in Sweden are Stockholm and Gottenburg. At the former are held the college of commerce, an aſſurance-office, and the national bank, which has frequently advanced conſiderable ſums of money for the ſervice of the government, and has a fund of about ſix millions of ſilver dollars, each equal to one ſhilling and ſix-pence two-thirds ſterling, beſides current bills to the amount of ſeventy millions. At Gottenburg is the Eaſt-India company, erected in 1731, which pays for every ſhip that returns from India fifty thouſand ſilver dollars to the government. They have alſo a Levant company, which trade to Smyrna, &c.

The Swedes export iron wrought and in bars, wrought metals, timber, gunpowder, pitch, tar, ſalt-petre, potaſh, cordage, cobalt, furs, Morocco leather, as it is called, and

and dried fiſh. The imports are grain, fleſh, bacon, cheeſe, butter, tallow, wine, brandy, drugs, hides, hemp, flax, ſilk, &c.

Their coins are, the gold ducat, worth about nine ſhillings and four-pence ſterling. The ſilver coins are the oer, one of which is equal to four pfennings, twenty of them to a caroline, which is about one ſhilling and two-pence ſterling, and thirty-two to a ſilver dollar, equal to one ſhilling and ſix-pence three farthings Engliſh money. There are double and half carolines; and double, ſingle, and half-ſingle oers, are current here.

Among their copper pieces are the copper oer, which, like the rundſtuc, is equal to two pfennings, and is no more than the eighth part of a penny Engliſh. An half, a quarter, and a ſixth part of a copper oer. A copper dollar, which is about four groſchen, and is nearly equal to ſix-pence farthing. Theſe are very large, and the merchant is often obliged to carry them away in a cart or wheel-barrow, when payment is made in them.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the political, civil, and military eſtabliſhments in Sweden, alſo their courts of juſtice, laws, puniſhments, &c.

It appears to be the falſe policy of the Swediſh government to diſcourage agriculture, and to encourage manufactures, in order to ſupport the arbitrary power of the nobility, and oppreſs the commonalty. Thus many of thoſe who are fond of naval or military employments are driven into the ſervice of other ſtates, and the poor obliged to reſort for protection, ſhelter, and ſubſiſtence, to other countries.

About one half of the bar iron which is made in this country is exported either to Great Britain or Ireland; and when the ſeaſon happens to be unfavourable, or accidents attend the miners or forges, the merchants are ſo poor that they are obliged to draw upon the Engliſh merchants for the price of the exports, before they are able to ſhip them off. Yet, notwithſtanding theſe indulgences, and that the balance of trade is greatly in their favour, the Swediſh government gives the greateſt diſcouragement to the Britiſh trade, which is ſo capital a ſource of their wealth; and ſuffers the nation to be annually drained of a great deal of their ſpecie, by encouraging as much as poſſible, the French trade.

Moſt kinds of goods here cannot be made ſo cheap by an hundred per cent. as they are ſmuggled from the more ſouthern parts of Europe. The government indeed is not only totally ſupine with reſpect to ſmuggling, but moſt of the principal people prefer ſmuggled goods to any manufactured in their own country. To theſe impediments to the increaſe of trade and commerce we may add, with an accurate judge of theſe matters, that the beſt eſtabliſhed commerce in the world might be ruined by the exchange alone, as it is conducted in this country.

The trade to France is very prejudicial to this kingdom, as it takes off but few of their commodities, except iron and a little braſs wire, yet runs away with a great deal of their ſpecie, and returns them hardly any thing but luxuries. But the trade to Portugal and Spain, for ſalt, fruits and wines, is not againſt the Swedes, as they barter for thoſe commodities their iron, fiſh, and copper.

With reſpect to the eſtabliſhed revenues of Sweden, they principally ariſe from, 1. a capitation tax: 2. crown lands; 3. exciſes; 4. cuſtoms; 5. certain tythes; 6. ſilver and copper mines; 7. law proceedings. Theſe taxes annually amount to ten million, one hundred and four thouſand, four hundred and ſix dollars, ſilver mint, which, in the year 1769, according to the then value, was equal, in pounds ſterling, to five hundred and ninety-four thouſand, one hundred and eighty pounds. But we hear that the Swediſh government has lately taken great pains to augment the yearly revenue, aboliſh paper currency, and make other uſeful regulations. A third part of the revenues are appropriated to the uſe of the royal family, and the reſt to ſupport the civil and military eſtabliſhments.

It is neceſſary to obſerve here, that the crown of Sweden has, for above a century paſt, received a ſubſidy from France, for which the former hath uſually ſacrificed its deareſt intereſt to the latter; and for the ſake of retaining this paltry annual preſent, Sweden, in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, was forced to contract a debt of three million, five hundred thouſand pounds, which has ſince been conſiderably augmented to ſuch a degree that it will be always a dreadful national weight upon them.

An eſtabliſhed national militia compoſe the chief part of the Swediſh forces; the regulations reſpecting it were either formed or improved by Charles XI. and have ſince continued to be the baſis of the preſent eſtabliſhment.

The nobility and gentry were obliged to furniſh the cavalry; and a nobleman, after having furniſhed a man, could not put either him or his horſe to any other employment. The infantry are raiſed from among the farms, and the king's commiſſion diſtributes them through the various provinces, in proportion to the number of farms, each of which, the value of above ſixty pounds per annum, not being occupied by the officers, or appropriated to their peculiar ſervices, are charged with one foot ſoldier, who receives from the farmer lodging, diet, cloaths, and a trifling allowance of money; or otherwiſe a wooden houſe is built for him at the farmer's charge, who muſt alſo furniſh him with as much hay as will keep a cow in winter, and with paſturage in ſummer, and plow and ſow for him ſuch a parcel of ground as will afford him bread. Thoſe that are married (as many of them are) generally accept this latter condition: the unmarried ſoldiers uſually dwell with the farmer, but are not obliged to do him any ſervice without wages. When they have once taken the peaſant's money, and are enliſted into the king's ſervice, they can never quit it as long as they are able to ſerve: and if they deſert, they are puniſhed with death. The firſt inſtitution of this method proved very burthenſome to the peaſants, who were at great charge to hire their men, who coſt them ten pounds, and ſometimes twenty pounds apiece, and they muſt do the ſame, whenever their ſoldier dies. This is not ſo chargeable in peaceable times, as in war, when men are unwilling to ſerve, and there is a greater demand for recruits.

As the country is thus liable to provide all the common ſoldiers, ſo all officers, both horſe and foot, are maintained by the king, who has appropriated for that purpoſe ſome of the lands re-united, or formerly belonging to the crown: ſo that every officer has a convenient houſe, and a competent portion of land to live upon, ſituated in that part of the country where the regiment he belongs to is quartered; as alſo the rent of as many other farms as make up his pay; which, though it be ſomewhat leſs than formerly, yet being punctually paid, either in money, corn, or other commodities, they find it more profitable than when they were to ſolicit for it at the treaſury. A colonel of foot has of theſe lands the yearly rent of about three hundred pounds, and the reſt proportionably; which amounts to about two thouſand five hundred pounds a year, for all the officers, both upper and under, of one foot regiment; and there being in Sweden, Finland, and Livonia, twenty-eight regiments of foot under this eſtabliſhment, the maintenance of all the officers belonging to them coſts the king about ſeventy thouſand pounds a year: what charge the cloathing of the common ſoldiers once in two or three years, their arms, and ſuch other neceſſaries, may amount to, cannot ſo eaſily be computed. The officers of horſe are provided for after the ſame manner, with ſuch large allowance as is requiſite. There are fifteen regiments of horſe thus eſtabliſhed, and the maintenance of their officers is computed to be about eighty thouſand pounds a year: all which ariſes from the rents of crown lands, as do alſo the wages of civil officers in the country, who have farms annexed to their employments, as the militia have.

The king has made ſome very exact laws for maintaining this conſtitution; and provides, with great caution, that neither the peaſants ſhall be oppreſſed, nor the lands or houſes ruined: to which end all ſuch lands are yearly viſited, and the poſſeſſor compelled to make ſuch repairs as are found needful: and as every officer, upon his firſt coming to ſuch an eſtate, ſubſcribes an inventory of it, ſo upon advancement he cannot take poſſeſſion of another charge, till he has put that eſtate into as good a condition as he found it; and till that is done, his heir cannot inherit.

All treſpaſſes and crimes, committed by the ſoldiers, fall ordinarily under the cognizance of a civil magiſtrate, who has the ſame authority over them as over the reſt of the king's ſubjects; except when they are encamped, or in garriſon, or any ways under flying colours; in all which caſes, as alſo in matters that relate ſolely to their profeſſion, their officers have juriſdiction over them; without whoſe leave a private ſoldier is not permitted to lodge out of his quarters, nor be abſent a day from the pariſh he belongs to. The inferior officers cannot be abſent from their charge, but by their colonel's permiſſion; nor captains, and thoſe above them, without the king's leave. The forces kept up in Sweden, amounted, ſome years ago, to fifty-four thouſand. Above the ordinary eſtabliſhment the king annexed to each regiment twenty ſupernumerary farms, to anſwer any extraordinary accident of fire, &c. and to furniſh

a ſubſiſtence

a ſubſiſtence for ſuch officers as are paſt ſervice: and for common ſoldiers, whom age and wounds have rendered unfit for war, there is one general hoſpital, which has a good revenue; and beſides that, every officer who is advanced, pays to it a ſum of money proportionable to the degree he is raiſed to: a colonel pays an hundred crowns; and others in proportion.

They have now in Sweden about forty thouſand land-forces; but we are informed, that the preſent king is employing his utmoſt endeavours to augment them. An ingenious traveller, who lately viſited this kingdom, ſays, "The naval forces, which heretofore made a reſpectable figure againſt their enemies, are now in a very poor and debilitated ſtate. When I was at Carlſcroon, in the year 1770, the place where their fleet is ſtationed, and where are the dock-yards, ſtorehouſes, and all the materials they have for the uſe of their marine, I was amazed to ſee the maritime force of this country in ſuch a ſituation: about twenty old ſhips of the line, the one half of which were rotten and unfit for ſea, and ten or eleven frigates and ſloops of war, almoſt in the ſame condition, compoſed their whole navy. Their ſtorehouſes were almoſt empty, and all the officers and men of their dock-yard complaining of their pay being greatly in arrear. It is true, they keep up the form of a marine eſtabliſhment, the officers of which are ſupported much in the ſame manner as thoſe in the militia are, and the men are raiſed among the farmers to recruit the body of ſeamen. The port of Carlſcroon is defended by ſeveral batteries of cannon, and is ſuppoſed, in this country, to be a very ſtrong place; but four Engliſh ſeventy or eighty gun ſhips would ſoon ſilence all theſe batteries if they were to be attacked by them, in ſpite of any reſiſtance the place could make."

In Sweden, as in Denmark, the ſeamen are of two claſſes; namely, one order, which is always actually ready either to man the fleet, or work in the dock-yards; and another, which is but nominally ready, as the individuals are only regiſtered, and muſt appear as recruits, upon occaſion.

There are five great officers of the crown, who preſide each in a tribunal compoſed of ſome ſenators; and when any of their places become vacant, the king gives it generally to the moſt antient ſenator of the tribunal where the vacancy happens; though he may beſtow it in whoſe favour he pleaſes: theſe officers are: 1. the drotſer, or chief juſtice; he is the firſt officer in the nation, and was formerly a kind of viceroy; he has the honour of putting the crown on the king's head at the coronation: he preſides in the ſupreme court of juſtice, to which there is an appeal from all other courts. 2. The conſtable; he preſides in the council of war; has the inſpection of the diſcipline, and all that relates to war; and enjoys many great and honourable privileges. 3. The admiral; his power is alſo very great; he has the command of the fleet, and appoints all the officers who ſerves by ſea, and gives them their commiſſions: juſtice, in all that relates to the admiralty, is adminiſtered in his name: he has alſo many other privileges. 4. The chancellor; he is the chief of the police, rectifies abuſes, and gives the neceſſary orders for the good of the public: he is the keeper of the ſeals of the crown, diſpatches all ſtate affairs, and lays the king's orders and demands before the ſtates-general. 5. The lord high treaſurer; he has the adminiſtration of the treaſury, and of all the king's revenue; audits the accounts of all the ſeveral receivers; ſigns all the orders for payments; manages the public funds, and pays all the officers of the kingdom: he alſo preſides in the chamber of accompts, where the impoſts on the people are aſſeſſed, and which is the place of reſort for all the exchequer officers.

The king of Sweden's revenues were antiently ſo ſmall, that they could hardly maintain him; they aroſe only from ſome duties on merchandizes imported or exported, either by ſea or land. It was conſiderably increaſed by the diſcovery of the mines, but chiefly by the introduction of the reformation; for Guſtavus I. having propoſed to the nobility to ſhare with him the church lands, which made up above one third of the kingdom, ſeized the greateſt part of them, and united alſo with the crown the right of forfeitures, which belonged to the biſhop almoſt throughout all Sweden; and the reſumption of lands granted away from the crown by preceding kings, to the nobility and gentry, have raiſed the king's revenue to a very high degree. This was done by king Charles XI. in the year 1680, and though it was much oppoſed by the aſſembly of the ſtates, eſpecially by the nobility, yet the lower order conſenting, nobility were forced to comply. Beſides theſe branches, the king has a third part of all fines, when they do not exceed forty marks of ſilver; and, when they do, he takes it all: he has alſo all forfeitures upon the account of high treaſon, and the eſtates of ſtrangers, if their heirs do not appear within a year after the death of the laſt poſſeſſor.

Antiently the laws of Sweden were as various as the provinces were numerous, each of which had ſtatutes and cuſtoms peculiar to itſelf, enacted, as occaſion required, by the laghman, or governor of the province, who was choſen by the people, and inveſted with great authority, eſpecially when the kingdom was elective, his ſuffrage concluding the province he governed. This variety was neceſſarily attended with great confuſion, for remedy whereof, about one hundred and fifty years ago, a body of laws were compiled for the direction of the whole kingdom: yet this collection is but an imperfect piece, and the laws ſo few, and conceived in ſuch general terms, that in moſt caſes they need the aſſiſtance of the civil law; and after all, the final determination depends much upon the inclination of the bench, which in a poor country, where ſalaries are ſmall, is often filled with ſuch men as are of weak parts, and ſubject to corruption upon very ſlight temptations. The effects of this would be more viſible, if each ſuperior court did not keep a check upon the lower, and the king's court of reviſion overawe them all, to which all civil cauſes importing the ſum of ſeventy pounds are appealable; and very few end before they have been brought thither. In this ſupreme court the king frequently ſits in perſon, and determines cauſes himſelf. In this court the preſident of the chancery, and two or three privy counſellors, do alſo ſit: ſo does the chancellor of the court, (an officer next in degree to a privy counſellor) who is preſident of the under-reviſion, where he and two ſecretaries do put buſineſs into a method fit to be brought before the king.

There are three degree of courts of juſtice, inferior to this; of the loweſt degree, or firſt inſtance, there is one in each corporation (beſides Stockholm, where there are three) as alſo in each diſtrict or territory, whereof every province contains ſeveral, ſome above twenty: in the former, namely, in cities, an alderman or counſellor preſides, and has ſome of his brethren for aſſiſtants: in the latter the governor of the territory preſides, with a ſtanding jury under him; his court is ambulatory, and uſually kept near or upon the place, where the fact or treſpaſs was committed. In theſe courts examinations are taken, and matters not exceeding forty ſhillings are determined: the reſt are tranſmitted to the next ſuperior court, of which in every corporation there is one, where the burgomaſter is preſident, and the aldermen aſſiſtants: and ſo in every province there is one or more of theſe courts, the preſident whereof retains the name of laghman, without any other authority than that of a judge.

From theſe courts, all cauſes of blood muſt be tranſmitted to the reſpective national courts, where they are determined without farther appeal; and thither alſo all civil actions, not exceeding twenty pounds, may be appealed. Of theſe national courts there are three; one for the kingdom of Sweden, held at Stockholm; another for the kingdom of Gothia, or Gothland, kept at Jenekoping; and a third for the dukedom of Finland, at Abo. In each of theſe a privy-counſellor is preſident, and above half the aſſeſſors muſt be gentlemen. All theſe courts ſit continually, or at moſt have but ſhort vacations; and, not being peſtered with too much formality, give cauſes a ſpeedy diſpatch, unleſs they be retarded by vexatious litigations.

Thoſe actions which relate to the ſea are to be tried in the ordinary courts, according to their ſea laws, founded upon thoſe antient ones of Wiſby in the iſle of Gothland, which have formerly been as famous in the Baltick ſea, as the laws of Rhodes and Oleron in other places. The court of admiralty has not any peculiar juriſdiction in the adminiſtration of theſe laws, but only in ſuch matters as directly concern the king's fleet, and in ſome places that belong immediately to the admiralty.

There is a conſiſtory in each dioceſe for eccleſiaſtical cauſes, of which the reſpective biſhop is preſident, where cauſes of baſtardy, contracts of marriage, and other matters of that nature are tried, and church cenſures of penance, divorce, &c. inflicted. Theſe courts have no power to adminiſter an oath, nor to inflict any corporal puniſhment. From them there lies an appeal to the reſpective national courts, and in ſome caſes to the king, as in all others matters of a doubtful nature.

With reſpect to diſputes relating to the mines, beſides inferior courts and officers ſettled in the reſpective parts of the country, a general court, called the college of the mines, ſits

fits at Stockholm, of which moſt commonly the preſident of the treaſury is the chief, with a vice-preſident, and other aſſeſſors. The laws in this regard are more exact and particular than in other matters; and for the moſt part juſtice is very carefully adminiſtered in this court.

The executing of all judicial ſentences is lodged in the governors of the provinces, the ſtadtholders of Stockholm, and other places; and from them derived to inferior officers, who are accountable to the national courts, whither they may be ſummoned, and puniſhed, upon plain proof of default: but the proof being difficult, and miniſters of juſtice apt to favour each other, they take great liberty to delay execution, or to arbitrate and put their own ſenſe upon ſentences; ſo that this part of juſtice is adminiſtered the worſt of all others, and has an influence not only at home, but leſſens the credit of the Swediſh ſubjects abroad; againſt whom juſtice cannot, without great difficulty, be obtained.

Law-ſuits are no where more moderately defrayed than in Sweden, the greateſt burden ariſing from a late conſtitution, that all declarations, acts, and ſentences, muſt be written upon ſealed paper of different prices, from twopence to ſeven ſhillings a ſheet, according to the quality of the cauſe; the benefit of which accrues to the king, and is computed to bring about three thouſand pounds a year. Other charges are very few, every man being permitted, and in criminal actions compelled, to plead his own cauſe. Accordingly, the practice of the law is below a gentleman, and rather the refuge than the choice of meaner perſons, who are not only for the moſt part very poor, but alſo few in number.

In Sweden, the cuſtom of a jury of twelve men is ſo antient, that their writers pretend it had its original among them, and was thence tranſmitted to other nations; but at preſent it is every where diſuſed, except only in the lower courts in the country; and there the jurymen are for life, and have ſalaries. They have this peculiar to themſelves, that there muſt be among them an unanimous conſent to determine a cauſe, which is done by a majority of voices in other countries.

Eſtates are rendered more ſecure to the poſſeſſors, and leſs ſubject to conteſts, by the regiſters that are kept of all ſales and alienations, as well as of other engagements concerning them; for if the purchaſer omits the recording his tranſaction in the proper court, he runs the hazard of having an after bargain ſupercede his.

With reſpect to criminal matters, where the fact is not very evident, or where the judges are very favourable, the defendant is permitted to purge himſelf by oath; to which are alſo added the oaths of ſix or twelve other men, who are all vouchers of his innocence. Treaſon, murder, double adultery, burning of houſes, witchcraft, and the like heinous crimes, are puniſhed with death, which is executed by hanging of men, and beheading of women; to which burning alive or dead, quartering, and hanging in chains, are ſometimes added, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals of the gentry or nobility are uſually ſhot to death. The puniſhment of ſtealing has for ſeveral years paſt, inſtead of death, been changed into a kind of perpetual ſlavery; the guilty party being condemned to work all his life-time for the king, in making fortifications, or other drudgery; he likewiſe always wears an iron collar about his neck, with a bow coming over his head, to which a tinkling bell is faſtened.

In caſe of duels between gentlemen, if one of the parties be killed, the ſurvivor is puniſhed with death, and the memory of both branded with a note of infamy. If neither be killed, they are both condemned to a priſon, with bread and water, for two years: to which is added, a fine of a thouſand crowns, or one year's impriſonment, and two thouſand crowns. Reparation of honour, in caſe of affront, is referred to the reſpective national court, where they uſually adjudge recantation, and begging of pardon.

All kinds of eſtates, as well acquired as inherited, deſcend to the children in equal portions, of which a ſon has two, and a daughter one; nor is it in the power of the parent to alter this proportion, without the intervention of a judicial ſentence, in caſe of their childrens' diſobedience: only they may bequeath a tenth of their acquired poſſeſſions to ſuch child or other as they will favour. Where an eſtate deſcends incumbered with debts, the heir uſually takes two or three months time, as the law allows, to ſearch into the condition of the deceaſed's eſtate; and then either accepts the inheritance, or leaves it to the law, which adminiſters, in that caſe.

There are three orders of knighthood in Sweden, namely, the order of the polar-ſtar; the order of the ſword, created ſo lately as in the year 1772; and the order of Vaſa, of more antient date.

SECT. VI.

Containing a comprehenſive View of the Hiſtory of SWEDEN, the Wars its Monarchs have been engaged in, and the memorable Revolution in its form of Government, effected in 1772, by the reigning Sovereign.

THE moſt material event in the Swediſh hiſtory, that we can depend upon, took place in the year 829, when Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, was ſent by the emperor Lewis the pious, to convert the Swediſh idolaters; and in the reign of Stenchild, about the year 900, the great idol at Upſal was demoliſhed, and the worſhip of that image ſuppreſſed; which ſo enraged his heatheniſh ſubjects, that they aſſaſſinated him; however his brother and ſucceſſor, Slaus, ſent to Ethelred king of England, for more Chriſtian prieſts, who perſuaded him to pay the pope an annual ſum to maintain a war againſt the Saracens, which afterwards obtained the name of Romeſcot. Afterwards, Margaret, queen of Denmark and Norway, reduced Sweden alſo under her power, and reigned ſole monarch of Scandinavia, in 1396; but Guſtavus Ericſon, about the year 1520, delivered Sweden from the Daniſh yoke.

This monarch was deſcended from the antient kings of Sweden, but reduced at this time ſo low, as to be obliged to work in the copper-mines of Dalecarlia for his ſubſiſtence, and to conceal himſelf from that tyrannical prince, who then poſſeſſed the throne of Denmark; and repreſenting the miſerable eſtate of their country to the miners and the neighbouring peaſants, he prevailed on them to join him in an attempt to ſhake off the Daniſh yoke; to which end, having aſſembled a body of theſe brave ruſtics, he boldly iſſued out of thoſe ſubterraneous territories, and ſurprizing the ſeveral poſts the Danes poſſeſſed, drove them entirely out of the kingdom; for which ſervice the Swedes elected him their king.

As the biſhops and clergy had ſhewn themſelves to be the greateſt enemies to Guſtavus, he therefore introduced the Lutheran doctrines, and ſeized the revenues of the church, moſt of which he appropriated to the ſervice of the ſtate, and was thereby enabled to eaſe the people of their taxes, which rendered him exceedingly popular. He was crowned at Upſal in the year 1528, but his reign was frequently diſturbed by conſpiracies and inſurrections, excited by the clergy; and when theſe were quelled, the Danes invaded the kingdom, endeavouring to recover the dominion of Sweden; but Guſtavus proved ſucceſsful both againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies; and his eldeſt ſon, Erick Auguſtus, by Catherine daughter of Magnus duke of Saxe Laurenburg, was declared his ſucceſſor, and the crown made hereditary by the ſtates in 1544; and at the ſame time the catholic religion was aboliſhed, and the Lutheran religion eſtabliſhed, for the maintaining whereof future ſovereigns were always ſworn. After this, Guſtavus reigned in peace, except that the Ruſſians made an incurſion into Finland, and were repulſed.

Though the king and ſtates had ſettled the ſucceſſion upon Erick, he gave ſome part of his territories as an appendage to his younger ſons John, Magnus, and Charles; and died in the year 1559, when his eldeſt ſon was preparing to embark for England, in order to court queen Elizabeth; but having ſome apprehenſion that the government would be diſturbed, in his abſence, by his ambitious brothers, he did not think fit to undertake the voyage at this time. He made another attempt afterwards to pay his addreſſes to the queen of England; but the wind being contrary, he was driven back again to the coaſt of Sweden, which he looked upon as ominous, and never made a third attempt to viſit her majeſty. In the mean time the Livonians being divided about the choice of a ſovereign, one party called in the Poles, another choſe to ſubmit to the Ruſſians, and a third adhered to the Swedes; and theſe rivals at length ſeized each of them a part of the country, Revel and its diſtrict being poſſeſſed by the Swedes.

Erick ſtill propoſing a great deal of happineſs in the married ſtate, courted Mary queen of Scots, alſo a princeſs of the houſe of Lorrain, and the princeſs Catherine of the houſe of Heſſe, but did not ſucceed in any; and his brother John marrying the lady Catherine, a Poliſh princeſs, the king appears to have been ſo much incenſed at the repulſes he had met with himſelf, or at the ſucceſs of his brother, that he thought it a ſufficient reaſon to declare war againſt him, and laying ſiege to his caſtle of Abo, made

him priſoner, and cauſed him to be condemned to death, though he changed his ſentence into perpetual impriſonment. The Poles thereupon entered into an alliance with the Danes and Rubeckers, in behalf of prince John, and his own ſubjects were ſo diſguſted with the king's conduct, that they appeared ripe for an inſurrection. Erick, however, defended himſelf againſt all his enemies, but abandoning himſelf to his pleaſures, and leaving the kingdom to be governed by a favourite, who maſſacred the family of the Sture's, that were of the royal blood, under pretence they were in a conſpiracy againſt the crown, the people broke out into a rebellion, and he was compelled to releaſe his brother John out of priſon to appeaſe them; however, inſiſting afterwards that his brothers ſhould deliver up the countries their father had ſettled upon them, the people took up arms again in behalf of thoſe princes, made Erick a priſoner, and he died in priſon, ſuppoſed to have been poiſoned.

This was the end of that mad ſon of Guſtavus Ericſon, who delivered Sweden from the tyranny of the Danes. He was ſucceeded by his brother John, who, endeavouring to reſtore the Roman Catholic religion, met with great oppoſition; but dying in the year 1592, he was ſucceeded by his ſon Sigiſmund, then upon the throne of Poland; but the ſtates inſiſting on the reſtoration of the Proteſtant religion before he was crowned, he affirmed, that the kingdom was hereditary and that none had a right to put terms or conditions upon him, and commanded that one church in every town ſhould be reſerved for the uſe of the Roman Catholics: he declared alſo, that he would be crowned by the pope's nuncio, who attended him from Poland.

Hereupon the ſtates raiſed forces, and being joined by prince Charles, the king's uncle, compelled him to ſubmit to the terms they propoſed, and he was thereupon crowned by the proteſtant biſhop of Strengthneſs. Determining, however, to break through the engagement he had entered into for the eſtabliſhment of the Proteſtant religion, he ſent for forces out of Poland, and when he found the Swedes were not to be frightened by his threats of introducing foreign troops, he returned to Poland, and the ſtates thereupon declared his uncle, prince Charles, regent of Sweden, and a war commenced between Charles and Sigiſmund, in which ſeveral battles were fought. The ſtates at length excluded Sigiſmund and his poſterity from the crown of Sweden, and advanced his uncle Charles to that throne, ſettling the ſucceſſion in his family, in 1604.

This prince, ſoon after his acceſſion, embarked a body of troops, and making a deſcent in Livonia, engaged the Poles, in which war he proved unſucceſsful; and while he was at war with the Poles, the Danes invaded his territories in Sweden, and greatly diſtreſſed him, as the Ruſſians did on the ſide of Livonia; when prince Guſtavus his ſon, then but ſeventeen years of age, afterwards the celebrated king Guſtavus Adolphus, defeated the Danes, and gave a ſurpriſing turn to the Swediſh affairs; and his father, king Charles, dying the next year, 1611, was ſucceeded by his ſon Guſtavus Adolphus, then eighteen years of age; when, by the conſent of the ſtates, he took upon him the adminiſtration of the government, though his father had appointed queen Chriſtina his mother to be regent till he came of age.

Guſtavus finding his kingdom involved in an unfortunate war with the Danes and Ruſſians, purchaſed a peace with the Danes, in 1613, at the price of a million of crowns; and carried on the war againſt the Ruſſians, over whom he was victorious in ſeveral battles; and at the peace that enſued, they yielded up Kexholm and Ingermania to the Swedes. The truce which had been made with Poland, being expired, he invaded their dominions in Livonia, took the important town of Riga, and made himſelf maſter of that whole province: he afterwards invaded Pruſſia, took Elbing, Marienburg, and ſeveral other towns, which were confirmed to Sweden by a treaty concluded not long after. In this war, the Poles were aſſiſted by the Germans, which probably induced Guſtavus to carry the war into Germany, added to the invitation the Proteſtants gave him to come over to their aſſiſtance.

In the year 1630, he embarked his army, with which he invaded Pomerania; and advancing to the capital city of Stetin, the duke of Pomerania admitted his troops into that city, and entered into alliance with him, as did alſo the archbiſhop of Bremen, the duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Heſſe, and moſt of the Proteſtant princes of Germany, in hopes of his protection againſt their Catholic perſecutors. The French alſo entered into an alliance with the Swedes, and agreed to pay them an annual ſubſidy of four hundred thouſand crowns.

The Swedes, in 1631, made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other towns in Germany: and the great city of Magdeburg declared for them, which being beſieged by Tilly, the Auſtrian general, Guſtavus advanced towards it in order to attempt the relief of the place, expecting to be joined by the elector of Saxony; but that cautious prince not thinking fit to break with the Auſtrians, the opportunity was loſt; Magdeburg was taken by ſtorm, the imperial general maſſacred forty thouſand of the inhabitants, and burnt the town down to the ground, nothing being left ſtanding but the cathedral church. The ſame year Charles I. king of England, ſent ſix thouſand men, under the command of the marquis of Hamilton; but the greateſt part of theſe, landing in Pomerania, were carried off by a kind of peſtilence.

The Auſtrian general then marched into the electorate of Saxony, and made himſelf maſter of the city of Leipſic; whereupon the elector intreated king Guſtavus to come to his aſſiſtance, which he at length complied with, though he ſeemed to reſent the elector's not joining him during the ſiege of Magdeburg. Their forces were no ſooner joined, but the king gave battle to the Auſtrians, killed about eight thouſand of them, took five thouſand priſoners, with upwards of a hundred colours and ſtandards. The king afterwards marched into Franconia, where he took ſeveral ſtrong towns; from thence he advance to the palatinate, where he defeated a body of Spaniards that were come thither to the aſſiſtance of the Imperialiſts, and the towns of Openheim, Landau, Spire, and Germenſheim ſubmitted to him. The Saxon troops, in the mean time, made themſelves maſters of Prague, and other places in Bohemia; but pretending that king Guſtavus had an eye upon the imperial throne, they refuſed to advance into Auſtria: at the ſame time the Auſtrians were entirely diſpoſſeſſed of all the towns bordering on the Baltick.

Guſtavus, in the beginning of the year 1632, obtained another victory over the Spaniards in the palatinate, after which he marched into Suabia, in ſearch of count Tilly, who fled before him, leaving him almoſt entire maſter of that country. Tilly at length entrenched himſelf on the river Lech, where being attacked by the Swedes, that general was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, of which wound he died ſome few days after. The king then laid the duchy of Bavaria under contributions, and coming before Munich, that capital was ſurrendered to him.

In the mean time the Imperialiſts having driven the Saxons out of Bohemia, and entered Saxony, the elector entreated the king to come to his aſſiſtance; he left Bavaria, therefore, and joined the Saxons; ſoon after which, a general battle was fought in the plains of Lutzen, near Leipſic; and the Swedes made themſelves maſters of the cannon of the Imperialiſts; but their horſe being ſtopped by a ſmall river, Guſtavus, to encourage his men to attempt the paſſing it, advancing at the head of the cavalry, was ſoon after found dead on the other ſide of the river, having been ſhot through the back, which was generally thought to have been done by ſome pretended friend: but notwithſtanding the loſs of their great leader, the Swediſh generals behaved ſo well, that they obtained a complete victory, and the war continued many years afterwards, in which the Swedes were generally victorious, notwithſtanding the Saxons and ſome other German princes changed ſides, and adhered to the Auſtrians: but the aſſiſtance the Swedes received from the French was more than an æquivalent for the deſertion of the German princes.

Guſtavus Adolphus left only one daughter, namely the princeſs Chriſtina, who was proclaimed queen of Sweden on the death of her father, being then but ſix years of age; whereupon the diet of Sweden determined, that the regency ſhould be committed to the great officers, who behaved with that conduct and fidelity, that the kingdom appeared in a flouriſhing condition during her minority, notwithſtanding they were engaged in a war with ſuch potent enemies; and, at length, concluded a peace upon honourable terms, in 1648, uſually called, The Treaty of Weſtphalia. By which treaty, the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the beſt part of Pomerania, and the iſle of Rugen, the city of Wiſmar, and the duchy of Deuxponts in the palatinate, were allotted to Sweden and five million of crowns were given them towards the expences they had been at in theſe wars. Queen Chriſtina, one of the greateſt geniuſſes of the age, and one of the moſt learned of her ſex, courted by all the princes of Europe, and in the higheſt reputation for her equitable adminiſtration, having reigned till the year 1654, reſigned the crown in favour of her nephew Charles Guſtavus, reſerving only a

penſion for the ſupport of her dignity. After which ſhe profeſſed herſelf a Roman-Catholic, and retired to a convent in Rome, where ſhe acquired univerſal eſteem by her works of piety and benevolence.

As the war ſtill continued between Sweden and Poland, Charles Guſtavus (Charles X.) marched in perſon into Poland, and was ſo ſucceſsful, that he obliged John Caſimir, their king, to quit the kingdom, and take refuge in Sileſia; and the Poles took an oath of allegiance to Charles; but he marching into Sileſia, the Poles revolted and obtained ſome advantages over the Swediſh forces: the elector of Brandenburgh joining Charles about this time, they obtained a complete victory over the Poles near Warſaw, and were in a fair way of making an intire conqueſt of that kingdom, when the Danes declared war againſt him, and he was obliged to march that way with the greateſt part of the army. The Baltick Sea being frozen over at that time, he marched over the ice into Holſtein, and cauſed his artillery to be drawn after him the ſame way: a thing that never was attempted before by any of the northern princes. The Danes were ſo amazed at this march, that they immediately deſired to treat, and were content to yield up to the Swedes the provinces of Schonen, Halland, and Bleking, with the iſland of Bornholm. This was called the peace of Roſchild, at which place, the plenipotentiaries met, in 1658, and the Danes have ever ſince been expelled from the continent of Sweden. But we muſt not omit to obſerve, that the Danes having given king Charles ſome reaſon to ſuſpect that they did not intend to perform thoſe articles, he invaded the iſland of Zealand, and laid ſiege to the capital city of Copenhagen; but the Dutch coming to the aſſiſtance of the Danes, obtained a victory over the Swediſh fleet, and compelled Charles to raiſe the ſiege. The Imperialiſts, Brandenburghers, and Poles, alſo entered into a confederacy againſt Sweden, and obtained a victory over their army at Nyburg; and while king Charles was levying another to oppoſe them, he was taken ill of a fever and died, on the 23d of February 1660, leaving only one ſon, named Charles, then about five years of age.

During the minority of Charles, the adminiſtration of affairs was committed to his mother, the queen dowager, and five great officers of the crown, who finding it neceſſary to be at peace with their neighbours, concluded a treaty, in May 1660, with the Poles, at the abbey of Oliva near Dantzick, whereby the Poles relinquiſhed their claim to Livonia, and left the Swedes in the entire poſſeſſion of that province; and in the ſame month they concluded a peace with Denmark, on the ſame conditions they had agreed on at Roſchild; only the Swedes ceded the iſland of Bornholm, and the city and territory of Drontheim in Norway, to the Danes.

After theſe tranſactions the Swedes entered into a treaty with England and Holland againſt France, called the triple alliance. On the commencement of the war, in 1674, they entered into an alliance with France, and invaded Brandenburgh; but their forces were defeated by that elector, who made himſelf maſter of moſt of their territories in Pomerania, while the duke of Zell reduced Bremen and Verden, and the Danes recovered ſeveral towns in Schonen; but the latter being afterwards defeated in ſeveral battles, they were compelled to make a ſeparate peace with Sweden at St. Germain's, which was ſucceeded by the treaty of Nimeguen, in 1678, whereby all the territories the Swedes had loſt in this war were reſtored to them; and king Charles married Ulrica Eleonora, ſiſter to the king of Denmark.

The young king had been declared of age, in the year 1672; and the ſtates ſoon after made him as abſolute as any prince in Europe, declaring, that the king received his crown from God, and was accountable to none but God for his actions, reſigning their ſhare in the government entirely in his hands. He ſoon made uſe of the powers they had inveſted him with, to reſume all the grants his predeceſſors had made of the crown lands, and erected a court for enquiring into ſuch miſdemeanours as had been committed by the great lords, or any other of his wealthy ſubjects, and repleniſhed his treaſury by the fines they were condemned in, whereby many of the ſenators and great officers, civil and military, were reduced to great diſtreſs. He alſo lowered the coin, and obliged the creditors of the government to be content with half the money that was due to them, by ſetting a double value upon every piece, paying only the value of half a crown, where a crown was due. He ſeems to have made peace with all his neighbours, in order to make war upon the liberties and property of his ſubjects. The laſt conſiderable tranſaction he was concerned in, was his mediation between the confederates and France, and he had the honour of ſeeing a treaty of peace nearly concluded between thoſe powers, before his death, which happened in the month of April 1697, leaving one ſon, named Charles, born the 17th of June 1682, and two daughters, viz. Hedwick Sophia, born in 1681, and afterwards married to the duke of Holſtein; and Ulrica Eleonora, born in 1688, and married to Frederick, hereditary prince of Heſſe (afterwards elected king of Sweden) who died in 1741, without iſſue.

As the young prince, Charles XII. was but ſixteen years of age at the death of his father, his grandmother, the queen dowager, was appointed regent by the late king, till his ſon ſhould be completely eighteen; but he was, however, declared major by the ſenate, in November 1697, though he was not then ſixteen, and the ſame year ſaw the peace of Ryſwick concluded under his mediation.

In the mean time the king of Denmark continued to encroach on the territories of the duke of Holſtein, who had married Charles's eldeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Hedwick Sophia; Charles, therefore, interpoſed in the duke's behalf, and a treaty was entered upon to adjuſt this affair, which laſted near two years; but the Dane not being diſpoſed to do the duke juſtice, and knowing that the Swedes were too powerful for him, if he ſhould enter into a war ſingly, he ſecretly confederated with Auguſtus king of Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, and ventured to invade Holſtein again, while the king of Poland invaded Livonia on the ſouth, as the czar did on the weſt. The maritime powers obſerving this flame kindling in the north, and concluding they muſt expect no aſſiſtance from any of theſe princes, in caſe of a rupture with France, which was expected every day, they ſent a fleet into the Baltick, to propoſe pacific meaſures to his Daniſh majeſty, which that prince refuſing to liſten to, the confederate fleet blocked up Copenhagen by ſea, while Charles tranſported his army into the iſland of Zeland, laid ſiege to Copenhagen by land, and compelled the Danes, in Auguſt 1700, to conclude a peace with him at Travendal.

While the ſiege of Copenhagen was carrying on, Peter, czar of Muſcovy, invaded the province of Ingria, and in October following, laid ſiege to Narva; of which king Charles receiving advice, embarked his army as ſoon as he had concluded the peace with Denmark, and landing at Pernau in Livonia with eighteen thouſand men, he marched with all his horſe and four thouſand foot to Revel, leaving the reſt of his army to follow him with the artillery and baggage: but before they joined him, he fell upon the advanced poſts of the Ruſſians, and drove them before him into the Ruſſian camp: their generals imagining the whole Swediſh army had been with him, drew up their men in order of battle, and defended themſelves for ſome time: but the king entering the Ruſſian entrenchments in that part of the camp, where he expected to have met the czar, they all fled before they knew what forces the king had with him. And, indeed, the czar was not in the camp, but gone to aſſemble another army, in order to ſurround the Swedes, not doubting, but he ſhould have made them all priſoners. But, ſurely, ſuch a panic never poſſeſſed an army; ſome thouſands of the Ruſſians loſt their lives, without attempting to defend themſelves, and thirty thouſand of them, with the generals at their head, came and implored the king's mercy, laying down their arms at his feet, the Swedes not loſing above one thouſand five hundred men in all the engagement. It is ſaid, indeed, that the Ruſſian army amounted to one hundred thouſand men, and there is no doubt but they vaſtly out-numbered the Swedes: but relations, concerning the events of war, are uſually much magnified.

The king of Poland, who lay before Riga, raiſed the ſiege of that place, when he underſtood Charles was marching that way, leaving his army encamped on the ſouth ſhore of the river Dwina, to defend the frontiers of Poland againſt the Swedes. This army being commanded by the duke of Courland, a moſt accompliſhed general, king Charles met with much greater oppoſition than he had done at Narva, though the enemy's forces were not more numerous than his own. The Saxon troops fought very bravely and contended long for victory; but king Charles proved victorious, and marched into Courland, of which the duke was ſovereign, where he laid that province under contribution. From thence he marched into Lituania, where leaving a part of his forces to aſſiſt Saphiea againſt prince Ogintki (theſe great men having drawn the whole province into a kind of civil war) he marched with the reſt to the capital city of Warſaw, which opened her gates to him;

king Auguſtus and his friends being fled towards Cracow. Here he declared to the cardinal primate, who came to attend him, that he would never give peace to Poland till they had elected another king, and began his march towards Cracow; which Auguſtus being acquainted with, aſſembled his Saxon forces, and the Poles in his intereſt, determined to give the Swedes battle.

The two armies met in the plains of Cliſſaw, almoſt in the midway between Warſaw and Cracow, on the 19th of July 1702. The king of Poland's army conſiſted of twenty-four thouſand men, Poles and Saxons; and that of the Swedes is ſaid not to have been more than twelve thouſand. The young duke of Holſtein, a prince of great merit, who commanded the Swediſh horſe, was killed by a cannon ball, on the firſt diſcharge of the Saxon artillery. The king being told he was dead, ſhed ſome tears, and then covering his face a ſhort time, ſpurred his horſe, and charged the enemy at the head of his guards. The king of Poland, on the other hand, thrice led on his troops to the charge, and fought like a prince whoſe crown was at ſtake; but was at length forced to ſubmit to the ſuperior fortune of Charles, who gained a complete victory, made himſelf maſter of the Saxon camp, colours, artillery, baggage, and military cheſt, and, without reſting, purſued Auguſtus as he fled towards Cracow, who, not thinking himſelf ſecure, left that city before king Charles arrived there. The citizens ſhutting their gates againſt the conqueror, he forced his way into the town, and took the caſtle by ſtorm, obliging the townſmen to pay him large contributions; but he made his ſoldiers obſerve ſuch exact diſcipline, that they were not ſuffered to plunder any of the inhabitants.

Soon after this, Charles left Cracow, and purſued Auguſtus very cloſely; but had not advanced far from the city, before his horſe threw him, and broke his thigh; whereupon he was carried back to Cracow, and confined to his bed ſix weeks, the party of Auguſtus giving out that he was dead; and a diet being aſſembled at Lublin, moſt of the grandees of Poland came in and took the oaths of allegiance to king Auguſtus. In this oath, they declared, that they never had, nor ever would, attempt any thing againſt this prince; and the primate coming in among the reſt, Auguſtus excuſed his taking the firſt part of the oath, at which the cardinal bluſhed, but took the latter part of it. The reſult of the diet was, that they would maintain an army of fifty thouſand men in defence of Auguſtus, and allow Charles but ſix weeks time to conſider whether he intended peace or war; but that prince having received a reinforcement of ſix thouſand horſe and eight thouſand foot from Sweden, overturned all their ſchemes, and fell upon a body of Saxons, commanded by general Stenau, who were encamped on the oppoſite ſide of the river Bug, ſwimming his horſe over that river; which ſo terrified the Saxons, that moſt of them fled without waiting the attack. The city of Thorn, ſtill holding out againſt the Swedes, the king laid ſiege to it, and, as he wore a plain dreſs, was never ſingled out by the enemy's gunners; but general Lieven, in a laced coat, walking with him, the king perceived the ſhot fly very thick, and directed the general to walk behind him; which the general refuſing, becauſe the king would then be moſt expoſed to the ſhot, his majeſty took the general by the arm, and compelled him to walk behind him; which he had no ſooner done, but a cannon-ball, which came in flank, ſtruck the general. This very much confirmed the king in the notion he entertained of predeſtination; for his majeſty would have been in the very place where the general ſtood, if he had not removed him in that inſtant, with a deſign to preſerve him.

Rovel, the governor of Thorn, made a brave defence againſt the victorious Swedes for a month; but was then obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion. The king was ſo well pleaſed with the conduct and courage that governor had expreſſed in defence of this town, that he gave him his own ſword, when he was brought priſoner before him, and preſented him with a ſum of money. He never failed to reward valour, even in thoſe who were enemies to him.

After this, the king next marched to Elbing, which city not opening their gates to him ſo ſoon as he expected, he obliged them to raiſe him two hundred and ſixty thouſand crowns; and thus he made the conquered towns contribute ſo largely to the charges of the war that his own kingdom was very little burthened with taxes; whereas other generals frequently beggar their own country while they enlarge their conqueſts.

During theſe tranſactions, the cardinal primate, who had a little before renewed his oaths of allegiance to king Auguſtus, aſſembled the ſtates of the kingdom at Warſaw, the 14th of February, 1704, and declared, that this ſame Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, had rendered himſelf incapable of wearing the crown of Poland; and the ſtates immediately declared, that the throne was vacant, at leaſt ſuch of them as were aſſembled on this occaſion; for Auguſtus had ſtill many friends who refuſed to appear.

The aſſembly at Warſaw, before they ſeparated, received a letter from the king of Sweden, deſiring they would make choice of prince James Sobieſki for their king, who was the ſon of John Sobieſki, their late king, who relieved Vienna. This prince was then at Breſlau in Sileſia, and received the compliments of ſome of the Poles on this occaſion; but as he was one day hunting within a little way of that city with his brother prince Conſtantine, they were both ſurprized by thirty Saxon troopers, that king Auguſtus had ſent to lie in ambuſcade, and carried off to Leipſick in Saxony. About the ſame time, Renchild the Swediſh general was very near ſurprizing king Auguſtus, whom he hunted from place to place, as he would have done a wild beaſt; but the king had the good fortune to eſcape him, and retired into Saxony. Charles hereupon offered the crown of Poland to prince Alexander, the brother of Sobieſki; but he refuſed it, looking upon that crown to be his eldeſt brother's right. Charles was then adviſed by count Piper his prime miniſter, by Staniſlaus, and all the poles of his party, to accept the crown of Poland himſelf; but his Swediſh majeſty had ſo little ambition, that he would not comply with the importunity of his friends, though the kingdom was at that time entirely in his power.

Staniſlaus, whom Charles recommended to the choice of the Poles, ſeems to have been a prince of great virtue and merit, which were the principal motives Charles had to advance him to the throne. He is alſo ſaid to have been endued with great courage, abſtemious like himſelf, extremely temperate, hoſpitable, and generous to his vaſſals and dependants, inſomuch that he was almoſt adored, and eſteemed in every reſpect the propereſt perſon to ſucceed to that throne. He was elected by the diet at Warſaw, on the 12th of July 1704, in the abſence of the cardinal primate, who ſtill pretended to be neuter; whereupon Staniſlaus was crowned by the biſhop of Poſnania, and the primate, as well as the reſt of the great officers, were obliged to come and take the oaths of allegiance to him; which was no ſooner effected, than the king of Sweden marched into the ſouth of Poland, and took the town of Lemburgh, or Leopold, capital of that part of the kingdom, where Auguſtus had lodged moſt of his treaſures, and Charles met with no leſs than four hundred cheſts full of gold and ſilver in this place.

While Charles was engaged in this fortunate expedition, Staniſlaus remained at Warſaw with a garriſon of ſix thouſand Polanders and one thouſand five hundred Swedes; but having received advice that Auguſtus was marching towards that city at the head of twenty thouſand men, and being ſenſible he could not defend himſelf at Warſaw, which was in a manner an open town, he ſent away his family into his own palatinate of Poſnania. The cardinal primate flew into Pruſſia, and moſt of them that were of the party of Staniſlaus abandoned the place. The new king fled from his capital within ſix weeks after he had been proclaimed, and joined Charles near Lemburgh; only the biſhop of Poſnania, who crowned him, was left behind, being fallen ſick, and not able to travel. The Swediſh garriſon retired into the caſtle, ſoon after which Auguſtus entered the city as a conqueror, and not only demanded a contribution from all the inhabitants in general, but ſuffered his ſoldiers to plunder the primate's palace, and the houſes of all the great men who adhered to Staniſlaus: the biſhop of Poſnania, after ſeeing his palace plundered, was carried away into Saxony, where he died, and the Swedes in the caſtle were obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of war; which Charles was no ſooner acquainted with, than he prepared to engage the Saxons, who fled before him, and at length overtaking general Sculemberg, who commanded the greateſt body of Saxon troops, it was with difficulty that general made his eſcape from him into Sileſia, loſing the greateſt part of his army in the retreat, in which, however, he diſplayed a great deal of generalſhip. Auguſtus, having now no forces capable of making head againſt Charles, abandoned Poland a ſecond time, and ſhut himſelf up in Dreſden, the capital of his German dominions, which gave an opportunity to Staniſlaus to reſort to Warſaw again, where he was ſolemnly crowned on the 4th of October, 1705, by the archbiſhop of Lemburgh, aſſiſted by ſeveral other prelates, the cardinal prelate dying at Dantzick about this time,

time, having written a letter firſt to king Auguſtus, to beg his pardon for his treacherous conduct towards that prince.

In the mean time the czar having ſent a great reinforcement of troops into Poland, to the aſſiſtance of his friend and ally king Auguſtus, and Schulemburg, the Saxon general, having raiſed another army in Saxony, with which he joined the Ruſſians, a battle was fought at Frauenſted, on the 12th of February, 1706, wherein the Saxons and Ruſſians were again defeated by the Swedes; the Ruſſians threw down their arms and begged for mercy, but the Swediſh general, Renchild, ordered them all to be put to death in cold blood, to revenge the barbarities the czar had committed in Livonia; for the czar taking advantage of the king of Sweden's abſence from that province, had reduced moſt part of it, taken the chief towns, maſſacred great numbers of the inhabitants, and ſent the reſt in chains to the remoteſt part of his dominions.

The king of Sweden having driven both the Ruſſians and Saxons out of Poland, bent his march towards the river Oder, in order to enter Saxony, which induced the diet of the empire to declare him their enemy, in caſe he paſſed the Oder; the king, however, continued his march, and entering the frontiers of Saxony, the inhabitants immediately fled from their houſes, till his Swediſh majeſty publiſhed a proclamation to inform them, that all who returned to their houſes, and paid the contributions he required, ſhould be treated as his ſubjects, but to the reſt he ſhould give no quarter; and the people thereupon returned to their houſes.

The army being encamped at Alranſted, near Leipſic, Charles ſummoned the ſtates of Saxony to meet him there, and bring with them an account of the revenues of the electorate, which having peruſed, he impoſed on them a tax or contribution of ſix hundred and twenty-five thouſand rix dollars (crowns) a month, beſides which he obliged them to ſupply every one of the ſoldiers with two pounds of meat, two pounds of bread, two pots of beer, and four pence a day, with forage for their horſes; then he ordered every houſe, in which any of his ſoldiers were quartered, to ſend him certificates of the ſoldiers behaviour every month, without which the ſoldier was not to receive his pay. He aſſigned inſpectors alſo to viſit every houſe, and enquire if his ſoldiers had committed any irregularities, and puniſh them as they deſerved; and under ſuch an exact diſcipline were his ſoldiers, that when a town was taken by ſtorm, they durſt not ſeize upon the plunder without leave: and ſo well ſatisfied were the people with their ſecurity, while the Swediſh forces remained in Saxony, that the great annual fairs were held at Leipſic, without interruption, as before.

Auguſtus having ſent to the conqueror to beg a peace on his own terms, he immediately tranſmitted to him the following articles; viz. I. That Auguſtus ſhould for ever renounce the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Staniſlaus lawful king, and promiſe never to remount the throne, even after the death of Staniſlaus. II. That he renounce all other alliances, eſpecially that of Ruſſia. III. That he releaſe the prince Sobieſki, and all his priſoners. IV. That he deliver up all deſerters, particularly John Patkul; and that all who have deſerted his ſervice and been entertained in the Swediſh ſervice ſhall not be liable to a proſecution.

While this treaty was in agitation, Menzikof, general of the Ruſſians, entered Poland at the head of thirty thouſand men and joined Auguſtus, who had ſtill a body of ſix thouſand Saxons with him; they attacked the Swediſh general Maderfield, who commanded ten thouſand men near Caliſh, and obtained a complete victory, for which Auguſtus ſung Te Deum at Warſaw; but in the midſt of theſe rejoicings, Auguſtus received advice that his plenipotentiaries in Saxony had agreed to the terms abovementioned, which he found himſelf obliged to ratify, or ſee his German dominions ruined as well as Poland: Auguſtus had ſeveral conferences afterwards with Charles, and endeavoured to procure better terms; but Charles was ſo incenſed at the defeat of his forces under Maderfield, that he made them ſtill worſe, and obliged Auguſtus to ſend Staniſlaus the following letter; viz. "Sir and brother, as I ought to regard the directions of the king of Sweden, I cannot avoid congratulating your majeſty upon your acceſſion to the crown, though perhaps the advantageous treaty the king of Sweden has lately concluded for your majeſty might have excuſed me from this correſpondence; however, I congratulate your majeſty, beſeeching God that your ſubjects may be more faithful to you than they have been to me. Auguſtus, king. Leipſic, April 8, 1707." Auguſtus was alſo obliged to order his Saxon ſubjects not to addreſs him as a king for the future, and cauſe his title to be omitted in the prayers uſed in the churches.

Auguſtus would fain have procured the eſcape of Patkul; but in ſpite of all his endeavours, he was at length delivered up by the governor of Koniſſing caſtle in Saxony, to four Swediſh officers, who carried him to the king of Sweden's quarters at Alranſted, where he remained three months in chains, till he was tried by a council of war, and condemned to be broke alive upon the wheel, the uſual puniſhment for traitors in Sweden; for Patkul was a native of Livonia, and conſequently a ſubject of Sweden, and was one of the five deputies ſent with a memorial to Charles XI. king of Sweden, to repreſent to that prince the hardſhips the Livonians lay under, by the invaſion of their liberties, and to ſolicit redreſs; which was ſo reſented by the then adminiſtration, that Patkul was condemned to have his right hand cut off, and afterwards to be beheaded, and his eſtate confiſcated; to avoid which ſentence, he fled into Ruſſia, where he was advanced to the higheſt employments by the czar and Auguſtus: but Charles XII. was moſt incenſed againſt him, for being the principal occaſion of the invaſion of Livonia by the Poles and Ruſſians: it cannot therefore deſerve cenſure, that this prince did not ſpare him, when he was condemned as a traitor for ſuch atrocious crimes, ſo many years perſiſted in.

During the king of Sweden's ſtay in Saxony, he was attended by ambaſſadors and miniſters from all the powers in Europe; the allies were terribly afraid he would join the French againſt the confederates. The duke of Marlborough was therefore ſent by the Britiſh court to ſound his intentions, by offering him the mediation between the allies and France; but when he found he had only a deſign to mortify the emperor for ſome affronts he had received, and that his preſent view was the conqueſt of Ruſſia, and the depoſing of the czar, the duke returned well ſatisfied that the allies would meet with no interruption from the Swedes in carrying on the war againſt France.

About this time count Zobor, lord chamberlain to the emperor, having ſpoken very diſreſpectfully of the king of Sweden, the king demanded that he ſhould be delivered up to be puniſhed as he deſerved, which the imperial court found themſelves under a neceſſity of complying with; but the king having kept that miniſter with him a little while, ſent him back to Vienna unhurt. His next demand was, that the houſe of Auſtria ſhould grant their proteſtant ſubjects in Sileſia the liberties and privileges they were entitled to by the treaty of Weſtphalia; and the Lutherans had thereupon upwards of an hundred churches reſigned to them, which the Roman Catholics had taken from them, and were allowed to profeſs their religion publickly; (but that king was no ſooner incapable of affording the Sileſians his protection, than the Auſtrians revived the perſecution of the Proteſtants again.) And now Charles having obtained for the Proteſtants the reſtoration of their rights, he began his march towards Poland, and as he paſſed by Dreſden made Auguſtus a ſhort viſit, attended only by two or three gentlemen of his court, and having breakfaſted with that prince, and viewed the fortifications of the city, returned to his army, who were in great pain for him, when they knew he had put himſelf into the power of his mortal enemy, and were overjoyed when they ſaw him return in ſafety.

Charles marched out of Saxony into Poland in September, 1707, at the head of forty-three thouſand men, and he had another army of twenty thouſand men in Poland, commanded by count Lewenhaupt. The czar was then with his army in Lithuania, but retired to the confines of Ruſſia as Charles advanced; the grand ſeignior about this time ſent the king of Sweden a ſolemn embaſſy, and preſented him with an hundred Swediſh ſoldiers the Tartars had taken. He deſired the alliance of the Swedes and Poles, that they might make a diverſion in his favour whenever he ſhould be engaged in war with the emperors of Germany or Ruſſia: the king of Sweden found Poland ſo deſtroyed by the Ruſſians, that he was forced to remain there a year before he could furniſh himſelf with ſupplies to enter upon his grand deſign of invading Ruſſia, and then he followed the czar towards the Ukrain, who had aſſembled moſt of his forces on that ſide to reduce the Coſſacks, commanded by their general Mazeppa, who had promiſed the king of Sweden to join him whenever he ſhould march that way.

Charles, apprehending the Coſſacks might be ſuppreſſed by the Ruſſians before he arrived, marched with great expedition towards Kiof on the Boriſthenes, leaving general Lewenhaupt to follow him with a body of ſixteen

thouſand men, and convoy a train of artillery, and ſeveral thouſand waggons loaden with ammunition and proviſions; but Lewenhaupt being ſurrounded in his march by a numerous army of Ruſſians, commanded by the czar in perſon, after he had defended himſelf three days, was at laſt compelled to retire, having loſt the greateſt part of his army, and all his artillery, ammunition and proviſions, and with great difficulty joined the king with the remainder of his troops, which did not amount to more than four or five thouſand.

Mazeppa alſo having been defeated by the czar's forces, joined the king with very few troops; and now the communication being cut of between Poland and Ruſſia, Charles could receive neither recruits nor proviſions, and great part of his army periſhed by hard marches, and the rigour of the ſeaſon. In the winter of 1709, he loſt, as is reported, two thouſand men in one day, and in April following his army did not amount to eighteen thouſand men, beſides Coſſacks or Tartars of the Ukrain. In this condition, about the latter end of May, he laid ſiege to Pultowa, which lies in the latitude of fifty, about forty miles eaſt of the Boriſthenes, in which the czar had a great magazine, by the taking whereof Charles hoped to furniſh himſelf with proviſions, and open a way to Muſcovy; but he was defeated at Pultowa, and his whole army entirely cut off or made priſoners, except three or four hundred horſe, with which he eſcaped to Bender in Turkey. He there gave ſignal proofs of a deſperate intrepidity, as incapable of fear as void of diſcretion, having with a handful of men performed prodigies of perſonal valour againſt the whole force of Ruſſia: he was at length made priſoner, and peace being ratified, returned to Sweden. His paſſion for war hurrying him into freſh broils, he met his death by a cannon-ball at the ſiege of Frederickſhall, anno 1718, very fortunately for the peace of Europe.

The peculiarity of character which diſtinguiſhed this prince is ſtrongly depicted by M. de Voltaire. No dangers, however ſudden or imminent, ſays this writer, ever occaſioned in him the leaſt diſmay, even when they have ſhaken the conſtancy of the firmeſt among his followers: he ſeems, in ſhort, to have been a man diveſted of the ſmalleſt particle of fear; and the manner in which he is related to have endured cold and hunger ſhew him to be a prodigy of ſtrength as well as courage. His rapid ſucceſſes againſt the combined force of Denmark, Poland, and Ruſſia, prove him to be no ordinary man; but although they aſtoniſhed all Europe, yet in their conſequences they were fatal to the kingdom which he governed. A ſtrong reſentment againſt the unprovoked attacks made upon him, led him to meditate enterprizes againſt his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature, and the cool and undiſmayed perſeverance of his great adverſary, the czar Peter, at length prevailed over his ill-directed ardour.

On Charles's death, his ſiſter Ulrica Eleanora aſcended the throne, by the free election of the ſtates; but firſt gave up all pretenſions to arbitrary power; and in 1720, by conſent of the diet, transferred the government to her huſband Frederic, hereditary prince of Heſſe Caſſel. King Frederic having no iſſue, the ſtates, in 1743, nominated Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holſtein, and biſhop of Eutin, his ſucceſſor, who accordingly, on the deceaſe of Frederic, aſſumed the reins of government on the 5th of April, 1751.

The ſenate had been gradually advancing in power for ſeveral years; the encroachments made by that body on the royal power were ſo conſiderable, that the condition of the king of Sweden became extremely diſagreeable; he found his authority diſputed, and his perſon treated with diſreſpect by an arbitrary ſupercilious ſenate. Frederic having applied to this body to convoke an extraordinary diet, in order to examine into the cauſes of the many heavy grievances which oppreſſed the kingdom, found the power of the latter too predominant to accompliſh his purpoſe, and had the further mortification to ſee it proceed to ſome unconſtitutional acts which directly encroached on his prerogative. Fully determined to wreſt from the ſenate their aſſumed power, and to recover that participation of authority which the conſtitution had aſſigned to the crown, he proceeded to a meaſure both bold and deciſive. On the thirteen of December, 1768, he ſigned a declaration, by which he formally abdicated the crown of Sweden; and by giving public notice throughout his dominions of this ſtep, at once ſuſpended all the functions of government. The ſenate felt their authority inſufficient to counteract ſuch a meaſure, for their orders were diſputed by all the colleges of ſtate, who had ceaſed to tranſact the buſineſs of their ſeveral departments. The magiſtrates of Stockholm, agreeable to the form of government, were proceeding to convoke the order of burghers, which compelled the ſenate to conſent to the deſired aſſembly of the diet, and the king's concurrence was requeſted to confirm the proclamation for that purpoſe, which being given, he reſumed the reins of government. At the meeting of the diet, which followed on April 19, 1769, though it coincided in ſome particulars with the king's views, yet it was far from effecting every thing which he wiſhed.

On February 12, 1771, the king of Sweden died, and was ſucceeded by Guſtavus the prince royal, then twenty-five years of age. The acceſſion of this young prince to the throne, with the prepoſſeſſions of the people ſtrongly in his favour, was a favourable period for extending the power of the crown by the reduction of that of the ſenate. An ariſtocracy naturally and rapidly degenerates into deſpotiſm; the yoke of which is rendered more intolerable to a people in proportion as the oppreſſions of a number of tyrants are more grievous than thoſe of a ſingle one. The new king found his people divided into two great political parties, diſtinguiſhed by the names of hats and caps; the former eſpouſed the intereſt of the court, the latter the country or patriotic party.

The moſt maſterly ſtrokes of policy, as well as the moſt profound diſſimulation were uſed by this monarch to circumvent and deſtroy the influence of the ſenate. The people were grievouſly oppreſſed; for beſides the rigorous exactions made on the common people by their rulers, they ſuffered every calamity which a year of great ſcarcity naturally occaſions. The army was devoted to his intereſt, and his two brothers, prince Charles and prince Frederic Auguſtus, each commanded a body of troops.

In 1772, whilſt the king was amuſing the ſenate at Stockholm with the moſt warm and ſpecious profeſſions of diſintereſtedneſs, and of his wiſhes to be thought only the firſt citizen of a free country, an inſurrection of the military happened at Chriſtianſtadt in the province of Scano; this was ſet on foot by one Hellichins, who commanded there. The plea made uſe of to juſtify it was, the tyranny and oppreſſion of the governing powers. Prince Charles, who was purpoſely in thoſe parts, made this a pretence to aſſemble the troops under his command, whilſt his brother, who was at Oſtrogothia, put himſelf at the ſame time at the head of the troops in thoſe parts.

The ſenate were much alarmed at theſe proceedings, whilſt the king, with the moſt conſummate diſſimulation, expreſſed his reſentment againſt the inſurgents, and his zeal to repreſs them, at the ſame time, by ſtationing the military force in Stockholm ſo as to ſurround the ſenate-houſe, he effectually controuled the deliberations carried on there. In this exigency the ſenate found themſelves totally abandoned by the ſoldiery, who one and all took oaths of allegiance to the king, who being thus ſupported, was enabled to accompliſh a great and almoſt unparalleled revolution; and to deprive an extenſive nation of its liberties in a ſingle morning, without bloodſhed, without noiſe, without tumult, and without oppoſition; while the people flocked together with as much indifference and tranquillity as if it had only been to partake of ſome diverſion.

After this, the king repaired to the caſtle, and, having ſent for the foreign miniſters, who had retreated there during the commotion, informed them, that it was with tears in his eyes he had agreed to the meaſure of which they were witneſſes, and which he was forced to take for the ſecurity of his perſon, as well as of the ſtate, which were both equally in danger. He entreated them to aſſure their reſpective courts, that his motives, when made known, would juſtify him in the eyes of all Europe; that this affair ſhould not be productive of any alteration in his conduct with reſpect to other powers; and to be aſſured, that what he had done was for the welfare of his people, and the maintenance of true liberty among them.

Next morning the king received the oath of the magiſtrates, the burghers, and the college of Stockholm, by whom they were bound to obey him only, and not the ſenate, or their deputies; and a book was opened in one of the apartments of the palace, wherein all thoſe in general were to ſubſcribe their names, who were willing to take the oath of fidelity. The ſenators, and great officers, who refuſed to take the oaths, were all ſtrictly confined. among whom were baron Rudbeck, count Heſſenſtein, the chief magiſtrate Soenderbald, the fiſcal Engerſtroem, the king's ſecretary Helſingius, the ſecretaries of the nobles, baron Cederſtroem, count Kalling, and general Struſenfeldt, the three ſecretaries of the clergy, the two of the burghers, and the two ſecretaries belonging to the order of peaſants. Theſe were ſoon after ſoun acquainted by the

king, that they must take their final resolution, either to swear to the new form of government, or to quit the kingdom for ever, and to give a categorical answer within a month; and the following day (August 21) being appointed for abolishing the old form of government, and the establishing of the new, the king assembled all the states in a plenum plenorum for that purpose.

Such decisive measures were taken for the completion of this great act, as committed nothing to chance, or to the caprice of fortune. A large detachment of the guards took possession in the morning of the square where the house of nobles stands; the palace was invested on every side with troops; all the garrison was under arms; and every thing carried on not only the appearance of war, but of the immediate attack of an enemy; while cannon were brought in and planted in the great court of the hall where the states were assembled. Being thus conveniently secured in this place of terrors, it was not a matter of much consideration, whether they should accede to the propositions that were to be made to them.

The king opened the scene, by entering the hall in all his regalia; soon after which, having the silver hammer of Gustavus Adolphus in his hand, he made himself the signal for silence, an office which was usually executed by a senator; but none of that body were in the present assembly. The king then made a long speech to the states, in which he represented the deplorable state to which the nation was reduced by the two great factions that divided the people; that by this means they were severed as it were into two separate nations, who united only in the mangling their country; that the rancour, revenge, and persecution that proceeded from this state of discord, was productive of new revolutions, that grew at length into a periodical disease, which disfigured the whole commonwealth; that commotions, which shook the realm, sprung from the ambition of a few; that streams of blood had been poured, sometimes by one party, and sometimes by another; and that the people were always the sacrifices to quarrels, in the event of which they had but little concern.

He further observed, that the only end of their rulers had been to fortify their own power; and that every thing had of necessity been adapted to that purpose; that where the law was clear, the letter of it had been perverted; and where it had been palpably repugnant, it had been broken through. That nothing had been sacred to a people inflamed with hatred and revenge; and that the seeds of confusion had in the end extended so far, that it became a declared opinion, that a majority was above the law; and owned no restraint but its own pleasure. That thus liberty, the noblest of the rights of men, had been transformed into an unsupportable aristocratical tyranny, in the hands of the ruling party; which was itself enslaved, and led at pleasure by a very small number of its body. That the notice of a new assembly of the states made every one tremble; that, far from considering how the affairs of the nation might be best transacted, they were only busied in getting together a majority for their party, that they might be screened from the insolence and lawless violence of the other.

The king then laid, or insinuated, a charge of the blackest dye. He said, if the interior situation of the realm stood thus endangered, how hideous was its external aspect! "I blush (says he) to speak about it: born a Swede, and now a king of Sweden, it should be an impossibility for me to believe that foreign schemes should govern Swedish men; and that the basest means should have been employed for that purpose. You know what it is I mean: my blushes ought to make you deeply sensible into what contempt the kingdom has been thrown by your quarrels."

Then the king made a solemn renunciation upon oath of all absolute sovereignty and power, and that he did not even desire or wish for it; after which he ordered the new form of government to be read to the states by the secretary of revision. This piece, which is of a great length, consists of fifty-seven articles: the most essential of which are: That the king is to choose the senate himself: That he is to call the states together when he pleases, and to separate them also when he pleases, after they have at any time continued sitting for three months: That the contributions are to be given by the states: but if not granted within three months, the old ones are to remain: in case of invasion, or pressing necessity the king may impose some taxes for raising money till the states can be assembled: When the states are assembled, they are not to deliberate upon any thing but what the king pleases to lay before them: That the king is to have the sole disposition of the army, navy, and finances, and of all the employments in the state.

The king proceeded, in the next place, to dismiss all the old senators, and to confer the dignity on fifteen noblemen who were well attached to his interest. To shew his attention to the distresses of the people, and to increase the odium thrown on the states, by making them the cause of the famine which prevailed, he directed ten thousand measures of meal of twenty pounds each to be distributed among the common people. A grand deputation from the four orders, consisting of an hundred and twenty persons, waited on the king, to return him thanks for his paternal care, by which the nation had been restored to its true liberty; and to desire that a medal might be struck to commemorate the happy event that had taken place.

The meetings of the diet were, from this time, productive of nothing but compliances in the fullest terms with the king's requisitions: they enabled him to raise extraordinary supplies upon particular occasions, by the help of a secret committee, and constituted him both judge of the exigence and establisher of the means of supply; while the directors of the bank were to compose a secret committee to be consulted on such matters as the king thought proper to lay before them. By these measures, the king has become virtually possessed of all the powers of government, and the states seem thereby to have irrevocably sealed their own doom; for the crown appears to have no motive for convoking a diet any more, unless some very extraordinary change of circumstances takes place, to render it necessary.

That the Swedes should thus tamely endure the overthrow of their constitution, and the loss of their liberties, will ever continue a subject of admiration. The time is not yet beyond the memory of man, when they were emancipated from the most deplorable state of despotism that any nation could groan under. In the reign of Charles XII. they had scarcely a merchant ship upon the ocean; yet such were the happy effects of the subsequent change of government, that notwithstanding the losses they had sustained by his wars, six hundred Swedish ships passed through the sound annually, within twenty years after his death; besides the great trade of the port of Gottenburgh, which lies without the sound, and the internal commerce of the Baltick. They have now surrendered every thing that is most dear to mankind, without the smallest contest. It is more than probable, that within another age, they will afford a fresh conviction to the world, that commerce cannot flourish under an arbitrary government.

This revolution however presents a mirror, which if properly attended to, will exhibit objects of the greatest import to those few states which still retain any vestiges of civil liberty. The prince who has had the resolution to undertake, and the address to effect so arduous an enterprize as the late revolution in Sweden, cannot be supposed to remain long an inconsiderable party in the system of Europe. By his penetration and sagacity, he has in a few months accomplished his designs upon his own kingdom; at twenty-five years of age he has out-plotted the most experienced politicians; he has out-talked the most rigid republicans in his discourses upon liberty, and out-canted the most zealous enthusiasts in his appeals to Heaven. Such a prince, in whom the whole powers of the state center, will probably use strenuous endeavours to recover some share of that rank and consequence to his kingdom which were supported with so much lustre by his predecessors in the last century, and the beginning of the present.

CHAP. IV.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

DENMARK.

SECT. I.

Comprising a General Account of this Kingdom, its Situation and Boundaries, Soil, Climate, Produce, &c. alſo the Diviſion, Cities, Towns, &c. contained in it; particularly of JUTLAND, properly ſo called.

THIS kingdom, called in Latin Dania, is one of the moſt antient in Europe; being compoſed of ſeveral parts, viz. Jutland, including the duchies of Sleſwick, which is the continental part; and the iſlands of the Baltick, which ſome deem the moſt conſiderable portion. The name of Denmark is now given to the whole country.

The continental part of Denmark, namely, Jutland, lies between the fifty-fourth and fifty-ninth degrees of north latitude, and from the eighth to the forty-fifth degree of eaſt longitude, extending from north to ſouth near two hundred and forty miles; the breadth, in ſome parts, not being above twenty-four miles, and in others near an hundred and eighty. On the ſouth, it is divided from the duchies of Lunenburg and Bremen by the river Elbe; on the eaſt, it is bounded by the Categate and Middle Fort Sound, or Leſſer Belt; and the German ocean waſhes it on the northern or weſtern parts.

On the continent, and in the iſlands which form part of this kingdom, the ſoil varies greatly. In the former, there are good paſtures, but the latter are too ſandy to be fruitful.

In North Jutland the air is ſharp and piercing; but on the eaſt ſide of South Jutland, and in the iſlands of Funen and Zealand, it is milder and more temperate: in the low and marſhy part, in the iſland of Laaland, the air is thick, moiſt, and unhealthy. The ſudden changes of the winds, indeed, render the weather ſomewhat variable, but at the ſame time purge the air of fogs and vapours. The weſt wind, which frequently blows in theſe parts, is the moſt violent.

Denmark is chiefly of a low and level ſurface, and, except the tract of land about the middle of Jutland, is very fertile; ſo that the country produces plenty for its inhabitants, and yields every neceſſary for the ſupport of human life: they breed horned cattle and horſes for exportation, and grow a ſufficiency of corn for their own ſupport. The ſea-coaſts, lakes, ponds, rivers, and brooks of this country yield abundance of fiſh. Denmark produces no wine, no metals, and very little ſalt. Moſt of the provinces have wood ſufficient for their neceſſary occaſions; but others, having a more ſcanty ſupply, are obliged to burn turf. Beech wood, which is the kind moſt common here, and which is burnt in their ſtoves, rarifies and cleanſes the air, and in the opinion of Mr. Moleſworth, prevents the numerous diſorders which prey upon the lungs from being much felt in theſe parts.

We ſhall give a more particular account of the produce of this kingdom when we come to deſcribe its ſeveral provinces and iſlands.

There are four grand diviſions of Denmark; namely, 1. Jutland, properly ſo called, or North Jutland. 2. The duchy of Sleſwick, or South Jutland. 3. The duchy of Holſtein. 4. The Daniſh Iſlands.

North Jutland is bounded on the ſouth by the duchy of Sleſwick, towards the eaſt by the Baltick, the Categate, and the Leſſer Belt; and on the north and weſt, by the German ocean; and is divided into four dioceſes, viz. Ripen to the ſouth, Arhuſen to the eaſt, Wiburg to the weſt, and Aalburg to the north.

1. The dioceſe of Ripen is bounded on the north by thoſe of Arhuſen and Wiburg, on the ſouth by the duchy of Sleſwick, and it extends eaſt and weſt from the Baltick to the German Ocean. It contains thirty prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, two hundred and eighty-two pariſhes, ten royal palaces, an hundred noblemens ſeats, and ſeven cities; which are as follow:

Ripen or Rypen, is ſeated on the river Nipſaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itſelf into three branches, the largeſt of which runs on the north ſide of the town; the middle branch, which is the ſmalleſt, runs on the ſouth of it; the third, alſo, on the ſouth, but at ſome diſtance; they join again a little lower, and fall into the German ocean, three miles below Ripen, making a commodious harbour. This city is twenty-ſix miles diſtant from Tunderen towards the north, and twenty-four from Colding to the north-weſt. It is a place of conſiderable trade; the neighbouring paſtures and fields produce abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are drove almoſt all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are here ſhipped off for foreign countries, and eſpecially for Holland: their corn they export into the neighbouring countries, which have occaſion for it, all which afford them very great profit.

The city is often expoſed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with a prodigious violence from the ſea, ſo that the water ſometimes comes into the very church-yard of the cathedral, which ſtands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation with which Jutland was afflicted in the year 1634, the water roſe an ell high in the very cathedral. This place is ſtrong by nature only, without much aſſiſtance from art. Towards the weſt there is a caſtle, flanked with four bulwarks, after the old faſhion, ſaid to have been built in the year 1150. The citizens houſes are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumſtances than they are now; but they ſuffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but ſoon after recovered by the Danes. Before the reformation, this was a biſhop's ſee, as it is now of a ſuperintendant or Lutheran biſhop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-ſtone, as well as its ſteeple, which is ſquare, very high, and covered with lead. It is adorned within with ſeveral marble columns, and with the tombs of ſome kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catherine; here are alſo two public ſchools, for the education of youth in polite literature; and a college for divinity, in the court of the biſhop's palace, where there is alſo a public library.

The city is governed by two burgomaſters or conſuls, and by a ſenate, who formerly adminiſtered juſtice with ſo much ſeverity, that 'the juſtice of Ripen' was become a proverbial ſaying, to expreſs a rigorous execution of the laws. The Daniſh is the common language of the citizens, though there are a great many of them, eſpecially among the merchants, who ſpeak the German tongue.

Colding or Kolding, is an old city mentioned by Ptolemy, and ſtands on the banks of a little river called Coldinger Aa, which parts North Jutland from the duchy of Sleſwick, and falls into a little gulf, thence named the gulf of Colding. De Ville, author of the Travels of Denmark, obſerves, that this gulf is wrong ſet down in De Wit's map, which makes it too round at the bottom. Colding is about eleven miles diſtant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Erick VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Erick, duke of Sleſwick, and ſon to king Abel. He built a citadel there, to be, as it were, a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, eſpecially towards the ſouth.

Chriſtian

Chriſtian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable ſituation, and wholeſome air, built the caſtle of Arnſburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1ſt, 1559. The hoſpital was built by Frederick II. whoſe ſon endowed it conſiderably. In May 1644, the Danes gained a conſiderable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This place is but ſmall, ſince it does not contain above one hundred or one hundred and twenty houſes: but what makes it chiefly conſiderable is its bridge over the river Aa, which is called Boherrit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horſes, that come from Jutland, and go into Sleſwick, muſt paſs over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll, whence ariſes a conſiderable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Leſſer Belt, over-againſt Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fiſh, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Fredericks Ode ſtands on the banks of the Leſſer Belt, ten miles from Colding to the north-eaſt, and about twenty-ſeven from Ripen towards the eaſt. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well ſeated on a point of land, with an eaſy deſcent to the ſea-ward: it has been well fortified, being a paſs over the Leſſer Belt, or Middlefort-ſound. The works are very high on the land-ſide; and on the other ſide of the point there are eight baſtions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the ſea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are baſtions, platforms, and ſome batteries on the ſhore. Thoſe fortifications incloſe a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn fields and orchards within the walls. All the fortifications are now falling to decay.

This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts, Jews, and ſuch people; but king Frederick IV. has recalled thoſe privileges. Here are two churches, one Daniſh, and another German, but they have no ſteeples. In 1658, this town was taken by Charles Guſtavus's troops commanded by Wrangel; the garriſon conſiſting of two thouſand men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Funen; where the paſſage over the Belt is above three Engliſh miles. The Swedes burnt and demoliſhed this town in the year 1659.

Weille, or Weele, is ſix miles diſtant from Fredericks Ode to the north-weſt, and about twelve from Colding to the north. It ſtands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Leſſer Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat and well-built, but not large.

Warde is twenty-two miles to the north-weſt of Weille; Ringcoping is forty-five miles from Ripen, and twenty-four from Warde to the north. Lemwick is fifty-ſix from Ripen, and eighteen from Ringcoping to the north. Hoſtlebro ſtands about eleven miles from Lemwick to the ſouth-eaſt, and twelve from Ringcoping to the north-eaſt. It lies on a river which communicates with the German ocean by a lake into which the river falls: it is an inland town.

II. The dioceſe of Arhuſen is the eaſtern part of Jutland, having, on the ſouth, the dioceſes of Wiburg and Aalburg; on the weſt and ſouth, that of Ripen; and, on the eaſt, the Categate and Leſſer Belt. It extends about ſixty miles along the coaſt of the Baltick, but is not much above thirty miles in breadth at the wideſt part. It contains thirty-one prefectorſhips or bailiwicks, three hundred and four pariſhes, five caſtles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns; namely, 1. Arhuſen, the capital of the dioceſe: this city ſtands at the mouth of the river Gudi, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is eighty-ſix miles to the northward of Sleſwick, and forty-two north-eaſt of Ripen. The ſituation is pleaſant, being ſurrounded with foreſts full of game, paſtures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a conſiderable quantity of grain. The town itſelf is neat and agreeable, well furniſhed with proviſions, and domeſtic neceſſaries, from the neighbouring country; and with other commodities and luxuries from various places by means of ſhipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious ſtyle of architecture, beautified and embelliſhed with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The biſhop's palace was once a magnificent ſtructure, but is now fallen to decay. This city is now the ſee of a ſuperintendant: it was made an epiſcopal ſee in the year 1014. 2. Scanderberg is a good fortreſs, ſix miles from Arhuſen to the ſouth-weſt. 3. The ſmall town of Horſens is twelve miles from Arhuſen, ſouth-weſt. 4. Randers is a very antient city on the river Gude, and a place of great trade; and abounds with excellent ſalmon and corn. 5. Ebelſtot is about eighteen miles north-weſt from Arhuſen. 6. Grinaa is ſeven miles diſtant from Ebelſtot, to the north; and, 7. Mariager is ſixteen miles from Arhuſen, to the north. 8. The ſmall town of Hobro is ſix miles above Mariager, to the weſtward: it is ſituated on the bay of the Categate.

III. Wiburg has the dioceſe of Aalburg on the north, from which it is partly ſeparated from the gulf of Limford, having Arhuſen on the eaſt, and Ripen on the ſouth and weſt. This dioceſe is not above twenty-four miles from ſouth to north, and twenty-ſix from eaſt to weſt, being almoſt of a round figure. Though this is an inland country, it is not without the convenience of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into ſeveral parts of this land, and from whence, by means of the Limford into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltick ſea, they receive veſſels of great burthen. Among theſe lakes there is one named Otheſunde, from the emperor, Otho, ſurnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, and penetrated even as far as this country, and, caſting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it ſtill retains. The beſt horſes in Denmark are bred in that part of the dioceſe called Salling. In this territory are comprehended ſixteen prefectorſhips or bailiwicks, two hundred and eighteen pariſhes, and three garriſons.

The moſt conſiderable towns are, 1. Wiburg, which ſtands in the middle of north Jutland, of which it is the capital city. This is a place of great reſort, being the ſeat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, ſave to the king. It has been the ſee of a biſhop for above ſix hundred years. The biſhop and chapter ſtill ſubſiſt, though they are now of the Augſburg confeſſion. It ſtands near a branch of the gulf of Limford, called Virkſund, and was antiently called Cimmeriburg, as being the chief city of the Cimbri. 2. Sokeve, which ſtands on the ſame gulf, twelve miles to the north-weſt of Wiburg, and is famous for its breed of horſes. 3. Nybe, on the ſame gulf is eighteen miles from Wiburg, to the north-eaſt, is alſo noted for good horſes. The peninſula of Salling is ſurrounded on all ſides by the ſame gulf, except towards the ſouth, and is the moſt noted place in Denmark for fine horſes, of which foreigners export great numbers.

IV. Aalburg is the moſt northern dioceſe of Jutland, and ſurrounded by the ſea on all parts, except on the ſouth, where it is divided from Wiburg and Ripen by the gulf called Limford, which runs from the Baltick ſea, above fifty miles acroſs the country, and is ſhut out of the German ocean by a narrow iſthmus, or neck of land, made by the ſand-hills on the weſt ſhore of Jutland, over-againſt a great ſhoal called Jutche-Rift. Aalburg is about ſeventy miles long, from the ſouth-weſt to the uttermoſt point of Schager-Rift, in the north-eaſt; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every where, it being but about forty miles in the broadeſt part. The north part of this dioceſe, which is cut off by the gulf (for the city of Aalburg lies on the ſouth ſide of it) is called Wanſuſzel, and by Latin authors Vandalia. The inhabitants are extremely hardy. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade.

This dioceſe is divided into thirteen bailiwicks, which contain one hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pariſhes, one hundred caſtles, and the following cities and towns, viz. 1. Aalburg, ſo called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulf of Limford, on the ſouth ſhore of which it ſtands, about ſix miles from the Categate to the weſt. It is the ſee of a biſhop, founded about the year 1060; but the biſhops reſided antiently at Burglaw. 2. Wenſuſzel, or Burglaw, on the river Ryaa, which falls fourteen miles lower into the gulf of Limford, from which this city is as many miles diſtant, to the north: it was formerly a biſhop's ſee. 3. Schagen, or Skau, is ſeated on the cape which it gives name to: it is the moſt northern land of Jutland, between the Norwegian ſea and the Categate, or Schager-Rack. This town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, becauſe they touch here in their way to the Sound. 4. Nikioping is a conſiderable town: it is ſituated in the iſle of Mors, made by the gulf of Limford. 5. Tyſted is the moſt fruitful place of this diſtrict: it ſtands on the ſouth-weſt part of the dioceſe, near thirty miles from Aalburg, to the weſt. It is noted for a kind of univerſity, which was firſt a free-ſchool only, founded by Chriſtian III. 6. Seeby, fifteen miles diſtant from Schagen, to the ſouth-weſt, is a ſmall ſea-port town on the eaſtern ſhore.

SECT.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Duchy of SLESWICK, or SOUTH JUTLAND; and the Duchy of HOLSTEIN; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

SLESWICK derives its name from the capital of the duchy, but is frequently termed in hiſtory South Jutland, particularly by antient writers. Some have erroneouſly annexed it to Holſtein, and deſcribe it as a part of Germany; but Sleſwick is in reality a part of Denmark, and is divided from the duchy of Holſtein, which bounds it on the ſouth, and conſequently from the German empire, by the Eider and the Lewen; on the eaſt, it is bounded by the Baltick and the rivers Kalding and Skotburg, which ſeparate it from north Jutland; while to weſt it is waſhed by the north ſea. It is about eighty-five miles in length, and extends about eighty-ſix miles in the broadeſt part. A very few years ago a project was formed (but ſince laid aſide) to join the Baltick with the German ocean, or north ſea, by a cut carried acroſs the peninſula, which is compoſed of the duchies of Holſtein and Sleſwick.

This duchy is divided into four circles, viz. Gottorp, Tonderon, Flexburg, and Haderlaben. The chief towns of it are as follow:

1. Sleſwick, or Sleyzwick, the capital, is ſeated on a ſmall arm of the ſea, callep the Sley, at the diſtance of about twenty-two miles from Kiel towards the north-weſt, thirty-eight from Gluckſtadt to the north-eaſt, and twenty-eight from Lunden to the eaſt. Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed here in the ninth century; and the great church was founded by Erick Barn, aſſiſted by St. Anſchar, biſhop of Hamburgh; and in the year 930, king Harold Blatand erected an epiſcopal ſee here. Afterwards the Sclavonians invaded theſe parts in the year 1064, ruined the church, and reſtored the Pagan ſuperſtitions: but, ſoon after, theſe foreigners were again expelled, Chriſtianity was reſtored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it was a place of very great trade, and much frequented by merchants, from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c.

The ſoil, eſpecially towards the ſouth and eaſt, is not very fruitful; but the town is ſufficiently ſupplied with all neceſſaries of life from the neighbouring country; and the Sley affords abundance of fiſh. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import ſome from abroad, as well as wine, which is here pretty cheap. The buildings are very indifferent, though ſome of the moſt eminent citizens have pretty fine houſes. The town has no fortifications, and is only ſurrounded with a wall, which parts it from the ſuburbs. The cathedral is the only church within the town. It is a large and beautiful pile, in which are to be ſeen the tombs of the antient dukes of Sleſwick, and of ſeveral biſhops. In the ſuburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleſwick was formerly the ſee of a Roman Catholic biſhop, and is now that of a Proteſtant ſuperintendant, who affects to be ſtyled a biſhop.

At a few miles diſtant from Sleſwick, to the ſouth, are yet to be ſeen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench, which was built in antient times by the Daniſh kings againſt the incurſions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808, and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Daniſh monarchs, and made ſo ſtrong, as to be eſteemed impregnable by the counſellors of Henry, ſurnamed the Lion, duke of Saxony, who diſſuaded that victorious prince from attempting to hazardous an undertaking. This rampart was called Danewark, and, like Adrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from ſea to ſea, quite acroſs this neck of land.

2. Gottorp, or Gottorff, was the antient ſeat and patrimony of the dukes of Holſtein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or ſurname of Gottorp. It is about ſix miles diſtant from Sleſwick to the ſouth-weſt, and ſtands on the the Sley, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and carries veſſels of ſmall burthen to and from the Baltick. This place is, at the ſame time, a fortreſs, and a noble palace, being reckoned one of the fineſt ſeats in all theſe northern parts.

The caſtle ſtands to the weſt of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong ſquare, fortified with four baſtions of earth: the bottom is paved with free-ſtone, the curtains are long, and the ſides ſtand north and ſouth. You approach the caſtle by a bridge, which joins it to the ſouth ſhore. It is commanded by a mountain that ſtands north-eaſt of it; from whence the Danes annoyed the caſtle in the year 1675, when the duke was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the king of Denmark at Rentſburg. The duke, before his death had deſigned to rebuild the caſtle, but the front only is finiſhed; and, if the whole had been completed, it had been one of the fineſt palaces in Europe. A rampart encompaſſes the firſt court, and the gate of the caſtle is of a fine blue ſtone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it, that has twenty-ſeven lights.

On the north ſide of the caſtle there is a bridge of two hundred paces, over the lake; and at the end of the bridge there is a walk, between rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and caſcades. On the left there is a baſon, or fiſh-pond, two hundred paces ſquare, with rows of trees on all ſides, except on the north; there are alſo fine arbours on the ſides of the pond, and in the middle an Hercules, of monſtrous ſize, repreſented with his club, going to kill the Lernæan hydra, out of every part of which the water plays. In every corner of the pond there are ſtatues, which form caſcades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a creſcent, divided into ſeveral compartments, with niches round, containing the buſts of many kings and modern princes. There are alſo the repreſentations of many fabulous animals, that throw water.

At the end of the walk there is a ſmall room, in which is to be ſeen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, ſo contrived, that, by mechaniſm, it repreſents his ſyſtem of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, ten feet and a half in diameter, with a ſphere, wherein the ſun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water, conveyed from the adjacent mountain.

Before this houſe there is a level ground, fifty paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: thoſe on the two ſides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great baſon in the centre, with water-works: the next terrace is higher, and the whole is incloſed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with buſts all round. From the higheſt terrace there is the fineſt proſpect in the world; viz. the caſtle in the front, in the middle of a lake, ſurrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or greenhouſe, where they keep, alſo, Indian trees, myrtles, pomegranates, and other trees, in boxes. The park is very noble, about four Engliſh miles in circumference, and full of fallow deer, and ſtags. Here is a toll-booth, or cuſtom-houſe, where toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that paſs from Jutland into Germany; this produces a conſiderable ſum to the king of Denmark, for in ſome years there is toll paid for above fifty thouſand head of cattle.

3. Eckrenford, or Ekelenford, ſtands on a little gulf of the Baltick, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords it a pretty conſiderable trade, it being one of the ſafeſt ports on that ſhore. It is about twenty-two miles diſtant from Gottorp to the eaſt, and ſix from Kiel towards the north. It is ſaid to have its name from the abundance of ſquirrels found in the neighbouring woods; though it is more probable it was called ſo from an old caſtle, out of the ruins of which it roſe.

4. Chriſtianpreis, is the capital of a bailiwic of that name, which borders on the duchy of Holſtein: this town is ſituated on a gulf of the Baltick, at the entrance of the haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a caſtle that was built in 1637, by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles diſtant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the eaſt. It has about five hundred houſes, and two gates, defended with ſtrong works. The Eyder ſerves for a ditch, and makes it inacceſſible; and where the river grows narrower, they have built a fine half-moon in the water, with port-holes for ſixteen pieces of cannon: but ſome maps make the Eyder two miles diſtant from it; ſo that, according to them, it muſt ſtand on ſome rivulet that falls into the Eyder.

5. Frederickſtadt, was thus called from its founder, Frederick duke of Holſtein and Sleſwick, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured, alſo, to ſettle a ſilk trade there, and, for that purpoſe, ſent a famous embaſſy to Muſcovy and Perſia, which gave occaſion to Adam Olearius

Olearius, secretary of it, to publish an account thereof, in an excellent book of travels.

This town stands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is twenty-four miles distant from Slefwick towards the west, and forty-two from Gluckstadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch way, and all sorts of religions are tolerated there. The town is square, surrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, also with trees on the sides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neat.

6. Tonningen is also situated on the river Eyder, ten miles below Frederickstadt, and about fourteen from the German ocean. It is not an antient town, but it has a pretty good trade, which increases daily, by means of its commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demolished in 1714, by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to surrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderstadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle at this place.

The other towns of less note are, 1. Flensburgh, the capital of a district so called, and also of Angelen, or Engeland, the county of the Angles who invaded south Britain, which they named England: it is eight miles to the northward of Slefwick. 2. Husum, ten miles from Tenderon. 3. Lohn Cloister, about the same distance from the German ocean. 4. Haderfleben, a sea-port town, whose inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in fish. 5. Trinder, twelve miles to the westward of Haderfleben: it is a remarkably neat town. 6. Apenrade, twenty-five miles north of Slefwick: this is a pretty flourishing town, continually improving in beauty and extent, and has a tolerable citadel and good harbour: it has suffered much by fire and war. 7. Luxburg, or Glucksburg, four miles eastward of Flensburg: it is a small town, yet has a castle belonging to it.

There are no high mountains in Slefwick, but only some eminences. The highest hills are near the towns of Slefwick and Apenrade. The chief rivers in this duchy, most of which flow from east to west, are the Eyder already mentioned, as dividing Denmark from Germany; the Treen, which falls into the Eyder near Frederickstadt; and the Nips-Aa, which runs close by Ripen, with several smaller streams.

This country is plentifully supplied with corn, cattle, and fish; and some parts of the west-side of Slefwick, lying between the continent and the islands, which are overflowed by the tides, afford a great many oysters.

The inhabitants are a mixture of Danes or Juts, Lower Saxons, and Friesians; besides which there are Hollanders settled in Frederickstadt, and Flemings in Nordstrand: whence in some places the Friesian is the common language, in others the Danish, and in others the German.

Lutheranism is the prevailing religion in this duchy, except at Frederickstadt, where Papists and Jews, besides several sects, are tolerated; and on the island of Nordstrand, the Romans have a popish church and a chapel: the Calvinists are also indulged in the exercise of their religion in this duchy, by an edict issued in 1734; but they are not very numerous.

The nobility of Slefwick are rich, and have the same privileges with those of Holstein, but are not subject to the same governor; for they acknowledge the king only for their sovereign, and are under the jurisdiction of the royal provincial court at Gottorp.

The duchy of Holstein is bounded, on the west, by the German ocean; on the east, by the Baltick; on the south-east, by Mecklenburg; on the south-west, by the river Elbe; and, on the south, by the territory of Hamburgh, and by Lewenburg. It is divided into four principal parts, or provinces, viz. Holstein Proper, Wagria, Stormar, and Ditmarsh: is eighty miles in length, and sixty in the broadest part.

This country is remarkably fertile, and contains many rich marsh, pasture, and meadow lands. Dykes have been cut at a vast expence through the marsh lands, not only to drain off the waters which naturally accumulate there, but to drain off such as are occasioned by the inundations of the sea and rivers, which are frequent; these, however, give such a richness to the soil of the marshes, that cattle are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them; and vast quantities of excellent butter and cheese are made of the milk. In some parts of them they sow wheat, barley, peas, beans, rape-seed, &c. which thrive exceedingly. Sheep are bred in more sandy, heathy, and barren districts; and woods and orchards abound in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork, are all fat and palatable; and the best sea and river-fish are caught in great plenty. The Holstein horse are exceedingly beautiful, and, on that account, highly prized in Denmark and Germany. The country is in general plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Stor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c.

The principal people usually farm out their cattle to a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all profits, and allows the proprietors so much for the whole; thus the gentry receive a certain income, without having any trouble, and the bailiff is sufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he usually makes a fortune by the extra-profits. An odd custom prevails here, which is, to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times, and sell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then, for some years after, to sow them with oats, or use them for pasture; and after that, to lay them under water, and breed fish in them again.

The duchy contains about thirty cities and towns, great and small, and six hundred parishes. The houses and churches are very neat; for the people here, with respect to cleanliness, resemble the Hollanders. The clergy are annually chosen, and removeable at pleasure: the people are rigid Lutherans, so that they give but very little countenance to Calvinists, and are strongly prejudiced against the Roman catholics. With regard to their description in other respects, they are in general well-made, finely featured, fair, strong, courageous; and so celebrated for their integrity, that the expression Holstein glaube, or honest Holsteiner, is proverbial throughout all Germany, Denmark, &c.

The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holstein, &c. are as follow; of which the most considerable is Lubeck the chief of the Hanse-towns. This city is seated at the confluence of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave, upon which it has a harbour. It stands fifteen miles to the south-west of the Baltick, and thirty-eight from Hamburgh, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree forty-two minutes east longitude.

This is a large, rich, populous, free, and imperial city, about two miles in length, and upwards of a mile in breadth. The city stands on two sides of a long hill of moderate height, the eastern part extending down the declivity towards the river Wackenitz, as the western does towards the Trave. It is environed with walls, towers, false brays, wide moats, and strong ramparts, which being planted with trees, form a very delightful walk. The houses are all of stone, but old fashioned, and the streets, which are pretty strait and lofty, are for the most part steep; but others at the bottom of the hill have a canal running through the middle, with rows of limes on the sides. The churches are magnificent, and amount to about twenty, besides the cathedral. It has several large market places, and handsome public buildings, particularly the senate-house, which is a superb structure, and has several towers. On the ground-floor is the hall of audience, which is well furnished, where the senate assembles; and in this structure are the archives of the Hanse-towns. Here is also a fine exchange.

The collegiate church of St. Mary is a noble pile, richly adorned with images and pictures; among the last is one called the dance of death. This structure is supported by tall pillars, each of one stone, and has a very lofty spire covered with gilt lead. The nunnery of St. John has a domina or abbess, a prioress, and twenty-two conventualists, and has its own church and chaplain. The convent of St. Mary Magdalen was, at the time of the reformation, converted into a poor-house, which has also its particular church and chaplain. In the suppressed convent of St. Catherine has been founded a grammar-school of seven classes, and in that building is a public library. The convent of St. Anne has been converted into an alms-house, and house of correction, both of which are handsome buildings under excellent regulations. Here is also an hospital dedicated to the Holy Ghost, an orphan-house, a small-pox hospital, and other charitable foundations. The corporation consists of four burgomasters and sixteen counsellors, who may be either men of letters, patricians, or tradesmen. The burghers consist of twelve companies, each of which has a vote in the public deliberations. An alliance still subsists between Lubeck, Hamburg and Bremen, and under the title of Hanse-towns they negociate treaties of commerce with foreign powers.

The bishopric of Lubeck is a small territory, that has been enjoyed by the protestant princes ever since the year 1561, when Lutheranism was established in this bishopric, and it

has devolved as an inheritance to a younger ſon of the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, ſtiled duke of Holſtein-Eutin, from his uſual place of reſidence about five miles from the city; but he has ſince been raiſed to the throne of Sweden. This territory extends about ſixty miles in compaſs, containing ſeveral ſmall towns, and one hundred and three villages.

The river Trave brings ſhips into the heart of the city, which is near ten miles from the ſea; the largeſt veſſels, however, unload at Travermund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterſburg; and the magazines and warehouſes are likewiſe well ſtocked in the productions of England, France, Spain, Holland, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. The next ſtaple commodity to corn is beer, which is in high eſtimation, not only as pleaſant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruiſes, wounds, &c. They export great quantities of this laſt article to foreign parts.

The little town of Travermund, near the mouth of the river Trave, is dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north eaſt, and thirty-two weſt of Wiſmar. One of the counts of Holſtein ſold it, in 1320, for four thouſand marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it with four good baſtions, erected a light houſe to guide the ſhips at night, and commonly keep here a garriſon of three or four hundred men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgo-maſters, and admits of no perſons into the place without a paſs-port. It was ſeized by the czar in 1617, in order to ſecure tranſports for his troops, but he was perſuaded to quit it. There is a peninſula over-againſt it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg.

The river Trave riſes out of a great lake, in the juriſdiction of Segeberg; and, after a ſerpentine courſe from north to ſouth, by Segeberd and Oldeſlo, turns ſhort to the eaſt, waters Lubeck city, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltick at this place.

The towns of leſs note are the following, viz. Oldeſlo, on the river Trave, ſeven miles ſouth of Segeberg, eighteen weſt of Lubeck, and thirty-one north-eaſt of Hamburg. Travendal, on the ſame river, within a mile of Segeberg. Eutin, or Utin, is about ſixteen miles from Lubeck. The town of Pleen is almoſt ſurrounded by lakes; it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the ſame name. It hath a lofty palace, which commands a beautiful proſpect, and is adorned with pleaſant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furniſh great quantities of fiſh and timber, upon the ſale of which the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt. The town of Oldenburgh, now fallen to decay, is ſituated near the Baltick, twenty-ſeven miles north of Lubeck. Lemden is a market town on the confines of Sleſwick, not far from the Eyder: it is celebrated for its beer. Meldorp, or Meldorf, is a large town of ſome trade ſtanding on the Meele: here are three market places, and a public ſchool for the ſtudy of the claſſics and rhetoric. Heyde is a large but poor town, ten miles to the north of Meldorp. Krempi is a ſmall open town, on a little river of the ſame name.

The town of Gluckſtadt is ſituated on the north ſide of the Elbe, twenty-ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Hamburg: it is neat, well-built, and deemed impregnable. The Danes have two thouſand men in garriſon here, and ſome men of war in the harbour, which is very ſafe and ſpacious. Here the Calviniſts have a church, the Roman catholics a chapel, and the Jews a ſynagogue. This town was founded in 1620, when Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called Gluckſtadt, which implies Fortunate-Town. There being no ſprings about the town, the inhabitants uſe rain or river-water. Perſons convicted of theft here are ſentenced to draw, during life, the duſt-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like galley-ſlaves. Bredenberg is a village on the Stor, defended by a caſtle. Primeburg is a market town on the Pinall, thirteen miles from Hamburg, and fourteen from Gluckſtadt.

Altena is a conſiderable town ſeated in a moſt delightful country on a high ſhore of the Elbe, not above a cannon-ſhot to the weſt of Hamburg. The ſtreets are regularly laid out, ſpacious and well paved. The town contains about three thouſand houſes, and upwards of thirty thouſand inhabitants, with two Lutheran churches, and the ſame number for the German and Daniſh Calviniſts, with a fifth for the French Calviniſts, a ſixth for the papiſts, and two Menonite churches, beſides thoſe belonging to other ſects, who are allowed the free exerciſe of their religion: the Jews are alſo very numerous, and have a large ſynagogue, but pay two thouſand ducats a year as protection money. Here is a royal ſeminary, to which the town ſchool is united, an orphan and poor-houſe, an anatomical theatre, and three docks for building of ſhips. Among its ornaments is the mall, which, being planted with four rows of trees, forms an agreeable walk.

This town has a variety of manufactures, and its trade is far from being inconſiderable, the Elbe bringing ſhips of burden to the merchants doors. The origin of its name is thus accounted for: deputies from Hamburg, in a remonſtrance to the king of Denmark againſt building it too near their city, frequently made uſe of the words Dat is all te nae, or That is too near; the king taking particular notice of the three laſt monoſyllables, ſaid bantering to the deputies, he could not excuſe himſelf from going on building it, but that to oblige them he would call it by the name they had given it. This town is famous for the calamities it ſuffered in 1712, when count Steinbock, the Swediſh general, after defeating the king of Denmark and his army at Gadebuſch, came and burnt it to the ground. As ſoon as he appeared before Altena, he ſent in a meſſage to adviſe the inhabitants to retire with what they could carry off, for that he was going to deſtroy their town. The magiſtrates came out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him fifty thouſand rix dollars to ſave the town; but Steinbock inſiſted on two hundred thouſand, which they were ready to comply with, and only deſired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; ſo that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out; the mothers, with their infants at their breaſt; the ſons, with their aged and infirm parents on their backs; others groaning under loads of houſhold-ſtuff, and all lamenting their fate with the moſt pitiable cries. The Swedes ſtood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while they paſſed, and before they were all gone out, entered the town, and ſet fire to all the parts of it, which burnt two thouſand houſes, with ſeveral fine magazines, and the popiſh church; and ſome old men and women, beſides infants, periſhed in the flames; but they ſpared the Lutheran and Calviniſt churches, with about eighty houſes that lay neareſt to Hamburg. Never was a greater deſolation known in any town. The Swedes, in juſtification of this barbarous proceeding, pretended that magazines of proviſions and ſtores were preparing here for the Ruſſians and Saxons, and that it was done by way of repriſal for the burning of Stade, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Ruſſians in Bremen and Pomerania. But it ought to be remembered, that the Danes had beſieged Stade in form, and that its deſtruction proceeded from their bombs; while Steinbock acted the part of a cruel incendiary againſt naked walls, and a poor defenceleſs people. What completed the ruin of Altena was the raging of the plague at the ſame time in Holſtein; ſo that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preſervation, to ſhut the gates of the city againſt their diſtreſſed neighbours, many of whom periſhed through cold and want. The king of Denmark, however, relieved them as far as poſſible, and ſupplied them with materials for rebuilding their town, which, by the help of charities, has been done in a bountiful manner, and is at preſent a finer and more pleaſant town than ever, it being the market for the ſale of goods brought by the Daniſh Eaſt-India company from the Indies.

Kiel, the capital of all Holſtein, is a town of great trade, at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltick; ſeventeen miles eaſt of Renſburg, and twenty-four of Gottorp; thirty-ſix miles north-weſt of Lubeck, and forty-eight north of Hamburg. It ſtands between hills on an arm of the ſea, where it forms a lake. Here is a good harbour, well frequented by ſhips from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. Both the town and harbour are defended by a caſtle on a neighbouring hill. On the right or eaſt ſide of the caſtle, the ſea waſhes its walls; and on the other ſide of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody: on the left, there is a ſmall arm of the ſea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing this caſtle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the main land; only to the left of the caſtle there is a row of houſes annexed to a village called Brunſwick. This garden, which ſtands along the ſea ſide, is above two hundred paces broad, and conſiſts of a terrace walk level with the foundation of the caſtle, from whence there is a deſcent to parterres, full of all ſorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain, and a wilderneſs; and this laid to other parterres, from whence there is a ſmall aſcent to another terrace. It ſuffered much during the war between Sweden and

and Denmark. An univerſity was eſtabliſhed here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned profeſſors. It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the longeſt and pleaſanteſt, the ſtreets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a ſort of peninſula, is fortified by deep ditches: it is ſeparated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a drawbridge, and a gate with a guard; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town, on the north ſide, but it is in very bad repair, and quite unfurniſhed. Here are ſeveral fine buildings, particularly a fine church and an hoſpital, which before the Reformation was a Franciſcan monaſtery.

This town is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, eſpecially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleſwick and Holſtein. Vaſt ſums of money are here negociated, and payments made of ſums contracted beforehand, as punctually as by an Amſterdam banker upon the exchange; inſomuch that the man who does not preſerve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and ſubjected to puniſhment, beſides the ſcandal.

SECT. III.

Giving a Deſcription of thoſe Iſlands which compoſe the moſt important Part of the Kingdom of DENMARK.

BEFORE we proceed now to the deſcription of the principal iſlands of Denmark, we ſhall give ſome account of the ſea in which they lie, which is called the Baltick, and, by the Danes, Swedes, and Germans, the Eaſt-ſea, becauſe it is to the eaſt of Denmark and Sweden. It is a large gulf, which has Germany and Poland on the ſouth, Denmark and Sweden on the weſt, Lapland on the north, and Bothnia, Finland, Livonia, Courland, part of Poland, and of the kingdom of Pruſſia, on the eaſt. It has a communication with the Categate, 1. By the Leſſer Belt, a very narrow ſtreight between Jutland and the iſland of Funen. 2. By the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zeeland. 3. By the Sound, between Zeeland and that province of Sweden called Schonen. To the eaſt of Upland this ſea branches out into two arms, one of which runs to the eaſt, and is called the gulf of Finland; the other, which is the gulf of Bothnia, runs to the north. There are in this ſea four other gulfs, which deſerve to be taken notice of, viz. 1. The gulf of Livonia, at the mouth of the Dwina, where lies Riga. 2. Gulf of Courland, at the mouth of the Niemen, where is Memel. 3. The gulf of Dantzick, at the mouth of the Viſtula. And, 4. The gulf of Lubeck, at the mouth of the Trave.

This ſea is very dangerous in bad weather, all the coaſt, eſpecially that of Sweden and Finland, being full of ſhelves and ſands; but then there are here ſeveral ſafe harbours. This ſea neither ebbs nor flows, and during three or four months in the year it is generally frozen over.

Zeeland, in the Daniſh language called Saland, or Sialland, is ſeated at the entrance of the Baltick, and is encompaſſed by the Categate on the north; the ſtreight called the Sound on the eaſt; the Baltick ſea on the ſouth, and the ſtreight called the Great Belt on the weſt. This is the largeſt iſland in the Baltick, it being about ſeventy miles in length, and ſixty-five in its greateſt breadth.

This iſland is deſcribed as preſenting in the winter a moſt dreary and comfortleſs proſpect, being then covered with ſnow; but during the ſhort ſummer with which it is viſited, it exhibits a moſt agreeable ſcene, being every where flat, and covered with corn or wood, for the whole country is cultivated with great induſtry.

This iſland has a tolerably fertile ſoil, and produces fine barley, of which malt is made, and a great quantity of it exported; it likewiſe yields plentiful crops of fine oats, but the rye produced here is not more than ſufficient for home conſumption. It has fertile meadows of a beautiful verdure, and ſome woods of oaks and beech, which abound with game; but in the country lying near Copenhagen, and ſome other parts, no woods are to be ſeen, and the inhabitants are obliged to uſe chiefly turf for their fuel. There are ſeveral lakes in this iſland, ſome of which are large, and both theſe and the rivers abound with fiſh. The moſt convenient harbour in the iſland is that of Copenhagen, and next to that the port of Kallundborg. Within the prefecture of Copenhagen is the city of that name, of which we ſhall now give a particular deſcription.

Copenhagen, called alſo Keobenhaven, or Merchant's Haven, the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, and the place where the court reſides, is ſituated on the Baltick, in the forty-fifth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in twelve degrees fifty minutes eaſt longitude, about thirty miles from the Sound, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour, the entrance to which is ſo narrow as to admit only one ſhip at a time; and every night this paſſage is ſecured with a ſtrong boom; the mouth of it is commanded on one ſide by the citadel, and on the other by a blockhouſe well furniſhed with artillery. In the harbour five hundred ſail of ſhips may ride at eaſe, and round the whole encloſure a wooden gallery projects over the water. The city is in a low and marſhy ſituation; but on the land ſide are ſeveral fine lakes, which furniſh the inhabitants with plenty of freſh water. The adjacent country is very pleaſant, and oppoſite the city lies the fertile iſland of Amac; which forms the harbour, and which we ſhall deſcribe in its proper place.

The city at a diſtance makes a magnificent appearance, and from the Weſt-gate to the Norway-gate in the citadel, extends four thouſand one hundred and forty Zealand ells in length, and from the North-gate to the Amac-gate it is three thouſand one hundred and twenty ells in breadth; ſo that its circuit muſt be twelve thouſand ſix hundred ells, or ſix miles ſix hundred ells. The Gother-ſtreet, which runs in a ſtrait line croſs the whole city, dividing the Old from the New Town, is above four thouſand two hundred feet in length. This metropolis contains four royal caſtles, ten pariſh and nine other churches, a conſiderable number of public and private palaces, about four thouſand burghers houſes, ſeveral of which are inhabited by ten or more families, eleven market and public ſquares, a hundred and eighty-ſix ſtreets, and a hundred thouſand inhabitants.

This city is divided into three principal parts, Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Chriſtians-hafen. As the two laſt are more modern than the firſt, they are laid out in broad ſtreets that run in a ſtrait line. Moſt of the ſtreets in Old Copenhagen ſince the laſt great fire, have been made of a ſufficient breadth; but the old windings could not be entirely avoided. The houſes in the principal ſtreets and ſquares are almoſt entirely built with brick; but in the lanes moſt of the buildings are of timber. However, in general, they make a handſome appearance. This city is at the annual expence of ten or twelve thouſand rix-dollars in keeping the ſtreets clean, and in the night they are lighted by lantherns. In ſome parts of the city are deep canals, into which large ſhips may enter, and, to the great convenience of the merchants, they may lade and unlade cloſe to the warehouſes.

The city is alſo divided into twelve quarters, and the burghers into as many companies, which have all their particular colours.

In the old town are the following quarters, viz. firſt, the north quarter, which has the following places of note: the German church, dedicated to St. Peter, which was the principal pariſh church at the time of the reformation; it was afterwards converted into a foundery, but in 1585 was given to the Germans, and in 1618 was again made a pariſh church. The Walkendorf college, in St. Peter's-ſtreet, was formerly a Carmelite monaſtery; but the lord ſteward, Chriſtopher Walkendorf, converted it into a college for ſixteen ſtudents, each of whom has a yearly penſion of thirty rix-dollars.

In the ſecond or eaſt quarter is the great Wartow hoſpital, which is an antient foundation; but the edifice is new and ſpacious, and the endowment ſo conſiderable, that it contains at preſent above three hundred beds for the ſick and poor, each of whom has his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rix-dollar. The orphan-houſe, which takes up one entire ſide of the new market, and is a conſiderable ornament to that ſquare. It has a diſpenſary, a printing-houſe, and a library belonging to the foundation. The council-houſe is a new ſtructure, and being detached from the other buildings, ſeparates the Old from the New Market. In the Old Market is a fine fountain, and in the New is a place walled in for the execution of malefactors. The other places in the weſt quarter worthy of notice are the weſt gate, and the royal palace, ſituated near the citadel of Chriſtianſburg, which in 1743 and 1744 was new fronted in an elegant manner.

The clothiers quarter is the third, in which are the following places worthy of notice. The collegiate church of St. Mary, in which the biſhop of Denmark and Norway are uſually conſecrated. The tower, which is eſteemed the nobleſt in Copenhagen, ſtands on the higheſt ſpot in the whole city: it is three hundred and eighty feet in length, and has a fine ring of bells. The univerſity, which includes the royal community, or the cloyſter, in which

which a hundred poor ſtudents had formerly two meals a day; but at preſent they receive a penſion inſtead of proviſions, and in this edifice they hold their daily diſputations. It likewiſe contains the conſiſtory, the auditories or halls, the rector's houſe, and other buildings. To the univerſity alſo belong four ſpacious colleges, well endowed, for the maintenance of the young ſtudents gratis. The Walkendorf college has been already mentioned. The other three are the royal college, founded by Chriſtian IV. for one hundred and twenty ſtudents, though no more than an hundred now reſide in it. The Collegium Elerſianum, founded by George Elers, for ſixteen ſtudents, and the Borrichian college.

The moſt elegant and beſt endowed of all the private foundations is the Borrichian college, or Collegium Mediceum. It was erected by the learned Olaus Borrichius, in 1682, for ſixteen Daniſh and Norwegian ſtudents. Every ſtudent has apartments gratis for five years, with an annual penſion of ſixty rix-dollars. The library and cabinet of curioſities, which joined to this college, were burnt down in 1728, but have been reſtored in ſome meaſure ſince that time.

The north gate in this quarter, which was erected in 1671, is the moſt elegant ſtructure of the kind belonging to the city.

The Freeman's quarter is the fourth diviſion. Here are two churches, and the church of the Holy Ghoſt, or rather of the Holy Gueſts, the name being derived from a large hoſpital or gueſt-houſe that formerly ſtood near it, and was converted by Chriſtian IV. into a houſe of correction. After the fire which happened in 1728, this church was rebuilt.

Snarron's quarter is the fifth diviſion; in which there is nothing particularly remarkable.

Strand quarter is the ſixth diviſion; and contains the following places worthy of notice; namely, the magnificent royal palace of Chriſtianſburg, which was enlarged and embelliſhed by Chriſtian III. Chriſtian IV. and Frederick IV. but being very irregularly built, Chriſtian IV. the preſent king's grandfather, cauſed the whole building, with the adjoining houſes, which had been purchaſed of the burghers, to be pulled down, in 1731, and the following year laid the foundation of the preſent ſpacious and magnificent ſtructure, which was finiſhed in 1740. Though this edifice coſt ſix millions of dollars, or about one million two hundred and eighty thouſand pounds ſterling, yet the inſcription over the ground portal declares, that the ſovereign erected it from the ordinary revenues of the crown, without laying any additional burthens on his ſubjects. It is of a prodigious ſize. In one of the apartments are hung paintings of all the preſent reigning monarchs in Europe, which have been preſented by the reſpective ſovereigns. In this quarter is alſo an edifice, in the firſt ſtory of which is the arſenal; and in the ſecond the king's library, which is about two hundred feet long, and contains about ſixty or ſeventy thouſand volumes. The royal cabinet of curioſities, the picture gallery, and the cabinet of medals, are in the third ſtory; and the cabinet of models in the fourth.

An ingenious traveller ſays, that this muſeum is a very large collection, and extends through all the vegetable, mineral, and metallic kingdoms, as well as the fine arts, and is more indebted to Frederick IV. than to any other ſovereign. In this royal cabinet of curioſities are ſeveral large pieces of ſilver ore dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs five hundred and ſixty pounds, and is valued at five thouſand crowns; and another piece is valued at above three thouſand, both being ſuppoſed to contain at leaſt three parts ſilver. What are moſt admired in them are the threads and branches of ſilver, which ſhoot out an inch or two beyond the ſtone, in form of ſmall ſhrubs or buſhes. Here are likewiſe ſeveral large pieces of amber, ſome weighing forty or fifty ounces. Upon opening ditches about Copenhagen, theſe were found ſticking, like the gum on the plumb-trees in our gardens, to the ſides of the old trees that were buried there.

Among the artificial curioſities is a piece of ivory, on which the hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion is beautifully expreſſed in relievo. There is likewiſe a ſmall man of war in ivory, with ſilver guns, which is much admired; as is alſo a watch made of ivory, and a ſkeleton made of the ſame ſubſtance two feet ſix inches high, and ſo nicely formed, that it is ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from a natural one. There are beſides many other curioſities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials, kept for the ſake of the elegance or minuteneſs of the workmanſhip; and it is ſaid that there is a common cherry-ſtone, on the face of which are engraven two hundred and twenty heads; but their ſmallneſs makes them appear imperfect and confuſed. Among the greateſt and moſt valuable curioſities, is kept the chair in which Tycho Brahe uſed to ſit when he made his aſtronomical obſervations at Uraniburg. The wood which compoſes it is held in reverence, and preſerved with the greateſt care, as having belonged to ſo great a man; although, by the prevalence of faction and malevolence, the unhappy aſtronomer, when alive, was baniſhed his country.

Here is a very large collection of paintings, which, though chiefly conſiſting of Flemiſh and German pieces, yet there are ſome few beautiful originals of Guido, Titian, Angelo, and even of Raphael: Charles I. of England, by Vandyke, and his ſon, Charles II. by Kneller, hold a diſtinguiſhed place among them. Daniſh ſculptors or painters ſcarce appear in this numerous aſſemblage. Some hiſtorical paintings, by Charles Dremander, a Dane, are however, there, and are not ill executed; the principal of theſe is the portrait of the famous Margaret de Waldemar, who, in 1397, united in her perſon the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, by the union of Calmar: ſhe is repreſented, in this picture, as receiving the homage of this latter kingdom from the ſovereign of it.

There is likewiſe, in this quarter, the magazine for proviſions, the poſt-office, and the exchange, which is a grand ſtructure in the Gothic ſtyle, four hundred and ſix feet in length, and ſixty-ſix in breadth; the greateſt part of which was built in 1624, by Chriſtian IV. The loweſt ſtory is laid out in warehouſes, which are very commodious for the merchants: for on both ſides this ſtructure are canals, where the ſhips may lie cloſe to the warehouſes, and goods be conveniently landed or ſhipped from them. In the ſecond ſtory, on the north ſide, is the place where the merchants uſually meet. In the middle, and down the whole length on both ſides, is a range of ſhops; in one wing of the ſouth ſide is the royal magazine, where moſt of the cloths, ſilks, and ſtuffs made in the city are depoſited, and from thence ſold to the merchants and dealers.

In the Roſenburg quarter, which is the ſeventh, is a Calviniſt church, a ſmall neat edifice, where the miniſters preach in French and High Dutch: here is alſo the Trinity church, generally called the Round church, from its round tower: the arched roof of this church, which is pretty high, is ſupported by two rows of very ſlender octangular pillars, which give it the appearance of a very ſlight building. In the great fire, in 1728, this edifice ſuffered leſs than the other churches, and was ſoon repaired. The greateſt loſs was the noble collection of books belonging to the univerſity, kept in a large room over the arched roof of the church. A new library has, however, been ſince collected, in which are ſeveral valuable manuſcripts relating to the northern hiſtory.

The tower of Trinity church is eſteemed a maſter-piece of its kind, and was deſigned by Chriſtian Langomontanus the aſtronomer. It is round, and an hundred and fifteen feet high, and fifty-four feet thick; flat on the top, and ſurrounded by an iron baluſtrade. The aſcent is ſpiral, and ſo ſpacious and eaſy, that a coach and horſes may go up and down with eaſe; which experiment was tried by Peter the Great, in 1716. This tower was deſigned for an obſervatory; but the curious aſtronomical and mathematical inſtruments invented by Tycho Brahe, Olaus Romer, and others, which were kept here, being all conſumed by the great fire in 1728, Chriſtian VI. to ſupply their place, afterwards furniſhed it with the moſt curious and valuable mathematical and aſtronomical inſtruments that could be procured.

The manufacturers quarter is the eighth.

The eaſt quarter is the ninth, and in this are the following places of note; namely, 1. The church of St. Nicholas, which, next to St. Mary's, is the largeſt in the city, and the beſt ornamented both within and without; it has ſeveral curious monumental inſcriptions, and the roof is covered with copper. 2. The Bremer Holms church, alſo called the Admiralty church; it being firſt allotted for the uſe of perſons belonging to the navy; but afterwards a large congregation of burghers were added. 3. The General Commiſſion-Office: this is a large ſtructure, erected by Frederick IV. in the year 1704. Here the united colleges of the Admiralty and General Commiſſion meet. Beſides this ſtructure, the following edifices belong to the naval department, viz. the Old or Bremer Holm, and the New Holm, where the naval ſtores are diſtributed; Chriſtianſholm, where is the naval arſenal, which far exceeds

that of Venice, and where the royal fleet uſually lies at anchor.

There are two quarters in the new town: the firſt is St. Anne's eaſt quarter, in which are Charlottenburg, a pretty large and regular ſtructure, begun in 1672, and completed in the ſucceeding years. It derives its name from queen Charlotte Amelia, conſort of Chriſtian V. The ſituation of this caſtle or palace is very agreeable, its principal front facing the ſquare called the King's New Market, which is embelliſhed with an equeſtrian ſtatue of Chriſtian V. of lead gilt, placed on an elegant pedeſtal. The great guard-houſe, the foundery, and the Daniſh play-houſe, are alſo on the ſides of this fine ſquare.

In this quarter are alſo the naval hoſpital; the church belonging to the garriſon; the Fredericſtadt, which is now adorned with ſeveral elegant new palaces; Frederic's church, built in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome; the general hoſpital; the tolbooth or cuſtom-houſe; and the grand academy of the royal cadets. This laſt ſtructure was built by Frederic IV. for an opera-houſe; but in 1720, he aſſigned it for the land cadets; and, five or ſix years after, removed the company of ſea cadets to this edifice. Each company has its ſeparate apartments and exerciſing-rooms, and is under the inſpection of its proper officer, who likewiſe lives in the academy. Theſe young men are not only ſupplied with lodging, cloathing, fire and candles, and a monthly penſion ſufficient to find them in diet; but are alſo inſtructed at the king's expence in all the ſciences, by able maſters, appointed for that purpoſe. Theſe two companies furniſh the ſtate with many able ſoldiers and ſeamen.

In the weſt quarter of St. Anne, is the royal palace called Roſenburg, a ſmall edifice built by Chriſtian IV. in 1604, in the ſemi-gothic taſte; but is a grand ſtructure, adorned with one large, and two ſmall towers. It is ſurrounded with a ditch and a kind of fortification, and has its own commanding officer; but the guard is daily relieved from the garriſon at Copenhagen. The adjoining gardens are very extenſive, and embelliſhed with a great number of ornaments. Theſe, in ſummer, ſerve the inhabitants for a public walk, and the royal family ſometimes reſide a few days in this palace. The third ſtory of the palace is ſaid to be the moſt remarkable, from its containing a treaſure of ineſtimable value. In the great hall, which is in this ſtory, and takes up the whole extent of the building, are five pieces of painting by the Daniſh artiſt Krogk; twelve valuable pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting the atchievements of Chriſtian V. and three ſilver lions as large as the life, which at the king's inauguration are placed round the throne. In two cabinets adjoining to the hall are kept the old and new regalia, with other valuable jewels, and a whole ſervice of gold. Another cabinet has a collection of curious and valuable drinking-glaſſes, and other glaſs veſſels. The royal throne uſed at the inauguration ſtands in another apartment.

The village of Chriſtianſhafen conſiſts only of one quarter. It is ſituated on the iſland of Almac, and had formerly its own magiſtrates; but is at preſent under the juriſdiction of thoſe of Copenhagen. The moſt remarkable places in this ſuburb are St. Saviour's church, which is eſteemed the moſt magnificent and elegant church at Copenhagen, and has a beautiful ſteeple, that has a ſpiral aſcent on the outſide, by which one may go up to the top. The German, or Frederick's church; the orphan-houſe for the education of two hundred poor boys; the Eaſt-India company's houſe; the fine dock-yard, where ſhips of war are refitted; and the gate of Chriſtianſhafen.

Between this place and Copenhagen is a high pillar erected in the midſt of the water, on which is a ſtatue of a naked woman, with a ſwan on her left ſide, that extends its long neck behind her back, and bringing its head over her right ſhoulder, puts its bill into her mouth. This pillar and ſtatue are conſidered as a ſymbolical repreſentation of the city of Copenhagen; they were, however, found near Calmar, in Sweden, during the war in 1611, and conveyed to Copenhagen from thence.

The Calviniſts have a church in this city to themſelves; thoſe of the Romiſh religion frequent the chapels of foreign miniſters of that profeſſion, and the Jews have their ſynagogues. The magiſtracy of this city is appointed by the king, and conſiſts of a preſident, three burgomaſters, with vice-burgomaſters, and common council men.

The plague has frequently viſited this city, and ſwept away great numbers of the inhabitants. It has often been beſieged, and in 1658, and 1659, held out againſt the Swedes almoſt two years; and in 1700 was bombarded by the combined fleets of Sweden, England, and Holland. On the 20th of October, 1728, a fire broke out in the evening, in a mean houſe near the weſt gate, which ſpread with ſuch fury, that in forty-eight hours the moſt elegant and greateſt part of the city was reduced to aſhes. Twenty-four ſtreets and ſquares, one thouſand, ſix hundred and fifty dwelling-houſes, five churches, the univerſity, with the four colleges belonging to it, the council-houſe, and ſeveral other public buildings, were burnt to the ground. The anniverſary of this dreadful accident is obſerved in a religious manner on the twenty-third of October. The city has, however, been ſince rebuilt with greater elegance and beauty.

The ſuburb of Chriſtianſhafen being ſeated on the iſland of Almac, we ſhall therefore take ſome notice of that iſland, which is joined to the city, and conſequently to Zeeland, by two bridges. It is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth; entirely level, and has no woods, except a few thickets. The ſoil is uncommonly rich and fertile, and is therefore called the garden at Copenhagen. A part of it was given in 1516 to ſeveral families, who were invited thither from North Holland by Chriſtian II. at the deſire of Elizabeth his queen, who was a native of the Netherlands, to make butter and cheeſe for the court; and their deſcendants ſtill retain the habit, language, and cuſtoms of their predeceſſors, together with their cleanlineſs and induſtry; for they will not mix with the Danes, but intermarry with each other. This iſland, through the induſtry of theſe laborious people, plentifully ſupplies the markets of Copenhagen with all ſorts of roots and herbs, beſides butter, milk, great quantities of corn, and ſome hay. The whole iſland is divided into two pariſhes, and is peopled by about eight hundred families, many of whom are Danes. But to return to the iſland of Zeeland.

In the neighbourhood of Copenhagen is a magnificent royal palace, ſituated on a hill. It derives its name from Frederick IV. who was its founder, and has been ſince greatly enlarged by Chriſtian VI. This edifice is very ſpacious; on every ſide it makes a moſt magnificent appearance, and has a fine proſpect. The garden, which lies below the hill, is very extenſive, and contains a great number of pleaſant walks, ſeveral groves, a labyrinth, a theatre, many ſtatues, fountains, and ſummer-houſes; and, in particular, a very fine caſcade juſt fronts the palace. From this edifice, is a deſcent into the garden by two flights of broad ſtone ſteps. The menagery in the garden is ſtocked with lions, tigers, and other wild beaſts. From this palace a pleaſant avenue, planted with a double row of trees, extends above half way to Copenhagen.

Here is a royal hunting-ſeat, called Taggerſburg: it was rebuilt by the late king; the officers of the chace reſide in it. From hence a ſtrait avenue leads to the noble park of Charlottenlund, ſo called from the king's pleaſure-houſe, which ſtands in it. At about the diſtance of a mile from the park, lies that of Jagerſburg, which affords plenty of game. Near the middle of it ſtands a new edifice, called the Hermitage, which is thirty ells in length, twenty in breadth, and elegantly adorned both within and without. In the loweſt ſtory is a curious machine, by means of which the victuals, &c. are conveyed to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory.

About five miles from the park is the caſtle of Hirſcholm, a royal palace, which was antiently a place of conſiderable ſtrength: but nothing now remains of the old caſtle, beſides the name; for it is not only demoliſhed, but the very ſituation of the place has been entirely altered by art. Chriſtian VI. who took poſſeſſion of it as prince royal, cauſed the foundation of a new edifice to be laid on the ſpot where the old caſtle ſtood; and his queen, after his acceſſion to the throne, continued the building, the king having made her a preſent of it. In 1739 it was thought to be finiſhed; though every year ſince new improvements and embelliſhments have been continually added. The outſide has a very magnificent appearance, nor is it leſs elegant within. The great hall takes up the height of two ſtories, and has a noble fountain that throws up a column of water above twenty feet high, which falls down again into a copper baſon. Directly oppoſite to the palace is a noble ſummer-houſe; and on one ſide of the garden is an eminence covered with trees, on which ſtands the Norway-Houſe, which is ſo called from its being built in the Norwegian taſte. The chapel is elegant and well adorned, and the garden very beautiful.

The famous caſtle of Frederickſburg is about twenty miles from Copenhagen: this is eſteemed the moſt beautiful palace of any belonging to the king, and is frequently called the Verſailles of Denmark. Chriſtian IV. cauſed the old building to be demoliſhed, and the preſent magnificent

nificent ſtructure to be built by the ableſt and moſt celebrated architects in Europe. It partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles of architecture, and ſtands in the midſt of a lake of freſh water, and conſiſts of three principal parts, each ſurrounded with water, but joined together by bridges. The diviſion, at which you arrive by paſſing over a bridge, reſembles a horn work, the front of which is quite round, and faced with ſtone. On both ſides are ſeveral buildings, which ſerve either as dwelling-houſes for the officers of the caſtle, or ſtables for horſes. From hence you paſs over a ſtone bridge to a noble high tower, which ſtands over the gate that leads into the ſecond court. On each ſide of this court, to the right and left, ſtands a magnificent building, in one of which are the governor's houſe, ſeveral apartments for the noblemen belonging to the court, and the king's kitchen; and on the other ſide, the chief magiſtrate of the prefecture of Serve reſides. From this ſecond court a fine ſtone bridge, built over a deep canal, leads to the grand portico of the chief entrance of the caſtle, which is built with free-ſtone, and adorned with ſculpture and gilding. The principal building conſiſts of a corps-de-logis, and two wings, four ſtories high, all covered with copper, and adorned with ſeveral towers, of which the church tower is the higheſt. Both the wings are joined to the front by a low building of one ſtory. Theſe conſiſt of ſeven arches below, and as many above, built with free-ſtone, and adorned with ſtatues that ſtand either in niches or detached from the wall, with many other ornaments; in ſhort, which way ſoever you turn your eyes, curious ſculpture, and a variety of other embelliſhments, preſent themſelves to view; and there is a beautiful fountain near one of the wings.

There is a fine collection of paintings in the gallery that leads to the hall of audience, moſt of which were brought from Italy; and the hall is hung with the portraits of ſeveral of the Daniſh kings, and the preſent royal family, as large as the life. The exploits of ſome of theſe monarchs are alſo beautifully painted in diff rent parts of the palace, and the greateſt actions of Chriſtian IV. are repreſented in rich tapeſtry.

In the church belonging to the caſtle, the eye is in a manner dazzled by the glittering of the gold, ſilver, and curious marble, with which it is enriched. The altar is of black marble, the front of the table is of ſilver and ebony, and the pulpit is of the ſame materials. From the gallery there is a view of the large pictures with which the pilaſters between the windows are decorated. In the windows, and on the walls of this church, are the eſcutcheons of the knights of the Danebrog order. The gallery leads to a ſpacious place behind the altar, where the royal throne is erected; and on the walls, which are hung with crimſon velvet, are ſeen the arms of all the knights of the order of the elephant. The grand order in this apartment is curiouſly embelliſhed with ſculpture and gilding; formerly a fine organ of ſilver and ebony likewiſe ſtood here. In the tower is a fine ring of bells. In ſhort, all the apartments of the caſtle are very magnificent, eſpecially the knights ball-room, which is over the church, in the third ſtory, and has alſo a noble organ. There is a fine garden behind the palace, and the neighbouring park interſperſed with canals and fiſh ponds, and agreeably diverſified with a mixture of graſs-plats, and little hills and vallies, well ſtocked with fallow deer from England. In former reigns, the ceremony of the coronation was always performed here, but of late years it has been removed from hence to Copenhagen; and notwithſtanding the magnificence of this palace, we are told that it is ſeldom viſited by the preſent ſovereign.

The town of Elſinore or Elſineur, is about eighteen miles from Copenhagen: it is ſituated on the Sound, directly oppoſite to Elſingburg in Sweden, in fifty-ſix degrees, eight minutes, north latitude, and thirteen degrees, twenty-three minutes, eaſt longitude. Next to Copenhagen, this is the richeſt and moſt elegant town in Zeeland. It has two churches, in one of which, named St. Peter's, the miniſters preach in the German language. Here is alſo a grammar-ſchool, in which thirty-three poor ſcholars are educated and maintained gratis, a good hoſpital, and the king's cuſtom-houſe, which is a fine edifice, newly built.

Elſinore has a conſiderable trade, and is famous both on account of its being the place by which the Swedes and Norwegians uſually paſs into Denmark, and for the toll paid here by every ſhip that ſails through the Sound. On the north ſide of the city ſtands the celebrated and important fortreſs of Cronenburg, which is built, in the moſt durable manner, with large blocks of hewn ſtone, is excellently well fortified, and adorned with ſeveral turrets and a variety of ſculpture.

About nine miles from Cronenburg, in latitude fifty-five degrees, thirty-ſix minutes, ſtands the royal palace of Friedenſburg, in a delightful ſituation; which circumſtance induced Frederic IV. to build this palace here, and as the edifice was completed in 1720, when the treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden, the king gave it this name, the word 'frieden' ſignifying peace. That prince, being extremely fond of this place, often reſided here, and therefore, to render it as agreeable as poſſible, endeavoured to ſupply by art the deficiencies of nature. The inner court is a regular octagon, formed by ſeven wings, one ſtory high, and the main building, which is oppoſite to the principal entrance. In the midſt of the court is a fountain adorned with a marble ſtatue of peace, made at Florence. The main building is in the form of a parallelogram, and covered with copper; and in the middle there is a ſpacious light and elegant ſquare hall. The other apartments, in both ſtories, are nobly furniſhed. The garden is not very extenſive, but well laid out, and embelliſhed with ſtatues, vaſes, and other ornaments. It is ſurrounded with a large wood, that affords plenty of game, and in which ſeveral viſtas are cut. There is a delightful proſpect from the palace; the eye commanding almoſt all the viſtas at once, and at the end of them is an extenſive lake, in which is a beautiful yacht. A fine orangery and an elegant church are near the palace. Here is a menagery, ſtocked with a variety of beautiful tame and wild fowl, in the wood adjoining to the garden.

Four Daniſh, or ſixteen Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, is the ancient city of Roſchild, or Roſkild; it is ſituated about a mile from the extremity of a bay called Iſefiord, and derives its name from Roe, the eleventh king of Denmark, who was its founder, and the word 'kilde,' which ſignifies a ſpring, there being ſeveral excellent ſprings on the ſpot where it ſtands. This city ſtands in fifty-five degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, and in twelve degrees, fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It was a conſiderable city many centuries before Copenhagen was built, and once contained twenty-ſeven large churches and convents within its walls, and its ſtreets extended to the ſea-ſhore. Monuments of many kings of Denmark are in the great church here, this being their burying-place. Here is one of Harold VI. king of Denmark, England, and Norway, who was the founder of this church; here is alſo one of black marble, of the famous queen Margaret. The only veſtige that it now retains of having been at any time the royal reſidence is, that from the moſt remote antiquity the kings of Denmark have been buried in this cathedral. In one of the chapels are two of the moſt magnificent monuments in Europe. They were made in Italy, by order of Chriſtian IV. and are erected to the memory of his father and grandfather, Chriſtian III. and Frederic II. the beginning of the laſt century. Four other monuments, of two late Daniſh kings, have not long ſince been placed here: they were executed by Windwelf, a celebrated Daniſh ſtatuary now living.

A large whetſtone is likewiſe ſhewn here, which they ſay was ſent to queen Margaret by Albert, king of Sweden, in deriſion: intimating thereby, that women ſhould ſharpen their needles inſtead of aiming at war: but the wit, which is very poor, was well retorted by the queen; ſhe returned him for anſwer, that ſhe ſhould apply it to the edges of her ſoldiers ſwords; and ſhe was as good as her word, for ſhe overthrew him in a pitched battle, and made him priſoner; and after keeping him in confinement ſeven years, he was compelled to yield to very hard terms to obtain his releaſe. A ſmall royal palace was built in this town, in the year 1733, that has a communication with the church, by means of a covered paſſage. In 1699, a convent was founded here for twenty-one ladies of quality, and a prioreſs. Each of theſe ladies has an annual penſion of eighty rix-dollars, beſides lodging and board. Chriſtian V. alſo endowed this Proteſtant convent with five hundred rix-dollars per annum.

There is a foundery for cannon about twenty miles from Roſchild: it was begun by the late king Frederic V. and named Frederic's work, which the natives conſider as the moſt conſiderable and aſtoniſhing in Europe; but, ſays Mr. Wraxall, it does not impreſs a foreigner with ſuch ideas of its conſequence.

Calinburg, or Kallundborg, in the prefecture of the ſame name, is one of the moſt flouriſhing towns in Zeeland, and has the beſt harbour in the iſland, except Copenhagen. St. Mary's church, which has four lofty ſpires, makes a good appearance. The inhabitants carry on

on a conſiderable trade, and a great quantity of malt is annually exported from hence. The paſſage to Barhuus in Jutland is uſually performed in twelve hours; and a certain number of ſmacks ſail twice a week to and from both towns.

The little noted town of Sora is ſituated in a pleaſant country, in the prefecture of the ſame name. It is ſituated ten miles to the ſouth of Roſchild, where it is ſurrounded by three lakes of freſh water, and theſe are again almoſt encompaſſed with fine woods. This town is remarkable for the royal academy ſituated at the ſouth end of it, to which belong a grand maſter, an inſpector, profeſſors in all the ſciences that relate to civil or political employments, a French maſter, a riding-maſter, with proper maſters for fencing, dancing, and drawing. There is alſo a printing preſs ſet up in this academy. The ſtudents have their apartments in a large and commodious ſtone building.

We ſhall now take a view of the ſmall iſlands in the government of Zeeland.

Samſo lies about thirty-eight miles to the north-weſt of Kalinburg, and nineteen from Abruſe in Jutland, in the fifty-ſixth degree north latitude. It is about fourteen miles long and five broad. It has ſeveral hills and eminences, and the ſoil is for the moſt part fertile, and particularly yields plenty of peas; whence moſt of the inhabitants are in good circumſtances, and carry on a conſiderable trade with their ſmall craft. It conſiſts of five pariſhes, and is ſurrounded with ſeveral ſmall iſlands and ſandy ſhoals, dangerous to ſhipping.

Mona, Moen, or Moon, as it is uſually called in our maps, lies near the coaſt of the ſouth point of Zeeland, in the ſtraits called the Wolfſund; it is ſituated in fifty-five degrees, twenty-one minutes, north latitude, and is nineteen miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about nine in breadth. The high chalky cliffs towards the Baltick may be ſeen at a great diſtance at ſea, one of which has a great reſemblance to a throne, and is therefore commonly called the king's chair. Stones of an uncommon figure are in great plenty on this coaſt. The ſoil of the whole iſland is fertile, and yields great plenty of peas. It conſiſts of one prefecture, and contains ſeven rural pariſhes; and in the middle of the iſland is the little town of Stege.

Bornholm is ſituated in the Baltick, in the fifty-fifth degree, fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree, ten minutes eaſt longitude, about ſeventy-ſix miles from the extreme point of Zeeland, and extends about thirty-three miles in length from the north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and is nineteen in breadth. The ſoil is fertile, and produces all kinds of grain, particularly oats. Here is alſo good paſturage, and a great quantity of butter is exported from hence; it has alſo quarries of marble and lime-ſtone, and abounds with pit-coal. The coaſt, from its dangerous rocks and ſhoals, is inacceſſible almoſt on every ſide: and great guns are planted where there might be any danger of an enemy's landing. At the peace of Roſchild, in 1658, it was ceded to the Swedes; but the inhabitants, being treated with great ſeverity by their new maſters, took up arms the ſame year, and, under the conduct of Jens Koefod, recovered their liberty; after which they delivered up the iſland to the king of Denmark, who, pleaſed with this proceeding, ſent them a letter of thanks, and in a ſecond letter promiſed to take them under his immediate protection; an engagement which the ſucceeding kings have confirmed from time to time. Bornholm has been ever ſince an hereditary country, belonging to the kings of Denmark. In 1678, five thouſand Swediſh troops were ſtranded on this iſland, in their paſſage from Pomerania to Sweden; when, notwithſtanding their being provided with Daniſh paſſes, thoſe that eſcaped the fury of the waves were made priſoners of war. The inhabitants defend the iſland with their own militia, without any expence to his Daniſh majeſty, and have a governor, deputy-governor, prefect, and other officers. The iſland conſiſts of one prefecture, which contains about a hundred villages, and ſixteen rural churches.

The government of Funen includes Funen, Langeland, Falſter, Laaland, and other ſmall iſlands. It has two governors, under one of whom are Funen and Langeland, and under the other are Falſter and Laaland.

Funen, called by the Danes Feyin, lies between the Great and Little Belt. This iſland is about fifty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It receives its name from its being a fine country, the whole iſland being fertile, and agreeably diverſified with ſmall verdant hills, ſome of which are covered with woods; whence moſt of the noble families of the kingdom reſide there. Indeed, it is not eaſy to find, in any other place of ſuch ſmall extent, ſo many noblemens ſeats as there are in this iſland. The ſoil yields ſuch plentiful crops of grain, that the inhabitants may annually export above a hundred thouſand barrels of rye, barley, oats, and peas, to Norway and Sweden, excluſive of their home conſumption. It alſo produces a vaſt quantity of buck wheat, which is chiefly cultivated by the inhabitants. They employ a great deal of care in breeding bees, and make a conſiderable quantity of fine mead, which is exported to all parts of the kingdom. The apples that grow in this iſland are alſo much admired, and it likewiſe produces plenty of hops and eſculent herbs; but the ſcarcity of wood obliges the inhabitants chiefly to uſe turf for fuel. There are here alſo great herds of black cattle, a good breed of horſes, and abundance of hogs.

This iſland is divided into five prefectures, the principal places in which are the following; namely,

Nyborg, or Niburg, a ſtrong town on the Great Belt, and though not very large, has a commodious ſituation. Here is a good port, and ſome trade. It was once very ſtrong, but now has nothing remaining but the ruins of its old fortifications and caſtle. The ſhips that paſs through the Great Belt are obliged to pay toll here, for which purpoſe a man of war is always ſtationed in the Belt. This city was firſt built in 1175. All that remains of the antient royal palace, where Chriſtian II. was born in 1481 (to the top of which an infant was carried up by a monkey, and brought down again without receiving any hurt) is only a large wing, with a flat tower, a little higher than the roof, and at preſent ſerves for a magazine and an arſenal.

Odenſee, is a city of great antiquity, and the capital of the general government; it is pretty large and populous, but the greateſt part of the city is old and decayed; ſome of it is, however, new and well built. It is ſaid to have been erected before the Chriſtian æra, and to derive its name from the idol Odin, and not as ſome have imagined from the emperor Otho I. who was never there. It is ſituated in a fine plain, in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude, on a river that yields a variety of fiſh, and about a mile below the town runs into the gulf of Stegeſtrand. The city is about a mile and a half long, and half as broad. It has four churches, among which the cathedral is the moſt remarkable. In the Grey Friars or Franciſcan church, are interred king John, and Chriſtiana his queen, with their ſon Francis, and king Chriſtian II. Near this church is a handſome hoſpital, built in the year 1540. The king's palace is neither large, commodious, nor elegant; it being only erected as a lodging for Frederick IV. in his occaſional progreſs through Funen: but there that excellent prince died in 1730. In this city is a college erected and liberally endowed by Chriſtian IV. and alſo a large cathedral ſchool. The provincial court is held every month in the great hall of this city. The bay lies a little above a mile from the town; the inhabitants carry on ſo conſiderable a trade, as to employ thirty-four large ſhips, beſides above a hundred ſmaller veſſels.

Langeland, which is ſituated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-four minutes eaſt longitude, is thirty-three miles in length, but ſcarce five in breadth. This iſland is very fertile, and abounds with wheat, barley, and rye, of which the natives export great quantities. It is under the ſame general governor at Funen: and contains only the royal prefecture of Traneklar, which includes the north and ſouth diſtricts, each conſiſting of ſeven churches or pariſhes.

Falſter lies at the diſtance of two leagues from Zeeland, in fifty-five degrees north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles in length; but its breadth towards the north end does not exceed fourteen, and towards the ſouthern extremity is but about four miles. It is very fertile, and may be called the orchard of Denmark, from its yielding abundance of fruit: all ſorts of game are likewiſe here in great plenty. This iſland is commonly the dowry of the queens of Denmark, and conſiſts of one ſingle prefecture, which contains two diſtricts, in one of which are thirteen rural churches, and in the other fifteen.

The chief town in this iſland is Nicopping, in Latin Nicopia, or Neapolis Danica, ſituated on the ſtraits called Guldborgſund, in the forty-ninth degree fifty-ſix minutes north latitude, and is a pretty large well-built town, one of the moſt antient in the kingdom; but is not in ſo flouriſhing a condition as formerly, when the queen dowager, and other royal perſonages, conſtantly reſided here. On the land ſide it is fortified by a wall and ditch. This town carries on a conſiderable trade.

Laland,

Laland, or Lolland, called by the Danes Laaland, is separated from Falſter on the eaſt, by the ſtreights called Guldborgſund, or Groneſond, and on every other ſide is encompaſſed by the Great Belt and the Baltick. This iſland is nineteen miles diſtant from the iſland of Femeren; is thirty-three miles in length, and about fourteen in breadth, and the moſt fertile ſpot in the Daniſh dominions. It produces plenty of grain, particularly very fine wheat, and excellent peas: it is likewiſe famous for a kind of red fruit called manna, which in its taſte reſembles ſweet almonds, and grows on a ſlender ſtem; it alſo abounds with apples. It has ſome woods, but theſe are more frequent on the eaſt than on the weſt-ſide.

The capital of the iſland is Naſkow which was anciently well fortified, but is now only encompaſſed with a wall. It is of a middle ſize, and handſomely built. The inhabitants are wealthy, and trade in the produce of their country, it having a pretty good harbour. The Jews are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion, and have a ſynagogue here: the town has alſo a grammar-ſchool, and an hoſpital.

SECT. IV.

Containing an Account of the Civil, Eccleſiaſtical, and Political State of DENMARK: alſo of the Language, Religion, Learning, Conſtitution, Government, and Laws of the DANES.

THIS kingdom is divided into ſeven capital governments, each being under the direction of a governor appointed by the king, who is called ſtifts-ampts-man; and this ſtifts-ampts-man, or governor, is uſually a court-favourite. Each of theſe ſeven capital governments is again ſubdivided into three ſmaller juriſdictions, called ampts; and the governors of theſe ampts are called amptſmen. But ſtifts-ampts-men are equally unanimous in oppreſſing the poor, and obliging the court.

The Lutheran religion is eſtabliſhed in Denmark; and the kingdom is conſidered as divided into ſix dioceſes, viz. one in Zeeland, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; but theſe are in fact no other than ſuperintendencies, for they are without cathedrals, eccleſiaſtical courts, or temporalities. The principal buſineſs of theſe biſhops, or ſuperintendants, is to inſpect the doctrines and morals of the inferior clergy. The ſuperintendants are not diſtinguiſhed from other miniſters by their habit. The clerical dreſs conſiſts of a black gown with ſhort ſleeves, a round cap with flat edges, and a large ruff about the neck. The revenue of the biſhop or ſuperintendant of Copenhagen, which is the *richeſt benefice in the whole kingdom*, amounts to no more than two thouſand rix dollars, or about five hundred and ten pounds ſterling.

The clergy, in general, preach without notes, and ſome of them lead very exemplary lives. They are wholly dependant on the government, and are obliged to act with the utmoſt ſubmiſſion and ſervility to the court. But to make amends for being obliged to be obſequious to one claſs of people, they take care to ſhew their authority, and domineer over the lower claſs of people. Their churches are kept cleaner, and are more embelliſhed with ornaments, than thoſe in England, but the decorations are uſually inelegant, and often abſurd, particularly reſpecting their ſtatues. They are extremely fond of ſonorous muſic; hence their organiſts entertain the people for a conſiderable time, both before and after ſervice.

In Denmark the antient form of government was the ſame as that which the Goths and Vandals eſtabliſhed in moſt, if not all parts of Europe whither they carried their conqueſts, and which in England is retained till this day, for the moſt part. Denmark therefore was, till within theſe eighty-five years, governed by a king, choſen by the people of all ſorts: even the boors had their voices; which king Waldemar III. who reigned in 1394, acknowledged in that memorable anſwer of his to the pope's nuncio, who pretended to a great power over him: *Naturam habemus a Deo, regnum a ſubditis, divitias a parentibus, religionem a Romana eccleſia, quam ſi nobis invides, renunciamus per præſentes;* i. e. "Our being we have from God; our kingdom from our ſubjects, our riches from our parents, and our religion from the church of Rome; and, if you grudge it us, we renounce it by theſe preſents."

The eſtates of the realm, being convened, were to elect for their prince ſuch a perſon as to them appeared handſome, valiant, juſt, merciful, affable, a maintainer of the laws, a lover of the people, prudent, and adorned with all other virtues fit for government, and requiſite for the great truſt repoſed in him; yet with a due regard to the family of the preceding king. If within that line they found a perſon thus qualified, or eſteemed to be ſo, they thought it but a piece of juſt gratitude to prefer him before any other to this high dignity, and were pleaſed when they had reaſons to chuſe the eldeſt ſon of their former king rather than any of the younger, as well becauſe they had regard to priority of birth, when all other virtues were equal, as becauſe the greatneſs of his perſonal eſtate might put him above the reach of temptations to be covetous or diſhoneſt, and enable him, in ſome degree, to ſupport the dignity of the office.

If, after ſuch a choice, they found themſelves miſtaken, and that they had advanced a cruel, vicious, tyrannical, covetous, or waſteful perſon, they frequently depoſed him, oftentimes baniſhed, ſometimes deſtroyed him; and this either formally, by making him anſwer before the repreſentative body of the people; or if, by ill practices, ſuch as making of parties, levying of ſoldiers, contracting of alliances to ſupport himſelf in oppoſition to the people's rights, he was grown too powerful to be legally contended with, they diſpatched him, without more ceremony, the beſt way they could, and elected preſently a better man in his ſtead; ſometimes the next of kin to him; ſometimes the valiant man that had expoſed himſelf ſo far as to undertake the expedition, or the killing of the tyrant; at other times, a private perſon of good reputation, who poſſibly leaſt dreamt of ſuch an advancement, became the object of their choice.

The frequent meeting of the ſtates was a fundamental part of the conſtitution. In thoſe meetings all matters relating to good government were tranſacted, good laws were enacted, all affairs belonging to peace or war, alliances, diſpoſal of great offices, contracts of marriages for royal families, &c. were debated. The impoſing of taxes, or demanding of benevolences, was purely accidental, no conſtant tribute being ever paid, nor any money levied on the people, unleſs either to maintain a neceſſary war, with the advice and conſent of the nation, or now and then by way of free gift, to help to raiſe a daughter's portion; the king's revenue, at that time, conſiſting only in the rents of his lands and demeſnes, in his herd of cattle, foreſts, ſervices of tenants in manuring and cultivating his grounds, &c. (cuſtoms upon merchandizes being an impoſition of late crept into this part of the world). So that he lived, like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his own eſtate, and ate not through the ſweat of his ſubjects brows, as the modern practice is.

The king's buſineſs was, to ſee a due and impartial adminiſtration of juſtice executed according to the laws; nay, often to ſit and do it himſelf; to be watchful and vigilant for the welfare of his ſubjects; to command in perſon their armies in time of war; to encourage religion, arts, and learning: and it was his intereſt, as well as his duty, to keep fair with the nobility and gentry, and to be careful of the plenty and proſperity of his people.

Such was the antient form of government in this kingdom; which continued, with little variation, excepting that the power of the nobles increaſed too much, till the year 1660, when at one inſtant the whole face of affairs was changed, the crown was made hereditary, and the king abſolute.

This remarkable revolution was accompliſhed in the following manner: The whole nation, after the peace of Sweden, was in a moſt calamitous ſituation, for the treaſury was ſo much exhauſted, that when the army was to have been diſbanded, there was no money to pay off the troops; hence the ſoldiery became inſolent and licentious. At the ſame time the nobles were proud and tyrannical; the clergy diſcontented, from their want of importance, and the diſreſpect with which they were treated; and the commonalty grew quite deſperate, by reaſon of the heavy taxes with which, on account of the late war, they had been oppreſſed.

The ſtates, at this critical juncture, aſſembled to deliberate on the grievances of the nation, when it was propoſed to the commons, that an equal tax ſhould be laid upon all perſons indiſcriminately, and without diſtinction, in an exact proportion to their reſpective circumſtances. The nobles, however, ſtrenuouſly pleaded their privileges, which, they aſſerted, exempted them from paying any kind of taxes; and the commons as ſtrenuouſly contended, that as the nobles *ingroſſed* and enjoyed the greateſt part of the lands, wealth, honours, &c. in the kingdom, it was more particularly incumbent on them, to bear their ſhare of the common burden, and contribute to the general defence.

The

The debates hereupon grew warm, and the altercation became violent: each party conceived an implacable animoſity againſt the other, and the paſſions of all were equally overheated. In the height of this ferment, a nobleman called Otto Craeg ſtood up, and in a tranſport of rage told the commons, that they neither underſtood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from ſuch impoſition, nor the condition of themſelves, who were no other than their ſlaves. Theſe degrading expreſſions irritating the commons beyond all degree of forbearance, Nanſon, their ſpeaker, ſtarted up, and, fired with indignation, ſwore that the nobility ſhould repent their having conſidered the commons as vaſſals and ſlaves. The commons, or clergy and burghers, immediately broke up the aſſembly, and marched under the auſpices of their leaders to the brewer's-hall; and in a few hours reſolved to make the king a preſent of an abſolute power, and to render the crown hereditary in his family, ſo as that it might deſcend even to females, in default of male heirs; which reſolution they accordingly put in execution the next day: and though the nobility heſitated at firſt on the matter, yet they were alſo obliged to comply; and in three days time the alteration was completed: ſo that the kings have been ever ſince deſpotic and arbitrary; not the leaſt ſhadow of liberty remaining to the ſubject.

Since this event took place, all meetings of the eſtates in parliament are entirely aboliſhed; nay, the very name of eſtates and liberty is quite forgotten, as if there had never been any ſuch thing; the very firſt and principal article in the Daniſh law being, "That the king has the privilege reſerved to himſelf to explain the law; nay, to alter and change it as he ſhall think proper." Any conſiderate perſon may eaſily gueſs the conſequences of this, which are, frequent and arbitrary taxes, and commonly very exceſſive ones; even in times of peace, little regard being had to the occaſions of them; ſo that the value of eſtates, in moſt parts of the kingdom, is fallen three-fourths: and it is worſe near the capital city, under the eye and hand of the government, than in the remote provinces; hence enſues poverty in the gentry, which neceſſarily cauſes extremity of miſery in the peaſants, partiality in the diſtribution of juſtice, when favourites are concerned; with many other miſchiefs, being the conſtant effects of arbitrary rule, in this, and in all other countries wherein it has prevailed. Thus the people, with a raſh and deſperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful miniſtry and ambitious clergy, reſigned their liberty and independence, and inveſted their ſovereign with a deſpotic power over their lives and properties.

The kings of Denmark from this memorable period have united in their perſons, all the rights of the ſovereign power; but they are obliged to delegate ſome part of the executive power to their confidential ſubjects, as they are not able to exerciſe the whole themſelves.

Their language, like that of Norway, is a corruption of the Teutonic, or rather, both the former are corrupted dialects of the latter; the pronunciation, is, however, harſh, and the tone drawling and diſagreeable. Beſides, many Dutch, German, and French words, have been introduced; and the better ſort of people are fond of ſpeaking the latter fluently and accurately.

Learning is at a very low ebb in Denmark, not having yet triumphed over barbariſm; ſo that taſte and polite literature are ſcarcely known. This country, it is true, hath produced ſome few perſons admirably eminent in the mathematical ſciences, and the art of medicine, ſuch as Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, Bartholines, &c. but the merit of theſe is to be conſidered as the effulgence of a comet, challenging the greater admiration, becauſe ſo ſeldom ſeen. The ſmall progreſs of the Danes in the ſciences, however, appears rather to reſult from a defective conſtitution, and an oppreſſive government, than from any want of natural abilities in the people. A learned traveller, who lately viſited Denmark, obſerves, that the clergy and lawyers, as they are entirely dependant upon the court, and the great lords of the kingdom, are the moſt ſubſervient creatures imaginable: they fill up their reſpective places in the ſcale of ſlavery; but they fill them as ſo many cyphers, or rather as ſo many machines that are moved at the will of others. The ſituation of ſeveral very ſenſible and learned men among the clergy and lawyers of this kingdom is truly pitiable; for certainly a man who knows his duty well, and is prevented from doing it, has a very diſagreeable taſk to go through; and it is very difficult to define the characters of thoſe men who have no will of their own.

For Denmark and Norway, the ſupreme court of judicature is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, the king being preſident. The tribunal of Holſtein is held at Gluckſtadt; and that for the duchy of Sleſwick in the town of that name. The nod of the ſovereign is deciſive in the council; the members whereof, as they are removeable at his pleaſure, being obliged implicitly to obey his will.

The proceedings in the courts are ſo ſummary, that a ſuit may be carried through all of them, and finally decided, in thirteen months; and every man, if he chuſes it, may plead his own cauſe.

Here are three other courts, ſubordinate to the ſupreme court of judicature, at which the king preſides; theſe are, the land-ſtag, or provincial court; the herredsfougds, or diſtrict court; and the byſoglids, or town court. Appeals lie from each of theſe courts to the other, according to ſuperiority; and the final appeal is to the ſupreme court, when the king, as the ultimate legiſlator, gives the ultimate deciſion.

The king appoints the judges, which are removeable at pleaſure; they are puniſhable for miſdemeanors, that is, if the monarch thinks proper to deem their actions ſuch; and thus being royally condemned, are obliged to make reparation to the injured party. Their ſalaries are inconſiderable, being paid from the king's treaſury, from fines, and from gratuities where ſentence is paſſed. There is likewiſe an exchequer court in Copenhagen, to try cauſes relative to the revenue; and a commercial, to try all differences reſpecting trade. The chancellory executes all manner of buſineſs reſpecting treaties, alliances, &c. and the admiralty court manages all marine diſputes.

In Denmark, the police is very ſtrict: hence highway robberies, burglaries, coining, clipping, &c. are crimes ſcarcely ever heard of; and to ſpeak againſt the government ſo ſtrongly prohibited, that none dare wag their tongues licentiouſly in political matters. Murder and manſlaughter are, however, common; and the puniſhment of the criminal is beheading, which is performed, with great dexterity, by the public executioner, who, though univerſally deſpiſed, is uſually rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive a culprit of his life, but is the general contractor to empty all the jakes, and remove from houſes, ſtables, ſtreets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever. There is a maſter of the police in Copenhagen, who ſuperintends the council and civil affairs of the city; and ſuch diligence and circumſpection is uſed, that a perſon may walk through the whole city at midnight, in perfect ſafety. To prevent fires, the chimney-ſweepers are bound to keep a regiſter of all the chimnies they ſweep, that the perſon may be puniſhed for his avarice, or neglect, on conviction, who is the occaſion of an accident from a foul vent, &c.

In this kingdom the apothecaries are under excellent regulations; only two are allowed in Copenhagen, and one in all other towns of importance. They are licenſed by the college of phyſicians, and confirmed by the king; and are obliged to keep an exact regiſter of the drugs they ſell, to whom they are ſold, and by whom preſcribed.

The Daniſh laws are contained in ſo perſpicuous and ſhort a code, as to conſiſt only of one quarto volume, which is written in the language of the country, and divided into ſix books, the contents of which are as follow: 1. On the procedure of the courts of juſtice. 2. Eccleſiaſtical law. 3. Office and honorary law. 4. Maritime law. 5. Property law. 6. Criminal law.

SECT. V.

Treating of the Trade, Revenue, Naval and Land Forces, &c. of DENMARK; alſo of the Perſons, Habits, Characters, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the DANES.

THIS kingdom, being extremely well ſituated for commerce, might be eaſily rendered rich and flouriſhing; but, by reaſon of the many exactions and duties it is ſubject to, is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates of Europe: for where agriculture and internal trade are cramped, foreign commerce can never flouriſh. When a farmer, in Denmark or Holſtein, happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which he is, by his great diligence and induſtry, endeavouring to cultivate and improve; as ſoon as he has performed the laborious taſk, and expects to reap the profits of his toil, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that to another of his

poor farms; and expects that he should perform the same laborious task there, without other emolument than what he shall think proper to give him.

In this country, the commercial commodities consist chiefly of fish, timber, tallow, pitch, tar, planks, skins, live cattle, horses, and grain from some provinces. Their money is reckoned in rix-dollars and stivers, the first being four shillings and six-pence each; the latter rather more than an English penny.

An East India company was established in Denmark in the year 1612, and a settlement made at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast; but this East India trade, though of some advantage to individuals, is detrimental to the nation in general; as the Danes pay in specie for all their tea, porcelain, bale-goods, &c. not having natural productions, or manufactured goods proper for these markets; and were it not for the small quantities of these goods which they send into Germany, Prussia, Courland, &c. and the teas which their merchants smuggle upon the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, the company would soon prove extremely prejudicial to the whole country.

It must, however, be confessed, that Christian VI. did the utmost in his power to benefit his country. He abolished the monopolies of wine, brandy, salt, and tobacco. He terminated the disputes which had long subsisted between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburg; instituted a council of trade; invited artists, workmen, and manufacturers of foreign countries to settle in Denmark; established a bank; maintained a respectable fleet and army, &c. And his son Frederick V. very laudably trod in his footsteps; but these prospects have been obscured by oppression, imprudence, faction, and party, in the present reign.

The king's revenue arises from crown lands, taxes and duties, and these are extremely heavy. The landholders pay dearly to the sovereign, who is absolute, for the privilege of holding their lands, for the implements and liberty of cultivating them, and for every necessary article of life. All persons, not servants (the clergy excepted) pay eight shillings annually, as a capitation tax for themselves, the same for their wives, and the same for all their children who exceed twelve years of age. The clergy only are exempted, in consideration of the trouble they take in making out lists every year of all taxable persons within their respective parishes. Here is likewise a tax of four shillings upon every stable where horses are kept.

There are some few exemptions from the general mode of taxation; but the person so exempted pays a particular tax, levied in a peculiar manner. Those domestics, who serve the nobility, are thus taxed, annually: stewards and housekeepers, four shillings; footmen, two shillings; and maid-servants, one shilling. Labourers pay yearly four shillings, and their wives two, if not hired servants. But one of the most considerable articles in the revenue of Denmark, is the money raised by a duty or toll paid by all ships which pass through the Sound into the Baltick. The Sound is a narrow strait between Schonen and the island of Zeeland. On the Danish side stands the town of Elsineur and the castle of Cronenburg: and on the Swedish side the town of Helsingburg. Between those pass all the ships that trade to the Baltick. But though the Danes by the treaty of peace, have expressly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ships that pass, except those of the Swedes, yet they do not esteem the security of that title so firm as they could wish; for as they are not masters of the land on both sides, they may have the right, but not the power, to assert it upon occasion; and seem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour; their stronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make use of the first opportunity given them to their prejudice.

As this toll is very considerable, and has occasioned many disputes, we thought it might not be amiss to set down in this place an accurate account of the original and nature of it. It was at first laid by the consent of the traders into the Baltick, who were willing to allow a small matter for each ship that passed, towards the maintaining of lights on certain places of that coast, for the better direction of sailors in dark nights: hereupon this passage of the Sound became the most practised; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well because of the great conveniency of those lights to the shipping that passed in and out of the East sea, as because of an agreement made, that no ship should pass the other way, to the end that all might pay their shares; it being unreasonable that such ships should have the advantage of those lights in dark or stormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards the maintaining of those fires, by passing another way in good weather. Besides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been so insignificant, considering the small sum which each ship was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, solely for the use and benefit of their own trading ships; because they were masters of so few, as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other hanse-towns, being the greatest traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe; by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches.

There being no fixed rule, or treaty, whereby to be governed with regard to the different bulk of the ships belonging to so many different nations, the Danes began in process of time to grow arbitrary, and exacted smaller or greater sums, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with, or according to their friendship or discontent with those princes or states to whom the several ships belonged. Therefore the emperor Charles V. to ascertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was signed at Spire on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his subjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltick, and agreed, that as a toll-custom in the Sound every ship of two hundred tons and under, should pay two rose-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltick; and every ship above two hundred tons, three rose-nobles. A rose-noble is worth about eighteen shillings sterling. This agreement remained in force till such time as the United Provinces shook off the Spanish yoke; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of those wars, raised their toll to an extravagant height, the troublesome times not affording the Dutch leisure to mind the redressing of such a mischief. However, the toll is at present greatly reduced, and much more reasonable; and if the principal maritime powers thought fit to dispute the matter, they certainly would have no occasion to pay it at all. About the year 1640, this toll produced two hundred and forty thousand rix-dollars per annum; but since 1645, it has not yielded above one hundred and ninety thousand; some years not above eighty thousand; in 1691, it did not extend to full seventy thousand; and to much less since that time.

Of all the Danish taxes, that upon marriage is the most impolitic, and more particularly as the country greatly wants population. All people of rank, who have public employments, pay a sum equivalent to ten pounds sterling for the privilege of being married; people of rank, who have no public employment, pay at the rate of four pounds sterling; clergymen, citizens, free farmers, and the stewards of the nobility, pay sixteen shillings; mechanics eight shillings: and servants and labourers, four shillings; seamen, soldiers and husbandmen, are exempted from this tax, and for a very good reason, which is, that they are totally unable to pay it.

Another very heavy tax is, an exemption subsidy, which, though exorbitant and oppressive, is chearfully paid by all housekeepers who can raise the money, because by the payment they are exempted from having soldiers quartered on them. This tax is rated by the civil magistrates, according to the size, situation, rent, &c. of the house. Besides the taxes to government, two more are paid by all citizens and burghers, for the support of their respective cities and towns, viz. a capitation-tax, and a ground-rent tax; and independent of these, here is a heavy stamp-duty, and taxes upon patents, commissions, a titulary tax paid by the nominal nobility, &c.

From these various taxes, duties, imposts, and subsidies, the whole revenue of Denmark at present amounts to the annual income of one million, two hundred thousand pounds, and this is the utmost that government can possibly draw from the people, without draining the kingdom of the little money that remains in circulation; for the Danes are, perhaps, the most heavily taxed of any people in Europe, though they are the least capable of paying such oppressive levies.

Most of the regular troops in Denmark are foreigners, and more particularly, Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well-mounted, and consist of eleven regiments; and each regiment of four squadrons, including the body guards. These regiments are thus quartered, viz. three in Zeeland, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and one in Holstein. The infantry is composed of sixteen regiments, of which two do duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each consists of two battalions, and each battalion consists of six companies of

one hundred each. The artillery conſiſts of three regiments, one of which is ſtationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and a third in Holſtein. The corps of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which compriſes twenty officers of various ranks.

Since the late reduction of the Daniſh forces, their numbers are as follow: ten thouſand cavalry and dragoons, and thirty thouſand infantry and artillery; ſo that the regular troops in Denmark amount to forty thouſand. And with reſpect to the militia, every perſon who cultivates or poſſeſſes three hundred and ſixty acres of land, is obliged to furniſh one man, and pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reſerve, to be embodied and called out only upon extraordinary occaſions.

The navy belonging to the Danes conſiſts of thirty ſhips of the line, and about ſixteen frigates; but theſe are generally kept in ſuch bad repair, that it would be found difficult, upon an emergency, to fit out twenty ſhips capable of putting to ſea. To man this fleet, there are two orders of ſeamen, namely, thirty thouſand who are conſtantly inrolled and retained, in times of peace, by a trifling annual ſtipend, and being exempted from the payment of certain taxes. A ſecond claſs is compoſed of four diviſions, each having a chief and ten companies of one hundred and eighteen men each. Theſe are commanded by a captain, who has two ſubaltern officers under him; and in this claſs are a certain number of gunners, who have a kind of naval academy, and inſtruct the ſeamen. This ſecond claſs contains four thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty men, who are always ready for immediate ſervice, and conſtantly kept in full pay. They are occaſionally recruited from the inrolled ſeamen, and wear a blue uniform faced with different colours, according to the reſpective ſquadrons and diviſions to which they belong.

Their men of war carry the ſame complement of men in proportion to their guns, as the French ſhips of war do; but they are much inferior, in point of conſtruction, both to Engliſh and French, and are far from being equal to the Swediſh ſhips of war.

Frederick IV. inſtituted a marine academy for the inſtruction of young cadets. Appointments were made for fifty cadets to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, hiſtory, geography, geometry, and ſeveral other branches of the mathematics, &c. In order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and ſucceſſively to perform the ſervices of common ſeamen, pilots, and officers. But this noble inſtitution is now totally neglected, and the money appointed to ſupport it is ſunk into venal pockets; ſo that the Danes, in caſe of a rupture with any naval power, would have a great difficulty to find proper perſons to command their ſhips of war, except from the few officers among them, bred in the Engliſh and French ſervices.

There are computed to be about two million, one hundred thouſand ſubjects in the various parts of the Daniſh dominions, the inhabitants of which may be diſtinguiſhed into five claſſes, viz. 1. The nobility, who have privileged fiefs in the kingdom. 2. The titular nobility. 3. Clergy, lawyers, and ſtudents. 4. Merchants and citizens. 5. Seamen, farmers, and labourers.

There are very few families of the firſt claſs, or antient nobility, now exiſting; ſo that moſt of the families, who are now in poſſeſſion of the privileged fiefs, have been ennobled ſince the revolution in 1660, and moſt of them very lately. They value themſelves very much upon their titles and privileges, and are uncommonly fond of pageantry, pomp, and ſhow. They are proud of French fopperies, and imitate all the blemiſhes, but none of the good qualities of that nation. The ladies in general are finiſhed coquettes, and in the practice of that art ſeem to vie with the moſt ſkilful females of London and Paris.

A great number of the ſecond claſs, or titular nobility, are foreigners, and in particular Germans, who generally come hither very poor, but uſually acquire wealth by ſervilely attending the court, and falling into all the ſchemes of the favourite or miniſter.

The third claſs, being dependant on, are obliged to be ſubſervient to the court, and ſubmiſſive to the miniſter, &c.

The fourth claſs are conceited and haughty, but at the ſame time timid, and ſervile to ſuperiors.

The fifth claſs, who are the ſeamen, would be much more alert in their buſineſs, if they were better uſed; and would act with greater ſpirit and courage, if they were not familiarized to fear, and trained from their births to the moſt abject ſlavery. The farmers, as we hinted above, are perfect vaſſals, and by not being permitted to have any will of their own, become timid, careleſs, and indolent. If any of theſe happen to get a little money, they become perfect ſots, and uſually deſtroy themſelves by intoxication. Indeed this vice of drinking to exceſs is almoſt general among the Danes; though many, forely againſt their wills, are obliged to keep ſober through poverty.

The labouring people are ſome of the moſt oppreſſed and miſerable wretches in Europe, and may thank Providence for a kind of inſenſibility and ſtupidity which prevents them from feeling all the horrors of that tyranny to which they are obliged to ſubmit. It has been, however, obſerved, that theſe people ſeldom quarrel with each other, though they are very fond of drinking and of ſmoaking tobacco, which are of general uſe here, and which may contribute much to their health, and to the little activity they poſſeſs in the cold and wet atmoſphere they live in.

The Danes were formerly celebrated for their warlike genius; but this being now totally loſt, they are become timid, ſuſpicious, deceitful, dull, and in general ſtupid. The king, on the ſale of an eſtate, has a right to one third of the purchaſe-money; and their lands in general are ſo burdened with impoſitions, the gentlemen are at little or no pains to improve their eſtates, and they look upon trade as beneath their dignity. They therefore rack their tenants with the utmoſt oppreſſion, in order to procure the immediate means of gratifying their vanity, gluttony, and extravagance. Thoſe courtiers, who derive money from their employments, inſtead of purchaſing land in Denmark, remit their caſh to the banks of Hamburgh and Amſterdam. The merchants and burghers tread in the ſteps of their ſuperiors; they ſpend all their gain in luxury and pleaſure with an impatient avidity, as if they were afraid of incurring the ſuſpicion of affluence; and of being ſtripped by taxation. The peaſant or boor follows the ſame example: no ſooner has he earned a rix-dollar, than he makes haſte to expend it in brandy, leſt it ſhould fall into the hands of his oppreſſive landlord. This lower claſs of people, ſays an accurate writer, are as abſolute ſlaves as the negroes in the Weſt Indies; and ſubſiſt upon much harder fare. The value of eſtates is not computed by the number or quality of the acres of land, but by the ſtock of boors; who are reckoned a parcel of the freehold, in the ſame manner as the timber upon it.

The Danes are well-ſhaped and ſtrong built, exceeding fair, both men and women, but have Dutch ſhapes and a very bad mien; their hair uſually yellow, as is obſerved of moſt northern nations, while the hair of the ſouthern people is generally black. The ladies that are not expoſed to the weather, have excellent complexions, and make a very agreeable figure in a ſitting poſture; but they ceaſe to charm when they put themſelves in motion, and indeed it is difficult to know whether they move at all for ſome time, if they are at a little diſtance from us. They are as corpulent and ill-ſhaped as the Dutch, and want a little of the activity of the French. Both ſexes take great care to dreſs and curl their fair locks, and imitate the ſouthern nations in their habits, except the lower claſs of people, and the Laplanders, who wrap themſelves in furs or wool in winter from head to foot. Their heavy bodies ſeem to affect their minds, to both which their exceſs in eating and drinking may contribute; and they are ſeldom much improved by learning. On the other hand, they appear to be good-humoured, hoſpitable people, and their courage is ſeldom called in queſtion.

At funerals, as well as marriages, they feaſt and make merry. The nobility pique themſelves upon having pompous burials and monuments for their dead. Moſt gentlemen keep very plentiful tables, and drink chiefly Rheniſh wine or brandy. Upon an invitation, the gueſts have each a glaſs of brandy offered, or rather forced upon them, as ſoon as they come in; and at dinner-time, whenever the maſter of the houſe drinks a glaſs of wine, every one at the table does the like. The ladies, as well as gentlemen take off their glaſſes at every health drank at dinner; but then their glaſſes are ſmaller, and they retire before the men begin their indelicate toaſts.

The principal diverſions of theſe people are, being drawn in ſledges upon the ice, during winter, and running at the gooſe on Shrove-Tueſday. The king annually partakes of the paſtime of ſtag-hunting, during which diverſion he lays aſide the trappings of royalty, and mingles, as an equal, with his nobles and attendants; even the common people are indulged with very extraordinary freedoms at this time. When the hunting is over, about ſix in the evening the hunting aſſizes are held in the great court before the palace. There the ſtag is cut up with great ceremony by the huntſmen, who are cloathed in red, and have

hunting

hunting horns about their necks, while the hounds attend with the moſt clamorous impatience. Proclamation is alſo made, that if any perſon has, that day, tranſgreſſed the laws of hunting, he ſhould be immediately accuſed. Some individual is always ſelected for this purpoſe, tried, and found guilty. Then he is led by two gentlemen, towards the ſtag, where he firſt kneels down between the horns; he is afterwards obliged to raiſe up his poſteriors, on which the king himſelf, with a large wand, inflicts a certain number of ſtripes, to the infinite diverſion of the queen, ladies, and other ſpectators; during which the hounds open, and the huntſmen blow their horns, as if in concert, to proclaim the king's juſtice. The criminal having undergone this ludicrous chaſtiſement, riſes up, and makes a profound obeiſance, and then the hounds are permitted to regale upon the ſtag.

Another royal diverſion is ſwan-hunting, which the court enjoys in a ſmall iſland near Copenhagen, where thoſe birds breed in great numbers. Before the young ones are ſufficiently fledged to take their flight, the king, queen, courtiers, &c. ſet out for this iſland in a number of pinnaces, incloſe the haunt of the ſwans, and with fowling-pieces deſtroy them by thouſands: the feathers and down belong to the king, but the fleſh is never eaten.

Their uſual way of travelling by land is either in waggons or on horſeback, and the ſledges are more uſed than either in winter, for their diverſion, as well as on journeys. If a gentleman obtains a warrant from court for horſes or carriages, the farmers of every province are obliged to furniſh him with them, as they are for the retinue of the court when the king removes. They have inns upon the roads; but there, as in Holland, they make little cabins, like thoſe in ſhips, all round the room, where all ſorts of people ſleep together. He muſt be a man of great diſtinction who is favoured with a room to himſelf; but their beds are very good, and their linen clean as in Holland. Indeed, the cities and towns in general afford but bad accommodations to ſtrangers, the taverns being poorly ſupplied with refreſhments; ſo that a traveller, to be in any-wiſe contented in this country, muſt have a traveller's appetite, and take a good ſtock of patience along with him.

The modern Danes are not thoſe viſionary and ferocious people their anceſtors were, who were aſhamed of dying in their beds, and whoſe greateſt felicity conſiſted in drinking hydromel out of the ſculls of their enemies. While the peaſants are employed without doors, at their labour, the women are occupied at home in ſpinning yarn for linen, which is here made to a great degree of fineneſs and goodneſs. Many of the people are ſubject to apoplexies and epilepſies, which are owing to hard drinking, and low living. It has been juſtly remarked, reſpecting the generality of the people, that there is no part of Europe where extravagancies of all kinds are carried to ſuch lengths, as in Denmark, in proportion to the little they have to ſpend; and perhaps appears in no inſtances more conſpicuous than their weddings and burials.

The Danes are exceſſively fond of titles and diſtinctions; which are partly annexed to military, civil, and eccleſiaſtical employments, and partly nominal. The various employments give a kind of dignity, during life, to thoſe who hold them; and the nature of the employ fixes the rank between thoſe who are in the ſame train, but it cannot decide the precedency between an officer, a magiſtrate, and an eccleſiaſtic; and therefore this is regulated by an ordinance for the etiquette of rank. Thoſe who have a certain rank by their employments, often obtain, after ſome time, titles ſuperior to their reſpective functions. Theſe titles are ſometimes likewiſe imaginary; as thus: when a perſon has the title of counſellor of ſtate, of juſtice, or of finances, it is not to be concluded from thence, that he has neceſſarily any part of the government of the ſtate of juſtice, or of the public revenue, except the word "atual" is added to his character.

The king of Denmark has ſome hundred lords of the bed-chamber, who pay about ten pounds ſterling yearly for wearing a golden key, which gives them a conſiderable rank; and yet there are not ten paid for their attendance at court.

To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. that of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg. The badge of the former, which is the moſt honourable, is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle ſet with diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured ribbon, like the George in England. This order was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. at his ſon's wedding. It is conferred only on perſons of the higheſt quality; and the number of companions amount to thirty, beſides the ſovereign. The order of Daneburg, though leſs honourable, is much more antient; ſo that the origin of it is loſt in fable: it is beſtowed, as an honorary reward, upon the nobleſſe of inferior rank, its inſignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder, from which is ſuſpended a ſmall diamond croſs, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, "pietate & juſtitia," by piety and juſtice. Here is likewiſe a modern order of knighthood, called the order of St. Matilda, and inſtituted in honour of the late unfortunate queen; but which, being now little regarded, is conſequently not aſpired to or ſolicited.

SECT. VI.

Compriſing the Antient and Modern Hiſtory of DENMARK, and the Kingdoms annexed to it.

THE inhabitants of theſe kingdoms appear to have been coloniſts of the ancient Scythians, who overrun all the northern and weſtern parts of Europe. They were firſt known from their celebrated expedition into Italy during the conſulſhip of Cecilius Metullus and Papirus Corbo. At this time the liberties of Rome were threatened by inteſtine diviſions, till private feuds gave way to public conſternation, on the Romans being informed that three thouſand northern barbarians had made an irruption into the Roman territories. Theſe ravagers had deſigned to quit the inclement and unfertile regions in which they were born, for a ſerener climate, and more fruitful country.

They firſt conquered all the little nations in their own vicinity, then ſubdued the Gauls, and at length prepared to attack Italy itſelf. Upon this emergency, the ſenate diſpatched Papirus Corbo to defend the paſſage of the Alps. This general, after entering into a negociation with the northern invaders, ſhamefully broke the truce, without any manner of provocation, and unexpectedly attacked them in the night; but was ſo warmly received, that he met with a repulſe. This affair was greatly prejudicial to the Romans, ſince it gave ſpirits to the Cimbri, as theſe northern people were called, and engaged many to join them, who would otherwiſe have been neutral.

Having now entirely over-run Gaul, the Cimbri deſigned to paſs the Pyrenees, and eſtabliſh themſelves in Spain; but being repulſed by the people of that country, they ſent an embaſſy to Rome, to offer their military ſervice to the Romans, on a proviſo that they ſhould have a ſufficient territory aſſigned them, from which they might procure their ſubſiſtence. Theſe propoſals were rejected; which ſo greatly enraged the Cimbri, that they attacked the conſul Silanus, and cut his whole army in pieces. This misfortune was followed by ſeveral others; for the Germans, entering into an alliance with the Cimbri, the Romans were defeated in three other battles, in one of which the Roman general, Scaurus, with his two ſons, were taken priſoners, and above eighty thouſand Romans ſlain.

While affairs were in this calamitous ſituation, the celebrated Marius was appointed to the command of the Roman army, when acting with more prudence and ſkill than any of his predeceſſors, he at length defeated the enemy in one of the moſt bloody battles that ever was fought, when above a hundred thouſand of the northern barbarians were ſlain. Similar ſucceſſes followed this, till the whole of theſe ferocious people were either deſtroyed, taken captives, or obliged to retreat.

After this, we find little mention of theſe people, till a great perſon, named Woden, or Oden, is ſaid to have made himſelf ſovereign of all the northern nations; and his abilities being equal to his courage, he not only ſubdued all around him as a general, and ruled the people as a king, but formed a new religion for them as prieſt, and preſcribed a code of laws as a legiſlator. Hengiſt and Horſa, who firſt brought over the Saxons into England, derived their lineage from him; and moſt of the royal and noble families of the northern parts of Europe, to this very day, pretend to trace their deſcent from him. Yet hiſtorians do not take upon them to aſcertain from whence this celebrated perſon came, or when he died; they indeed ſay, that he lived about ſixty years before the birth of Chriſt; and that he was the firſt to whom the title of king of Denmark was given.

The deſcendants of Woden reigned after him in the ſeveral northern nations, and at length revenged the misfortunes and miſcarriages of their anceſtors upon the Romans, by gradually weakening their empire, and at length overturned it.

The

The Daniſh chronicles mention eighteen kings, from Woden to Regner, ſurnamed Logbrog, who began his reign Anno Domini 750, but they furniſh us with little more than their names, or at leaſt with only ſuch fables as, in this enlightened age, are too ridiculous and abſurd for commemoration or recital.

This kingdom was greatly weakened, in the fifth century, by a prodigious number of people quitting it at that time, to join the armies which effected the conqueſt of the weſtern empire; but it recovered about the eighth century, when we find the Danes riſe into importance, as a maritime people, and harraſs the coaſt of Courland, Livonia, Pomerania, Ireland, Scotland, France, and England. They even attacked the emperor Charlemagne, burnt his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, over-run Lower Saxony, Friſeland, Holland, and Flanders; conquered the greateſt part of the kingdom of France, obliging her kings to pay an immenſe tribute, ravaged Spain and Italy, and committed many other depredations.

In the year 832, the Danes landed in Kent, and defeating king Egbert, remained there two years, plundering and ravaging the country; but in a ſecond battle king Egbert was victorious, and drove them out of the iſland.

The Danes landed in England again in the reign of king Ethelwolf; and in the reign of Ethelred his ſon, they landed in Suffolk, and murdered Edmund, king of the Eaſt Angles in his capital, now called St. Edmundsbury, that king being afterwards canonized for a martyr, becauſe he was killed in the defence of his Chriſtian ſubjects, by the heatheniſh Danes.

Guthram, or Godrum, king of Denmark, who began his reign about the year 872, invaded England, and fixed colonies in ſeveral parts of it; Alfred, king of England, fought ſeveral battles with him, and at length coming to a treaty, Guthram agreed to leave the kingdom, and before he embarked embraced Chriſtianity; what other articles there were in this treaty hiſtory does not inform us; but as ſoon as the Danes were gone, Alfred put his ſubjects on building a fleet of ſhips to defend their coaſts, which they ſoon had occaſion for, the Danes preparing for another invaſion. Alfred died in the year 900, having fought upwards of fifty battles with the Danes, by ſea and land.

The greateſt part of the people were, at the abovementioned time, bred up to the ſea from their childhood, and had no ideas of the dangers to which that element expoſed them. When a prince had attained the age of eighteen or twenty years, he generally requeſted his father to have ſome ſhips equipped, by which he might attempt ſome great exploit, with his followers: this the father regarded as a mark of his riſing courage, and of a great mind. A fleet was armed immediately, of which the admiral, and all his officers and men, made reciprocal promiſes never to return, except loaded with ſpoils and laurels. If they had received any injury from a neighbouring nation, that nation was choſen for the firſt victim. Thoſe whom they vanquiſhed were generally put to death; ſometimes indeed they contented themſelves with making ſlaves of them; and often, likewiſe, by a ſingular kind of generoſity, or rather by a deſire of ſignalizing themſelves, if they found themſelves ſuperior to the enemy which preſented itſelf againſt them, they ordered off a part of their fleet, that they might fight the enemy with equal force, deſpiſing the gaining an advantage with ſuperior numbers, and regarding it as an infamous practice to ſurpriſe an enemy in the night. Their veſſels were always well provided with arms; and their men were all taught to ſwim, ſo that as they generally fought near the ſhore, they were often in a ſituation of ſecuring themſelves, although their veſſels were deſtroyed.

The manner in which their lands were divided in Denmark and in Norway, ſhews us, that the chief end of their government was, to have a great maritime force; every diviſion, whether it was greater or leſs, took its name from the number of veſſels that it could equip, and in ſome places their names are ſtill in uſe. In the beginning of their maritime expeditions, their fleets were not very conſiderable; but when their princes had enriched themſelves by plundering their neighbours, they came to have two or three hundred ſail of ſhips of war, each ſhip carrying from one hundred to one hundred and twenty men.

To a nation that is wholly addicted to plunder and rapine, civil laws and a police are of very little uſe. This was ſtrictly the caſe with Denmark, when their king, called Gorman, came to the throne in the year 840. The few uſeful regulations which had been left them by Woden and others were now laid aſide; and the kingdom was divided among two or three princes, who governed with a very limited power; and that confuſion which we find in the hiſtory of Denmark to this time was occaſioned by one hiſtorian writing the hiſtory of one prince, who reigned in this country; and another, the hiſtory of another prince who reigned at the ſame time. But Gorman, by uniting to his crown, all the provinces of Denmark, of which his anceſtors had been diſpoſſeſſed, and being forced by the emperor to receive the Chriſtian religion into his dominions, gave this government again ſome form; and from hence we may date the origin of the civil government which for many years afterwards exiſted in this ſtate.

It is related, that in the year 999 there was a general maſſacre of the Danes ſettled in England, which is ſtill commemorated annually at Hocktide. Be this as it may, certain it is that Swein and his ſon Canute, or Knute, conquered this kingdom about the year 1014, though ſeveral battles were fought with the Saxon kings Ethelred and his ſon Edmund Ironſide, before the Danes could eſtabliſh themſelves here. Upon the death of Edmund Ironſide, anno 1017, all the great men acknowledged Canute their king, ſwore allegiance to him, and renounced the two ſons of Edmund, Edward and Edmund, who were baniſhed into Sweden, from whence they went into Hungary, where they reſided many years. King Canute, in the mean time, obliged the Engliſh to raiſe him one hundred thouſand pounds every year, with which he paid his forces, and maintained his court; and in the year 1019, he conquered the kingdom of Norway. In the fifteenth year of his reign, anno 1031, he viſited Rome, where he gave great part of the ſpoils he had taken to that ſee; and, returning to England, died at Shaftſbury on the 12th of November 1036, having divided his dominions between his three ſons: to Harold he gave England; to Swein, Norway; and to Canute, Denmark. Harold died in 1040, leaving neither wife nor iſſue, and was ſucceeded by his brother Hardicanute, the third ſon of Canute, who died in 1042. This was the laſt of the Daniſh race in England.

In 1182, Canute VI. ſubdued Vandalia (the preſent Pomerania and Mecklenburg) and took upon him the ſtyle of king of the Vandals, which country continued ſubject to the Danes twenty-ſeven years. Livonia was alſo conquered by this prince.

In 1202, Waldemar II. extended his dominions in Germany, and lived in great reputation in the beginning of his reign; but count Swerin committing the care of his territories, as well as his wife, during his abſence in the Holy Land, to his majeſty's protection, he debauched the count's wife; of which her huſband being informed at his arrival, took the king priſoner by a ſtratagem, and made him pay forty-five thouſand marks to obtain his liberty, after having confined him three years. While the king was priſoner, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Lubeck, and Dantzick revolted, the Teutonick knights took Livonia from him, and Holſtein and Stormaria were ſubdued by Adolph count of Scawenburg.

Olaus dying without iſſue, anno 1387, queen Margaret his mother was elected queen of Denmark and Norway, who, having aſſociated her nephew Eric with her in the government, ſubdued the kingdom of Sweden; and it was enacted by the ſtates, that theſe three kingdoms ſhould be united for the future under one prince; and upon the death of queen Margaret, Eric became ſole ſovereign of the whole; but being depoſed on pretence of mal-adminiſtration, he retired into Pomerania, where he lived a private life the remainder of his days.

In the year 1439 was elected Chriſtian earl of Oldenburgh, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended. He ſubdued the kingdom of Sweden, which had revolted, and the emperor Frederick gave him the county of Holſtein. This prince married his daughter Margaret to James III. king of Scotland, and gave him with her the iſland of Orkney and Shetland, the laſt being a very valuable acquiſition, as it affords the beſt herrings in theſe ſeas. The Dutch begin that fiſhery here every year at Midſummer, without aſking leave of the Britiſh court, though they paid in the reign of Charles I. thirty thouſand pounds annually for this privilege. Chriſtian was ſucceeded by his ſon John, who divided the duchy of Holſtein with his brother Frederick.

Chriſtian III. eſtabliſhed the Lutheran religion in Denmark: he was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick II. in 1538. Chriſtian IV. his ſon being engaged in a war with Sweden, in order to obtain peace, was compelled to yield up the province of Halland to the Swedes.

In the year 1660, Frederick III. his ſon, was beſieged in his capital city of Copenhagen by Charles Guſtavus king of Sweden, who drew his artillery over the ice into the province of Zeeland; and if the Dutch had not come to Frederick's aſſiſtance, Guſtavus would probably have made a conqueſt of that iſland: but though Frederick was unfortunate in his wars with foreigners, he raiſed his prerogative to that height, that he perfectly ſubdued his ſubjects, and from a limited elective monarchy, made himſelf an abſolute prince, and eſtabliſhed the ſucceſſion of the crown in his family. In the ſame year, the peaſants and lower claſs of people complained, they were not able to diſcharge the debts the public had contracted during the war, and therefore, entreated the nobility and gentry, that as the profits of the lands were theirs, they would condeſcend to bear part of the burthen, the nobility and gentry, before this time, paying no taxes for their lands. To which they anſwered the commons with great inſolence, told them that they were born in a ſtate of ſervitude, their ſlaves and vaſſals, and did not underſtand their duty: to which the commons made no reply, but retired from the aſſembly with the clergy, who adhered to them, and going immediately to court, acquainted his majeſty, that they were come to a reſolution to make him an abſolute monarch, and his throne hereditary. His majeſty being before apprized of the deſign, had introduced an army into the town, in order to compel the upper houſe to concur in this reſolution of the commons, if they refuſed their conſent. The lords being acquainted with the ſubſtance of the addreſs which the commons had made to the throne, and ſenſible that they were in no condition to diſpute with the court and the commons, ſupported by the army, offered to make the crown hereditary, and entreated the conſtitution in other reſpects might not be altered; but they were given to underſtand, that the king would be ſatisfied with nothing leſs than their unanimous concurrence with the reſolution taken by the clergy and commons, which they found themſelves obliged to ſubmit to, and took the oaths to his majeſty, acknowledging him the ſupreme and only legiſlator. Thus was the conſtitution changed from a republic, with a nominal king at the head of it, into an abſolute hereditary monarchy; not one of the nobility daring to oppoſe it; only Gerdorf, a popular member, ſaid, he was confident, his majeſty deſigned the happineſs of his people, and not to govern them according to Turkiſh politics, wiſhed his ſucceſſors might follow his example, and make uſe of this unlimited power only for the good of their ſubjects.

In 1670, Chriſtian V. ſucceeded his father Frederick III. and being joint ſovereign of Holſtein and Sleſwick with the duke of Holſtein, in order to exclude the duke from his ſhare in thoſe provinces, or at leaſt to oblige him to acknowledge his dependence on the crown of Denmark, treacherouſly invited him to an entertainment, where he made him priſoner, and ſent detachments of his army, to take poſſeſſion of ſuch towns as belonged to the duke; with which the duke reproaching him, the king anſwered, he was always in the intereſt of Sweden, and never to be truſted; and unleſs he would renounce his right to certain places, he would take poſſeſſion of the whole country. He particularly demanded of him an order to the commander of Tonningen, the ſtrongeſt fortreſs belonging to the duke, to ſurrender it to his majeſty's troops; which the duke conſented to, apprehending the king would have taken his life if he had refuſed, and Tonningen was thereupon delivered up to the Danes: ſeveral other articles he was obliged to ſign, that were very prejudicial to him: but the duke making his eſcape to Hamburgh, proteſted againſt the validity of all the acts he had been obliged to ſign.

Hereupon the king gave orders for demoliſhing Tonningen, and ſequeſtered the duchy of Sleſwick, cauſing both magiſtrates and people to ſwear allegiance to him, declaring them abſolved from their allegiance to the duke. He alſo cauſed all the duke's revenues to be brought into his own treaſury, continued garriſons in his towns, and even in his palace of Gottorp, and not knowing how ſoon he might be compelled, by the duke's allies, to deliver up what he had ſo unjuſtly ſeized, he exacted contributions from the poor ſubjects, to the value of many millions; whereby he filled his own treaſury, and diſabled the duke's ſubjects from giving him any aſſiſtance.

The duke remained ſtill at Hamburgh, from whence he ſent his ſon to the German princes, to implore their aſſiſtance. He applied alſo to the court of England (which was guarantee of the peace of the north) but to very little purpoſe, till Charles XI. king of Sweden, undertook his cauſe in the year 1689, and was about to tranſport his army into Germany, for the reſtoration of the duke. But the German princes, together with the Engliſh and Dutch, who were now entered into a confederacy againſt France, being apprehenſive that this might diſturb the peace of the empire, and divert the troops from the French war, at length obliged the king of Denmark to reſtore to the duke of Holſtein his dominions, after he had been in poſſeſſion of them thirteen years; but no ſatisfaction was made him for the devaſtation of his territories.

Things remained in tolerable peace from the concluſion of the differences by the mediation of the confederates in 1689, to the year 1696; but Chriſtian Albert, the late duke of Holſtein, dying about that time, and the king of Denmark having ſent a deputation to his ſon and ſucceſſor duke Frederick, to renew the union between them, and to let him have a ſight of the late duke's will, that he might ſee if there was any thing in it in favour of the eldeſt prince, in relation to the ducal part of the duchy of Sleſwick; the duke refuſed both the one and the other: alledging, that the treaty of Altena had not been obſerved, or juſtice done to the ducal houſe, particularly in reſtoring the ſeigniority of Gottes-Gabre, in the iſland of Aroa. In the mean time, the guarantees of the treaty of Altena, ſeeing both ſides inclined to a rupture, interpoſed their good offices, and engaged them to hold conferences for compoſing their differences, which were accordingly held at Penemburg: but the duke continuing to introduce Swediſh forces into Holſtein, and build and enlarge his fortifications during the time of the treaty, the king of Denmark marched an army into the country, in the year 1697, and cauſed the new fortifications to be demoliſhed, which the duke at that time, not finding himſelf in a condition to oppoſe, thought fit to acquieſce in, till the death of the then king, which happened the 4th of September 1699, when he was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick IV.

The duke looked upon this as a favourable opportunity to rebuild the fortifications which had been deſtroyed, eſpecially having married the king of Sweden's ſiſter, and being aſſured of ſupport from that crown: he began therefore to repair the demoliſhed fortifications, as he inſiſted he had a right to do by the treaty of Altena, and introduced into this country a conſiderable number of Swediſh troops, to prevent their being demoliſhed again. The mediators and guarantees of the treaty of Altena, employed their good offices to prevent a rupture, and propoſed that both the Swedes and the Danes ſhould withdraw their troops out of Holſtein, and that the fortifications ſhould not be proceeded in till the matter was ſettled by a treaty. But the Dane being determined on a war both with Sweden and Holſtein, and having entered into a confederacy both with Ruſſia and Poland for that end, would not hearken to any pacific meaſures, but, on the contrary, ordered his general, the duke of Wirtemburg, to demoliſh Huſum, Frederickſtadt, and other places belonging to the duke of Holſtein, which he ſoon after effected; and not content with razing ſuch new fortifications as had been erected, inveſted Tonningen, in which General Bannier commanded with a garriſon of five thouſand men.

The princes guarantees hereupon gave the king of Denmark to underſtand, that ſince he had rejected all their friendly propoſals, they ſhould no longer ſee the treaty of Altena broken, or ſuffer the duke of Holſtein to be diſpoſſeſſed of his country again, under the pretence of oppoſing the building of forts which were already demoliſhed. The duke of Holſtein alſo publiſhed a manifeſto, ſhewing the right he had, by the treaty of Altena, to build fortifications in his dominions, and the injuſtice of the Daniſh invaſion. And not only the German princes, but the Dutch joined their forces with the Swedes, in order to bring the Danes to reaſon; and, marching towards Tonningen, the Daniſh general thought fit to raiſe the ſiege, without coming to a battle. The Engliſh and Dutch alſo ſent each of them a ſquadron into the Baltick, and joining the Swediſh fleet, compelled the Danes to retire into the harbour of Copenhagen. In the mean time, the young king of Sweden landed with fifteen thouſand horſe and foot upon the iſland of Zeeland, about three miles to the ſouthward of Elſinore, and was preparing to inveſt Copenhagen; when the Dane finding himſelf overpowered, was glad to accept of ſuch terms as the princes guarantees, who, at this time held their conferences at Travendale, were pleaſed to preſcribe to him.

It was agreed by this treaty, which was concluded the 18th of Auguſt, 1700, that the houſe of Holſtein ſhould continue independent ſovereigns in Holſtein and Sleſwick; and that the crown of Denmark ſhould pay the duke of Holſtein two hundred and ſixty thouſand crowns for the damages

damages they had done him. A misunderstanding, however, happened between the two courts the year following; one part of the Chapter of Lubeck chusing the brother of the duke of Holstein coadjutor and successor to their bishop, and the other chusing the king of Denmark's son.

The bishop dying, in 1705, the king of Denmark determined to make good his son's election to that bishopric by force, and took several places belonging to Lubeck; but the court of Great Britain interposing, the duke of Holstein's brother was afterwards confirmed in the possession of the bishopric of Lubeck, in consideration of a subsidy granted by Great Britain to Denmark, for a body of Danish troops that were to join the allies against France, which they could not have had, if the war had been revived at that time in the north: one article in this treaty being, that the duke of Holstein should permit that body of Danes to pass through his territories, and join the confederates.

The duke of Holstein having been killed at the battle of Lissau in Poland, in 1702, and succeeded by his son Charles Frederick (the late duke) then an infant of two years old, the duke of Holstein Eutin, brother to the late duke of Holstein Gottorp, and afterwards bishop of Lubeck, was constituted regent of Holstein, during the minority of his nephew.

In the year 1709, Charles XII. being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, Frederick king of Denmark immediately joined his former allies, the Czar and Augustus king of Poland, recalled the Danish troops which were in the emperor's service in Hungary, and quartered them in Holstein: he transported ten thousand men from Norway to Denmark, levied new troops at Hamburgh, and fitted out a strong squadron of men of war; and having assembled an army of eighteen or twenty thousand men, proclaimed a fast to implore a blessing upon his designs. The king of Denmark, also, on the 28th of November 1709, published a manifesto, to justify his intended enterprize, setting forth, that the ambitious designs of the king of Sweden had, for several years past, occasioned great devastations in the kingdoms of the north; and that he had received repeated instances of the animosity that prince entertained against him and his subjects, as well by the opposition made to his interest by the Swedish ministers in foreign courts, as by several expressions in his own letters, and therefore thought himself obliged to prevent the impending danger, and not imprudently wait till the designs of the Swedes were ripe for execution. He complained also of the dedication of a book, wherein the king of Sweden is styled emperor of Scandinavia, of which Denmark and Norway are parts, and of the Swedes granting passes to foreign vessels on the Sound, whereby the revenue of Denmark was impaired.

These reasons induced the king to declare war against all the territories of Sweden, except those in Germany; and embarking six thousand horse and dragoons, and twelve thousand foot, he made a descent upon Schonen, landing at Helsingburg the 12th of November 1709; but it being winter-time, he only took up his quarters in the country towns at first, and invited the people of Sweden to join him, waiting for a proper season to enter upon action, which gave the Swedes time to put themselves in a posture of defence. About the middle of January, by the favour of a hard frost, the Danes advanced towards Christianstadt, where a battalion of Saxons, being in garrison, laid down their arms, and joined the Danes, whereby that town fell into their hands. They afterwards made themselves masters of Carelshaven, in the province of Bleking, and threatened Carelscroon, where the Swedish fleet and magazines were laid up. At the same time a strong detachment extended themselves towards Holland on the western side of Schonen; and their forces receiving frequent supplies, the Danish army was considerably increased, and became very formidable; but the Swedish general, count Steinbock, having assembled eighteen or twenty thousand men, and marching towards Helsingburg, as if he intended to cut off the communication of the Danes with that place, they immediately abandoned all their conquests, quitting Carelshaven and Christianstadt, and retreated to Helsingburg, near which place the armies came to an engagement, and the Danes were entirely defeated; a day or two after they quitted Helsinburg, transporting the remainder of their troops to Denmark in the night, which, after their ill success, did not amount to above six thousand or seven thousand men. And thus ingloriously ended the king of Denmark's expedition against Schonen, which the Swedes considered as a just punishment for his perfidious breach of treaties.

The Danes having been disappointed in their enterprize upon Schonen, the next year joined the troops of king Augustus and the Czar, and fell upon Swedish Pomerania, destroying the whole country in a most barbarous manner; and the Swedish forces, not being strong enough to oppose these united powers, retired into Stralsund, the isle of Rugen, and other places of security. The king of Denmark, while the Muscovites and the Saxons blocked up Stralsund, passed the Elbe, and entered the duchy of Bremen, where the Swedish general not having a sufficient body of troops to oppose him, the Dane took the town of Staden, and made himself master of the whole country. In their return, the Danes insulted the city of Hamburgh, threatening them with a bombardment, to avoid which, the burghers were compelled to raise them two hundred and thirty thousand rix dollars. Count Steinbock, the Swedish general, found means afterwards, on the 22d of December, 1712, to engage the Danes singly, when they were separated from their allies near Wismar; and having given them a great defeat, pursued them into Holstein, seized the magazines the Danes had laid up there, and put the Danish Holstein under contribution; from hence he marched to Pinenburgh, near Hamburgh, where he determined to burn the Danish city of Altena, not so much by way of retaliation, or revenge for the many Swedish cities destroyed by the Danes, and their allies the Muscovites and Saxons, as he declared in a memorial, published on this occasion, as to deter them for the future from committing the like barbarities.

The Danish, Saxon and Muscovite forces being now joined, to the number of fifty thousand men, and marching towards count Steinbock, whose army did not consist of above fourteen or fifteen thousand, that general found himself under the necessity of retiring into the ducal Holstein, whither the allies followed him, and pressing him with all imaginable eagerness, he threw himself into Tonningen, and by that means avoided them for that time, which the Dane afterwards made a pretence for seizing the duke of Holstein's dominions, alledging, that the governor of Tonningen admitted general Steinbock into the place, by the direction of his master the duke of Holstein (who was not at that time above twelve years of age) this occurrence happening in February, 1712-13; but however that be, the confederates blocked up the city of Tonningen till May following, and the Swedes not being in a condition to send general Steinbock any reinforcements or supplies, he was obliged to surrender himself, and his little army, consisting of nine thousand men, prisoners of war, on condition of keeping their cloaths and baggage, and being exchanged or ransomed the first opportunity; and thus, for a little time, the war seemed to be at an end in Germany.

The next year the Muscovite invested Stetin; when the king of Prussia so managed the matter, that by the agreement of the Czar and the Swedish governor, the town was sequestered into the hands of his Prussian majesty, and agreed to be garrisoned by an equal number of Prussians and Holsteiners, but was to be restored to the king of Sweden at the end of the war. In the latter end of November, 1714, the king of Sweden returning out of Turky, arrived at the city of Stralsund, and found a league was formed against him, to which the kings of Denmark, Prussia and Poland, and the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, were parties, the avowed design whereof was, to preserve the peace of Germany, which was proposed to be done by securing the sequestration of Stetin to the king of Prussia, and the possession of Bremen and Ferden, and whatever else the Dane had seized of the dominions of Sweden in Germany, to the Dane, and those to whom he should, or had assigned his interest in those conquests. This the king of Sweden thought highly unreasonable, viz. That he should not be permitted to recover those territories again, which had been surprized in his absence.

The kings of Prussia and England insisted, that the restoring the king of Sweden these territories, would embroil the north of Germany in a war, and joined in a confederacy against the distressed king of Sweden, who had before the Moscovite, the king of Poland, and the king of Denmark to contend with; and the king of Prussia, on the 28th of April, 1715, proclaimed war against Sweden, disarmed the regiment of Holstein, which was in Stetin, entering upon that city as a conquest from Sweden, and holding it no longer in sequestration. The Danes and Prussians soon after assembled their forces to the number of sixty thousand men, and appeared before Stralsund, under the walls of which city the king of Sweden found himself obliged to retire, his army not consisting of more than

than a fourth part of the enemy's number. In the month of July a treaty was ſet on foot between the king of Denmark and the court of Hanover, by which the king of Denmark ſtipulated to deliver up Bremen and Verden, which he had taken from the king of Sweden, to the elector of Hanover, in conſideration of the elector's entering into the war againſt Sweden, and advancing a ſum of money to his Daniſh majeſty.

The confederates before Stralſund being joined by twenty-four thouſand Ruſſians, and a body of Saxons, carried on the ſiege of that town with great vigour; but finding that the place continually received freſh ſupplies and reinforcements from the iſland of Rugen, which lies over-againſt it, they landed a great body of troops on the iſland, and, after a ſharp diſpute, in which the king of Sweden was preſent in perſon, made themſelves maſters of it, on the ſeventeenth of November. But the king of Sweden determined to defend the town to the laſt extremity; and it was a terrible winter's ſiege, the centinels being frequently frozen to death at their poſts; and the attacks were deſperate, in one of which the confederates loſt near a thouſand men; however, they at lenth prevailed by their numbers, and the king of Sweden, finding the town not tenable, retired in a light frigate, and arrived ſafely in Sweden, giving the governor orders to capitulate, which he did the latter end of December, on very honourable terms; and both the town and the iſland of Rugen were put into the poſſeſſion of the king of Denmark, and all the inhabitants of the Swediſh Pomerania were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, except thoſe of the city and diſtrict of Stetin, the iſlands of Uſedom and Wollin, and the lands between the Oder and the river Pene, which were left in the hands of his Pruſſian majeſty. The city of Wiſmar, in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, the only town which the Swedes had left in Germany, was inveſted by the Danes, Pruſſians, Hanoverians, and Ruſſians, the next ſpring, and obliged to ſurrender; after which, the king of Denmark was left in poſſeſſion of it; and thus ended the war in Germany.

The Danes and Ruſſians then made great preparations for invading the king of Sweden's dominions in Schonen. The Czar of Moſcovy went in perſon for that purpoſe to Copenhagen, whither his generals led an army of thirty thouſand horſe and foot. The Danes alſo aſſembled between twenty and thirty thouſand of their troops for this expedition, and had prepared near eight hundred veſſels to tranſport them. But great part of the Daniſh fleet being employed in Norway during the ſummer, to oppoſe an enterprize of the Swedes on that ſide, all theſe preparations came to nothing. The Czar of Muſcovy upbraided the king of Denmark, that his fleet was not ready in time; and the Dane pretended to be very angry with the Ruſſian monarch, that he would not make the deſcent in the latter end of the year; which the Czar obſerved was impracticable, there being no forage to be found, and the king of Sweden being ready to receive them at the head of forty thouſand veteran troops; and upon this the Danes and Muſcovites, who had been ſo long in a confederacy againſt Sweden, began to look very cool upon each other. The Dane drew up his forces under the cannon of Copenhagen, as if he had ſome jealouſy of his old ally, and the Czar ſoon after returned with his troops to Germany; and it ſeems not only the Dane, but other German princes, began to be apprehenſive that if this enterprize had ſucceeded, the Czar would have made himſelf maſter of Sweden, and have been a very formidable neighbour to many of them; which the Dane did not ſufficiently conſider when the ſcheme was firſt laid for the deſcent on Schonen; but being now pretty well convinced of his error, he choſe rather to ſit down with the vaſt expence he had been at for the invaſion of Sweden, and let the affair entirely drop, then contribute any farther to the aggrandizing the Ruſſian emperor, who was become too powerful already. The king of Denmark being now left almoſt alone to defend himſelf againſt Sweden, was threatened in his turn with an invaſion of Zeeland by his Swediſh majeſty, which had certainly been put in execution, had it not been that king George I. being under ſome apprehenſions that thoſe preparations were intended againſt his Britiſh dominions, or rather for the recovery of Bremen and Ferden, had thereupon ſent a ſquadron of men of war to the aſſiſtance of his Daniſh majeſty, which put an end to the king of Sweden's intended enterprize againſt Zeeland. The following year, 1718, the Swedes marched two armies into Norway, one to the northward, as high as Drontheim, and the other, led by the king in perſon, towards Chriſtiana, laying the whole country under contribution, there being no army in Norway ſtrong enough to oppoſe them; but the king of Sweden, laying ſiege to Frederickſhal, was unfortunately ſhot in the trenches, and the Danes and Hanoverians thereby delivered from their fears: for had the Swedes made themſelves maſters of Frederickſhal, as it was computed they might have done in a fortnight more, all Norway had been irrecoverably loſt, and the Daniſh dominions reduced to a very narrow compaſs.

By the death of the king of Sweden, the war between Denmark and that crown was in a manner brought to a concluſion, though the peace was not formally ſigned till the year 1720, when the Swedes being invaded and diſtreſſed by the Ruſſians, were obliged to accept of ſuch conditions as the mediators and guarantees of it, the kings of Great Britain and France, were pleaſed to preſcribe. By the fifth article of this treaty, the king of Denmark obliged himſelf not to aſſiſt his czariſh majeſty againſt Sweden, or permit the Ruſſian men of war to enter his ports. And by the ſixth article, the Swedes obliged themſelves not to oppoſe ſuch meaſures as ſhould be taken by the ſaid mediators in behalf of the king of Denmark, in relation to the dominions of the duke of Holſtein. By the ſeventh article, the king of Denmark promiſes to deliver up to Sweden the city of Stralſund, and part of Pomerania, as far as the river Pene; to evacuate the fortreſs of Marſtrand, the iſle of Rugen, and all other iſlands taken by the Danes in the late war; as alſo the town of Wiſmar in Mecklenburg: in conſideration whereof the Swedes, by the ninth article, renounce the privilege of paſſing the Sound without paying toll, and agreed to pay the ſame tolls as the Engliſh and Dutch. And by the tenth article, the crown of Sweden engages to pay the king of Denmark ſix hundred thouſand crowns before the aboveſaid places be delivered to the Swedes. And by a ſeparate article, it was agreed that Wiſmar, the fortifications whereof were demoliſhed, ſhould never be fortified again. As to Bremen and Ferden, theſe provinces had been confirmed to king George by another treaty.

By the aboveſaid treaty, his Daniſh majeſty obtained the guarantee of the French king, for the poſſeſſion of the dutchy of Sleſwick; and the king of Great Britain renewed his guarantee of that duchy, which he had given by a former treaty. The king of Denmark now reigning in peace, applied himſelf to the promoting the trade of his kingdom, but had the misfortune to ſee his capital city of Copenhagen almoſt deſtroyed by fire, which happened in the year 1728. His firſt queen was the princeſs Louiſa, daughter of Guſtavus Adolphus, duke of Mecklenburg, by whom he had iſſue prince Chriſtian, born December 10, 1699, and Charlotte Amelia, born October 6, 1706, and ſome other children who died in their infancy. His ſecond wife, the daughter of count Raventlau, his chancellor, he married within four days after the deceaſe of his firſt queen, and died the thirteenth of October, 1730, in the ſixty-firſt year of his age.

Chriſtian VI. his ſon, born in December, 1699, married Sophia Magdalena of Brandenburg-Culembach, by whom he had iſſue his preſent majeſty Frederic V. born March 31, 1723, and the princeſs Louiſa, born October 19, 1726, and married October 1, 1749, to the duke of Saxe-Hilburghauſen. He began his reign with ſome popular acts, particularly in aboliſhing the monopolies for the ſole vending of wine, brandy, ſalt and tobacco, which were very grievous to the ſubject. In the year 1732, he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Peterſburgh, whereby he obtained them guarantees for his own dominions, and guaranteed the dominions of thoſe powers, and the pragmatic ſanction; and by a ſeparate article in this treaty, king Chriſtian agreed to pay the duke of Holſtein one million of rix-dollars, on his recovering his right to the duchy of Sleſwick; and in purſuance of this treaty, in 1734, he ſent ſix thouſand men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor againſt the French; and in 1736, on the inhabitants paying him five hundred thouſand marks of ſilver, he relinquiſhed his pretenſions to the city of Hamburgh.

About the year 1739, the Danes ſeizing the lordſhip of Steinhurſt, which his Britannick majeſty imagined himſelf entitled to, as duke of Lunenburg, a ſkirmiſh happened between the troops of Hanover and thoſe of Denmark, wherein ſeveral were killed on both ſides. The Hanoverians recovered the territory in diſpute; however, as the Danes ſeemed determined not to relinquiſh their claim, a treaty was ſet on foot between thoſe powers, and Britain was then obliged to pay a ſubſidy to the Danes for ſix thouſand men, (which never did them any ſervice) for permitting the Hanoverians to enter Steinhurſt. A quarrel

alſo broke out between the Danes and the Dutch, concerning the fiſhery on the coaſt of Iceland: the Daniſh guardſhips ſeized on ſome of the Dutch fiſhing-veſſels, and carried them to Copenhagen; but the Hollanders threatening to make repriſals, thoſe veſſels were releaſed; however, the Danes are ſaid to have carried their point in this diſpute alſo.

On July 26, Frederic V. ſucceeded his father, Chriſtian VI. who reigned ſixteen years with great reputation. This prince trod in his father's foot-ſteps, encouraged the manufactories, extended the commerce, and improved the trade of his country. He was firſt married to the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty; but upon the death of his queen who was the mother of his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he again married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttel, and died in 1766, being ſucceeded by his ſon, Chriſtian VII. his preſent majeſty, who muſt be owned, does not ſeem likely to advance the honour and conſequence of the Danes, by purſuing the ſalutary ſteps marked out for him by his honoured progenitors. His reſolution of viſiting the principal kingdoms and ſtates of Europe, which he executed in the year 1768, ſeemed indeed to indicate a mind intent upon availing itſelf of foreign polity, to the advancement of his own dominions; but the manner in which he conducted himſelf in that extenſive progreſs, by no means realized thoſe hopes; and ſince his return home, he is ſaid to have fallen into a ſtate of bodily and mental imbecility. He married the princeſs Caroline Matilda, ſiſter to our preſent moſt gracious ſovereign, George III. by whom he has iſſue one ſon, Frederic, born January 27, 1768, and a daughter, born July 7, 1771.

It has been juſtly remarked that a weak prince is generally the dupe of ſome inſinuating and plauſible favourite; this monarch entruſted the whole adminiſtration of the kingdom to a German adventurer, named Struenſee, whom he created an earl, and to whom the moſt conſiderable of the nobility paid ſervile homage; the queen is ſaid to have had an unhappy attachment to this prime miniſter.

The queen dowager, Julia Maria, ſiſter to the duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, and mother to the king's half brother, prince Frederic, formed a plan to ruin this favourite with his maſter, and the queen conſort with her huſband; this ſhe ſuddenly and completely effected in January, 1772, ſince which the Britiſh court has been very careful, and as ſucceſsful, in concealing the cauſes which led to this unhappy event; nothing has been announced by authority reſpecting them. All that is certainly known is that ſome of the principal nobility were ſuddenly ſeized, and commited to cloſe confinement. Count Struenſee and his co-adjutor count Brandt, were brought to trial, ſentenced to ſuffer death, and were accordingly executed. The life of the queen conſort ſeems to have been preſerved by the reſolute application of our miniſter at that court; whether from the rage of the prevailing faction, or the reſentment of an incenſed kingdom, is not eaſy abſolutely to fix; ſhe, however, quitted Denmark, and reſided at Zell until her death, which happened about three years after, by a putrid fever.

Prince Frederic, the king's half brother, was married October 21, 1773, to the princeſs Sophia Frederica, niece to the reigning duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin.

CHAP. V.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

LAPLAND.

SECT. I.

Containing an Account of the Diviſion of the Country, its Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, Rivers, Lakes, Mines, &c. alſo of the inhabitants of LAPLAND, their Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Dreſs, Manner of Living, Diverſions, Employments, Method of Travelling, Hunting and Fiſhing, &c.

AS Lapland differs, with reſpect to the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, &c. from the other parts of Europe, we ſhall therefore give the reader a particular account of this country, which is divided into three parts, which are ſeverally ſubject to Denmark, Sweden and Ruſſia. There being a great ſimilarity between theſe diviſions, it will, on that account, be ſufficient to deſcribe only Swediſh Lapland, which is by far the moſt conſiderable and beſt peopled; we muſt however obſerve, that all the country in general is called Lapland, which lies above the gulf of Bothnia, along the coaſt of the north ſea, even to the white ſea.

The antients called the people of this country Scritofinni, the name of Lapland or Lappia, being unknown to them: they at firſt inhabited Finland, from whence they were driven more northwards; after which they were called Lappes, which, in the Finic tongue, ſignifies perſons baniſhed from their country and driven to the moſt remote places. But the inhabitants call themſelves Sabmienladfi, conſidering the other name as reproachful.

This country, namely, Swediſh Lapland, is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſian Lapland, on the weſt by a ridge of mountains that ſeparate it from Norway; on the north by Daniſh Lapland; and on the ſouth by Bothnia Angermania, and Sempterland. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is about three hundred and ſixty miles; and in breadth, it extends from ſixty-five degrees, thirty minutes, to ſixty-nine degrees of north latitude. It is divided into ſix provinces, or diſtricts, the names of which are, 1. Angermanland-Lapmark, 2. Uma-Lapmark, 3. Pitha-Lapmark, 4. Lula-Lapmark, 5. Torno-Lapmark, and 6. Kimi-Lapmark.

The firſt of theſe provinces is the moſt ſouthern, and contains only one town of any conſequence, which is called Aoſalko, and is ſituated about three hundred miles diſtant from Stockholm.

The ſecond province, which adjoins to the former, contains two little villages, viz. Semiſgorfic and Loiſby.

The third province is ſituated between the Norwegian mountains, and contains four unimportant villages; namely, Sitonia, Arieplogs, Locktari, and Arivitzerfs.

The fourth province, which adjoins to the latter, contains three villages, viz. Jackmoth, Sirkelucht, and Torpajour.

The fifth province, which is the moſt northern of Swediſh-Lapland, is well watered; it contains the great lake Enure, and the towns of Somby, Kelajorſui, Kitijerſuilye, Kimibi, Solden-Kyle, and Kimi.

The ſixth province, which is contiguous to Ruſſian and Daniſh-Lapland, is likewiſe well watered by many rivers, has ſeveral lakes, and contains four towns, viz. Tingavara, Sandewara, Ronnala, and Titiſara.

The above-mentioned provinces receive their name from the reſpective rivers which water them; and are again ſubdivided into ſmaller diſtricts, called Biara, and theſe contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes rekars, each rekar, or family, is allowed a conſiderable quantity of land, with foreſts, lakes and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands not being incloſed, there is frequently a change of property among them.

This country is ſituated ſo near the pole, that the ſun neither ſets in ſummer, nor riſes in winter. In the latter ſeaſon, the cold is ſo intenſe, that none but the natives are able to bear it. The moſt rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and ſometimes four or five feet thick. In ſummer, the weather is as ſultry as it is

cold in winter; for ſpring and autumn are unknown in this climate. The exceſſive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that riſe from the ſea, and by the ſnow that continues all the ſummer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are ſheltered from the ſun. In winter, the whole country is covered with ſnow, and it ſeldom rains in the ſummer.

Monſieur Maupertius, in his deſcription of the climate of this country, ſays, that in December, the ſnow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the moſt part hid the ſun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January, the cold was increaſed to that extremity, that Mr. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which at Paris, in the great froſt of 1709, it was thought ſtrange to ſee fall fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-ſeven: the ſpirits of wine in the others were frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air inſtantly converted all the vapour into ſnow, whiſtling round in white vertices. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breaſts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood, of which the houſes are built, as if ſplit by the violence of the froſt, continually alarmed us with an increaſe of cold; and in this country you may often ſee people who have loſt an arm or leg by the froſt. The cold, which is always very great, ſometimes increaſes by ſuch violent and ſudden fits, as are almoſt infallibly fatal to thoſe who are ſo unhappy as to be expoſed to it: and ſometimes there ariſe ſudden tempeſts of ſnow that are ſtill more dangerous.

"The winds ſeem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the ſnow with ſuch fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered inviſible. Dreadful is the ſituation of a perſon ſurprized in the fields by ſuch a ſtorm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him: he is blinded by the ſnow; and is generally loſt in attempting to find his way home. In ſhort, during the whole winter, the cold was ſo exceſſive, that on the ſeventh of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty diviſions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it roſe two or three diviſions above it: a difference in the height not much leſs than that which the greateſt heat and cold felt at Paris uſually produces in that inſtrument. Thus in twenty-four hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones during a whole twelve-month."

In moſt places, the ſoil is exceedingly bad, and ſo intermixed with ſtones, that hardly any thing will grow in it; and in other parts it is ſo moiſt, from the marſhes and brooks it abounds with, that very little of it can be tilled.

There are many rocks and mountains all over the country; thoſe called the Dofrinc Mountains, which ſeparate Lapland from Norway, are of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow there prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath theſe mountains are large marſhes and extenſive foreſts, where there are many trees, though they ſtand at a great diſtance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are very pleaſant vallies, which, being watered by a great number of ſprings and brooks, are the moſt fertile parts of the country.

Their chief rivers are the Uma, Lula, Rima, and Torna. The Uma is greatly encreaſed by the waters that flow into it from the rivers Vendilor and Skialfre. The Lula and Rima are both very conſiderable, and are ſwelled, in their courſe, by great numbers of leſſer ones. The Torna receives twenty-nine rivers, one of which is a Swediſh mile in breadth. When the ſnow melts, all theſe rivers overflow their banks; and the chief part of them have many ſtupendous and frightful cataracts. Moſt of the rivers riſe from the mountains of Norway, and fall into the Bothnian gulf. Here are alſo many lakes, which, as well as the rivers, abound with various kinds of fiſh.

A great number of trees grow in the foreſts of Lapland, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some parts of it alſo produce the ſervice-tree, willow, poplar, alder, and corneil. They have ſeveral ſorts of plants, but the moſt uſeful are the angelica and ſorrel, which are greatly eſteemed by the natives, who uſe them in their food. They have likewiſe different kinds of graſs, heath, and fern; but the moſt plentiful, as well as moſt uſeful vegetable, is the moſchus or moſs; of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, either adhering to trees or growing on the ſurface of the earth. The rein-deer is almoſt wholly ſuſtained by this vegetable, which indeed he prefers to all others, and without which he cannot ſubſiſt. The natives alſo uſe it as forage for their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and reſtorative. There are alſo plenty of berries, ſuch as black currants, the Norwegian mulberry, which grows upon a creeping plant, and is much eſteemed as an antiſcorbutic; juniper-berries are very plentiful, and ſome of the trees grow to a conſiderable height; here are likewiſe great quantities of raſberries, cranberries, and bilberries.

They have a great variety of animals in this country, as ſtags, bears, wolves, foxes of ſeveral colours, ſquirrels, ermines, martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks, and rein-deer; the laſt of which is extremely uſeful to the wretched natives, who, without them, could not poſſibly preſerve their exiſtence; for theſe creatures not only afford them food and cloathing, but alſo ſupply the place of horſes, which would not be able to travel where theſe animals do. The rein-deer is leſs than a ſtag; his colour inclines to an aſh, but his haunches, and the parts under his belly and ſhoulders are white; they have long and rough hair under their necks; their feet are thick, ſhort and cleft reſembling thoſe of bulls. When they walk, their joints make a noiſe like the claſhing of flints: they have two horns, with two branches each; the larger branch bends backwards, and the leſſer forward; they feed on moſs. There is both a tame and wild kind of them; thoſe betwixt a tame doe and wild buck are the ſtrongeſt and largeſt. Their milk is nouriſhing and fat, and makes good cheeſe. The traces that tie the rein-deer to the ſledge are faſtened about their necks, go down by their breaſts between their fore and hind legs, and are faſtened to the prow of the ſledge. The reins are tied to their horns, and held by the traveller, who is tied to the ſledge, and has a ſtick in his hand, to remove any ſtone or wood in his way. He muſt balance the ſledge with his body: for the bottom being round, it is in danger of being overſet. They hang bells to the trappings of the rein-deer, with which thoſe animals are very well pleaſed.

Their dogs are of a red colour, and are very ſerviceable in hunting; but they are very ſmall, not being above a foot in height: they turn up their tails, which are ſhort; and their ears ſtand erect, like thoſe of wolves.

The rocks and mountains of Lapland are frequented by eagles, hawks, falcons, kites, and other birds of prey. Here are alſo ſwans, geeſe, ducks, lapwings, ſnipes, moſt ſorts of water-fowl, heath-cocks, ſtock-doves, and partridges. Beſides theſe, they have two kinds of fowl peculiar only to this country: the firſt is called the kniper, and is a kind of ſnipe, black on the head, back, and wings, but the breaſt and belly are white.

Among their inſects are a ſpecies of flies, which, in the ſummer, are hatched in the moraſſes and woods, and are frequently ſo numerous as to obſcure the light of the day. They are venomous, and exceedingly troubleſome, inſomuch that the rein-deer fly to the tops of the mountains for ſhelter; and the inhabitants move to the ſea-ſide, thoſe parts being the leaſt infeſted by theſe peſtilent vermin: ſome of theſe flies are very large, have green heads, and draw blood from the ſkin wherever they ſtrike. While Monſieur Maupertius was here, he informs us, that the flies were ſo troubleſome, that even the Finland ſoldiers, who are counted the moſt hardy troops in the ſervice of Sweden, were obliged to cover their faces with the ſkirts of their coats from the attacks of theſe inſects; which ſwarmed to ſuch a degree, that the moment a piece of fleſh appeared, it was blackened all over by them.

Delicious ſalmon are found in the rivers and lakes; theſe come from the gulf of Bothnia: here are alſo trout, bream and proch, all of which are very large, and of exquiſite flavour.

There are mines of ſilver, lead and copper, in ſome of the diſtricts, together with excellent veins of iron; but they are not at preſent worked to any conſiderable advantage, they being difficult of acceſs. In the diſtrict of Torno, there is a vein of gold and ſilver mixed; another of lead and ſilver, and a third of copper; and here they have both copper-works and a foundry. They have alſo furnaces in the provinces of Lula, where they melt the ſilver which they dig in that part of the country. Theſe mines, however, are only worked for a ſhort time in the ſummer; the climate being ſo ſevere, for the principal part of the year, as to render it impoſſible to work the engines.

Here are a great variety of curious ſtones, ſome of which bear the reſemblance of animals, trees, &c. When the natives find theſe, they put them in ſome conſpicuous place, and worſhip them as deities. In the rivers and lakes are found beautiful cryſtals of a prodigious ſize, and ſo hard and fine, that, when poliſhed, they appear like real diamonds.

We ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the perſons, dreſs, manner of life, &c. of the Laplanders.

Theſe



RAIN-DEER-SLEDGES *used in* LAPLAND.

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These people are of a brown and swarthy complexion, which is the case with the inhabitants both of very cold and very hot countries; their hair is black, and their faces broad, with peaked chins and hollow cheeks. They are generally of a middling stature.

The all-wise Creator has made a provision for them against the severity of winter, by placing there a multitude of animals, whose soft and warm furs and skins defend them from the most piercing cold. The upper garment both of the men and women is made of skins with the hair on, formed like the ploughman's frock, girt about them with a broad belt; they wear breeches which reach down to their ancles, and their cap, which is made of the skin of a young rein-deer, sits as close to their heads as a scull-cap, covering all the neck and shoulders. Their shoes are peaked, and turned up at the toes.

The finery of the women consists in a kind of pewter wire, with which they work the bosoms of their coats, their girdles, and the edges of their caps. Neither sex know what it is to wear linen; but in the cold season wear next the body a fawn's skin waistcoat. Almost the only difference between the dress of the men and that of the women is, that the latter is somewhat longer. A purse hangs at their girdles, with their money, rings, and toys; a leathern bag and a knife.

The Laplanders afford an instance of a whole European nation subsisting contentedly without ploughing, sowing, or planting; without spinning or weaving, brewing or baking. As their lot is cast in a country where winter takes up the greatest part of the year, and consequently renders it impossible for them to provide a sufficient quantity of hay and fodder for great herds of cattle, the bountiful Creator has bestowed on them a species of animals that are provided for with little trouble: this is the rein-deer, which of all tame animals requires the least attendance and support, while it procures the greatest advantage to its owners. These creatures provide for themselves, feeding in summer on leaves, moss, and grass, of which they find as much as is sufficient for them, even among the mountains; and in winter live only on a kind of moss that grows in almost every part of Lapland. They come at this moss by scraping away the snow with their feet, and are taught by instinct to find the spots where it grows. During a journey of several days, in which they are drawn in sledges by these animals, the only trouble a traveller is at, is either to turn them loose, or tie them to a tree, where the quantity of food they eat at a time does not exceed a handful. The Laplanders are at other times only solicitous to keep their herds of rein-deer from going astray, and to protect them from wild beasts; and this, particularly in summer, they think no inconsiderable task. They have no occasion to house these animals, for they always lie out in the open air, without any inconvenience; and when after a strict search they find that there is no danger from beasts of prey, they turn them loose into the woods; but they are watched by the Lapland herdsmen, when they are under any apprehension of danger from that quarter.

With respect to their manner of living and habitations, they consist of two different tribes, namely, the Forest, and Mountain Laplanders. The former spend the greatest part of the summer in the woods, and have no property; but the latter live among the mountains. The food of the former chiefly consists of fish and fowl: but that of the latter principally depends on their herds of rein-deer. The Laplanders in general, and particularly the Foresters, are esteemed good marksmen. They have a great aversion to mining. In most of the lapmarks they make it their employment to carry the burghers to the yearly fairs; and some of the Laplanders, for a reasonable reward, look after the rein-deer belonging to other people. Most of them choose rather to sleep away the whole day in their tents, than to engage in any laborious employment; but those whom want has prompted to industry, give evident proofs that they are not without a capacity for mechanic trades, nor even for exquisite pieces of workmanship. Their boats and utensils are plain indications of their skill, and some of their sledges are inlaid with horn in a variety of figures. Their horn spoons, their Runic calendars, their moulds for casting pewter utensils, their bows and arrows, and the like, are all of their own making.

The Lapland women make use of a horn perforated with large and small holes, through which they draw pewter into wires of different thickness, with which they neatly embroider their girdles, cloaths, and sledge furniture. They also prepare all kinds of skins by various methods, and cut out and sew the habits they wear.

Besides the herds of rein-deer, several of them are masters of a considerable quantity of silver in rings, buckles, large and small spoons, cups, &c. and money grows more and more in use among them: but they prefer the Holland rix-dollar to all other coins, because the Norwegians, with whom they trade in summer, will not take any other money in exchange for their goods. The rest of their substance consists of domestic utensils and other furniture, as tents, iron pots, copper and brass kettles, furs and other cloaths, bed-furniture, fine sledges with harnesses, hatchets, boats, and fishing-tackle. As to the poorer sort, they are obliged to be satisfied with fewer conveniencies.

The procuring food for their herds of rein-deer being the chief employment of the Laplanders, it occasions them frequently to shift their habitations. At the approach of spring most of them move, with their families, twenty or thirty Swedish miles among the mountains of Norway, as far as the North Sea, where they fix their abode till autumn, and then quit the mountains and return to the south, to prevent their being frozen to death for want of fuel, and their rein-deer being starved, there being little or no moss so far to the north. The other Laplanders, who make no excursions to the mountains, but dwell in the village districts, or live by fishing, likewise never settle in one place: to this they are obliged by their rein-deer, which at certain times shew a disposition to remove, either from the want of fodder, or their being sensible of the changes that will happen in the weather.

On account of their unsettled way of life, they are obliged to provide portable dwellings; and such are their tents, which are thus formed: they first set up several poles in a circular position, gradually closing together on the top, much in the form of a sugar-loaf with the top of it broken off. Over these poles they lay a kind of coarse cloth, and thus form tents, some of which are sufficient to contain twenty persons. The hearth is in the middle, with stones laid round it, to prevent the fire from spreading. An aperture is left at the top, where the poles almost join, which serves both for chimney and window. From this hole hang two chains with hooks at the end, to hang the pots on, in order to boil their victuals, or melt the ice or snow into water to drink. Round the inside of the tent they lay their cloaths to keep out the cold wind, and spread branches of birch or fir round the tent, by way of seats to sit upon; for they have neither chairs, stools, nor benches. About the tent stand the cupboards, where they keep their provisions; these are fixed on posts or blocks of wood, and have some resemblance to a pigeon-house erected on pillars.

The Laplanders, whenever they have an opportunity, pitch their tents near dried pines, for the convenience of fuel; but in spring and autumn they are forced to be contented with brush wood. It ought not to be omitted, that in some of the lapmarks they erect boarded cottages, or wooden houses, that resemble those of the Swedes.

Sledges, shaped like small boats, with a broad keel, serve them for carriages; and those so thick, that no water can penetrate through them. They have a back-board for the traveller to lean against, who sits fast laced in the sledge, and well secured from the cold. This vehicle is drawn by the rein-deer with incredible swiftness through the snow over mountains and valleys. The rein-deer is harnessed with a large cloth girt, embroidered with pewter wire, and fastened on his back. The bit is a piece of leather tacked to the reins of the bridle over the deer's head and neck, and from the breast a leather strap passing under the belly is fastened to the fore part of the sledge, which serves instead of shafts. The rein-deer in a great measure lose their vigour and swiftness in summer, when these are less necessary; but even then they are very proper for carrying the Laplander's effects from place to place.

They use a kind of skates, like those of the Fins and Norlanders; consisting of a board three or four Swedish ells in length, and six inches broad, and ending in a point which turns up before. With these boards fastened to their feet, and a pole, with a round piece of wood at the end to prevent its sinking too deep in the snow, the Laplanders skate along with such swiftness as to overtake wolves and other beasts.

Those among them who practise fishing, and live in South Lapmark, make use of a kind of boat or little bark for crossing rivers, made of slight boards curiously joined together with filaments of the roots of trees, or hempen strings, and are so light that a Laplander carries his boat on his shoulders, with the oars and every thing belonging to it, besides his bag of provisions. These boats they steer with amazing dexterity, even among the rocks and down

the moſt rapid water-falls; and though the cataract be ever ſo dreadful, and the Laplander ever ſo great a ſtranger to it, he undauntedly ventures down the precipice in his little boat: but when he ſteers againſt the ſtream, and comes to a water-fall, he puts aſhore, takes his boat upon his back, and travels till he comes to ſmooth water.

The inhabitants of the northern lapmarks have larger boats, four or five fathoms in length; theſe they either haul up the great water-falls with ropes, or where the caſcades are ſmall, ſhove them up with poles; which is done by two men, one of whom ſits at the head, and the other at the ſtern. As for going down the water-falls with the ſtream, they conſider it as attended with no difficulty.

In ſummer, the mountain Laplanders live chiefly upon milk, and on the cheeſe made of it, of which they lay up a ſtore for winter. In the month of September, before the piercing froſts ſet in, they kill as many of their rein-deer as they think will ſerve them till Chriſtmas; afterwards they kill as many as will ſupply them the reſt of the winter, and ſometimes kill one or two occaſionally. It is not unuſual with the weſtern Laplanders to buy Norway cows and ſheep in ſummer, which they kill for their winter proviſion. They alſo eat the fleſh of bears and beavers, ſea and wild fowl, &c. The poor who live in villages are contented with the fleſh of dogs, wolves, foxes, and horſes, when they can get them.

The fiſhing Laplanders live on fiſh, which they have various ways of dreſſing; and thoſe who have rein-deer on their high days and feſtivals, dreſs fleſh and fiſh together. In ſummer they buy their ſalt of the Norwegians, and in winter purchaſe it of the burghers. Tobacco is not very uncommon among them but they buy it at a very high price. In this country none of the women have any hand in dreſſing proviſions, that office belonging to the maſter of the houſe. They never omit ſaying grace before and after meat, and before they riſe from table ſhake each other by the hand.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Marriage Ceremonies of the LAPLANDERS, Management of their Children; their Diſeaſes, Funeral Rites, Religion, Government, Trade, Revenue, &c.

WHEN a young man has made choice of a female, he employs ſome friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and theſe being provided with ſome bottles of brandy, the ſuitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter; but the ſuitor is left without, till the liquor be drank, and the propoſal diſcuſſed. After this, he is called in, and entertained with ſuch fare as the hut affords, but without ſeeing his miſtreſs, who, on this occaſion, is obliged to retire. The ſuitor having at length obtained leave to make his addreſſes to the girl in perſon, he goes home, puts on his beſt attire, and then returns to the hut, when his miſtreſs appears, and he ſalutes her with a kiſs; after which, he preſents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's fleſh, or ſome other kind of proviſion. The girl at firſt declines the offer, it being made in the preſence of her relations; but at the ſame time ſhe makes a ſignal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where ſhe accepts the preſents. Thus encouraged, he begs permiſſion of her to let him ſleep with her in the hut: if ſhe conſents, ſhe keeps the preſents; but if not, ſhe throws them with contempt on the ground.

When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to viſit his miſtreſs as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes, he muſt purchaſe this pleaſure with a freſh bottle of brandy; a perquiſite ſo agreeable to the father, that he often poſtpones the celebration of the nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the neareſt church, by the prieſt of the pariſh; but even after this, the huſband is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives preſents from all his relations and friends. From this time he watches over his wife's conduct with the moſt jealous attention, and ſequeſters her from the company of all ſtrangers, eſpecially of the male ſex.

Immediately after the birth of a child, they waſh the infant all over with ſnow or cold water; except the head, which muſt not be touched with water till after baptiſm. The woman does not remain in child-bed above four or five days, and in fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries the child to be baptized; but before ſhe can reach the reſidence of the prieſt, ſhe is often obliged to traverſe large forelts, mountains, lakes, and wide extended waſtes of ſnow. The infant is faſtened in a hollowed piece of wood, ſtretched naked on a bed of fine moſs, covered with the ſkin of a young rein-deer, and ſlung by two ſtraps to the back of the mother, who always ſuckles her own child. This little cradle, when at home, is hung to the roof of the hut, and is ſwung from one ſide to the other, to lull the child aſleep.

Parents are very careful in teaching their children, as they grow up, moſt kinds of work; but they have a great averſion to ſchools. The boys, from their infancy, are taught to practiſe the bow; and they are not allowed to break their faſt till they have hit the mark. The females are alſo initiated very early in ſuitable buſineſſes.

There are no phyſicians in Lapland, nor have they occaſion for any, not being ſubject to thoſe diſtempers common in other countries. They are chiefly ſubject to ſores, occaſioned by the ſmoke and fire which is almoſt continually in their huts: they are alſo ſometimes viſited with rheumatic pains, and the ſcurvy; and a few are afflicted with the vertigo and apoplexy. For the cure of all inward diſorders, they uſe a drink made with the root of a certain ſpecies of moſs, which they call jerth; and when that cannot be procured, they boil the ſtalk of angelica in the milk of the rein-deer. When they feel a pain in any part of the body, they take a kind of muſhroom, which grows upon the birch-tree like a cake; and, having ſet fire to it, they apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and this produces a bliſter, which is ſuppoſed to draw off the peccant humour. They have no other plaſters for wounds but the reſin which drops from fir-trees. When they have any member benumbed with froſt, they put a red-hot iron into a cheeſe made of rein-deer's milk, and with the fat that drops from it, like an oil, they rub the part, which is almoſt inſtantly cured by that method.

If the friends of a Laplander ſuppoſe him to be on his death-bed, they exhort him to die in the faith of Chriſt, and bear his ſufferings with reſignation, by remembering the paſſion of our Saviour. But thoſe who have no great regard for religion, forſake the dying perſon, and think of nothing but the funeral entertainment.

When a perſon dies, moſt of the company leave the hut, being of opinion they ſhall receive ſome injury from the ſpirit of the deceaſed, which they believe remains with the corpſe, and takes all opportunities of doing miſchief to the living. The deceaſed is wrapped up in linen, according to his circumſtances, and depoſited in a coffin by a perſon ſelected for that purpoſe; but this office he will not perform till he receives a conſecrated braſs ring, which is placed on his left arm, and what he imagines will prevent the ghoſt of the deceaſed from doing him any injury.

Theſe people, before they embraced Chriſtianity, uſed to bury their dead in any common place, which they ſtill do when they are at a great diſtance from a church. Many of them alſo preſerve the rites of heatheniſh ſuperſtition; for with the body they put into the coffin an ax, a flint and ſteel, a flaſk of brandy, ſome dried fiſh, and veniſon. The proviſion is for his ſubſiſtence during the journey; the flint and ſteel are to furniſh him with a light, ſhould he find himſelf in the dark; and with the ax the deceaſed is ſuppoſed to hew down the buſhes and boughs that may obſtruct him in the other world.

The friends of the deceaſed, before they carry the body to the place of interment, kindle a fire of fir-boughs near the coffin, and expreſs their ſorrow in tears and lamentations. They walk in proceſſion ſeveral times round the body, demanding, in a whining tone, the reaſon of his leaving them on earth: they aſk whether he was out of humour with his wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink, cloathing, or other neceſſaries? and whether he had not ſucceeded in hunting or fiſhing? Theſe, and other ſuch interrogations, are intermingled with groans and frightful howlings; and in the interval the prieſts ſprinkle the corpſe and the mourners alternately with holy water.

After theſe ceremonies are ended, the body is conveyed to the place of interment, in a ſledge drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and relations, who ſhew their concern for the loſs of the deceaſed, by dreſſing themſelves in the worſt garments they have, and keeping a continual hooting during the proceſſion. After the ceremony, the people retire; and the ſledge, with the cloaths which belonged to the deceaſed, are the prieſt's perquiſite. Three days after the funeral, the relations and friends of the defunct are invited to an entertainment, where they eat the

fleſh of the rein-deer which conveyed the corpſe to the grave. The animal being made a ſacrifice to the manes of the deceaſed, they collect the bones together, which, being put into a baſket, are with great ceremony interred.

It is cuſtomary to divide the effects of the deceaſed between the brothers and ſiſters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly by all the children of both ſexes, according to the diviſion made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he aſſigned to each family a certain tract of land.

The language of the Laplanders is a very barbarous one, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correſpondence which the natives maintain with the different nations; ſuch as the Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Ruſſians. Arts are very little known among them, except ſuch as neceſſity has taught them for their own preſervation; and moſt of them are totally ignorant of letters.

It is ſuppoſed that Chriſtianity was firſt introduced into Lapland by St. Eric, about the year 1300. However, no material progreſs was made in the eſtabliſhment of it till the laſt century, when miſſionaries were ſent for that purpoſe from Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia. Guſtavus Adolphus founded two ſchools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for inſtructing the children of the Laplanders in the Chriſtian religion, and in letters. He alſo ordered ſeveral books to be tranſlated from the Swediſh into the Lapland language; ſuch as the catechiſm, with ſome prayers, and the manual, containing the pſalms of David, the proverbs of Solomon, &c. And that they might be encouraged to ſend their children to ſchool, an annual revenue was allotted to maintain the ſcholars both in victuals and cloaths. Hence Lapland now produced ſome preachers which greatly promoted the knowledge of Chriſtianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whoſe language the people did not underſtand, it could not be reaſonably ſuppoſed they ſhould profit much by their inſtructions. Since that time, however, the greateſt misfortune hath been, that many Laplanders, at preſent, intermix too much idolatry with the pure profeſſion of Chriſtianity; and from local cuſtoms, the ridiculous fondneſs for omens, particular times and ſeaſons, diſtinguiſhed by the names of black and white days, &c. retain many of their former ſuperſtitions.

They ſuppoſe the exiſtence of a good and evil principle, and imagine that theſe, when at variance, occaſion the happineſs or miſery of mankind. With reſpect to the pagan ſuperſtitions ſtill remaining, they adore the gods Thor, Storjunkar and Bacwe, whom they worſhip under the ſymbols of ſtones, trunks of trees, and fire. They have ſome notion of the metempſychoſis, or tranſmigration of ſouls; for they not only reſpect the remains of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being miſchievous till they imagine the ſpirits of the deceaſed have re-animated other bodies. They alſo believe there are fairies, that wander among rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes; and give them alſo a ſhare of their devotion.

They own one ſupreme God, whom they arm with thunderbolts: they make the rainbow his bow, and have the ſame notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another ſubordinate God, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the bleſſings of life, and never fail to worſhip him. The ſun, whom they call Baiwe, is another of their divinities, becauſe of his influence on the bodies of men and beaſts. They have temples and images conſecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of ſtone. One of thoſe is preſerved in the royal cabinet of antiquities at Upſal. All their women are excluded from worſhip. They anoint the idol with the heart-blood of the ſacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain conſecrated to Storjonkar, one of their deities, they dip a ſtone in the blood of the ſacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and ſo conclude their devotion. Sometimes they ſtrew branches of birch and pine about their images.

As the Laplanders have always been charged with practiſing the art of divination; La Motraye, travelling in their country, enquired what notion they had of witchcraft and magic: to which one of them anſwered, that the profeſſors of the black art were to be found moſt commonly in Kimi Lapmark and Finland; that they converſed with the devil, and knew every thing that was done: and if they were provoked by any one, or hired to do a man miſchief, they could inflict diſeaſes on him, his wife, children, or cattle. He pretended to inſtance in ſome whom they had ſtruck blind, and others whoſe cattle were killed by their ſorcery; adding, that there were ſome of them who could remove the diſeaſes which they themſelves, or others, had inflicted: and they had done ſo on their being treated with good liquors, or receiving handſome preſents from the ſufferers. They gave our traveller an inſtance of a young and wealthy Laplander, who, upon breaking his word with a girl he courted, was ſtruck blind by her mother, who was ſkilful in the black art, and would not reſtore him to his ſight, till he agreed to marry her daughter.

It is certain, that the poor ignorant Laplanders have a very great veneration for thoſe pretenders to magic, and by all imaginable means avoid their anger. The ſame writer relates, that he hired a perſon to carry him to the tent of one of theſe conjurers, in the moſt northerly part of Lapland, having firſt given him all poſſible aſſurances that he would not betray him to the government (the laws againſt witchcraft being as ſevere in Sweden, as they were formerly with us). He found the wizard in a poor hut, and in as wretched circumſtances as thoſe people are uſually repreſented to be in this part of the world: upon which he made the common obſervation, that if theſe people had really any intereſt with the devil, he would ſurely reward them better. The conjurer gave our traveller his hand, and ordered him to follow him to the top of a high mountain, that lay to the eaſtward of his hut, where he deſired him to ſtand till he fetched his drum, and other untenſils neceſſary to the acting his part. Soon after the man returned with his drum, which he had hid among ſhrubs and ſtones, for fear of a diſcovery. It was of an oval form, and had but one head; there was faſtened to it a chain, with ſeveral braſs rings.

Before the operation began, the wizard demanded if they had any brandy; and half a pint being preſented to him, he immediately drank two thirds of it; then putting the chain and rings into the inſide of his drum, and turning the bottom upwards, he beat upon it with a forked piece of a rein-deer's horn (the head was covered with a tranſparent parchment, wretchedly painted with the celeſtial figns); he beat upon it for a few minutes, the rings all the while jumping about, and making a jingling noiſe: then he laid himſelf down flat on his back, ſetting the head of his drum upon his bare breaſt, and having ſhut his eyes, ſeemed to be in a trance, not breathing for ſome time; and, having fetched a deep ſigh, he gently raiſed the drum above his head, and looked upon the rings, which he could eaſily diſcern through the parchment; and having conſidered their poſition, and diſtance from the celeſtial figures, he fixed his eyes upon our traveller, and declared that he would run a great hazard upon the water as he returned in his ſledge; and again in going down the cataracts, or water-falls, in a boat: that he would have another great eſcape from fire; that his life would be long and healthful, after he had overcome two great fits of illneſs, both which would ſeize him within the ſpace of two years. And as for the interpreter, who led La Motraye to his cell, he directed him to go out a fiſhing, on the 20th, 22d, 24th, 26th, and 28th days of that month; and the 3d, 6th, 9th, 12th, 16th, 20th, 24th, and 28th, of the next: and he ſhould return home loaded with fiſh: and the ſame days in the months of September, October, and November, would be equally fortunate to him in hunting.

When he had finiſhed his predictions, the traveller aſked if he could tell whether he was a bachelor, or a married man; into what countries he had travelled, beſides Torno, Lapmark, &c. but our conjurer was too wiſe to gueſs at things that were paſt, in which he knew his ignorance might be too eaſily diſcovered. Our author afterwards made the poor fellow a preſent of half a crown, with which he ſeemed extremely ſatisfied, as the guide was with the predictions concerning his ſucceſs in fiſhing and hunting. So exceſſive credulous theſe poor Laplanders are, and ſo prepoſſeſſed in favour of their conjurers, that they implicitly follow their directions. If theſe pretended wizards tell them, that on ſuch a day they ſhall take plenty of fiſh or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and as there is moſt commonly abundance of both in this country, they uſually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go to in ſearch of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it ſo, by not going abroad in queſt of any game at that time.

With reſpect to their government, Lapland being now ſubject to three different powers, governors, or præfects are deputed by each of them, to preſide over their reſpec-

tive diſtricts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1277, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the remaining part was ſoon after ſubdued by the Ruſſians and Norwegians.

The laws of Sweden are obſerved in Swediſh Lapland, which, as we have already noticed, is the moſt conſiderable of the three: here are erected three tribunals, or courts of juſtice: one for Angermanland-Lapmark; a ſecond for Uma, Pitha, and Lula-Lapmark: and the third for Fomo and Kimi-Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a præfect, who determines all cauſes. They adminiſter juſtice in the king's name, on which occaſions a prieſt always attends.

Such of the Laplanders, as live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of thoſe countries. Thoſe who are at a greater diſtance from thoſe mountains trade only with the Swedes; and others, who are ſituated towards the north and eaſt, trade with the Ruſſians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from thoſe nations are, rix-dollars, woollen, ſtuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, ſalt, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, and tobacco, of which laſt article they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fiſh, of the latter of which they take ſuch large quantities, that they ſtock whole reſervoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbouring countries: namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Ruſſia. They alſo trade in dried pikes, cheeſe made of the milk of their rein-deer, fine ermins, and the ſkins of ſeveral wild beaſts.

They formerly paid the tribute in ſkins of wild beaſts; but it now conſiſts in a certain coin, rein-deer, and ſkins, either dreſſed for certain uſes, or raw; and is proportionable to the quantity of land poſſeſſed by each head of a family. The largeſt are ſtyled entire territories, or territories of a full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who poſſeſs a territory in land, of half a tribute, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give ſkins of foxes or ſquirrels inſtead of coin. Fifty ſquirrels ſkins, or one fox's ſkin, with a pair of ſhoes after the faſhion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar; beſides which, every head of a family is obliged to give yearly a white fox's ſkin, or a pair of ſhoes; and if he cannot procure thoſe things, he muſt give half a pound of dried pikes. Part of theſe taxes is employed for the maintenance of the prieſts who live in that country, to inſtruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other diſtricts of Lapland pay their revenues in a ſimilar manner to the reſpective ſtates to which they belong, and trade much in the ſame commodities.

CHAP. VI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

POLAND.

SECT. I.

Deſcribing the Extent, Situation, Climate, and Produce of POLAND, properly ſo called; together with the Geographical Diviſion of the Country.

POLAND, before its late diſmemberment, was a very conſiderable country, extending about ſeven hundred miles in length, and ſix hundred and eighty in breadth; the ſituation of it is between forty-ſix and fifty-ſeven degrees north latitude, and ſixteen and thirty-four degrees eaſt longitude. It is bounded by Hungary, Turky, and Little Tartary, to the ſouth; by Germany, to the weſt; Livonia, part of Ruſſia, and the Baltick ſea, to the north; and by another part of Ruſſia, to the eaſt. Its name is derived from Polu, a Sclavonian word, which implies a country adapted to hunting.

The climate is rather temperate, and the air not exceſſively cold; yet ſometimes its lakes and rivers are ſo frozen, that coaches and carts paſs over them for five or ſix months together. The ſoil alſo is generally fertile, fit for tillage and paſture, and produces a vaſt quantity of corn and cattle; even enough to feed the populous nation of Holland, who yearly ſend vaſt fleets to Dantzick to buy the corn and oxen ſent down thither from the ſeveral parts of Poland. Lithuania in particular, produces honey, wax, hemp, flax, leather, pot-aſhes, ſalt, woad, ſalt-petre, vitriol, and quick-ſilver. With theſe ſtaple commodities they purchaſe thoſe of other nations, viz. wines, cloth, ſtuffs, wrought-ſilk, tapeſtry, jewels, ſables, martens, tin, ſteel, iron-ware, aqua-vitæ, brandy, and ſpices.

The country of Poland in general produces alſo all kinds of fruits and herbs, and a good breed of horſes; ſo that their cavalry is numerous, and well-mounted. There are vines in many places, whoſe grapes are grateful to the taſte, eſpecially if the ſummer and harveſt be favourable; but the wine is generally very ſharp, when drawn off.

In the mountains there are mines of lead, ſilver, copper, and iron; but the moſt conſiderable of all are the ſalt-mines in Leſſer Poland, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring moſt money into the exchequer: they work in thoſe mines as the colliers do in our coal-pits. The ſalt is generally of a bluiſh colour, but ſome of it white and tranſparent. When it is firſt dug, it has a brackiſh taſte; but, when expoſed to the air, it becomes brittle, and more ſweet. They have alſo ſome veins of Sal-Gemmæ. The woods are well-ſtored with hares, coneys, ſquirrels, deer, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. The Maſovian foreſts have plenty of elks, wild aſſes, wild oxen, called Uri, and buffaloes, whoſe fleſh, when powdered, the Poles eſteem a great dainty. In the Ukrain there are wild horſes alſo, whoſe fleſh is equally eſteemed by the nobility. The wolf, reſembling a hart, or the European lynx, called Lupus Cervarius, and by the natives Ris, with ſpots on its belly and legs, affords the beſt furs in Poland. The quails in Podolia have green legs: it is ſaid their fleſh is unwholſome, and breeds the cramp, if immoderately eaten.

The country in general is plain and flat, rather inclining to marſh lands, ſo that no conſiderable woods or mountains are found here, except thoſe that make the frontier to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of three hundred miles in length, and called the Crapach, or Carpathian mountains. The eaſtern part of the country, indeed, is full of woods, foreſts, lakes, marſhes, and rivers, which afford a delightful proſpect to that part of it which is open.

Its moſt conſiderable rivers are the Viſtula, the Nieſnen or Cromes, the Nieper or Boriſthenes, the Nieſter or Tyras, and the Bog or Vagus; and the only lake worthy of obſervation is, the great lake of Gopto, or the White Lake, which, it is affirmed, will dye of a ſwarthy complexion thoſe who bathe in it. One of the moſt ſingular productions of Poland, is the manna, which proceeds from the aſh and quicken-tree, and alſo from the larix, pine, fir, oak, juniper, maple, olive, fig-tree, &c, and flows in July and Auguſt from the nervous fibres of the leaves.

With reſpect to the geographical deſcription of Poland; if conſidered in its utmoſt extent, it may be divided into the twelve following diſtricts: I. Poland, properly ſo called; II. Poliſh Pruſſia; III. Lithuania; IV. Samogitia; V. Courland; VI. Warſovia; VII. Polachia; VIII. Poleſia; IX. Red Ruſſia; X. Podolia; XI. Volhinia;

hinia; XII. Ucrania. Moſt of theſe provinces are divided into palatinates: which are again ſubdivided into bailiwicks, or ſtaroſtics.

Geographers divide Poland, properly ſo called, into Upper or Little Poland; and Lower or Great Poland. The firſt of theſe hath Great Poland and Warſovia, on the north; Hungary, on the ſouth; Red Ruſſia, on the eaſt; and Sileſia, on the weſt; extending, from eaſt to weſt about two hundred miles, and from north to ſouth, about a hundred and twenty. It contains many woods, but is fertile in ſome places, and in general well watered.

There is but one mountain in Little Poland, and that is abſurdly called the Bald Mountain, though there is a monaſtery on the ſummit of it. This diviſion of Poland compriſes the palatinates of Cracow, Lendomit and Lublin; which, together, form the dioceſe of Cracow, containing one thouſand and eighteen churches, among which eleven collegiate are included.

The palatinate of Cracow has Sileſia on the weſt, the palatinate of Lendomir on the eaſt, Hungary on the ſouth, and Siradin on the north. This palatinate contains, beſides four diſtricts, three dutchies, and one county. The four diſtricts are, 1. Cracovia, ſubdivided into Xianzen and Proſſovia; 2. Lelovia; 3. Briecz; 4. Sandecz. The three dutchies are, Oſvieczin, Zalor, and Severia, which belongs to Hungary, and contains thirteen towns. There is a ſort of manna in this palatinate, which they gather in May and June, ſweep it off the graſs with ſieves, together with the dew, and make ſeveral diſhes of it.

Cracow or Cracovia, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the fixed head reſidence of the ſovereign, is ſeated in a fertile country, at the conflux of the Viſtula and Ridawa, in nineteen degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and the fiftieth degree of north latitude. The city contains a great number of convents and churches, and among the latter that of the Virgin Mary, which is the principal. On the weſt ſide of it is a ſuburb, with handſome gardens, and near it is the king's palace, which has the advantage of elegant gardens incloſed with a wall. On the ſouth ſide of it is the royal caſtle, ſeated on a high rock near the Viſtula. This large ſtructure is defended by walls, towers, and baſtions, and has the appearance of a town; it including the king's palace, the cathedral, and two other churches, with ſeveral dwelling-houſes.

The cathedral is dedicated to St. Staniſlaus, formerly biſhop of this ſee, whom Boleſlaus II. killed at the altar with his own hands, becauſe that biſhop's admonitions were grown inſupportable to him. St. Staniſlaus's remains are incloſed in a ſilver ſhrine, and maſſes are continually performed day and night in this church. In the treaſury of the cathedral, among other things of great value, are the regalia, on which account it is under the care of the treaſurer of the kingdom. Here the kings of Poland are always crowned, and their remains interred. The annual revenue of the biſhopric of Cracow amounts to forty thouſand dollars. The chapter conſiſts of thirty-ſix canons, beſides other prieſts, whoſe revenues are alſo very conſiderable.

Near the caſtle is the ſuburb of Stradomo, which includes ſeveral churches, convents and hoſpitals: and from thence a bridge over the Viſtula leads to the town of Cazimircz, which may be conſidered as the ſecond diviſion of the city of Cracow; it lies to the eaſt of the latter, was built by Caſimir the Great, and is encloſed by a wall. The chief edifice in this part of the city is the univerſity, which conſiſts of eleven colleges, to which are ſubordinate fourteen grammar-ſchools, diſperſed in ſeveral parts of the city. The Jews-town joins to Cazimircz. To the north of the city lies the ſuburbs of Kleparz, or Klepardia, which has no walls, but contains ſeveral churches, particularly that of St. Florian, which is a very ſtately edifice, and the biſhop's palace.

The city of Cracow is large, and was formerly populous and flouriſhing; but by the removal of the court, and the many calamities it ſuſtained in both the Swediſh wars, has much declined. The citizens have this particular privilege, that no appeal lies from the city council, but to the king only; and his majeſty can judge no cauſes relating either to the city or its ſuburbs in any other place but in Cracow. The palatine of this city has the power of chuſing the council, but not of diſplacing any member when elected. This city has often been conſumed by fire, and in 1707 and 1708 was viſited by the peſtilence, which ſwept away ſeveral thouſands of the inhabitants. In 1655 it was beſieged and taken by the Swedes; but in 1657 they were obliged to reſtore it to the Poles. It was ſtormed by the Ruſſian army under prince Repnin and general Apraxin, Auguſt 19, 1768. Its citadel was ſurprized by the confederates the beginning of 1772, and it ſurrendered to the Auſtrians a few months afterwards.

There are ſome valuable ſalt-mines near this city, which were diſcovered in 1548. They produce a great annual revenue to the crown, and the proprietors are likewiſe obliged to make a yearly preſent to every city in Poland. The ſalt is of four kinds; and on one ſide of the mines runs a ſtream of brackiſh water, and, on the other ſide, a fine freſh one.

In this palatinate are alſo the following towns, viz. 1. Zator, twelve miles ſouth-weſt from Cracow. 2. Siveria, the capital of the duchy of the ſame name; it is celebrated for the ſilver and lead mines in its neighbourhood. 3. Biecz, thirty-three miles ſouth-eaſt of Cracow; ſulphur is made here from the ſurface of the river Rapa. 4. Sandrecz, twenty-four miles ſouth of Cracow, celebrated for gold and copper mines in its vicinity; has a collegiate church, and ſeveral monaſteries. 5. Lelow, on a little river of the ſame name; near it, are mines of ſilver and lead. 6. Oſveczin, on the ſouth ſide of the Sala, and twelve miles from Sileſia: it is the thorough-fare from Cracow to Vienna, and has a great trade in ſalt. 7. Czentochow, on the river Warta, near the confines of Sileſia, celebrated for remarkable good beer.

Here is a ſilver mine twenty-five miles north-weſt from Cracow, and near the little town of Slacovia. A provincial diet is held in Proſzovice, ten miles north of Cracow; and Ilcuſſia, twenty miles weſt of Cracow, is famous for ſilver and lead mines, and the beſt bread and beef in Poland. Near Veliſca, twenty-five miles eaſt from Cracow, are excellent mines of rock-ſalt; but the miners, who work under ground, ſoon become blind from the acrimonious effluvia of it; and there is a very ſtrong fortreſs at Lubawla, fourteen miles ſouth of Sandecz.

The biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan of Cracow, are the ſenators of this palatinate. The juriſdiction of the palatine extends not only over the citizens and peaſants, but alſo over the nobility and gentry of the palatinate. The prætor, or mayor of Cracow, is named by the king; but the caſtle is principally under the command of the palatine, who has ten deputies or burgraves, choſen out of the gentry, by whom, in times of peace and war, a ſtrict guard is kept both night and day.

II. The palatinate of Sendomir, or Sandomir, has that of Cracow, on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; Hungary, on the ſouth; Maſovia and Great Poland, on the north; and Red Ruſſia, and the palatinate of Lublin, on the eaſt. It is divided into eight diſtricts, and has nine ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of Sendomir, and the caſtellans of Wiſlicz, Radom, Zawichoſt, Zarnow, Malagoſch, Polovicz, and Sechow. It abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſteel, and marble; and derives its name from Sendomir, or Sandomir, which is the capital of this palatinate.

This town is ſeated on an eminence near the influx of the river San into the Viſtula; and its delightful ſituation rendered it the favourite reſidence of Caſimir the Great, and other kings of Poland. This city is well fortified both by art and nature, and has a college of Jeſuits and other orders, with a rich foundation called Collegium Canonicorum. A provincial court of juſtice is alſo held here.

In the year 1259 the Tartars and Ruſſians committed terrible ravages in this city, and put the inhabitants to the ſword. In 1656 the caſtle, which ſtands on a ſteep rock, was blown up by the Swedes. It is now claimed by the Auſtrians. Here are two churches much frequented by pilgrims, both which ſtand in the middle of a foreſt. This town was diſmantled by king Auguſtus in 1704.

The towns of leſs note are, 1. Kunow, forty miles north of Sandomir; it has ſeveral quarries of marble in it. 2. Schydlowiecz, forty miles north-weſt of Sandomir; there are great quantities of timber, iron and ſteel in its neighbourhood. 3. Viaſden, a new-built town of good trade. 4. Optatow, fifteen miles north-weſt of Sendomi; it has ſeveral famous religious ſtructures. 5. Radom, the capital of its diſtrict, forty-three miles north-weſt of Sandomir. 6. Ilza, a neat town belonging to the biſhop of Cracow, ſeventy miles to the north-eaſt of that town. 7. Solecia, on the Weiſſel, celebrated for its caſtle. 8. Bozentin, near the bottom of the bald mountain; there is plenty of iron in its neighbourhood. 9. Kielcz, ten miles weſt of Bozentin, is famous for mines of copper and lapis lazuli. 10. Chencin, twelve miles eaſt of Kielcz, noted for mines of lead and ſilver, and quarries of marble. 11. Racow, or Racovia, noted for having

been formerly a neſt for the Socinians and Arians, whoſe academy there was ſuppreſſed about the year 1660. 12. Lagovia, famous for making earthen-ware. 13. Corzin is the capital of its diſtrict, and has a caſtle near the river Viſlock. 14. Viſlicza, or Wiſlicz, a city and caſtellany, watered by the Nida, ſtands on a rock, fifty-one miles eaſt of Sandomir; there are many ſerpents and inſects in the adjacent country.

III. Lublin palatinate hath that of Sendomir, to the north-eaſt; Padlactria, to the weſt; and Lithuania, to the eaſt. The whole palatinate, independent of the cottages of the peaſants, contains near two thouſand noblemens and gentlemens ſeats. It is governed by four principal perſons, viz. the palatinate, the caſtellan, and two ſenators. The Weiſſel and Viepers are the chief rivers of this palatinate.

Lublin, in the palatinate of the ſame name, is ſurrounded by a wall and ditch; but though it is not large, it is a place of good trade. It has a caſtle built on a high rock, and ſtands in a very pleaſant and fertile country. It has ſeveral churches and convents, a college of Jeſuits, and a great number of Jews live in the ſuburbs; they have there a very ſpacious ſynagogue. In this city are held three annual fairs, each of which laſts a month, and theſe are frequented by a multitude of German, Greek, Armenian, Ruſſian, Turkiſh, and Arabian traders and merchants. The chief tribunal for Little Poland is held in this city, beſides the provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1240 this city was ſet on fire by the Tartars, after which it continued for a long time in the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſians. It alſo ſuffered much by fire in 1447 and 1606, and in 1656 was reduced to aſhes by the Swedes. It ſuffered the ſame fate from the Ruſſians in 1768.

Among the rocks, near the Weiſſel is the large town of Caſimir, built of timber; it is about twenty-ſix miles diſtant from Lublin. Here are a beautiful palace and extenſive gardens belonging to the archbiſhop of Gneſna. In this town Charles XII. of Sweden cauſed general Patkul to be broke alive upon the wheel. The Weiſſel ſometimes overflows, and lays above half the town under water.

Twenty-eight miles ſouth of Lublin ſtands Urzendow, which is a conſiderable town, built of timber. The town of Lulow, likewiſe built of wood, is about fifty-ſix miles from Lublin, in a plain: it has a conſiderable juriſdiction, and is defended by bogs and paliſadoes.

Lower or Great Poland is bounded, on the north, by Pomerania and Poliſh Pruſſia; on the ſouth, by Little Poland; on the weſt, by Sileſia and Brandenburgh; and, on the eaſt, by Maſſovia. It is near two-hundred miles in length, and about one hundred in breadth. Though called Great Poland, it is rather ſmaller than Little Poland, for it did not receive the appellation of Great from its extent, but from having been firſt ſettled into a kingdom by Lechus the Great, by whom the Poliſh monarchy was originally founded.

This is, in general, a level champain country, has pleaſant rivers, lakes, and ponds, and is well furniſhed with all manner of fiſh and fowl. The moſt conſiderable of its rivers is, the Warta, which paſſes through great part of it. Its hills abound with ſheep, and other cattle; and its vallies with corn.

The firſt ſubdiviſion of this country, we ſhall take notice of, is Poſnania, which is bounded on the weſt by Sileſia and Brandenburgh; on the north, by Pomerania; on the eaſt, by Pomerelia; and on the ſouth, by the palatinate of Kaliſch and Sileſia.

The archbiſhop of Gneſna, the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan, of Poſnania; and ſix other caſtellans are ſectors of this palatinate. There are ſeveral other officers in this palatinate, both civil and military. The ſtaroſtas, or governors of cities, have ſome of them juriſdiction, others none; as it is, likewiſe, all over the kingdom. Some of its towns are walled, but the houſes, in general, are of timber, except the public edifices, which are of ſtone or brick.

Its capital city, of the ſame name, ſtands in a plain, amongſt ſeveral little hills, by the river Varta, or Warta, twenty-eight miles weſt of Gneſna, forty north of Wratiſlaw, forty-three north weſt of Kaliſch, one hundred and thirty-five ſouth of Dantzick, and one hundred and forty-three weſt of Warſaw. It is thought to be inferior to no city of Poland, except Cracow. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Gneſna; and is defended by a good caſtle, a double wall, and a deep ditch. It is famous for its trade, is well-built, and has a cathedral, the biſhop's palace, and an univerſity, in its ſuburbs, which are large, and encompaſſed by a moraſs, and a deep lake, but incommoded, ſometimes, by the overflowing of the river. The Jeſuits have a fine college and monaſtery in the city, in the former of which they have many ſcholars. The inhabitants make as handſome a figure in their houſes and dreſs, as any where in Poland; and their ſtaroſta, or chief magiſtrate, who is choſen annually out of the echevins, or aldermen, is dignified with the title of general of Great Poland. Moſt of them are papiſts, but here are many Jews, who have greater privileges than the citizens. In 1704, the Saxons laid ſiege to it, but were ſoon obliged to raiſe it, by the approach of the Swedes. In 1716, the Swedes attacked the Saxons here, contrary to a ſuſpenſion of arms, and made them priſoners of war in the caſtle. The public buildings are generally of free ſtone, of which the moſt conſiderable is the caſtle, that ſtands on a ſmall eminence, between the rivers Warta and Proſna; but its moſt ſtately edifices are on the other ſide of the Warta, in the ſuburbs. The ſuburb is commonly called Valiſovi, and built ſo ſtrong, that like the town it is able to withſtand a ſiege. There are three very famous fairs kept in this city, much reſorted to by the German traders and gentry. The firſt is kept about the beginning of Lent, and laſts a month; the ſecond and third at Midſummer and Michaelmas, each of which continues five weeks. In St. Magdalen's, which is the principal church of the city, they ſhew the tomb of the duke Mieceſlaus, who introduced chriſtianity into Poland. Here are ſeveral other churches, beſides monaſteries; the ſtreets are ſpacious, and its town-houſe is a large building, of fine architecture.

The other towns of note are, 1. Koſon, about thirty-three miles ſouth weſt of Poſnania. 2. Miedzyzecze, on the frontiers of Sileſia, about ſixty miles ſouth eaſt of Poſnania. 3. Slupeza, on the Warta, about thirty miles ſouth eaſt of Poſnania. 4. Liſſa, thirty-three miles north-weſt of Poſnania; it was plundered and burnt by the Ruſſians in 1707, ſo that of three thouſand houſes, only ſeven were left ſtanding. 5. Frauſtad, on the frontiers of Sileſia, ten miles ſouth weſt of Liſſa; it is remarkable for the victory obtained near it over the Saxons by the Swedes, which proved fatal to king Auguſtus.

IV. The palatinate of Kaliſch, or Kalis, lies along the river Warta, between the palatinate of Poſnania on the weſt, Siradia on the ſouth, Sendomir on the ſouth-eaſt, and Lencicſa and Cujavia on the eaſt and north-eaſt. Its ſenators are five, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of Kaliſch, and the caſtellans of Land, Naklo, and Kamin. It has its name from the city of Kaliſch, mentioned by Ptolemy, on the river Proſna, which falls, a little lower, into the Warta, twenty miles eaſt of Sileſia, and north of Siradia, thirty-ſeven ſouth of Gneſna, a hundred and thirty-three weſt of Warſaw and north-weſt of Cracow. It lies among marſhes, and is fortified only with a brick wall, and low towers. Here are the ruins of a ſtrong caſtle which was deſtroyed by the Teutonick knights. It has a magnificent college of Jeſuits, and ſome religious houſes. It was taken, and ill-treated, by the Swedes, during the wars of the laſt century. The Saxons and Poles defeated the Swedes near this place, in October 1706, juſt as a treaty had been ſigned, whereby king Auguſtus renounced the crown to king Staniſlaus, his electorate of Saxony being then over-run by the Swedes, and no other way left him to relieve it. But the chief city of this palatinate is Gneſna, called Gniſen by the Germans, which is the capital of the Lower Poland, and was formerly the metropolis of the whole kingdom, and ſeat of the king. It ſtands in the middle of the palatinate, in a plain, between hills and lakes, thirty-ſeven miles north of Kaliſch and eaſt of Poſnan, forty-ſix ſouth-weſt of Thorn, ninety-five north of Breſlaw, one hundred and eighteen ſouth of Dantzick, a hundred and twenty-one north-weſt of Warſaw, and a hundred and fifty-five north-weſt of Cracow. It was built, as is generally reported, by king Lechus I. founder of this monarchy, and called Gneſna, from an eagle's neſt found there, which, in the Poliſh language, is called Gneſiad. The kings of Poland were crowned, and the regalia kept here, till 1320, when they were removed to Cracow. It ſuffered very much by a dreadful fire, in 1613, and has been declining ever ſince; ſo that it is now only conſiderable for being the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of all Poland, legate of the Holy See, and, in caſe of the king's death, regent till a new king be choſen, whom, alſo, he claims the right of declaring and crowning. He ſigns himſelf "Legatus natus, & regni Poloniæ primus, & primus princeps." He can reverſe all proceedings in any of the biſhop's courts, and it is death to draw a ſword in his preſence. A golden croſs is carried before him when he goes to the diet, or to the king; and when he

he ſits, his chaplain holds it behind his chair. His marſhal, who is a ſenator, carries a ſtaff before his coach, and ſalutes none with it but the king. He viſits no embaſſadors, though they viſit him. During the interregnum, he may coin money in his own name; the revenues of the crown belonging to him, and he has then the ſame officers with the king; but at all times he has drums beating, and trumpets ſounding, within and without, before he ſits down to table; and he may viſit the king when he pleaſes. The canons muſt all be of noble birth and deſcent.

In the cathedral there is a vaſt treaſure of gold, ſilver, and curious enamelled veſſels, left to it by Sigiſmund III. other kings, and ſome archbiſhops. The tomb of one of the archbiſhops is caſed with ſilver, and the gates are of Corinthian braſs, curiouſly wrought.

III. To the north and ſouth of the Warta is ſituated the palatinate of Siradia, and contains, 1. Siradia, the capital town, which is ſmall, but populous, and has a caſtle to defend it. 2. Wielun, the ſeat of the ſtaroſta, caſtellan, and provincial diet. 3. Petrikow, a tolerable well-built town; and at preſent one of the great tribunals of the kingdom, for determining differences among the nobility, and appeals from inferior courts, aſſembles in this town; as does alſo the ſynod of the clergy, and a provincial court.

IV. Leneicia is ſituated eaſt from Kaliſch and Siradia, and has little Poland, towards the ſouth. It is divided into three diſtricts, and hath five ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of Leneicia, and the other caſtellans.

Leneicia, the principal town of this palatinate, is eighty miles weſt of Warſaw, and a hundred and thirty miles north of Cracow. It is ſurrounded by a brick wall and a ditch, defended by a caſtle, ſituated on a rock; has a great annual fair, and is the ſeat of one of the diets. 2. Piontkum, ſituated on the Warta, is ten miles eaſt from the above-mentioned town.

V. Rava palatinate lies eaſt from that of Leneicia, and hath four ſenators, viz. the caſtellan of Sochaezow, the caſtellan of Goſtinin; the caſtellan of Rava, and the palatine of Rava.

The town of Rava, which is the capital of this palatine, ſtands on a river of the ſame name, upwards of forty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Warſaw. It is ſituated in the midſt of a plain, is built of wood, tolerably populous, and defended by a caſtle, which is at once the depoſitory of ſome of the crown revenues, and a ſtate priſon. The caſtle, which is flanked with four towers, and ſurrounded with a broad ditch full of water, is a large ſtone building. The other towns of leſs note are, 1. Louitz, on the river Rava, about fourteen miles from the above town. It hath a caſtle ſurrounded by the river; is adorned with a ſtately church, and the palace of the archbiſhop of Gneſna. 2. Volhora is a populous town, where is a noble palace belonging to the biſhop of Cujavia.

VI. Brezeſty palatinate lies to the north of Leneicia, is fertile, ſends five members to the diet, and hath its name from a little town ſixty miles to the eaſt of Gneſna. It lies on a cauſeway among marſhes, and is built of brick and wood. Its towns are, 1. Cruſwick, thirty miles weſt of Brezeſty; there is a brick caſtle in the middle of it; and in the ſuburbs ſtands the church of St. Peter, built with free-ſtone, together with a college of twenty-four canons. 2. Radziew is ſituated on a lake, twenty-eight miles north-weſt of Brezeſty; and the houſes in general are built of timber; hence it is ſubject to conflagrations, like many other towns of Poland.

VII. Uladiſlau, in Latin Uladiſlavia, is a palatinate, whoſe capital city, of the ſame name, is built among marſhes, near the Weiſſel, in the midway between Ploczko and Thorn, fourteen miles north-eaſt of Brezeſty, twenty ſouth-eaſt of Thorn, and ſeventy-five north-weſt of Warſaw. It is the ſee of the biſhop of Cujavia and Pomerania, ſuffragan of Gneſna, who always crowns the king, in caſe of the death, indiſpoſition, or obſtinacy, of the primate. The cathedral is an antient Gothick ſtructure, but rich in plate, ornaments, and relicks; and encompaſſed with the houſes of the canons and prebendaries, and a large free-ſchool. The chief ornament of the place is, the biſhop's ſtately palace, built by Matthias Golanciew, who was forty-two years biſhop of this ſee, and founded the church of St. Vital the martyr. The houſes are generally of brick, as alſo the caſtle on the Weiſſel, which is well fortified. Though the adjacent ſoil is marſhy, and ſo ſcarce of fuel, that the inhabitants ſuffer very much for want of it; yet it is fruitful in corn, and ſends great quantities to Dantzick, for exportation.

VIII. The palatinate of Inowlocz, or Inowladiſlaw, extends from the lake of Goplo, and the city of Cruſwick, to the Weiſſel and the confines of Pomerania: it has Pruſſia on the north, the Weiſſel on the eaſt, Kaliſch on the ſouth, and lies north-weſt from Brezeſty. It is divided into theſe territories, and ſends four caſtellans to the diet, beſides the palatine. The chief town of the ſame name, is on the river Norez, thirty-eight miles weſt of Uladiſlaw: it is ſmall, but defended by a ſtrong caſtle. 2. Bydgoſt, is a walled town, noted for a trade in ſalmon: it is ſituated in a plain, on the river Barde, by which goods are brought up to it from the Weiſſel, particularly from Uladiſlaw, from which it is twenty four miles diſtant.

IX. Dobrin, by ſome made a diſtinct palatinate of the province of Maſſovia, and by others a territory belonging to that of Brezeſty, lies on the eaſt of Weiſſel, between Cujavia and Pruſſia; abounds with fruit and fiſh, was formerly the occaſion of many quarrels between the Teutonic knights, Pruſſia, and Poland, and is divided into three diſtricts. Its ſenators are, the three caſtellans of Dobrin, Ripin, and Slouſk.

On a rock near the Weiſſel, over-againſt Uladiſlaw, ſtands the town of Dobrin, built of timber. It had formerly a ſtrong caſtle, which the Teutonic knights demoliſhed.

X. On the weſt ſide of the country is Ploczko, or Ploſkow, by ſome alſo reckoned a palatinate of Maſſovia, from which it lies rather to the eaſt between the Weiſſel and Ducal Pruſſia. It is divided into four diſtricts; and its ſenators are, the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan of Ploſkow.

Its chief town, of the ſame name, ſtands on a high bank of the Weiſſel, from whence there is a proſpect of a pleaſant and fruitful country. It is fifteen miles ſouth of Dobrin, near thirty eaſt of Brezeſty, forty-four ſouth-eaſt of Thorn, forty north-eaſt of Leneicia, and fifty north-weſt of Warſaw. It has been a biſhop's ſee a long time, is very populous, has a good trade by its river, and is defended by a caſtle. It has a cathedral with other churches and monaſteries, well endowed, eſpecially that of the Benedictines, in the ſuburbs; where, among other relics, they keep the head of St. Sigiſmund, given by Sigiſmund III. in a gold ſhrine.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of POLISH PRUSSIA, its Boundaries, Extent, Produce, &c. their Religion, Civil and Political Governments; ſeveral Diviſions of the Country, principal Towns, &c.

POLISH Pruſſia hath been diſtinguiſhed by the appellation, of royal Pruſſia, and has been added to the general province of Great Poland, though it is a very different country, inhabited by a different people, who have their peculiar laws and privileges; and therefore deſerves to be ſeparately conſidered. It is bounded on the north by part of Pomerania and the Baltic ſea; on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Pruſſia; on the ſouth, by Great Poland; and on the weſt, by Great Poland and Pomerania. It is far inferior in extent to the kingdom of Pruſſia, it being only about ſixty miles in length, and fifty-one in its greateſt breadth; but the latter does not exceed eighteen miles in ſome places.

This country is diverſified with mountains, woods, and lakes; but in the ſouth part there is little paſture ground, and conſequently few cattle. The fiſheries are of great advantage to this country, which alſo yields a vaſt quantity of honey and wax.

The woods abound with wild boars, roe-bucks, and wild fowl, and a good deal of lime is alſo burnt in ſome parts of the country.

Here are thoſe remarkable heaths of Skal, Maſura, Nicholait, and the deſart of Iohanniſberg, which is four German miles in breadth, and four in length.

The inhabitants conſiſt partly of Poles, and partly of Germans. The reformation was introduced here early in the ſixteenth century, and in a few years the profeſſors of the Lutheran religion increaſed ſo faſt, that their number in the principal cities and towns far exceeded that of the papiſts, and they had almoſt as great a ſuperiority in the ſmaller towns and villages. But ſucceeding times have introduced conſiderable alterations. The kings of Poland have, indeed, allowed the inhabitants the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion in the cities of Pruſſia; but there are at preſent only a few towns in which the Lutherans have churches, and in other towns they have been compelled

pelled to give them up to the papiſts. Beſides, the proteſtants are continually oppreſſed, and promiſes of preferment and other means are too ſucceſsfully employed, in order to ſeduce the Pruſſian nobility from the Lutheran church to the Romiſh.

As we hinted above, Poliſh Pruſſia is a diſtinct political body or ſtate, that hath nothing in common with Poland, except its having the ſame ſovereign, and being connected with that crown by a perpetual alliance. For when the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of king Caſimir IV. in 1466, it was expreſsly ſtipulated, that the duchy of Pruſſia ſhould have nothing to do with the republic of Poland; but that the king alone ſhould perſonally order and determine all matters relating to the former; and for that purpoſe ſhould come among them, and ſummon general diets. Hence this ſtate enjoys the ſame right as Poland and Lithuania, of voting at the election of a king, who after his coronation is obliged to ſwear, that he will maintain the Pruſſians in their rights and privileges; and when this is done, they pay homage to the new ſovereign in the uſual manner.

With reſpect to matters of a public nature, the king can determine nothing without the concurrence of the ſtates, who are divided into ſpiritual and temporal members, the latter conſiſting of nobles and burghers. Of theſe the ſenate is at preſent compoſed. This council conſiſts, firſt, of the biſhops of Ermland and Culm. The former is the preſident and chief among the nobility, and is not under any ſubordination to the archbiſhop of Gneſna; but holds immediately of the pope. His dioceſe, in which he has the ſupreme authority both in civil and eccleſiaſtical cauſes, is of a very large extent. Its revenues are divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the chapter; but the other two, which are computed at ſixty-four thouſand dollars, are aſſigned for the epiſcopal table.

The dioceſe of the biſhop of Culm is not near ſo extenſive, and conſequently the revenue is much inferior to that of the biſhop of Ermeland. The biſhop of Culm is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Ermeland. The biſhop of Gneſna, and the king abſolutely diſpoſe of that biſhopric without calling a chapter. The other members of the council are three palatines, who are of equal dignity with thoſe of Poland; three caſtellans, who are not inveſted with any particular office or employment, but on a general ſummons of the nobility may be looked upon as the lieutenants of the palatinates; three vice-treaſurers, who have only a bare title; but as they are counſellors of ſtate, they take place of the reſt of the nobility; two counſellors from each of the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing; and each of theſe repreſentatives has a vote in the ſenate.

According to the laws of the country, theſe ſtate counſellors ought to be native Pruſſians; but this is ſeldom the caſe. They are nominated by the king of Poland, and take a particular oath at their admiſſion. The biſhop of Ermeland ſits as preſident in the Pruſſian diet; but, in his abſence, his place is ſupplied by the principal perſons among the nobility who are preſent. Theſe members are ſtyled the two ſtates of the duchy of Pruſſia, and royal counſellors: they may likewiſe be termed the ſuperior ſtates, to diſtinguiſh them from the inferior, compoſed of the lower nobility, and the deputies of the ſmall towns. King Caſimir IV. engaged for himſelf and ſucceſſors, not to determine any affair of conſequence without the previous concurrence of the ſtates of Pruſſia. Hence ſprung the origin of the Pruſſian diets, which before had no connection with thoſe of Poland. But in 1569, part of the ſenate or council of Pruſſia was united with the ſenate of Poland, and the ſtates of the former were compelled to appear at the general diet of the kingdom. The political conſtitution of Pruſſia has been much changed from that time; but it ſtill enjoys particular rights and privileges, and is not entirely interwoven with that of Poland.

After the general Pruſſian diet is ſummoned (which is alternately held at Marienburgh and Graudenz,) the king ſpecifies the time of holding the leſſer diets, where the repreſentatives of the former are choſen, and receive their inſtructions. Theſe provincial diets are held in every palatinate, and the happy concluſion of them indicates the proſperous iſſue of the general diet; for if only one of theſe aſſemblies riſes abruptly, the general diet is ſeldom expected to aſſemble. The numbers of repreſentatives for every palatinate is not fixed, but they have lately been more numerous than heretofore. During the ſeſſion of the diet, their expences are defrayed; and the inſtructions given to the members are in the Poliſh tongue.

Beſides their own general diet, the Pruſſians aſſiſt at that of Poland: though they do not agree to the taxes impoſed on them in the Poliſh diet, but only in their own general one. Formerly the Pruſſians had their own coin, which is now reduced to the ſtandard of the Poliſh money. But the three principal cities of Pruſſia have ſtill the privilege of coining gold and ſilver pieces, impreſſed with the king's head on one ſide, and their reſpective arms on the reverſe; which paſs as the current money of Pruſſia, after receiving the royal ſanction. Here are ſeveral other public officers, beſides the counſellors of ſtate, ſuch as the treaſurer, who is the principal, and the only one who has an annual ſalary; the ſword-bearer, who has only the bare title; the ſtandard-bearer, who bears the ſtandard of the province, when all the nobility take the field; and ſeven judges, with their attendants and clerks.

The towns of Pruſſia are compriſed in the three celebrated ones of Dantzick, Thorn, and Elbing, and twenty-ſeven royal towns, beſides thoſe that belong to the biſhop of Ermeland and Culm. An aſſociation was formed among the ſmall towns, under the government of the knights of the Teutonic order. By this union, which ſtill continues, they are to act jointly in behalf of their common privileges; to conſult their intereſt as a community in their particular aſſemblies; and to recommend their common concerns, in the general diet of Pruſſia, to the repreſentatives of the great cities. Marienburgh, which is the moſt conſiderable among theſe towns, has the directory, and this with Graudenz, Dirſhau, Stargard, and Konitz, are called the plenipotentiary towns; for, beſides their own affairs, theſe are charged with thoſe of all the other towns, which they lay before the directory, and the latter repreſent them to the deputies of the great cities. Theſe ſmall towns are at preſent far from being in a flouriſhing condition. An appeal lies from the ſentences of their magiſtrates to the ſtaroſtas, and alſo to the king from the latter.

There are four provinces or palatinates of Poliſh Pruſſia. That of Pomerelia, or Little Pomerania, was antiently a part of the duchy of Pomerania; but at laſt fell under the dominion of Poland. This palatinate contains five circles, and has four provincial judges. The moſt remarkable places in it are the following, viz.

The celebrated and commercial city and fortreſs of Dantzick, called by the Poles Gdantzk, ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltick, in fifty three degrees, thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in eighteen degrees thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude. The ſmall rivers called the Radaune and the Motlau run through the city; the latter divided into two channels, which run between the Old and New Town, and afterwards unite again below the city, and, with the Radaune, fall into the Viſtula.

This is a large, beautiful, and populous city, built after the antient manner of the Hanſe-towns. The houſes are generally five ſtories high, which make the ſtreets appear the narrower, eſpecially as the entrance into the houſes is by four or five ſtone ſteps, and a balcony, which make a projection of ten or twelve feet. Theſe houſes are kept clean after the manner of the Dutch, though with leſs nicety. Many of the ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees about thirty feet high, which afford an agreeable ſhelter from the heat of the ſun.

There is a beautiful harbour belonging to this city; and the inhabitants who are remarkably civil and obliging to ſtrangers, carry on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially in corn. The ſhips belonging to this port are very numerous, and the privileges of this city are very valuable. As it is one of the three great cities, it ſends repreſentatives to the Pruſſian ſenate or council of ſtate, who have likewiſe a ſeat in the general diet of Poland, and vote at the election of a king. The Dantzickers have alſo the privilege of gathering amber, coining money, &c.

Here are twelve Lutheran churches, excluſive of thoſe in the houſe of correction and in the alms-houſes, two Calviniſtical churches, one popiſh church, and a college of Jeſuits. The cathedral, which is a large Lutheran church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is the moſt magnificent, and the principal church in Dantzick. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that this is an antient ſtructure that has not been much changed by the eſtabliſhment of the proteſtant religion in this city: for it was agreed by treaties to have the crucifixes, images, and pictures, as in the times of popery. They ſhew a very curious painting on wood, of the reſurrection, by Van Eyck. There is a Lutheran academy in the Grey Friars convent, in which are ſeven profeſſors, and one teacher of the Poliſh language. In this convent is alſo

alſo the city library. The other public buildings are the exchange, the council houſes in the Old and New Town, the public weigh-houſe, the arſenal, which contains a good collection of arms, but many of them are old and uſeleſs; they have a hundred and fifty large braſs cannon, ſome of which are ſaid to weigh fifteen thouſand pounds. They have alſo a fine mill erected on the river Radaune, which has eighteen wheels, is the largeſt in all the city, and is ſaid to have produced to the proprietors a ducat every hour.

Dantzick was anciently the principal of the Hanſe-towns, and the firſt that entered into the Hanſeatic aſſociation. The German is almoſt the only language ſpoken here, the inhabitants being little uſed to the Poliſh. The city has its own garriſon; and the fortifications make a good appearance, eſpecially towards the ſouth and weſt; thoſe parts of the town being ſurrounded with eminences, ſome of which riſe higher than the towers of the city itſelf.

In the year 1752, one thouſand two hundred and eighty-eight Poliſh veſſels, ſmall and great, from the Viſtula, and one thouſand and fourteen ſhips from the ſea, arrived in this port, and fifty-eight thouſand and ſixty buſhels of corn were brought into this city for exportation. Indeed the moſt conſiderable branch of the trade of Dantzick is that of corn, which is brought by the Polanders in large barks of about fifty tons burden down the Viſtula. In plentiful years theſe barks annually amount to about ſixteen hundred. As theſe cargoes are often expoſed to the weather, it is cuſtomary to ſpread their ſails on the banks of the river, and to dry their corn upon them. They alſo export bees wax to the annual amount of near a thouſand ſchippounds; beſides narrow linens, ſacking, pot-aſh, pearl-aſh, pipe-ſtaves, oak-plank, &c.

We learn from antient records, that Dantzick was a large commercial city ſo early as the year 997. The New Town was founded by the Teutonick knights in the year 1311, and was firſt encompaſſed with a wall and moat in 1343. Dantzick ſhook off the yoke of thoſe knights in 1454, and the inhabitants, upon certain conditions, ſubmitted to Caſimir, king of Poland, who, among other privileges, granted them the right of coining their own money. Afterwards they refuſed to do homage to Stephen, king of Poland, without the previous confirmation of their rights and privileges; upon which the city was put under the ban, and beſieged by that prince; but the affair was accommodated, and on their publicly acknowledging their error, and paying a large fine, the king received them into favour, confirmed their privileges, and granted them the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion. In 1734, Staniſlaus, king of Poland, took refuge here, which occaſioned a hot ſiege and bombardment from the Ruſſians and Saxons; but Staniſlaus making his eſcape, Auguſtus III. was acknowledged as rightful ſovereign, by the Dantzickers.

The king of Pruſſia exempted this city, as well as that of Thorn, from thoſe claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, his Pruſſian majeſty ſeized on the territories belonging to Dantzick, under the pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid inſupportable arbitrary duties upon goods exported or imported. Although the Engliſh merchants had in right of treaties ſeveral immunities at Dantzick, theſe could not protect them from the rapacity and extortion of this monarch, who laid ſuch heavy taxes on the principal articles of commerce, as amounted nearly to a prohibition of them; and likewiſe eſtabliſhed companies to whom he granted an excluſive right of trading in certain articles. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, no perſon could go in or out of the town, not excepting the ladies, without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner.

Hiſtory will hardly furniſh a more ſtriking inſtance of the futility, if not of the abſurdity of treaties, ſo far as they are conſidered as guarantees or acts of ſecurity, than the fate of Dantzick. Few cities ever exiſted, and it is probable that none do at preſent, that have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, whoſe rites and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guaranteed by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzick has been. Nor have the commercial powers of Europe ſo often armed in the defence or ſupport of any other. The city is in the dioceſe of Cujavia, and the inhabitants pay the Popiſh biſhop all the regard conſiſtent with the difference of their religion, and the privileges and immunities of the city.

Without the walls of Dantzick lie the following places within its juriſdiction, viz. 1. The Dantziger, Werder, or Iſland, which is ſurrounded by the Viſtula, the Motlau, and the moraſſes cauſed by theſe rivers, and contains about fourteen hundred hides of lands, and about thirty-three villages. 2. The Friſche Nehrung; which is a long narrow ſlip of land, extending between the ſea and the harbour. It contains five villages that have churches; but the moſt remarkable place on this iſland is a fort called Munde, which is very ſtrong, and has a church and a commodious harbour. And, 3. about a German mile from Dantzick is Oliva; a celebrated convent, that has been frequently conſumed by fire. It is at preſent inhabited by about fifty Ciſtercian monks. Near the entrance of the church is a marble table in the wall, in commemoration of the treaty of Oliva concluded in this monaſtery between the Poles and Swedes in 1660. The diſpenſary belonging the convent is elegant and well contrived. This monaſtery has the privilege of gathering amber on the ſea coaſt. Round this ſtructure a pretty village has been gradually built. There are in the diſtrict belonging to Dantzick, ſeveral other ſmall towns.

The province of Culmerland, or the palatinate of Culm, has a palatine, who is the firſt of thoſe belonging to Pruſſia, a caſtellan, a vice-treaſurer, a ſword-bearer, a judge, and eight ſtaroſties.

The principal places in this palatinate are, 1. Culm, or Chelmno, the capital of the province, which ſtands on an eminence on the banks of the Viſtula, in fifty-three degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude. This city was founded in 1239, and bequeathed by one of the dukes of Maſſovia to the knights of the Teutonic order. The inhabitants afterwards withdrew themſelves from their obedience, and ſubmitted to Poland. While the Teutonic knights had the ſovereignty of Culm, the high tribunal of Pruſſia was held in this city, and the Culmean law became in ſuch reputation, that there were few places in Pruſſia or Maſſovia, where it was not received. The city is at preſent ſubject to the biſhop. The biſhopric of Culm is the moſt antient ſee in Poliſh Pruſſia, and the college or chapter conſiſts of only four canons, who are choſen by the biſhop, and the reſt of the chapter. Culm is a large city, though but thinly inhabited, and was formerly one of the Hanſe towns.

2. Thorn, the chief of the three great cities of Poliſh Pruſſia, ſtands on the Viſtula, ſeventy-two miles ſouth of Dantzick, in fifty-two degrees forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. This city was founded by Herman Balck, firſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order, who, in 1231, built the caſtle of Thorn, and in the following year laid the foundation of the town; but in 1235, the building of it was diſcontinued on account of its inconvenient ſituation, and the city was built about four miles and a half up the river, where it now ſtands. It is ſuppoſed to have been called Thorn, becauſe the knights, by building it, open to themſelves a thor, or door, into Ruſſia. Thus the ſeal of the city repreſents a gate thrown open. Thorn ſoon after its being built became diſtinguiſhed above the other towns of Pruſſia by its enjoying ſeveral valuable privileges; but when the Teutonic knights made a very ill uſe of their power throughout all Pruſſia, this city was the firſt that formed the noble ſcheme of ſhaking off their oppreſſive yoke.

The inhabitants having concerted an agreement with the other towns in the year 1454, made themſelves maſters of the caſtle, and demoliſhed it; and having expelled the Teutonic knights by force of arms, the confederates put themſelves under the protection of Caſimir the Great, king of Poland; but their rights, privileges, and immunities were to remain entire. They were to honour his Poliſh majeſty as their ſovereign; but without any further connection with Poland than a cloſe harmony and alliance, by which they engaged to have the ſame allies and enemies on all occaſions, and reciprocally to promote each other's welfare and proſperity.

Three cities had the following privileges granted them in common: they were declared free, and were to be governed by their own magiſtrates, conſiſting of the council, the chief perſons of which are the burgrave and preſident, the judges, and the repreſentatives of the burghers. The members of the council were to be ſtiled noble; they were allowed to hold a ſupreme court of judicature, and in criminal caſes to puniſh capitally even thoſe who were not inhabitants of the city, if they were taken in the fact; to have their own garriſon; to coin money, and to have

have their law-ſuits decided only in Pruſſia. They were to pay no other cuſtoms in Poland but thoſe uſually demanded at the firſt barrier on the frontiers. Laſtly, they were to be members of the ſtate-council of Poliſh Pruſſia, and to have a ſeat and vote in the Poliſh diet, and at the election of a king. The third jubilee of this event was commemorated with great rejoicings in the ſchools of all the three great cities in February, when medals were ſtruck on the occaſion in the cities of Thorn and Dantzick.

The records of Poliſh Pruſſia are kept in the city of Thorn, which has ten gates, and is divided into the Old and New town, each of which had formerly its reſpective council, magiſtracy, and police; but in 1453, they were incorporated into one city. They are, however, ſeparated by a wall and moat within the town, but on the outſide are defended in common by a double wall and moats. This is eſteemed the handſomeſt city in Poliſh Pruſſia, its ſtreets being broad and regular, and for the moſt part planted with rows of trees: the houſes are alſo remarkable for their elegant appearance and cleanlineſs.

The wooden bridge over the Viſtula in this city may be juſtly eſteemed the longeſt, the moſt extraordinary and expenſive bridge in Europe, the city being obliged to expend great ſums in keeping it in repair. It properly conſiſts of two bridges, the iſland of Bazar dividing it in the middle. That part of it next to Thorn is called the German bridge, and the channel over which it lies is eſteemed the German Viſtula; but the other part is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Poliſh bridge, it lying over the channel called the Poliſh Viſtula. As the river runs conſiderably wider, the bridge muſt neceſſarily be lengthened, ſo that at preſent it takes up half an hour to walk over it from one bank of the river to the other. It is alſo the moſt ſingular on account of the quickſand into which the piles are driven, which occaſions the whole bridge to ſhake and totter whenever any carriage or horſes are upon it, or even when it is paſſed by a conſiderable number of foot-paſſengers: a ſtranger who is unacquainted with its conſtruction, apprehends himſelf in great danger in paſſing over it. The ice on the Viſtula, which is frequently two or three feet thick, and the rapidity of the current, carry away every year one-third of it. Hence ſome idea may be formed of the vaſt expence the annual repairs amount to; for the Poles pay no part of that, notwithſtanding the heavy loads they bring over it.

The reformation was very early embraced by the inhabitants of this city, which has its own garriſon, conſiſting of only one company. This city found as little ſecurity from the king of Pruſſia's declaration in 1772, as that of Dantzick. Its territories and revenues were ſeized upon, cuſtom and exciſe-offices erected at their gates, and heavy exactions demanded even upon the neceſſaries of life. Thus blockaded and plundered, they were declared free; but at the ſame time were ſummoned to do homage to the king of Pruſſia for all the lands they poſſeſſed without the walls. In theſe circumſtances, with force and famine to encounter, the magiſtrates and citizens behaved with wonderful reſolution and firmneſs. They returned for anſwer, that they had already paid homage and ſworn allegiance to one ſovereign; and that they could neither renounce their allegiance, nor break their oaths, upon any account or conſideration whatſoever; in which laudable reſolution they have ſtill perſevered.

3. The town of Graudentz, formerly called Grodee, and in the Poliſh language Graudzianz, makes a handſome appearance, being pleaſantly ſituated on an iſland formed by the river Oſſa, which here flows through the two channels into the Viſtula. The Pruſſian diet is held alternately in this town and at Marienburg.

The præfecture of Marienburg comes next under our conſideration. Here is a palatine, a vice-treaſurer, and a provincial judge. This palatinate contains three warders. A warder is a fen or moraſs, ſurrounded with water, and improved for tillage and habitation. They produce plenty of graſs and corn, but have ſeldom either woods or hills. That called the wood of Elbing is the moſt conſiderable in this diſtrict. In many parts the fuel is turf, ſtraw, and ſtubble; and even where there are woods, they afford very little game, except hares, woodcocks, and other wild fowl, but harbour very fierce wolves. The freſh water in theſe warders is very good; the air is tolerably healthful; a great number of cattle are bred here, and the horſes are much eſteemed.

The inhabitants of the warders have from time immemorial been free peaſants, and are ſtiled the royal vaſſals and wanderers. Thoſe, however, who are ſubject to the juriſdiction of the cities, are under greater reſtrictions than the royal peaſants who live in the Marienburg warders. They ſpeak the German and Poliſh languages, and are for the moſt part Lutherans or Papiſts: here are alſo a conſiderable number of Mennonites (a ſort of baptiſts), and ſome Calviniſts.

Marienburg and Elbing are the principal places in this præfecture. The former of theſe is a well-built town, in fifty-four degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude. It ſtands on an eminence near the river Nogat, in a pleaſant and fertile country.

The city of Elbing was built in 1239: it ſtands on a river of the ſame name, in fifty-four degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It is a handſome large city, fortified after the antient manner, and carries on a conſiderable trade. Between the Old town and the ſuburbs, where the ſtorehouſes of the merchants are erected, runs the river Elbing; and the Old town is divided from the New by a wall and moat. The houſes are high, narrow in front, and built in the old taſte, much like thoſe at Dantzick. The ſtreets are very narrow, occaſioned by the balconies that project into them, and before them are receptacles for all the filth and dirt thrown out of the houſes.

Elbing is one of the Hanſe-towns; and as it is inhabited by a colony from Lubeck, it is governed by the laws of that city; but the burghers have their particular rights and privileges. Here are ten churches, in which divine ſervice is performed. That of St. Nicholas, which is the largeſt and handſomeſt church in Pruſſia, was given up to the Papiſts in 1616. The caſtle, which was built in 1237, was demoliſhed by the burghers in 1454. The fortifications towards the Warder are very ſlight, but on the oppoſite ſide they are in a much better condition; yet it is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Poliſh Pruſſia. Some companies of the crown-army of Poland are cantoned in this town; but the burghers keep guard at the gates, and there is a Pruſſian garriſon in the ſuburbs.

With reſpect to eccleſiaſtical matters, this city is under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Ermeland, as far as is conſiſtent with the difference of religion, and without prejudice to the rights and privileges of the city; but in civil affairs it is only ſubject to the king.

In 1703, Elbing fell into the poſſeſſion of the Swedes, who laid it under contribution; but the Ruſſians took it from them by ſtorm. It was formerly mortgaged to the elector of Brandenburg, as a ſecurity for the payment of four hundred thouſand rix-dollars; but as the elector did not receive the ſum ſtipulated, the king of Pruſſia, in virtue of the above agreement, took poſſeſſion of the diſtrict belonging to the city.

The province of Ermeland is entirely ſurrounded by the kingdom of Pruſſia. This province belongs to no palatinate, but is entirely ſubject to the biſhop and chapter; ſo that neither the nobility nor the other inhabitants of Ermeland can appeal to any other judicature. Two thirds of this province belong to the biſhop, and the remaining third part to the chapter. Their ſubjects have free recourſe to the ſame courts of judicature as the reſt of the Pruſſians; but they have ſome particular laws to themſelves. They have alſo a provincial diet, to which the nobility, burghers, country judges, and alſo the freemen, are ſummoned. Though the Ermelanders do not aſſiſt at the Pruſſian diets, the biſhop is always preſent, and propoſes whatever is debated concerning his dioceſe, particularly in relation to the taxes, according as they have been agreed upon in a provincial meeting held for that purpoſe, where the Ermelanders generally concur in opinion with the Pruſſian ſtates, and their own biſhop.

The following are the moſt conſiderable places in Ermeland, viz. 1. Braunſberg, a pretty large trading town, ſituated on the Paſſarge, at a ſmall diſtance from its mouth, in fifty-four degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and twenty degrees five minutes eaſt longitude. It was built in 1255, and received its name from Bruno, biſhop of Prague. It is divided into the Old and New town, and is very populous. The celebrated college of the Jeſuits in this town was formerly a Franciſcan convent. Here is alſo a convent for nuns. The cathedral has ſixteen prebends: it is now under the juriſdiction of the biſhop.

In the beautiful town of Heilſburg, on the Alle, ſtands an elegant ſeat belonging to the biſhop of Ermeland. There is a college of Jeſuits in the town. It is ſaid to have been built in 1244, and was deſtroyed by fire in 1551. Charles II. king of Sweden, had his head-quarters here in 1703.

Keſſel is an elegant little town with a caſtle, has a college

of jeſuits, to which the church of the Holy Linden-tree in Brandenburg Pruſſia belongs. This town carries on a good trade, and is well ſupplied with proviſions.

Beſides the above-mentioned, here is 1. the ſmall town of Putzig, with a ſtrong caſtle. 2. Dirſchon, a ſmall but ſtrong town on the Viſtula, where a provincial court of judicature is held. 3. Schoeneck, with a caſtle, on the river Ters. 4. Stargard, a ſmall town on the ſame. 5. Meve, a town with a caſtle at the confluence of the Ters and Viſtula. 6. Munde, or Weiſſelmunde, a ſtrong fortreſs at the mouth of that branch of the Weiſſel which runs by Dantzick, and can hinder the entrance of ſhips. 6. Pantſko, on a gulf of the ſame name, eighteen miles north-weſt of Dantzick.

SECT. III.

Deſcribing the ſeveral Countries, Provinces, and Duchies of LITHUANIA, SAMOGITIA, COURLAND, WARSOVIA, PALACHIA, POLERIA, RED RUSSIA, PODOLIA, VOLHINIA, and UKRANIA, with an Account of their Situation, Produce, Inhabitants, Towns, Commerce, Manufactures, Religion, &c.

LITHUANIA, called Letwa by the natives, is a very extenſive country, and was united to Poland in 1501. It has Red Ruſſia, Volhinia, and Podolia, on the ſouth; Great Poland, on the weſt; the Baltick, on the north; and Ruſſia, on the eaſt. It is in length about three hundred and ſixty miles, and three hundred and forty in breadth, where wideſt; was formerly almoſt covered with woods, and ſtill contains a great many conſiderable foreſts. It abounds in honey, wax, timber, pitch, tar, buffaloes, wild horſes, wild aſſes, boars, elks, uris, woodcocks, pheaſants, &c.

Great numbers of fiſh are produced in the numerous lakes; but their many lakes and foreſts occaſion the air to be thick and foggy. Here are many flocks and herds; and buckwheat, as well as other grain, is pretty plentiful, ſo that proviſions are cheap, though agriculture is greatly neglected; but money is extremely ſcarce.

The Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion; but Lutherans, Calviniſts, Jews, Turks, Greeks, Socinians, &c. are tolerated. The nobility affect great pomp and dignity, and are exceeding fond of retaining a numerous train of domeſtics and attendants.

This country was governed by its own duke till it was united to Poland by the marriage of the great duke Jagello to Hedwig, the dowager of Lewis king of Poland and Hungary; but each country ſtill retained its own laws, cuſtoms, privileges, dialect, &c. In a diet held at Lublin, in the year 1659, it was more firmly compacted with Poland than before, and a decree was made, that both countries ſhould be under the ſame prince, and form but one ſtate.

With reſpect to their courts of juſtice, the tenth part of what is adjudged in all real actions goes to the judge's bar, and is immediately paid into court. The judge claims half the damages given in perſonal actions, and a Lithuanian nobleman is permitted to compound for murder by paying a fee. Thoſe who are condemned to death, muſt either execute themſelves, or be executed with the moſt excruciating torments.

The common people, the Germans and burghers, in the royal towns excepted, are ſlaves; and ſo exceedingly illiterate, that ſome of them even retain many of their antient idolatrous ſuperſtitions. The poor have only Monday to themſelves, and ſometimes their lords even deprive them of that.

They generally ſpeak the Sclavonic, which is the language uſed in all their courts of judicature; thoſe of Pruſſia and Livonia have the jargon of both their languages.

They have a great mixture of Poliſh, and alſo of the Latin, which laſt is as common here as in Poland, and ſpoke by people of all ranks, inſomuch that Michalon, one of the authors, makes no doubt of their being deſcended from the old Romans; and the rather, becauſe the Lithuanians had, not long ſince, the ſame cuſtoms and ſuperſtitions; as burning the dead, divining by augurs, and the like.

They commonly eat a coarſe black ſort of bread, made of rye, the ſooty wheat unwinnowed, and barley-ears, all ground together. They have fiſh, fleſh, and fowl; and what cattle or poultry they think they ſhall not be able to keep in the winter, they uſually kill in Autumn, and preſerve with ſalt. Being for the moſt part good markſmen, they maintain their families by it, in a great meaſure. In every houſe in the country they have four or five handmills to grind their corn.

They have alſo a ſort of very long wooden trumpet, which when they ſound, ſo deafens bye-ſtanders, that they do not recover their hearing for a good while.

Country people have a ſort of waggons or carts, all of wood, and made very light, by raddling or interweaving boughs with one another; and their coverings are commonly the ſame, not much unlike the colliers or lime-burners carts in England. The wheels are of one flat and entire piece of wood; and as the axletrees are never greaſed, a number of them together make an intolerable ſqueaking noiſe.

They build their houſes round, and therefore call them towers. They are narrow, and open at top, to let out the ſmoak and ſtench; and they are generally covered with boards, ſtraw, or bark of trees. In theſe the people and their cattle live together, by which both often receive hurt.

The men, in the winter, beſides other buſineſs, ſtuff beds with chopt feathers and ſtalks that grow in the marſhes; and part of the women's buſineſs within-doors is, to weave coarſe cloth. Huſbandry is followed here without-doors as in other countries. For fear of the incurſions of the Tartars, the Lithuanians ſecure all their corn, ſtraw, ſalt meat, and, in ſhort, all their proviſions, in caves, which they dig in the foreſts, and hide the entrance with the bark and branches of trees

Vilna is the firſt palatinate of Lithuania: it comprehends three large diſtricts, and is divided into two equal parts by the river Wilia, which afterwards paſſes through Samogitia and Pruſſia, by the name of Ruſſe, into the Baltic, and has only three ſenators, viz. the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan of Vilna. The name is derived from the capital, not only of this palatinate, but of Lithuania, namely,

Vilna, Vilda, or Wilna, which the inhabitants call Vilenſki, and the Germans Wilde. It ſtands at the conflux of the Vilia and Wiln, ſeventy Engliſh miles north-eaſt from Grodno, one hundred and fifty-two eaſt from Koningſberg, and one hundred ſouth from Mittaw, one hundred and thirty-one ſouth from Riga, two hundred and ſeventeen north-eaſt from Warſaw, two hundred and thirty-five eaſt from Dantzick, one hundred and thirty Poliſh miles north-eaſt from Cracow, and one hundred eaſt from Smolenſko. It was founded in 1305. It has a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy. Their houſes are ſo ſmoaky, and the inhabitants who are ſlaves to their noblemen and their bellies, eat ſo much garlic and onions, that half of them are blind before they grow old. They are much given to quarrels, and, if they murder a foreigner, pay only ſixteen dollars. The ſtreets are badly paved, dirty, and ſwarm with beggars; for here is no hoſpital. Moſt of the houſes are low and mean, and built of wood, except thoſe of ſome foreign merchants; the great duke's palace, the cathedral and churches, are all built of ſtone; as are alſo, the Bernardine monaſtery, the univerſity, and the Moſcovite company's warehouſes, where they keep their ermines, ſables, &c.

This being the moſt conſiderable ſtaple for trade, is the ſeat of the chief court of judicature for Lithuania, who meet yearly at this place and at Minſk, by turns. All the inhabitants, except the members of the tribunal are under the juriſdiction of the palatine, who is governor of the city. Here are a ruinous old caſtle upon a hill, and another much more beautiful one of a modern ſtructure at the lower part of the town; and in the duke's palace there is a well-furniſhed arſenal, or armoury. and a good library. The cathedral, dedicated to St, Staniſlaus, ſtands in the lower caſtle: it has a large ſilver tomb of St. Caſimir, who was canonized by Pope Leo X. Its revenues are conſiderable; and though the archbiſhop is a Roman catholic, he challenges juriſdiction over all the biſhops of Poliſh Ruſſia who are of the Greek religion; which is, however, diſputed by the biſhop of Kiow, who ſtiles himſelf metropolitan of Ruſſia. Here is a great bell, which requires twenty-four men to ring it, which was given by king Sigiſmund III. who alſo gave the ſilver tomb, and an altar of the ſame metal. The Jeſuits college here was founded in 1579, by king Stephen, with profeſſors of divinity, law, philoſophy, the Hebrew language, and philology; and honoured with the title of an univerſity by pope Gregory XIII.

The town is inhabited by Poles, Ruſſians, Germans, Tartars, and other nations; as well as by the Lithua-

nians. The ſuburbs are as big as the town, and full of the like timber cottages, which have not partitions, but conſiſt only of one room, common to the family and their cattle. Both the caſtles are built of bricks, and flanked with towers. The fortifications are but indifferent, and its gates are only ſhut in time of war. The proteſtants had a church and college here formerly, but were deprived of both by a decree of the diet of Poland, which, nevertheleſs, left the Greeks in poſſeſſion of their monaſteries, churches, and the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Tartars, who live along the banks of the river Vaca, which does not run far from Vilna, have waggons for the ſervice of travellers. They live according to their own laws, without giving cauſe of complaint, and own the king of Poland for their ſovereign. Great numbers of them reſide in the villages of a valley three miles from hence in the way to Koningſberg. Foreign merchants ſeldom come hither but in the winter, when the marſhes are frozen, and they can bring their goods on ſledges over the ſame. There was ſo great a famine in theſe parts, in 1571, that in Vilna alone there died of it no leſs than twenty-five thouſand; here was a great tumult in 1581, on account of the biſhop's zeal in burning the books of the Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Ruſſians: in 1610, the Ruſſians, to be revenged for the miſchief done by the Poles at Smolenſko, took this place, and ſet fire to it, by which four thouſand ſeven hundred houſes were reduced to aſhes, together with ſeven catholic and three other churches: ſo that the queen of Poland had but juſt time to eſcape, with her attendants, in boats; of which ſome, nevertheleſs, were drowned. In 1644, the ſcholars raiſed a great tumult, which could not be appeaſed till major Oginſki came with four hundred ſoldiers, of whom ſeveral were killed in the ſkirmiſh, together with the major himſelf.

Eighty miles north-eaſt from Vilna, and eighty-eight ſouth-eaſt from Riga, is the town of Braſlaw; and the town of Wilkomitz is ſituated on the river Swiera.

The province of Troki has Novogrodoc to the ſouth, Samogitia to the north, Vilna to the eaſt, and the kingdom of Pruſſia to the weſt. It is divided into four diſtricts; but the palatine and the caſtellan of the city, which gives name to it, are the only two ſenators.

The town of Troki, which gives name to the palatinate, is large, and built of wood, and ſituated among lakes, marſhes, &c. It has two caſtles, and was formerly the reſidence of the dukes of Lithuania. Here are alſo the towns of Birze, Kowno or Conno, Calvarie, and Merocz.

The town of Grodno is large and handſome, and, next to Wilna, the beſt in Lithuania: it is ſituated in fifty-three degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, and in twenty-three degrees, fifty-two minutes, eaſt longitude. It ſtands on the river Niemen, partly on an eminence, and partly on a level, and is encompaſſed with hills. The old caſtle, which is ſurrounded with a deep moat, is fallen to decay, ſo that no more than one wing of it is inhabited. The new palace is a large, regular, and beautiful ſtructure, conſiſting of two ſtories; the great hall, that for the ſenate, and the chapel, are its fineſt apartments; and in the court ſtands the chancery or ſtate-office, which is an elegant ſtructure.

In this city are nine Popiſh and two Greek churches, and alſo a ſynagogue for the Jews, which is built of ſtone. The Jeſuits college has a ſplendid church, and that belonging to the Carmelite nuns is likewiſe very magnificent. The palace of prince Radzivil is a very large ſtructure, and that of the Sapichan family is a ſuperb edifice: both of them ſtand in the market-place, which, together with the caſtle-ſtreet, and the area before the palace, are clean and well-paved; but the other ſtreets are generally dirty. In 1673, it was enacted that, for the future, every third general diet ſhould be held here; and during the ſeſſion, the concourſe of people has been ſo great, that four apartments, with the ſtables adjoining to them have been let for two hundred and ſixty ducats a month. Here are alſo held a provincial diet and a court of judicature.

The province of Poleria, in Lithuanian Ruſſia, contains ſeveral large moraſſes, that reſemble ſo many extenſive lakes.

The principal towns in this palatinate are, 1. Brzeſk, which is a ſtrong, but not a very large town, ſituated on the river Bug, and a caſtle built on a rock, near which is a royal palace with a fine garden. In this town is a famous ſynagogue, to which the Jews reſort from all the countries of Europe, both on account of ſtudy, and preferment among their own people. A provincial diet is held here, and a Greek biſhop reſides in this town. 2. Pinſk, where a provincial diet is alſo held, is a large, handſome, trading town, on the river Pina, ſituated in the midſt of extenſive moraſſes, and inhabited not only by the Jews, who have a ſchool here, but alſo by people of many other religions, eſpecially by the Greeks, who have a biſhop here. The leather dreſſed in this town, after the Ruſſian manner, is eſteemed the beſt in the whole kingdom.

Black Ruſſia is alſo comprized in Lithuanian Ruſſia. This province is called, by the Poles, Rus Czarna, which includes the palatinate of Novogrodec and contains four diſtricts, the principal place of which is, Novogrodec, a town ſituated on a hill, in which are ſeveral popiſh and Ruſſian convents, with a college of Jeſuits. It has a provincial diet, and an inferior court of judicature: an high tribunal, after the model of that of Wilna, which continues ſitting five months in the year, is held alternately here and at Minſk.

There are four palatinates in White Ruſſia, called, by the Poles, Rus Biala, the moſt conſiderable places in which are, 1. Minſk, which is ſeated on the river Swiſloez, in the palatinate of Minſk, and has two caſtles. This town was taken by the Ruſſians in 1656. A provincial diet is held here, beſides a high tribunal once in two years. 2. Mohilow, in the palatinate of Miſciſlaw, is a handſome commercial town on the river Nieper, and the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade with the Ruſſians. In 1654, Mohilow was taken by the Ruſſians; and though it was inveſted by the Poles in 1660, they were obliged to raiſe the ſiege. It was, however, taken from the Ruſſians in 1662 by the inhabitants, who ſent off part of the garriſon by ſtratagem, and then made the reſt priſoners of war. 3. Poloc, a fortified town on the river Dawina, and in the palatinate of Poloc. It has two ſtrong caſtles, and carries on a conſiderable trade. In 1563, this town was taken by the Ruſſians, but retaken by the Poles in 1579. The Jeſuits have a college here, and the Greeks an academy for the ſtudy of philoſophy. A popiſh Greek biſhop alſo reſides here. In this town are likewiſe held a provincial diet, and a court of judicature.

The Livonian palatinate, called by the Poles Woicwodztwo Inſlantſkie, was formerly a part of Livonia, and is alſo termed the palatinate of Wend; the Poles, on delivering up Livonia to the Swedes, by the treaty of Oliva, reſerved this part, which has a biſhop, a palatine, and a caſtellan, and ſends ſix deputies to the general diet. It has alſo five or ſix ſmall towns within its diſtrict.

The province of Samogitia, called by the Poles Zmuyds, or Xieſtwo Zmudſkie, is bounded on the north by Courland, on the eaſt by Lithuania, on the ſouth by Regal Pruſſia, and on the weſt by the Baltick Sea, it being about an hundred and ſeventy miles in length, and about an hundred and twenty-five in breadth; but as the two territories are much contracted, this is only to be underſtood of its largeſt and broadeſt parts.

This country has for the moſt part a marſhy ſoil, and abounds with rivers and lakes, which at ſome ſeaſons overflow the land. Here are alſo inacceſſible mountains; the country is much over-run with woods, in which the inhabitants find great quantities of honey; for it is ſaid that almoſt every tree has a ſwarm of bees; and their wax is whiter and purer than either that of Lithuania or Ruſſia. We are told that though the arable land is very ſtiff, the inhabitants uſe none but wooden plough-ſhares; becauſe one of their ſtaroſtas, introducing iron ſhares, and the ſeaſon afterwards proving leſs kindly than uſual, they had the weakneſs to attribute the cauſe ſolely to this change; upon which he was forced to let them return to the uſe of the wooden plough-ſhares, for fear the prohibition ſhould cauſe an inſurrection. Samogitia abounds with cattle, and has a breed of horſes, which are ſprightly, ſwift, and hardy, though ſmall.

Samogitia anciently belonged to Lithuania; but in the year 1404, was ceded to the knights of the Teutonic order: about four years after, it was taken from them by Uladiſlaus Jagello, king of Poland; after whoſe death it returned again to them; but in 1525, when Albert of Brandenburgh was made hereditary duke of Pruſſia, it returned to the crown of Poland. The Chriſtian religion had been introduced for ſome time, and it was made a biſhop's ſee in 1413.

There is but little difference between the peaſants of this country and thoſe of Lithuania; but the former are not ſo laborious, and conſequently enjoy leſs plenty. Many of them, inſtead of bread, eat turneps, which grow wild, and are of a prodigious ſize. They are robuſt, bold, and nimble; and it is not uncommon for people to live to a hundred or a hundred and twenty years of age. The

peaſants live in cottages, for the moſt part near lakes and rivers, and theſe are covered with thatch or boards. They are low, and of an oblong ſquare, with a hearth in the middle; their furniture is but mean, and they and their cattle lodge together in one room.

Perſons in good circumſtances drink out of horn cups, and eat out of wooden platters. However, moſt of the inhabitants differ but little from the Lithuanians in their manners, habit, or language.

There are about twenty-eight towns in Samogitia; but all of them are ſmall and ill built; among theſe is Mednicki, where the biſhop of Samogitia reſides, and Roſienie, where the provincial diet and a court of judicature are held.

The duchy of Courland, which is dependant and under the protection of Poland, is bounded on the weſt by the Baltick, on the north by the gulf of Riga and Livonia, towards the eaſt by Lithuania Proper, and by Samogitia towards the ſouth. It extends fifty German miles in length, and ſome places twenty, and in others hardly ten German miles in breadth; but towards the ſouth-weſt it gradually terminates in a point of land, or promontory.

Except in a few diſtricts, the ſoil is heavy, fat, and clayiſh, and the country abounds in woods and ſwamps: hence the roads of Courland are remarkably bad. In ſpring and autumn the meadows and low grounds are under water; but this only ſerves to improve the land. Some ſkilful farmers have drained ſeveral of the fenny parts of Courland, and converted them into what they call ſtaungens: that is, land which is ſown three years ſucceſſively with ſummer ſeed, and then left uncultivated for a like term. Courland, however, contains good arable land and fine paſtures, and produces great quantities of excellent flax. Here is alſo plenty of ſea fiſh, and the woods abound with elks, bears, and wolves. Courland has alſo its mines of iron ore and other minerals, its quarries of ſtone, chalk, and ſtucco, and its mineral ſprings. Amber is likewiſe found on the coaſt.

The Windau and Aa are the principal rivers in this country; the former riſes in Samogitia, and diſcharges itſelf into the Baltick near the town of Windau; and the Aa, which has alſo its ſource in Samogitia, empties itſelf into the gulf of Riga. The ſmall rivers are the Anger, the Abau, the Berſe, the Bartau, the Muſſa, and ſome others.

Moſt of the inhabitants of Courland are Germans and Lettonians; but the latter are not only the tenants and vaſſals of the former, but in a manner their ſlaves. Hence there are two languages uſually ſpoken in Courland, the German and the Lettonian.

So early as the year 1522, the reformation, or Lutheran religion, took place in this duchy; and in 1532 Courland joined with Riga in a particular religious league; ſo that when this country fell under the dominion of Poland, all the inhabitants were Lutherans, and they had no papiſts amongſt them. But the miſunderſtandings which afterwards happened between the dukes and nobles of Courland occaſioned ſeveral orders to be iſſued by the court of Poland, and judiciary commiſſions to be deputed from thence, by which means a fatal gap was opened, by which popery entered.

The Roman catholics were at firſt only permitted to have churches in this country; but they ſoon raiſed themſelves to a level with the Lutherans. In 1717 and 1727 they received ſome additional privileges, and ſeveral of the nobility who had embraced the doctrines of popery, exerting their zeal in order to introduce it into the churches within their juriſdictions, greatly contributed to its ſpreading over the country. The marriages of the dukes of Courland with princeſſes who were Calviniſts, alſo introduced that religion into the duchy; but the Calviniſts are excluded from all employments in the ſtate.

Great privileges are enjoyed by the nobility of Courland, and the more antient claſs of them is carefully diſtinguiſhed from the new; for by an old law, which has been frequently confirmed, the former alone are capable of filling poſts of honour. The noblemen of Courland generally embrace a military life. They enjoy in Poland the ſame privileges as the natives, and a Poliſh nobleman has the ſame indulgence in Courland. However, neither of them enjoy that privilege till they are ſettled in thoſe countries; and indeed a Courlandiſh nobleman at preſent ſeldom holds any eminent poſt in Poland, except that of the law, unleſs he be a papiſt.

The nobility of Courland have no ſeat in the general diet of Poland. But a noble Courlander is proprietor of all the mines diſcovered in his eſtate: he is not to be taken into cuſtody, or his effects confiſcated, till he has been previouſly ſummoned and legally convicted before a court of judicature: his houſe is an aſylum, from which no perſon can forcibly be taken: his tenants, vaſſals, and domeſtics are exempted from paying any toll, cuſtom, or exciſe; and no ſoldiers are to be quartered on the eſtate of a Courlander. No new created nobleman is qualified to hold a poſt of honour, or to be a magiſtrate till the third generation; nor can he be ſent as an envoy, unleſs he has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſervice of his country, or is recommended by ſome of the ancient noble families.

Among other privileges, the nobility have an unlimitted power over their vaſſals, which extends even to life and death; but before they can puniſh a vaſſal with death, they are obliged to hold a regular court, under the penalty of paying a hundred florins; each florin equal to fourteen-pence ſterling. Hence the reſpect paid by the peaſants to their lords riſes almoſt to adoration, and whatever theſe require from them they are obliged to give up, and immediately obey their commands without murmuring. The nobility are all on a level, and have, in conjunction with the duke, the patronage of the pariſh churches; the duke being patron of ſome, and the nobility of the others.

In war-time, they appear on horſeback, according to the ſervice they owe the duke as his vaſſal: but when ſuch a general military appearance is required, the duke is obliged to march at their head. They indeed chuſe their own colonels and other officers; but theſe are all under the duke's command. They are, however, not obliged to march beyond the frontiers of Couriand, except the duke voluntarily agrees to paſs beyond thoſe limits.

Diſputes between the duke and his nobles are decided only by the king of Poland in perſon. The judges here are four captains or ſuperintendants; two of which are for Courland properly ſo called, and two for Semigallia; but from theſe an appeal lies to the high council, in which the duke preſides in perſon, and even from this council a ſecond appeal may be made to the government of Poland, if the caſe is ſufficiently important.

The whole duchy is divided into Courland Proper on the weſt ſide, and Semigallia on the eaſt ſide of the river Maſſa; and each of theſe into captainſhips: the firſt captainſhip of Courland Proper is Goldingen, ſo named from its chief town, which was formerly one of the Hanſe. It is not conſiderable at preſent, except for its large juriſdiction, though it is adorned with a very fine caſtle. This town ſtands on the river Wataw, which falls into the Baltick thirty miles off, and is ſeventy ſouth-weſt from Riga.

The town of Windaw, called by the inhabitants Kieſe, hath a harbour on the mouth of the Baltick, ninety miles north of Memel, and forty miles north-weſt from Goldingen. It is reckoned the capital city of a palatinate of the ſame name, has a caſtle, formerly the reſidence of the Livonian knights, and the palace where the ſtates of Courland held their aſſemblies: but is now much decayed, being only ſupported by building ſhips for the duke, and by its trade in pitch, tar, wax, &c. which it exports.

The town of Libaw lies on the coaſt thirty miles ſouth-weſt from Goldingen, and forty-two north of Memel, and has a good road and harbour. And Piltyn, or Pilten, on the river Anger, eighteen miles north-weſt of Goldingen, is a palatinate, as well as the ſeat of the biſhop of Courland. About fifty miles eaſt of Goldingen is the captainſhip of Tuckum, ſo called from its chief town. The eaſtern diviſion of Courland, namely Semigallia, has Livonia Proper on the north, the palatinate of Ploczkow on the eaſt, and Samogitia on the ſouth.

On the river Muſſa, fifty-two miles ſouth of Riga, ſtands Mittaw, the capital of Semigallia, and indeed of the whole duchy, as well as the ſeat and burial-place of its dukes, who have a magnificent caſtle, which is fortified by two baſtions encompaſſed by marſhes, and has always a ſtrong garriſon. The town is alſo well-fortified, though meanly built, the houſes being partly of brick, partly of timber, and ſome of mixed meterials: it is large, and the ſeat of the diets of the duchy; the inhabitants are only between three and four thouſand. It was ſeveral times taken by the Swedes, particularly by Guſtavus Adolphus in 1621, again in 1701, and alſo by the Ruſſians in 1705, but as often recovered. The Aa river, on which the caſtle ſtands, paſſes by the city to the Dwina, with a deep channel, which might be navigable, if the people of Riga had not choaked up the mouth of it, for their own intereſt.

The town of Bauſke, ſeventeen miles ſouth-eaſt of Mittaw, is another ſtrong town, on the river Muſſa, or Pluſſa, with a caſtle built on a rock; here is a large garriſon. It was taken by the Swedes in 1701, with the king

of

of Poland's magazines, valued at three hundred thouſand crowns, and he demanded ſixty thouſand from the duchy, beſides vaſt quantities of proviſions. In 1705 the Czar ſurpriſed this town by ſtratagem, and forced the Swediſh garriſon in the caſtle to ſurrender, juſt after a victory he had obtained over them near Maſiendorf in this duchy. The Swedes repoſſeſſed it, but quitted it, with the whole duchy, in 1709, after levying from the inhabitants large ſums of money.

Warſovia, or the duchy of Warſaw, called by the Poles Mazouzſe, may be reckoned the moſt conſiderable part of their king's dominions, becauſe it is honoured with the reſidence of the king, and vaſt numbers of the nobility; Pruſſia on the north, Upper Poland on the ſouth, Lower Poland and Cujavia on the weſt, and Polachia, which parts it from Lithuania, on the eaſt. It is about a hundred and twenty miles in length from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and about ninety in breadth; though ſome make the former a hundred and thirty, and the latter a hundred and twenty. It has the benefit of ſeveral navigable rivers, eſpecially the Weiſſel, which runs through the ſouth part; and the Bug, which paſſes quite croſs from eaſt to weſt.

The country is plain, and the ſoil fruitful, yielding plenty of corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl. It was formerly governed by Princes of its own, but in 1526, fell to the king of Poland. The people, who are generally warlike, ſpeak the ſame language with the Poles, only they differ in a few guttural accents; and their manners, habits and religion are much the ſame. It is divided into three palatinates, of which Maſſovia Proper, has eight ſenators, and is ſubject in ſpirituals to the biſhop of Poſen.

Warſaw is the capital of this province, and the metropolis of all Poland: it is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Weiſſel, in the very centre of Poland, a hundred and twenty miles eaſt of Gneſna, and weſt from the confines of Lithuania, a hundred and fifty-one ſouth from Koningſberg, a hundred and fifty-four ſouth-eaſt of Dantzick, and a hundred and thirty-three north of Cracow and Poſen, three hundred north-eaſt of Vienna, and four hundred and fifty ſouth of Stockholm. Dr. Connor places it three Poliſh miles (each of which are four Italian miles) from Leſſer Poland, twenty-four from Landſcut, as many north-eaſt from Lublin, twenty-nine ſouth eaſt from Thorn, and thirty north from Sandomar. It is a large, handſome, populous, and trading city, defended by a double wall, and a ditch. The kings of Poland uſually keep their court here in a noble large ſquare palace, built by Sigiſmund III. and beautified by his ſucceſſors; and the grand diets of the kingdom have their ſeſſions here.

The city is divided into four parts, viz. the old and new towns, the ſuburbs of Cracow, and the Brag or Prag. The chief church, dedicated to St. John Baptiſt, is very fine; as are the arſenal, the caſtle, the market-place, and other public buildings. There is a wooden bridge of excellent workmanſhip over the river, and beyond it the king's palace, called Viaſdow, where the general diet meets. It was built by Ladiſlaus VII. and ſtands amidſt delicate gardens and groves; and not far from it, in the ſuburb called Craeow, there is a ſmall chapel erected by the king of Poland, in token of a victory over the Moſcovites; wherein is a ſepulchral monument of Demetrius Suiſcius, great duke of Moſcovy, who, being taken priſoner, died a captive in Poland. Goods are brought to this city by the neighbouring rivers, and ſent from hence to Dantzick.

The king of Sweden took poſſeſſion of this city in 1704, put a garriſon into the caſtle next year, when he demanded two thouſand four hundred florins a week for their ſubſiſtence; but in 1706, king Auguſtus recovered both the town and caſtle, and the town paid him fifty thouſand rix-dollars to be exempted from plunder. In 1705, the Swedes defeated the Saxons and Lithuanians near this city, when the Saxon general Patkul was taken priſoner; and next year Staniſlaus, king Auguſtus's rival, was crowned here with his queen. In 1707, the Moſcovites plundered the palaces and gardens of the king and nobility here, and ſent the ſtatues, &c. to Moſcow. Next year a plague raged here, that is ſaid to have carried off near thirty thouſand people; and a fire broke out, which continued burning nine days, and almoſt reduced the whole city to aſhes. In 1712, king Auguſtus returned hither, and held a general diet, which re-acknowledged his title. In 1715, he ordered this city to be fortified with intrenchments, to prevent ſurprize by the Swedes, and their allies.

A gentleman who ſpent ſome time in this city, ſays, he obſerved the ſame politeneſs here as at Paris; that the king maintains a ſet of French comedians, and frequently gives balls and concerts, with noble feaſts, for the entertainment of the nobility: and that the ladies, eſpecially, are paſſionately fond of muſic and plays; are very amiable, witty, and ſprightly; and have a moſt delicate taſte for diverſions of every kind.

Near the village of Wola, which is about half a league from this city, there is a plain, where the nobles meet, and incamp in tents, for the election of a king; and about a league from the city there is another palace, called Villa Nova, that was built by the late king John Sobieſki.

The city of Czerſko, or Czeſtochow, is alſo ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Weiſſel, eighteen miles ſouth from Warſaw. It is the capital of its palatinate, and is reckoned the ſtrongeſt city in this part of the country, it having a fortreſs, wherein is kept that rich treaſure called the Virgin's: and the nobility ſend their beſt effects hither in time of war.

The town of Wiſchgood is ſeventeen miles from Ploczko, and thirty-three north-weſt from Warſaw. Lumſa is a large city on the Narew, about twenty miles from Novogrod. Pultowa is twenty-ſeven miles north-eaſt of Warſaw.

The province of Poluchia hath Warſaw on the weſt, Lithuania on the eaſt, the palatinates of Polena and Lublin on the ſouth, and the kingdom of Pruſſia on the north. It is a hundred and twenty miles long, from north to ſouth, and thirty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

The chief places are, 1. Auguſtaw, a handſome town on the lake Auguſtine. 2. Bielez, a large town on the river Biela. 3. Bialyſtock, a ſmall town, of which great part was deſtroyed by fire in the year 1753. 4. Tykoczin, a conſiderable town, with a handſome caſtle, on the river Narew.

Southward of the palatinate of Novogrodec, is that of Polena, betwixt Red Ruſſia on the ſouth-eaſt, Lublin on the north-weſt, and that of Novogrodec on the north. It is overgrown with woods, has many lakes and pools; is two hundred and thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, eighty from ſouth to north.

This palatinate has two ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of its capital, which is Brieſcia, a large wooden city, which has a bridge over the river Bug, on the confines of Lithuania, fifty miles ſouth of Bielik, and ninety-five eaſt of Warſaw. It is fortified with a ſtrong caſtle, built on a rock, and waſhed by the river Muchavecz. Here is an academy, the moſt famous in Europe for Jews, who frequent it from Italy, Germany, Moravia, Sileſia, &c. Here is a royal palace of modern architecture, with variety of pleaſant gardens, without the city. 2. Puiſko is another timber-built city, ſeventy-five miles eaſt of the former, on the river Peripet, which paſſing by divers towns in Ruſſia, falls into the Boriſthenes. 3. Biela, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Brieſcia.

The diſtrict of Red Ruſſia is near a hundred and eighty miles in length, and upwards of a hundred in breadth, fertile in ſome parts, but mountainous in others, and in general well watered. It is bounded on the ſouth, by Hungary and Moldavia; on the eaſt, by Tartarian deſerts; on the north, by White Ruſſia; and on the weſt, by Little Poland.

Here are three palatinates in Red Ruſſia, viz. Lemberg, Chelm, and Belz. That of Lemberg has nine ſenators, and is ſituated on the ſouth part of Red Ruſſia, eaſt of Cracow, and north of Hungary.

Lemberg, or Leopold, is the capital of the palatinate of the ſame name, and alſo of all Red Ruſſia. It is ſituated among hills, on the river Peltew, at the diſtance of a hundred and thirty-five miles ſouth-weſt from Warſaw, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is deemed both a ſpiritual and temporal lord.

The city is large, well-built, and well-fortified, having two caſtles, one within the walls, and one without, on a riſing ground, which commands the town; both which, together with the city, were founded by Leo, duke of Ruſſia, about anno 1289. The churches here are generally fair and well-built, and abound with coſtly ornaments of all kinds. Here is an academy, ſupplied by profeſſors from that of Cracow; and learned men are much encouraged here. The Armenian Roman catholics, have dwelt here time out of mind, and are wholly governed by their own prelate: they enjoy great privileges, on account of the conſiderable commerce they maintain with the Perſians, and other eaſtern nations. They are not only provided with fiſh for their own conſumption, from the many ports belonging to it, and from the neighbouring rivers, but ſalt great quantities, and tranſport them over Poland. Barbels are taken in great numbers in

Roxolania. Here is kept a very famous winter-fair, to which great numbers of Hungarian, Moldavian, and, in time of peace, Turkiſh merchants, reſort.

Other places of leſs note are, 1. Javarow, thirty-five miles weſt from Lemberg. 2. Premiſlaw, a populous, pleaſant, trading, and well-built city, and an epiſcopal ſee, on the river Saa, fifty-three miles weſt from Lemberg: it is defended by ſtrong walls. 3. Jaroſlaw, on the ſame river, ſixty-two miles weſt from Lemberg. It is famed for a fair held on Lady-day, to which are uſually brought four hundred thouſand black cattle, and two hundred thouſand horſes. 4. Reſovia, on the river Wiſtoch, ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Lanſut: it has a ſtrong caſtle, an annual fair, and a linen manufactory. 5. Lencut, or Lanſut, eighty-five miles weſt from Lemberg.

Pocutia, or the diſtrict of Halicz, is the name given to the ſouth-eaſt part of Red Ruſſia. It has the mountain of Tranſylvania on the ſouth and weſt, and Moldavia on the eaſt, and is divided into two parts by the river Nieſter, which riſes in it.

The town of Halicz. at the conflux of the Nieſter and Prut, is ſituated forty-two miles ſouth-eaſt from Lemberg. It was once the metropolis of a kingdom, then the capital of a duchy, and afterwards the ſee of an archbiſhop, which hath been ſince tranſlated to Lemberg, ſo that now it is greatly fallen from its ancient ſplendor. The other towns are, 1. Croſna, on the river Wiſlock, eighty-four miles ſouth-weſt of Lemberg. 2. Sniatyn, on the river Prut, and the confines of Walachia and Moldavia, forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Halicz: it is a wooden palliſadoed town.

The town of Chelmiſin the palatinate of the ſame name. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Lemberg, and is ſituated a hundred and ten miles ſouth-eaſt from Warſaw. Here is alſo the town of Kraſnoſtow, on the Vieprz, which has a court of judicature, and is the reſidence of a ſtaroſta, and of the biſhop of Chelm.

The following towns are in the palatinate of Belz, viz. 1. Horodla, where a provincial diet and court of judicature are held, and a ſtaroſta reſides. 2. Rava, a ſmall town. 3. Belz, a conſiderable town, from which the palatinate receives its name. 4. Zamoſki, which is ſtrongly fortified, has many conſiderable privileges, contains a charitable foundation called Mons Pietatis, and ſeveral churches.

Caminiec, called by the Poles Kaminiet Podolſki, is watered by the river Smertick, and is ſituated about one hundred and ten miles below the Dineſter. The city of the ſame name is the capital of the province, is two hundred and twenty-four miles eaſt from Cracow, and two hundred and thirty ſouth-eaſt from Warſaw.

It is a populous, well-built city, ſurrounded with high rocks, beſides being fortified with walls, a deep, broad, and ſteep ditch filled with water by the river, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and by a very ſtrong caſtle; ſo that it is the ſtrongeſt place on this ſide, and uſed to be reckoned one of the keys of Poland. In the reign of king Sigiſmund III. it was taken by the Coſſacks, by capitulation. It has been attacked ſeveral times by the Walachians, Turks, and Tartars.

In 1669, it ſuffered miſerably by fire; and in 1672, was taken by the Turks, who kept poſſeſſion of it, and thereby often made inroads to Poland, and carried away vaſt numbers of captives; till it was agreed to be ſurrendered by the peace at Carlowitz, in the year 1609, and evacuated next ſpring to the Poles; when the diet reſolved, that this town and Podolia, ſhould be free from taxes, for ten years. It is the ſee of two biſhops, one a papiſt, the other an Armenian. The Greeks of Podolia pleaded to be reſtored to their churches, but this was not granted.

Lower Podolia, which is the eaſt part, and alſo called the palatinate of Braclaw, from its chief town, on the river Bog, forty miles from the confines of Moldovia, and ninety-two eaſt from Caminiec. It was taken by the Turks in 1672; but reſtored in 1699, by the treaty above-mentioned.

In this diſtrict are alſo the following places, viz. 1. Winnicza, on the ſame river, fifty-four miles north-weſt from Braclaw. 2. Zbaras, a little city on the frontiers of Lower Volhinia, ten leagues north from Braclaw. 3. Humarn, about five leagues weſt from the frontiers of Lower Volhinia.

The diſtrict of Volhinia lies eaſtward of the palatinate of Chelm, and is divided into upper and lower palatinates: it is three hundred and ten miles in length from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, and a hundred and ninety miles in the broadeſt part.

The Upper Volhinia, called alſo the palatinate of Luſuc, or Lucko, from its chief town, has Chelm and Belcz on the weſt, Poleſia on the north, Podolia on the ſouth, and the Ukrain on the eaſt. It is a plentiful country, near two hundred miles in length, and a hundred in breadth.

The chief town of this palatinate ſtands on the river Ster, near a lake, which encompaſſes part of the caſtle, ninety miles north-eaſt from Lemberg. It is a large city built of timber, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, but is chiefly inhabited by Jews, Armenians, and other eaſtern people, who traffic in theſe countries. The cathedral and chapter-houſe are in one of the caſtles, there being two built on the hills near their city. A Ruſſian biſhop alſo reſides here.

Here are alſo the following towns of leſs note; namely, 1, Pilaveze, on the river Bug, two leagues from Chimielnich. 2. Krzemence, the capital of Cremen, thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt from Luſuc. 3. Ulodimir, or Weldzimiers, on the river Lug, forty-eight miles from Luſuc. It is the reſidence of a Ruſſian biſhop, with a conſiderable juriſdiction. 4. Brodi, a ſtrong town, which has a collegiate church and a public academy. 5. Olika, twenty miles eaſt from Luſuc, with the title of a duchy; it is adorned with a fair cathedral, and has an academy. 6. Conſtantinow, ſeventy-five miles north from Caminiec, ſtands near the ſource of the river Slacz, and is adorned and defended by a well-fortified caſtle.

Lower Volhinia, commonly called the palatinate of Kiow, together with Lower Podolia, comprehended in the Ukrain, lies eaſt from the Upper Volhinia; and the river Boriſthenes, or the Nieper, paſſes through the middle of it, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, dividing it into two parts, of which only the weſtern is now ſubject to Poland; the eaſtern being under the Ruſſians: the former is fruitful, but the latter, from the Tartar incurſions, is a mere deſart.

Ukrania is a large country, bounded on the north by part of Poland and Ruſſia; on the ſouth, by Little Tartary; on the eaſt, by the Oczakow Tartars; and on the weſt by Moldavia. The name Ukrain is Sclavonic, and ſignifies a frontier, which it really is to the Turks and Tartars. This is the country of the Coſſacks, who have their name from Koſa a Scythe, their uſual weapon, or Coſa, which in the Ruſſian language ſignifies a free-booter, or plunderer. They were originally a crew of diſſolute rovers, that aſſembled together, from the frontiers of Ruſſia, Volhinia, and Podolia, to practiſe piracy on the Black Sea. Their chief habitation was betwixt the rivers Nieſter and Nieper; but they extended themſelves a great way eaſt from the latter. The Coſſack language is a dialect of the Poliſh, and is full of diminutives, and pleaſant expreſſions. Their common people are of the Greek church; but the better ſort are generally Romans, or proteſtants.

Their firſt conſiderable appearance, as an united body, was in 1548, in the reign of Sigiſmund I. king of Poland, when they called themſelves volunteers, and aſſembled, to the number of ſix thouſand, for defence of the country againſt the Turks and Tartars, whom they frequently intercepted, at the paſſes of Nieper, in returning with their prey. Being ſoon joined by multitudes to ſhare their booty, they could with ſhallow boats paſs thoſe rocks in the mouth of the river Boriſthenes, that hinder the navigation from the Ukrain, to the Black Sea; and during the ſummer, they roved all over that ſea, and its coaſts, making deſcents upon Natolia, and pillaging and ſpoiling wherever they came, even to the walls of Conſtantinople.

Stephen Bathori, king of Poland, formed them into an orderly militia; and, intending to uſe them againſt the Tartars, gave them the town and territory of Trethimirow in this palatinate (which they made their magazine) appointed a general over them, and gave them many privileges; and for ſome time they did the Poles great ſervice, by oppoſing the Tartars: but being ſenſible of their ſtrength, they began to ſet up for themſelves; and in the year 1589, rebelled; but their general being taken and executed, it was for a time quieted.

About the year 1600, they were ſo powerful, that the Poles were forced to raiſe a large army againſt them, who often worſted them, and took their generals; but ſtill they continued mutinous: wherefore their privileges were taken away, and they continued in a ſtate of enmity, till about the year 1640. King Uladiſlaus VI. making war upon the Tartars, collected them together, and ſet over them

them for a general, Chmielniſki, who was afterwards a bitter and formidable enemy to Poland; for the Coſſacks being oppreſſed by the Poliſh nobility their landlords, and on complaint, receiving no redreſs, they armed in vaſt numbers; and calling in the Tartars, furiouſly attacked the Poles; but king John Caſimir made ſuch a ſtand againſt them, that in 1649, the Tartars accepted a peace.

Chmielniſki, having obliged the prince of Moldavia to join him, it produced another war in 1651, wherein the Tartars and Coſſacks were worſted, and ſince that time they have not been ſo conſiderable as formerly.

This country was reſigned in 1677 by the Poles to the Turks, with liberty to the Coſſacks of this part, to chuſe their own general, or prince, dependant on the ſultan, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the year 1699, when by the peace of Carlowitz it was reſtored to the Poles.

The only towns of note, on the weſt ſide of the Nieper, are, 1. Bialacerkiew, about forty miles ſouth of Kiow. 2. Trethimirow, on the Nieper, fifty miles above Kiow, a ſtrong place defended by a caſtle, is the ſame, which, as we ſaid above, was given to the Coſſacks, by king Bathori. 3. Czyrkaſſy, which uſed to be the chief retreat of the Coſſacks, ſtands near the ſame river eighty miles above Kiow. 'Twas burnt by the Poles, in 1636, but has been repaired ſince that time.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the Inhabitants of POLAND, their Manners, Cuſtoms, Conſtitution and Government, Trade, Manufactures, Revenues, Land-Forces, &c.

THE complexion of the Poles is generally inclining to be fair, and their hair to a pale yellow. Their ſtature is commonly ſomewhat above the middle ſize. Their conſtitutions are generally good, and their bodies inclinable to be groſs; ſo that the women of quality make it their chief ſtudy to be lean and thin: but they abhor painting and waſhes, nor have they any occaſion for it. The Poles in general have no manner of regard to their clergy, and think themſelves wiſe enough to be their own guides. They exceed moſt of the European nations in vivacity, ſtrength, and long life. The poorer ſort have a liquor diſtilled from wheat, barley, oats, and cyder; which the gentry rectify with aniſeeds and ſpices. The Poles hate effeminacy, and love a cottage as well as a palace. The gentry ſeldom lie on any other beds but quilts. The ſlaves ſleep frequently in ſnow and froſt without any bed, or other conveniency. Their chief exerciſes are hunting, dancing and vaulting; and they are expert horſemen. The common people frequently weave tapeſtry and arras as they travel.

As to the genius of the people, they are, as Puffendorf obſerves, commonly downright and honeſt, very ſeldom guilty of diſſimulation, of a generous ſpirit, and expect a great deal of reſpect, to which they make ſuitable returns; yet they are fierce and extravagant, much inclined to an uncontrouled liberty, or rather licentiouſneſs and petulancy, which produces frequent factions and conſpiracies. They do not want courage, but are more fit for ſudden action than the long fatigue of a war. This is ſpoken of the gentry: but the meaner ſort are poor ſpirited, and therefore the Poliſh infantry are not valuable; but Coſſacks, or foreigners, are made uſe of on all occaſions of war.

With reſpect to their apparel, the nobility, merchants, and ſuperior tradeſmen, dreſs like the Engliſh and French, though in a few trivial articles they retain ſome of their original modes. The ladies abhor painting; but in general are very coarſe and indelicate in their manners; and the common people dreſs in bear ſkins; and are ſo wretchedly poor as to be unable to build a ſmall hut, ſo that they are ſometimes obliged to live in caves and holes under ground.

Their language is not copious, as they ſpeak a dialect of the Sclavonic: it is at the ſame time harſh, and hard to pronounce: for it ſo abounds with conſonants, that ſome words have ſeven or eight without any vowel; yet they ſound them with vowels in ſpeaking.

Freſh meat, fowl, and fiſh are their uſual diet; and they drink the ſtrongeſt of Rheniſh, French, Spaniſh, Italian, and Hungarian wines; brandy, aqua vitæ, aniſeed water, and other ſpirits. Their ſauces, &c. are ſo enriched with ſpices, that ſome of the nobility ſpend great ſums in that commodity; and their uſual breakfaſt is a hot-pot of beer, with eggs, ſugar, and ginger. They hang the carcaſes of elks at their gates till they ſtink; then dreſs and eat them as a great curioſity, to be met with no where but at the tables of their chief nobility; yet their butchers meat is delicious, and they have plenty of good fiſh.

When they are invited to another's table, they muſt carry their ſpoons, knives, &c. with them; and their linen, too, if they would be cleanly: for they have no napkins, but a broad piece of ſtarched linen ſewed round the table cloth, that their ſervants may not ſteal it. The ladies carry napkins with them, and put up as much ſweetmeats and dried fruit as they pleaſe. The maſters reach meat from the table to the ſervants, who eat it as they ſtand by the chairs: and the maſter of the feaſt is reckoned a niggard, if he don't make his gueſts drink.

The Hungarian wine, though very dear, is drank as common as water: but it is cuſtomary for the maſter of the houſe and his intimates, to drink the beſt wine, while the other gueſts that are invited are obliged to put up with the common ſort. Their houſes are generally low, for they ſeldom lie above ſtairs. Some of them are of brick and ſtone, but the greateſt part of wood. The kitchen is on one ſide of the court, the ſtable in another, the dwelling-houſe is on a third, and the gate in the front. The richer ſort have hangings of tapeſtry or arras, and beds with taffety-curtains; but ſeldom any accommodation to lodge ſtrangers.

The Poles were converted from Paganiſm to Chriſtianity by Aldeber, archbiſhop of Gneſna, about the year 964, and ever ſince, the religion of the church of Rome hath been predominant here, except in Red Ruſſia, where many of the people adhere to the Greek church. Some of the Greek church ſubmit to that of Rome, and are called Uniti, or Uniats, but have their worſhip in the Greek. They have alſo Armenians who comply with the church of Rome, but have their worſhip in their own language. The king, though a Papiſt, is obliged by his coronation oath to tolerate Lutheraniſm in Poliſh Pruſſia, where there are whole cities of Lutherans, as Dantzick, Elbing, Thorn, and Marienburg: and ſome Calviniſts, eſpecially in the ducal Pruſſia.

Fauſtus Socinus was of this nation; and his followers, from him called Socinians, grew numerous in the laſt century: but king John Caſimir made an edict againſt them, which was enforced by his ſucceſſor king John Sobieſki, who drove them quite out of the kingdom for publiſhing a book intituled, Tormentum Trinitatem Throno deturbans. The generality of the Papiſts here are very great bigots, and their intereſt is ſtrengthened by the preſidencies of the biſhops in the grand and petty diets. The inferior clergy have a place alſo in all the courts of judicature; and the great ſecretary of the kingdom is always a churchman.

The regular clergy, as they call the monks, are more eſteemed than the ſecular; and the mendicant friars have the privilege to enter the privateſt room of any houſe without knocking at the door. The ſecular clergy are generally rich, but openly debauched; and are neither rebuked for it by their ſuperiors nor the people. The inferior clergy ſeldom attend their office in the church, but give poor ſcholars two-pence a day to officiate for them; nor do the biſhops correct the inferior clergy for their miſbehaviour. The common people may be drunk without rebuke on their faſt-days, provided they abſtain from fleſh, &c. and they will not eat butter and cheeſe on ſuch days, though the pope give them a diſpenſation; as he did in cardinal Radzioufki's time; for which they called the pope a heretic.

At the elevation of the hoſt the people knock their heads againſt the pavement, or benches, hard enough to be heard at a diſtance. Their churches are fine, and well adorned; and the prieſts affect rich veſtments. The prieſts at Leopold have a cape they wear at maſs ſo thick embroidered with pearl and jewels, that it is quite burdenſome. In order to preſerve their feet from the exceſſive cold in winter, the ladies, and ſome of the men, uſe furred bags in churches.

Their diſeaſes chiefly proceed from drunkenneſs, to which they are ſo addicted, that they have a proverb ſignifying, that a man may as well drink water as wine, if he does not feel the effects of drinking. The diſtemper peculiar to the Poles, is that called the Plica; in which the hair of the head is matted together and entangled in one night's time, in ſpite of all care to prevent it. If it be cut off, it occaſions a dimneſs of ſight, if not a total loſs of it, together with an eruption of puſtules all over the body, and pains in the head and limbs; yet foreigners, who have been infected with it, ſay, they have cut off their hair without any bad conſequence. The Poles are not much troubled with other diſeaſes; and the ſcurvy, ma-

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lignant fevers, and pleuriſies, are ſeldom of ſuch ill conſequence here as in other countries. Their baptiſmal and matrimonial ceremonies are the ſame as among the Roman catholics in general.

The funerals of the people of quality are ſo pompous and magnificent, that they look more like triumphs. The corpſe is carried in a hearſe or chariot drawn by ſix horſes, all covered with black. The coffin has a large black velvet paul over it, with a croſs of red ſattin in the middle, and ſix long black ſilk taſſels, ſupported by ſix of the deceaſed's domeſtics in cloſe mourning. Several prieſts, monks, and others, walk before the hearſe with wax-tapers; and immediately before it come three men on horſeback, who carry the arms of the deceaſed, one his ſword, another his lance, and the third his dart; and as ſoon as the funeral ſervice is over, they ride furiouſly into the church, break the arms of the deceaſed upon the coffin, and the body is interred: after which there is a feaſt, wherein both clergy and laity drink to exceſs. When women of quality mourn, they wear coarſe black ſtuff, and their linen is not much better than canvas; and the greater the quality, the coarſer are the mourning weeds. When the king dies, he is laid on a bed of ſtate; and a certain number of ſenators, eccleſiaſtical and temporal, are appointed to attend his corpſe. The republic defrays the funeral expences out of the revenue of the crown. The queen has the ſame honours paid her, when ſhe dies, as the king; and all the ſenators, deputies, &c. that repair to the diet for the election of a king, muſt wear black at that time.

The laws of Poland decree the eſtate of the father to be equally divided among the children, except any of them go into a monaſtery; in which caſe their parts are divided among the reſt; and the younger children here, as in other popiſh countries, are encouraged by their parents to take the vow upon them, that their eſtates may be preſerved entire to the eldeſt ſon.

They hunt bulls and bears, in the following manner: They ſurround their wild bulls with a great number of horſemen, of whom every one rides up and darts an arrow at him; upon which the creature purſues him, during which another darts him behind: whereupon he faces about to purſue the latter; and thus by turns they ſo harraſs him, that the beaſt being quite tired with purſuing ſo many aſſailants, falls down, and is eaſily taken. Another way of taking them is by felling a great number of trees, and thereby incloſing them, when each hunter, having his poſt, throws darts at him; and as the bull runs towards his enemy, the hunter from behind gives him his death wound: but if he breaks through the incloſure, the next hunter holds out a piece of red cloth, againſt which the beaſt having an antipathy, he forthwith leaves that perſon, and runs at another, who, being provided for him, commonly kills him.

When they go a hunting for bears, they take thoſe of the biggeſt ſize with nets; and, when they have hampered him, all the hunters ride about him, and having pinned down his head and feet with great wooden forks, they ſo bind him about with ſtrong hempen cords, that he is not able to ſtir; then they roll him into a great wooden cheſt. The knots of the cords are ſo contrived, that with one pull they may be untied. The bear is kept thus till they have a mind to hunt him, and then they let him out of a trap-door made to confine him in.

With reſpect to the conſtitution and government of Poland, it may be juſtly remarked, that ſince its diſmemberment, no regular form of government can be ſaid to exiſt in that unhappy country, for the three partitioning powers, who act in concert, direct every thing as they think proper, while the king of Poland, the ſenate and diet, are only the tools to execute what theſe command.

This government was once one of the freeſt and moſt regular imaginable, though at preſent it is one of the moſt tyrannical and oppreſſive: the preſent conſtitution is the only perfect remains of the Celtic government, which was the union of a republic with regal dignity. Every gentleman has a right to give his voice at the election of a king, and even to be elected himſelf; but this is one of the ſources of all their evils, and of the vitiated ſtate of their preſent government. The throne, ſince the extinction of the family of the Jagellons, has been always put up to the beſt bidder; and it has often been ſold to ſtrangers, as few of the Poles have been rich enough to buy it.

They have no written laws prior to the reign of Caſimir the Great, in the fourteenth century; before which time they were governed by the cuſtoms of their anceſtors: but he introduced the Magdeburg laws, now called the conſtitution of Poland: ſome of the provinces, particularly thoſe of the royal and ducal Pruſſias, have ſtill their own municipal laws, as have likewiſe Lithuania, Volhinia, and Pruſſia.

As to their form of government, the Poles live under one head, who bears the title, and lives in the ſplendour becoming a king; but if we conſider his power as being circumſcribed within very narrow bounds, he is in effect no more than the prime or chief regent in a free commonwealth.

Civil and criminal courts are held, as uſual, in Poland, for the adminiſtration of juſtice; but the moſt conſiderable are the parliaments, compoſed of a certain number of gentlemen, clergy, and laity, who are choſen in each palatinate; the lay-members once in four years, and the eccleſiaſtical once in two years. Of theſe parliaments, there are two for the kingdom, and one for the duchy; thoſe for the kingdom ſit at Lublin in Upper, and Petricow in Lower Poland: and that for the duchy is held one year at Vilna, and the other at Minſki, or Novogrodec, by turns. There lies no appeal from theſe courts, except to the king and ſenate; but they receive appeals from the inferior courts.

A Poliſh king can neither marry, nor divorce a wife, without conſent of the republick. If he marries after his coronation, the queen cannot be crowned without his aſking their conſent, nor even then, unleſs ſhe be a Roman catholick. When ſhe is to be crowned, the king muſt conduct her to the church, and preſent her to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, or the biſhop, who anoints her with the conſecrated oil, and puts the crown upon her head, the ſceptre into her right hand, and the globe of gold into her left. The queens of Poland have no officers but a marſhal and a chancellor, neither of whom are ſenators, but only judges of the differences that happen among her domeſticks. They anſwer the harangues that are made to the queen when an ambaſſador makes her a compliment in his maſter's name, or when a preſent is made to her at the marriage of a maid of honour. The king furniſhes the queen with money to defray the charge of her houſhold; but after his death ſhe muſt maintain herſelf, and all her retinue, with the revenue which the king beſtows upon her, with the conſent of the republic, both for her dowry, and for her marriage-preſent. Theſe revenues are called the Reformation, and conſiſt of the reverſion of a certain number of ſtaroſties, which ſhe cannot enjoy till they become vacant by the death of the preſent poſſeſſors: ſo that a queen of Poland is frequently kept from her eſtate till ſhe be juſt ready to leave it; for ſometimes thoſe who poſſeſs the ſtaroſties that are in her Reformation, outlive her: but if the king dies before the queen's Reformation be ſettled upon her, the republic allows her a yearly penſion out of the lands belonging to the crown.

The king's titles are, king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, duke of Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Maſſovia, Samogitia, Kiovia, Volhinia, Podolia, Podlachia, Livonia, Smolenſko, Severia and Czernichovia. All his revenue is clear to himſelf; for he pays no troops, not even his own guards; all the public expences being provided for by the ſenate; and all the officers of the houſhold are Poliſh gentlemen, who ſerve without ſalary, in expectation of ſome lucrative employment.

Notwithſtanding the limitations of the king's power, as in the Pacta Conventa, &c. he can remit fines and capital puniſhments; and, upon invaſions or rebellions, can ſummon the nobility to his ſtandard. He can enliſt mercenary troops, create officers of the militia, diſband armies, and puniſh thoſe who tranſgreſs their duty. He appoints the governors and magiſtrates of towns, makes archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, palatines, caſtellans, marſhals, counſellors, and treaſurers; who are all ſenators. He alſo appoints judges and magiſtrates of the provinces, ſecretaries, maſters of requeſts, and all ſuperior and inferior officers of the court. He can ennoble plebeians who ſignalize themſelves either in peace or war, and grant the uſage and occupation of royal caſtles, towns, and villages, to ſuch as deſerve well of himſelf and the republick. He diſpoſes of the eſtates of thoſe who are proſcribed, or die without heirs. All the laws, leagues, negotiations, and embaſſies, muſt be in his name, and paſs under his ſeal; as do all letters patent, &c.

The Poliſh ſenate is compoſed of ſixteen biſhops, beſides the primate, who is chief, and about one hundred and thirty laymen named by the king, and are for life; viz. the ten great officers of ſtate of the kingdom of Poland, and duchy of Lithuania; to whom are added, the palatines and the leſſer ſenators, who are the caſtellans and lieutenants of the palatinates, and the deputies of the nobility.

bility. They are created by the king, after they have taken an oath to preſerve the liberties of the republick, by virtue whereof they controul the king, when he invades their privileges: and as this court is looked upon to be the bulwark of the commonwealth, againſt the attempts of the king, therefore four of the ſenators are always about his perſon, on pretence of being his counſellors, though, in truth, they are but ſpies on him.

None of the ſenators can go out of the kingdom without leave of the republick, not even for change of air, or to drink the waters, &c. for their health. In the general diets, they ſit on the right and left hand of the king, according to their dignity, and not according to the ſeniority of their reception; and they, with the king, approve and ratify all the conſtitutions which the nobility propoſe to them by their deputies: ſo that the ſenators are, as it were, mediators between the king and the nobility, to preſerve and defend the authority of the ſtate.

In Poland there are but ſixteen biſhopricks, of which, Smolenſko and Kiovia are uſurped by the Moſcovites, and Caminiec by the Turks; but they are generally of a vaſt extent, and endowed with great revenues, as may be eaſily believed, when it is conſidered that this kingdom, after all its loſſes, is as big as France.

There are thirty-ſix chief ſecular ſenators; viz. thirty-two palatines, who are, properly, governors of provinces; three caſtellans, viz. of Cracow, Vilna, and Troki; and the ſtaroſta of Samogitia. It is obſerved by M. Hauteville, that though the quality of caſtellan and ſtaroſta is inferior to that of palatine; theſe four laſt mentioned poſſeſs almoſt the firſt rank among the lay-ſenators. The office of a palatine is, to lead the troops of his palatinate to the army, to preſide in the aſſemblies of the nobility in his province, to ſet a price upon goods and merchandize, to ſee that the weights and meaſures be not altered, and to judge and defend the Jews. He has a vice-palatine under him, who muſt take an oath to him, and who ought to have an eſtate in land, which they call 'Poſſeſſionatus,' or a poſſeſſor.

The next in dignity to the palatines are the caſtellans, and there are two ſorts of them in the kingdom, who are uſually diſtinguiſhed by the title of great caſtellans, and petty or ſub-caſtellans. The number of the former, both in the kingdom and dutchy, amounts to thirty-two; and that of the latter to forty-nine; and they are all ſenators, lieutenants, or deputies of the palatines, and heads of the nobility, in their reſpective juriſdictions.

There are two kinds of Poliſh diets, which are either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary diets meet every ſecond year, but the extroardinary diets only upon particular occaſions, when ſummoned by the king. They ſit but ſix weeks, and the diſſenting voice impedes the paſſing of any law, or coming to any final reſolution concerning what hath been propoſed by the throne. Here are not only diets, but dietines or provincial diets; and when the nobility enter into an aſſociation, either during an interregnum, or while the king is living, it is termed a confederacy.

In this country, every gentleman is a ſovereign prince in his own eſtate, and has power of life and death over his tenants, who are perfect ſlaves, without laws or privileges to protect them. They dare not leave their maſter's lands to go to another's, unleſs he violate their wives or daughters; ſo that they are often glad of that plea. If a gentleman actually kills one of his own ſlaves, he only pays fifteen livres; and if he kill another's, he is only obliged to furniſh another, or as much money as will buy one, and to maintain the deceaſed's family. If one gentleman kill another, he cannot be executed without the king's conſent; ſo that they frequently eſcape.

No ſoldiers can be quartered upon the gentry; and if any officer do it, he is ſentenced to die, or elſe declared infamous by the diet: nor can the king himſelf lodge at a nobleman's houſe, without aſking his leave. Mean time, their houſes are ſuch ſanctuaries for delinquents, that though they may be arreſted there, they cannot be taken from thence without the maſter's leave. By the conſtitution of Poland, the gentry cannot be arreſted till convicted by juſtice; ſo that he muſt be firſt ſummoned to the tribunal, where he is to be tried: if he does not appear, he is declared contumacious; and if he does appear, and is convicted, he is then arreſted, and impriſoned, in order to be afterwards ſentenced, according to the laws, and the nature of his crime. If a foreigner die without iſſue, his eſtate falls not to the king, but to the lord of the manor.

The product of the gentry's lands may be exported, without paying cuſtom; and his certificate, upon oath, exempts the purchaſer from paying it. The nobility have alſo the right of pre-emption; and both they, and the gentry, are reckoned equal by birth; ſo that they do not value titles of honour, but think that of a 'noble Pole,' or 'gentleman of Poland,' the greateſt they can have. Nor have they any but what is given by foreign powers, for which the perſons are rather deſpiſed than eſteemed by the reſt, who ſay that it is only intrinſic merit, and ſervices done to their country, that deſerve preferment. Neither the king nor the republic confer the title of prince on any but the ſons of the royal family; and though five or ſix of the chief families have, perhaps, the title of princes of the empire; it gives them no ſort of precedency.

When their gentry travel into France or Germany, they aſſume the title of counts and barons, that they may have the eaſier acceſs to perſons of quality, eſpecially in Germany; where they ſcarce think any a gentleman under a baron, and, conſequently, not worthy of their converſation. They never had any order of knighthood before that of the Immaculate Conception, erected by Sigiſmund III. with ſome privileges above the reſt of the gentry; who ſo much deſpiſed it, that the order ſoon came to nothing. King Auguſtus, in 1705, created that called the order of the White Eagle, in remembrance of his happily meeting the diet in Lithuania, when the Swedes and Staniſlaus thought to have intercepted him. The badge is a white eagle, crowned with diamonds; and the motto, Pro Fide, Lege, & Rege: 'For the Faith, the Laws, and the King.' He conferred it on ſeveral lords, but the ſenators are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a golden croſs, with the badge and motto in the middle of it. His late majeſty, on the twenty-ſixth of September, O. S. 1736, (which was the anniverſary of his birth) created eight knights of a new order, in honour of St. Henry, of which he aſſumed the title of grand maſter. The badge of this order is a red ſtar with eight points, in the middle of which there is a repreſentation of the emperor Henry, with theſe letters, A. III. R. In the middle of the reverſe is this motto, 'Pietate & Virtute Bellica;' and upon each ray or point, appears the electoral ſword of Saxony. The ſtar is appendant, by a ſilver ſtring, to a ribband of crimſon velvet.

Many of the gentry have ſuch large territories, that they can raiſe from five thouſand to ten thouſand men each, and maintain them; which makes them ſo proud, that when great mens law-ſuits are decided by the diet, or other tribunal, the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the grandees ſometimes raiſe five or ſix thouſand men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's towns, beſiege caſtles, and fight it out, rather than ſubmit to the ſentence of a bench of judges. They eſteem themſelves, eſpecially the ſenators, above any German prince; and want nothing of ſovereign power but the liberty of coining money, which is reſerved to the republick. They have from five to thirty leagues of land, contiguous; but the poor gentry have their votes in the diet as well as the richeſt. Some of them are hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king cannot interfere.

In treating of the commerce, trade, manufactures, &c. of Poland, it may not be improper previouſly to obſerve, that not only the laws of the ſtate, but even the diſpoſitions of the people, are diametrically oppoſite to commercial improvements; hence it is no wonder that in ſuch a country the manufactures are badly conducted, trade neglected, and commerce abſurdly regulated.

By the fundamental laws of the ſtate, no merchant or manufacturer is at liberty to purchaſe any landed eſtate, or to acquire any real property in the kingdom; and the pride and arrogance of the nobility and clergy are ſuch, that they look on thoſe uſeful members of ſociety with the greateſt contempt, and will, in many reſpects, ſcarcely give them the preference to their ſlaves. Hence it is that their manufactures are in ſuch an unimproved ſtate, and that all their inland commerce is carried on by Jews and foreigners, who take every opportunity to cheat and over-reach thoſe who are ſupporting them.

A learned writer remarks, that "the meaſure which the king of Pruſſia has lately taken to diſtreſs Dantzick, and interrupt the exportation of the natural production of Poland, will not at all anſwer the end which he has propoſed: this prince may be a great general as well as a tyrant, but he is not a great politician; acts of violence will never make his ſubjects enter into commerce, nor force the Poles, and the inhabitants of Dantzick, to commit all their property to his direction. If the other ſtates of Europe ſuffer him to conquer this city, he may then obtain the end which he propoſed, namely, the being maſter of all the exports of Great Poland, and of regulating the price

price of the grain of that kingdom as he thinks proper; but as long as this poſt continues free, he will never be able to carry his point.

"In the treaty of commerce which the king has lately concluded with the republic of Poland, it is ſtipulated, that all the merchandize imported from the towns of Pruſſia into Poland, is only to pay two per cent. duty, but ſuch merchandize as is landed at Dantzick, and from thence brought into Poland, is to pay twelve per cent. It will appear, at firſt ſight, that the Poles were forced into this treaty, otherwiſe they would never give the preference to ſtrangers, who were taking every meaſure to oppreſs them; but ſtill it will not anſwer the king of Pruſſia's deſign. Dantzick is an excellent port, and there is a navigation by the Viſtula from thence to the interior parts of the kingdom, whereby all kinds of merchandize may be imported and exported with great facility. It is true, that as the Viſtula paſſes through Pruſſia, the king may lay a heavy duty upon ſuch merchandize, and thereby diſtreſs the Poles, Dantzickers, Hollanders, and all who are concerned in this trade, but as he has no good ſea-port, which has a communication with the Viſtula, his ſubjects muſt paſs by the port of Dantzick, or they will never be able to import and export heavy merchandize to and from Poland, without the greateſt inconveniences."

It is not eaſy to aſcertain the revenues of Poland, as they fluctuate according to the reſolutions of various diets. The royal revenues accrue from certain lands veſted in the crown, from the different cuſtom-houſes of the kingdom, and from ſalt-works. But ſince the diſmemberment of the kingdom, the ſalt-works, and ſome of the crown-lands, have been ſeized by the late empreſs-queen of Hungary, many of the cuſtom-houſes by the king of Pruſſia, and a few of the crown-lands, with the cuſtoms of Mohilow, by the empreſs of Ruſſia; therefore it muſt be left to ſome future diet, and the permiſſion of the partitioning powers, to appoint from henceforth the eſtabliſhment of the crown revenue.

The nobility, by the ancient laws of Poland, were, upon extraordinary occaſions, to take the field on horſeback, together with their adherents; and when this rule was properly carried into execution, a body of an hundred thouſand men might be raiſed. This army was always called the poſpolite; but, from a variety of cauſes, it uſually moved with great difficulty, and was generally without diſcipline, ſubordination, or experience; but the Poliſh army, of late years, hath not been ſo numerous. Previous to the late diſmemberment, the peace-eſtabliſhment was thirty-ſix thouſand men; that is, twenty-four thouſand for Poland, and twelve thouſand for Lithuania, two-thirds of which were cavalry.

The two bodies of troops that form the Poliſh army are commanded by two generals, who are independent of each other; and though they are named by the king, they are not obliged to give an account of their operations but to the republic, and have an abſolute authority over the troops. The colonels are likewiſe abſolute maſters of their regiments, and it is their buſineſs to find ſubſiſtence for them and to pay them as well as they can; but being rarely paid themſelves, they deſtroy the country, and ruin the farmers, to ſatisfy their avarice and the demands of their troops.

The Poliſh nobility appear with more magnificence in the field than in their towns; their tents are more elegantly ornamented than their houſes. The cavalry, which is the greateſt part of the army, is chiefly compoſed of gentlemen; they have fine horſes, and their ſaddles, bridles, &c. are richly ornamented. The very contraſt to their cavalry is their infantry; for as the former is magnificently ornamented, the latter is badly cloathed, badly armed, and without any uniforms; this corps is recruited from among the meaneſt of the people, and they reſemble an army of vagabond Tartars. The Poliſh troops have but very little diſcipline among them: they attack with great fury, but if they are repulſed, they immediately retire with great precipitation, and it is impoſſible to rally them afterwards.

The members of the diet have lately agreed continually to ſupport an army of thirty thouſand men, for the defence of thoſe parts of the kingdom which the partitioning powers have ſtill ſuffered them to retain; and that the troops which compoſe this army ſhall be better diſciplined, more regularly paid, and alſo placed upon a footing ſuperior to what hath ever yet been known in Poland. For the payment of this army, the ſupport of civil government, and other contingencies, they have likewiſe come to the reſolution of regularly taxing ſpirituous liquors, foreign merchandize, ſtamped papers, ſalt, chimnies, playing cards, and all kinds of luxuries. They have likewiſe doubled the poll-tax upon the Jews. The ſtaroſties, who heretofore paid but one quarter of their revenues annually, muſt now pay three-eighths; and the clergy are now aſſeſſed in proportion to the other claſſes of people, though they had always hitherto found means to exempt themſelves from paying taxes.

Their trade, of which we have already mentioned the chief exports and imports, is carried on chiefly by foreign merchants reſiding here; for the gentry are abſolutely forbid to follow trade of any kind, on pain of forfeiting their honour; at the ſame time the commonality want funds, and the ſpirit of induſtry as well as an inclination to manufactures; inſomuch that their cloaths are all made abroad, or by merchant taylors who travel to noblemen's houſes. Beſides, ſuch of the Poles as have any fortunes, ſpend too much of their revenues in coſtly habits, and other articles of luxury, to be able to undertake any conſiderable traffic; nor have they any good port, except Dantzick, for improving the trade of ſo large a country; and, indeed, for want of neceſſary improvement in general, and not ſo much from the nature of the ſoil, the inland communication is alſo very bad.

The Poliſh current gold coin is ducats, worth two French crowns; and two ſilver coins, of a baſe alloy, one called the tinfe, a little larger than the French fifteen-pence, and the chouſtack, of which three make a tinfe.

The inns here are only long ſtables built up with boards, and covered with ſtraw. They have windows, but no furniture. There are chambers at one end, but ſo annoyed with vermin and ſtench, that ſtrangers chuſe rather to lodge in ſtables among the horſes, or in the common room, which is the only part where they have a fire; but if it be a holiday, they can expect no reſt; for the boors ſpend the whole day, and night too, in drinking, ſinging, dancing, and ſuch like kind of merriment.

It appears from the relations of the moſt intelligent travellers who have lately viſited Poland, that the kingdom in general hath for many ages been miſerably neglected by its legiſlators, and that the preſent ſpirit of improvement hath unfortunately been exerted too late. A gentleman who was in this country not long ſince, has obſerved, that if the Poles had agreed to a plan of this kind ſome years before, they might in all probability have ſaved their country, and made a reſpectable figure among the ſtates of Europe; but now it is too late; their beſt provinces are ſeized upon by ſtrangers, and all their operations are dictated by thoſe powers which united to annihilate their ancient form of government; and as theſe great powers have guarantied to each other reſpectively the ſeveral diſtricts which they have ſeized in Poland, there ſeems no poſſibility that the Poles will ever be able to recover themſelves, in the preſent ſituation of things: time alone muſt determine how far ſome future arrangement of the political affairs of Europe may change their unhappy ſtate.

SECT. V.

Containing the Hiſtory of POLAND; the civil Diſſentions in that Country; and an Account of the late Claims made by the ſeveral Northern Powers, to the Territories of that Kingdom.

HISTORIANS relate, that the Poles were antiently a tribe of Scythians, who lived in tents or covered waggons, rambling from one country to another, till Lechus, their firſt ſovereign we read of, taught them to build towns, of which Gneſna, in the province of Great Poland, was the firſt. Their records are obſcure and unſatisfactory till towards the cloſe of the fourteenth century.

Jagellon, grand duke of Lithuania, who became king of Poland by marrying the daughter and heireſs of Lewis then king, annexed his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which rendered his name ſo dear to the Poles, that they decreed the crown to be hereditary in his family; his deſcendants poſſeſſed it for a century and an half, when the male-line being extinct in 1572, in the perſon of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, two competitors aroſe, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France; and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed, and Henry became king of Poland; but his brother dying four months after his acceſſion to the throne, he quitted it to take poſſeſſion of France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. Maximilian then renewed his attempts; but Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſilvania, ſecured to himſelf the election by marrying Anne, the ſiſter

of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, of the royal houſe of Jagellon. This prince died in 1586. The Poles then choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John king of Sweden, for their king, who ſoon after was deprived of his Swediſh dominions, which he attempted to recover without effect: his long reign was ſpent in wars with the Swedes, Ruſſians, and Turks, which all terminated to the diſadvantage of the Poles. This prince died in 1632, and Uladiſlaus his ſon ſucceeded him.

During the remainder of the ſeventeenth century the Poles were engaged in deſtructive wars, at one time with the Coſſacs in the Ukraine, then with the Ruſſians in Lithuania, which was followed by a rupture with Charles X. of Sweden, who ravaged Great and Little Poland. The Turks too invaded the province of Podolia, and became maſters of the ſtrong fortreſs of Caminiec: their ſucceſſes compelled the Poles to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. The intrepidity of John Sobieſki who commanded the Poliſh troops, recovered the declining credit of his country. As a reward for his ſervices he was choſen king in 1676, ſoon after which he compelled the Turks to remit the tribute exacted from Poland. This great man died in 1696, not before he had experienced the moſt ungrateful returns from the ſenate, as well as from the emperor Leopold, whom he had laid under the greateſt obligations by driving the Turks out of Hungary, and obliging them to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna.

Upon the death of Sobieſki great diſtractions aroſe in Poland on the choice of a new king. Such was the prevalent venality of the times, that the crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, bad faireſt for obtaining it, but Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, bore away the prize, and ſupported by an army of Saxons, was crowned at Cracow in 1699. Auguſtus ſupported himſelf on the throne by the help of a Saxon army, and cloſed a long and unquiet reign by death in 1733. His ſon, Auguſtus II. was deſtined to the ſucceſſion by the combined force of Saxony and Ruſſia; while France procured the election of Staniſlaus to the throne, which was ſoon after ſet aſide in favour of Auguſtus. This prince was driven from his Saxon dominions by the king of Pruſſia; he died at Dreſden in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki, born January 17, 1732, was choſen with uncommon unanimity king of Poland, September 7, 1764. The perſonal merit of this nobleman, and the diſguſt which the Poles had conceived againſt their Saxon alliance, induced them to accede to this choice, although his birth and fortune gave him no claim to ſuch a dignity.

A diet which met in 1767 ſeemed to treat their complaints with greater moderation, which gave flattering expectations of thoſe unhappy diſſentions being at length appeaſed. The ſecret cauſes which obſtructed theſe effects, cannot be certainly traced, but ſome ſpeculating politicians do not ſcruple to charge the king of Pruſſia with having privately promoted the violent meaſures afterwards taken by the diſſidents, as well as with encouraging the rancorous ſeverity with which the governing powers proceeded againſt them. The intervention of the Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland gave great diſguſt to all parties in the kingdom; for from the authority which a powerful army conferred, the Ruſſian ambaſſador became in reality king of Poland, and every commander of a party, whether Ruſſian or confederate, was an abſolute and arbitrary deſpot, ſo far as the force in his hands was capable of extending his power. This unfortunate country became the theatre of the moſt cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The miſerable Poles in this extremity threw themſelves upon the Turks for protection.

The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in diſtinct provinces, which at length became only diſtinguiſhed by the general confederacy of the ſtates, and that of the diſſidents: and ſoon after a thorough union and coalition took place between thoſe two; againſt the Ruſſians, and the adherents to the governing powers. The moſt active of theſe confederacies was that formed at Bar in Podolia. Poland continued to groan under the calamities of a war carried on in her beſt provinces, and ſupported by devaſtations on her natives: at once enduring foreign cruelty and oppreſſion, and convulſed in every part by the domeſtic rage of her citizens: to theſe complicated evils however were added in 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; in theſe provinces it is ſaid to have ſwept off two hundred and fifty thouſand of the people.

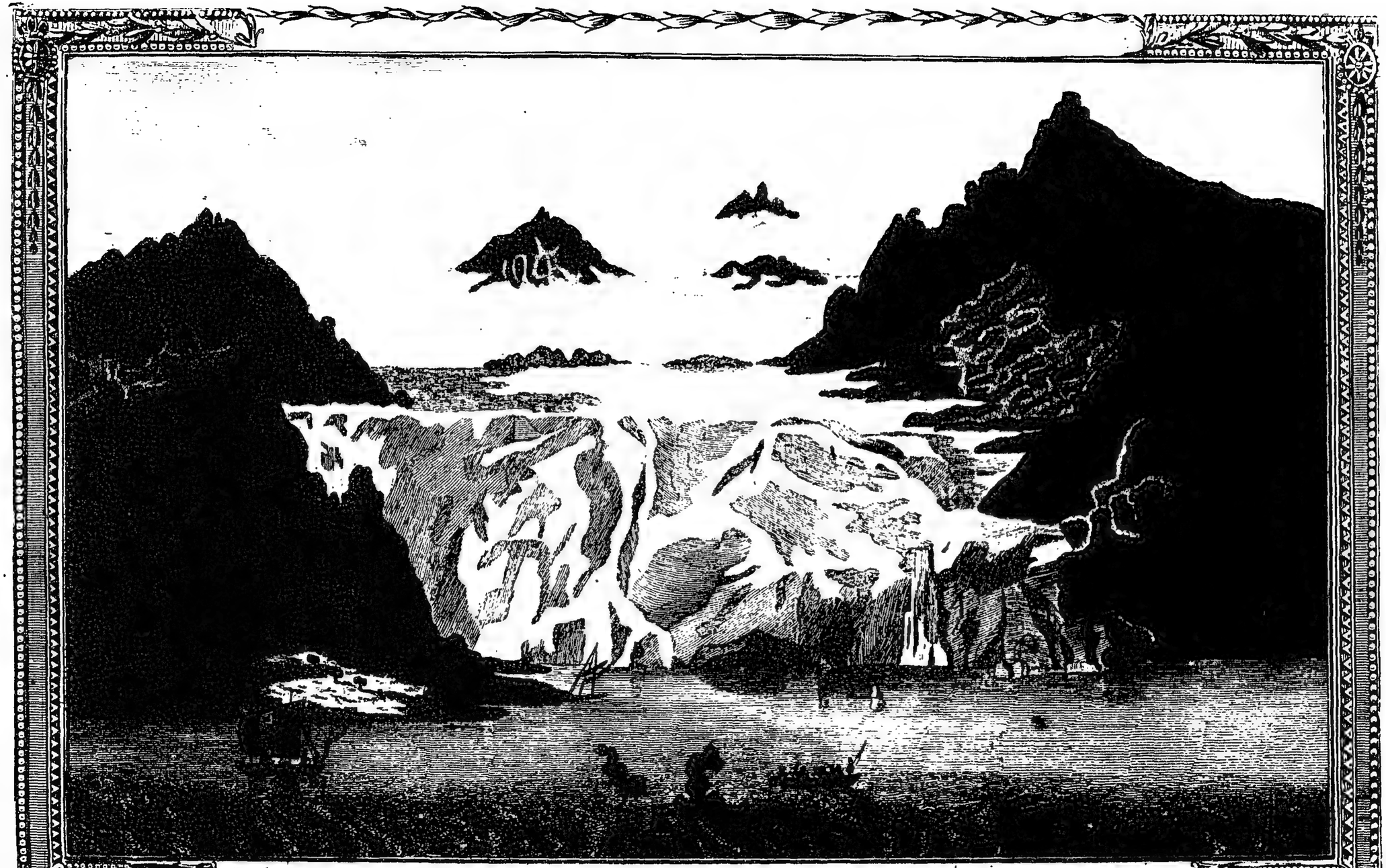
The firmneſs which the confederates ſtill continued to maintain notwithſtanding the frequent loſſes, defeats, and ſlaughters which they ſuſtained, ſhews how much they execrated the Ruſſian controul. In 1771 their exhauſted ſtrength ſeems to have been recruited by ſome ſecret ſupplies; which it is probable that the views of France might lead her to advance, and this ſeems more probable from the number of French officers who engaged as volunteers in the ſervice; by which means diſcipline was introduced, and the ſtruggle became leſs unequal. To cruſh this renewed ſtrength, an army of Auſtrians, and another of Pruſſians entered the country from different frontiers. Cracow was ſurrendered to the former of theſe powers, they likewiſe ſeized the royal ſalt mines of Wiebickza, Bochinia, and ſome other places, from whence the king's private revenue was principally drawn: the Pruſſians at the ſame time cut off the remainder of it which aroſe from the duties in Royal Pruſſia. The king of Pruſſia was the firſt who threw off the maſk, by diſtinguiſhing the country which he had poſſeſſed himſelf of, by the name of New Pruſſia.

Manifeſtoes were delivered at Warſaw by the Ruſſian, Pruſſian, and Auſtrian miniſters in September 1772, wherein they declare their intentions, and ſoon after ſpecify the countries which they had agreed reſpectively to appropriate. In the ſpecifications delivered by the court of Vienna, the empreſs queen takes the countries contained within the following limits as a portion equivalent to her pretended rights in Poland. All that lies on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from the duchy of Sileſia above Sandomir to the mouth of the river San; and from thence along Tarnopol to Zamoiſe and Rubieſzow up to the river Bog, croſſing the Bog, and going along the proper frontiers of Red Ruſſia to where the frontiers of Volhinia and Podolia meet at Zabraz, from thence in a ſtrait line to the river Nieſter, taking in that ſmall part of Podolia which is cut by the little river Podhorze to its influx into the Nieſter: and ſo on to the bounds which ſeparate Pocutia from Moldavia. Soon after the empreſs queen extended her claims to the remainder of the palatinate of Cracovia, and of the whole of that of Sandomir, on the left ſide of the Viſtula; and on the ſide of Podolia to within a few miles of Caminiec. By this tranſaction the houſe of Auſtria becomes poſſeſſed of two-thirds of the upper Poland, the provinces of Red Ruſſia and Pocutia, together with a part of Podolia, if not of Volhinia, containing in a direct line, from the borders of Sileſia, weſt, to the diſtrict of Caminiec, eaſt, an extent of country conſiderably more than three hundred Engliſh miles, and in its greateſt breadth, from the Crapach mountains, which divide Pocutia from Moldavia on the ſouth, to the borders of Lithuania in the north, of not leſs than two hundred, forming a vaſt extent of frontier, along the borders of Sileſia, Hungary, Moldavia and Tranſylvania.

In the next place, the empreſs of Ruſſia, by way of indemnification and exchange for divers antient rights, and juſt and indiſputable pretenſions, ſeizes on the following provinces and people, whom ſhe incorporates for ever with her empire, viz. all Poliſh Livonia; that part of the palatinate of Poloczk ſituate on the right of the Dwina, or Duna; all the palatinate of Witepſk, on both ſides of that river; all the palatinate of Miſciſlaw; the upper part of the palatinate of Minſk, along an imaginary line to the ſource of the Druetz; and alſo the lower part of the ſame province, which extends on the other ſide of the Druetz and the Nieper. Though theſe limits take in a vaſt extent of country, comprehending, beſides Poliſh Livonia, about one half of the great duchy of Lithuania, it is ſaid, that the uſurpation of this ſide has been ſince much increaſed, and now includes the country between the Berezina and the Nieper rivers.

The ſpecifications of the king of Pruſſia were iſſued under the title of letters patent, in which he claims the duchy of Pomerelia in Pomerania as the deſcendant from the houſe of Stettin, to whom theſe diſtricts of right belonged. To this end he therefore ſeizes all that part of Great Poland ſituated on this ſide of the Nottee; and alſo, all the territories of Pruſſia and Pomerania on this, and on the other ſide of the Viſtula, which the kings of Poland have hitherto poſſeſſed under the name of Poliſh Pruſſia; excepting only Dantzick and Thorn. About a month after theſe manifeſtoes a counter-declaration was delivered from the king and his reduced ſenate at Warſaw. After expatiating pathetically upon the five years of ſcourge and deſolation which have ruined the country, whoſe miſeries aroſe in proportion to the interpoſition of foreign courts, the number of their troops, and the length of

time



Curious Prospect of an ICEBERG *in the* ISLAND *of* SPITSBERGEN.

time which they were in it, every argument is made uſe of in oppoſition to the preſent meaſures, which reaſon and juſtice can urge, againſt force and injuſtice. The rights of the republic are reſted upon long and uninterrupted poſſeſſion, avowed and maintained by the moſt ſolemn treaties, and guarantied by the greateſt powers in Europe; all which are particularly pointed out.

The queſtion is then put, what titles the three powers can oppoſe, to rights ſo long eſtabliſhed, and fixed upon ſuch authentic and ſolid foundations? If there are titles dug out of the obſcurity of antient times, thoſe times of ſudden and momentary revolutions, which erected and deſtroyed, ceded and reſtored ſtates, in a few months or years; ſuch titles, if admitted, would re-unite to Poland many provinces which formerly belonged to her, but which have been for many years cupied by the very powers who make theſe pretenſions. And that as it is undeniable, that all tranſactions are annihilated by ſubſequent ſtipulations, and as all the latter ſtipulations between Poland and her neighbours oppoſe directly the partition they now would make, it follows, that the titles on which that partition is founded, cannot be admitted without undermining the rights of every ſtate, and ſhaking every throne from its foundation.

Theſe repreſentations had no effect on the parties to which they were addreſſed, for they proceeded to call upon the inhabitants of their newly acquired territories to take oaths of allegiance to them on a day ſpecified, threatening them with pains and penalties in caſe of refuſal or neglect thereof. It is ſaid that the partitioning powers have a deſign of forming part of Poland into an hereditary kingdom, with which the preſent king is to be inveſted. Such is the preſent unnatural alliance between three powerful northern ſtates. The balance of power has ſometimes armed Europe when it was really in no danger; but now that the northern powers ſeem leagued againſt the ſouthern, no one appears alarmed. However, future ages willl certainly regard this meaſure with the greateſt indignation, thoſe who projected it with horror, and thoſe who acquieſced in it with contempt; and the more ſo, as thoſe very ſovereigns, who have been ſo liberal in their profeſſions of friendſhip, are the perſons who have jointly invaded the unhappy kingdom of Poland, diſtreſſed its inhabitants, ſeized on its moſt valuable revenues, diſmembered its palatinates, duchies, &c. and partitioned out ſome of its richeſt provinces among themſelves.

CHAP. VII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF GROENLAND OR GREENLAND.

SECT. I.

Deſcribing the Situation and Climate of GREENLAND, with its Produce, and various Kinds of Fiſh.

THE full extent and dimenſions of Greenland, are entirely unknown. The moſt ſoutherly part lies in the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, from whence the coaſt ſtretches to the north-weſt beyond the ſeventy-eighth degree of north latitude, while the eaſtern coaſt reaches, according to the Daniſh writers, to the eighty-ſecond. The weſt coaſt was firſt diſcovered in 1585 by Mr. John Davis, an Engliſhman, from whom the ſtreights that run between the continent of North America and Greenland are called, after his name, Davis's Streights.

The eaſtern and ſouthern coaſts abound with vaſt flakes of ice, and theſe are driven from Spitzberg, by a very ſtrong current, towards the ſouth.

The eaſt ſide of Greenland, which is oppoſite to Iceland, is at preſent inacceſſible, on account of the mountains of ice, which riſe to an aſtoniſhing height, and cover the ſea: this part is therefore unknown; but ſailing between theſe and Iceland, ſeveral adventurers have ſafely arrived there; and this courſe in particular has been actually ſteered by the Dutch.

The weſt ſide of Greenland towards Davis's Streights, is, however, better known. On that ſide the coaſt is defended by rocks and ſeveral large and ſmall iſlands. It has alſo wide and deep bays, which run a great way into the land, ſome of which are the mouths of large rivers, and others form good roads and harbours. The main land conſiſts of little more than confuſed heaps of rocks, the ſummits of which, and alſo ſome of the vallies, are always covered with ice and ſnow.

As far as the Daniſh colonies have penetrated, the climate is not inſupportable; but the weather is very changeable and unſettled. During the ſummer ſeaſon, which laſts from the end of May to the middle of September, the ſun ſhines bright and very warm, and on the main land, above which no cloud can be ſeen, the weather is very pleaſant and always clear: but a cold damp fog that intercepts the ſun-beams continually hovers over the iſlands, except in the month of Auguſt, which is the only time in the whole year when the vapours are diſſolved. The rains that fall here are neither frequent nor heavy. In this climate it ſeldom thunders; and ſtorms, which are very rare, are of no long continuance; but the moſt violent guſts of wind come from the ſouth.

The winters, as far as the ſixty-fourth degree of latitude, are generally reckoned by the Danes and Norwegians pretty temperate, to which the calm and clear weather may greatly contribute. But when a north-eaſt wind blows, which comes from mountains covered with ice and ſnow, it is extremely ſevere; the air being thick and filled with clouds of icy particles, which cauſe a moſt piercing froſt. The ſnow falls in leſs quantities in that part of Greenland known to the Danes, than it does in Norway; for in the former, eſpecially near the rivers in the inland parts, the ſnow does not exceed half an ell in depth.

We muſt, however, confine this account of the weather to the ſouthern parts of this country ſubject to the Danes; for to the northward of the ſixty-eighth degree of latitude the cold is in winter ſo exceſſive, that the moſt ſpirituous liquors, as French brandy, &c. will freeze near the fire ſide. As the weather is in this climate very calm, the ice in the bays between the iſlands is not diſturbed till the end of Auguſt; and even in the creeks it does not begin to thaw till the cloſe of May, when it is gradually waſhed away by the agitation of the waves. From June to Auguſt the ſun is continually above the horizon, and conſequently during that time they have no night; but in winter the ſun is inviſible to the Greenlanders, and their day is nothing more than the morning and evening twilight, which do not laſt above two hours.

The ſoil in the vallies and plains conſiſts of moor and turf land, and in ſome few ſpots, particularly in the ſouth parts, in about ſixty-one degrees of latitude, grow angelica, ſcurvy-graſs, wild roſemary, ſome good eſculent herbs, and alſo fine graſs with yellow flowers, the roots of which ſmell in the ſpring like roſes. Indeed that part of the country which lies between the ſixtieth and ſixty-fourth degree of latitude has the beſt ſoil; ſo that in ſome places cabbages and turnips thrive very well, and the latter are remarkably ſweet. There is not a tree of any kind to be ſeen in the country except on the ſides of a bay, ſixty Norway miles to the ſouth of Hope-colony, where a little coppice of birch-trees grow: but their trunks are no thicker than a man's leg. Some ſhrubs are diſperſed here and

and there; as ſmall juniper, gooſeberry and bilberry buſhes, brambles, and the like.

It is not yet known what minerals are contained in the Greenland mountains; but there are rocks, from which conſiderable quantities of aſbeſtos have been hewn. Some mountains alſo conſiſt of an imperfect kind of variegated marble, of which kettles, and other utenſils, are made by the inhabitants.

Some hares are found on the main land; but theſe, which are very ſmall, are grey in ſummer, and perfectly white in winter. Here is alſo a ſpecies of rein-deer; but they are very different from thoſe of Lapland. The foxes are white, brown, and grey, but ſmall. White bears are ſometimes found here and are very numerous towards the north; but the Greenlanders are very daring and active in deſtroying them; theſe differ from the bears of other countries, their heads being long like that of a wolf, which they much reſemble in form.

Dogs are the only domeſtic animals in this country; they never bark, but ſnarl and howl; are timorous, and unfit for the chaſe; yet if not tamed when young, become wild and very miſchievous. The Greenlanders kill and eat theſe dogs, and alſo uſe them to draw their ſledges, yoking four, ſix, and ſometimes eight or ten to a ſledge, loaden with five or ſix of the largeſt ſeals, with the maſter ſitting upon them, who drives as faſt with them as we can do with good horſes: for they often travel ſixty miles in a winter's day upon the ice. They have no beetles, rats, mice, &c. and neither ſnakes or any other venomous creatures can live in this climate.

Muſketoes, or gnats, ſwarm here, and are extremely troubleſome, but they have neither ants nor bees. Their land-fowl are, the ryper, a ſort of large parrot, which is grey in ſummer, and white in winter; but builds his neſt very high in the clefts of the rocks; they have alſo eagles, falcons, large ſpeckled owls, ravens, different ſorts of ſparrows, and all kinds of land and ſea fowl known in Norway are ſeen in amazing numbers.

The rivers afford plenty of trout, cray-fiſh, and ſalmon; and the ſea yields an inexhauſtible variety of all kinds of fiſh, except oyſters; but it abounds with excellent muſſels, and very large ſhrimps or prawns. The ſmaller ſpecies of fiſh are dried here for winter ſtore, eſpecially the lodden, a ſort of ſmall herring. Here are alſo great plenty of cod, haddock, thornback, and the holybutt, by ſome called the turbot of the north, which is ſo big that it will fill a large caſk. The freſh water in Greenland has been highly recommended for its ſalubrity and palatableneſs.

Their ſeas, like other parts of the northern ocean, that lie under the north pole, contain a very great number of the largeſt ſpecies of fiſh, particularly whales, which there ſwim in vaſt ſhoals. In theſe regions the beneficent Creator has dealt out their food with a liberal hand, and of all climates this is the beſt adapted to their hot conſtitutions and enormous bodies, which are as it were incloſed in fat. This ſpecies of fiſh differs from all other kinds in many particulars; for in their internal parts they reſemble land animals. They breathe with lungs, and conſequently cannot remain long under water. They alſo copulate like quadrupeds, bring forth their young alive, and ſuckle them with their milk.

They have ſeveral kinds of whales, which may be divided into ſuch as have apertures in the head, and ſuch as have noſtrils for reſpiration. Some of the former have two holes or apertures; as the whale properly ſo called, the finfiſh, &c. others have only one, as the cachellotte, or ſpermaceti whale: but thoſe that reſpire through the noſtrils are ſeldom to be met with. This ſpecies of whales may alſo be divided into thoſe that have plain, and thoſe that have prominent backs. The fins of other fiſh conſiſt of bones, or cartilages faſtened together by their membranes running between them; but the whale has articular bones, like the fingers of a human hand, with their proper ligaments covered with a thick ſkin like that of the other parts of its body. By means of this mechaniſm the whale can move and turn about with greater eaſe than he could with fins of the common form, and ſecure himſelf from falling precipitately upon the rocks when he dives to the bottom of the ſea; for which end he lays his thick tail horizontally on the ſurface of the water, which is of great ſervice to him on this occaſion.

The ſpecies of Greenland whale with a flat back is thick and unweildy, its head taking up one third part of its bulk. Theſe are from ſixty to ſeventy feet in length, the fins on their ſides from five to eight feet; and the tail, which is in a horizontal poſition, or bent a little upwards on both ſides, is from three to four fathoms broad. When the whale is in danger, he turns up his ſide, and brandiſhes his tail, which it is dangerous to approach. The tail alſo ſerves him for an oar, with which he rows himſelf forward with ſurpriſing ſwiftneſs. The ſkin of the back is black and ſmooth, but in ſome places variegated or marbled. Next to the ſkin, which is not thicker than ſtrong writing paper, or thin parchment, is the rind, which is near an inch thick; and between this and the fleſh lies the fat, to the thickneſs of nine, and ſometimes twelve inches. Under the fat is the fleſh, which is dry and very red. In its upper jaw, on both ſides, are the ſpicula or whalebone, which ſerves him for teeth; and the largeſt of theſe, which are placed in the middle, are ſeven or eight feet in length, and ſometimes more. On each ſide are generally two hundred and fifty of theſe ſpicula, ſo that they amount in all to five hundred. The tongue is very fat; and ſo large, that it fills ſeveral caſks. The eyes of a whale, which are no bigger than thoſe of an ox, are in the hind part of the head, where it is broadeſt, and are defended by eyelids and eyebrows. This fiſh is very quick of hearing, though it has no external ears, and has only a ſpot under the upper ſkin behind the eye, and under that ſpot a narrow duct, which ſeems to convey the ſound to the tympanum or drum. They generally bring forth only one at a birth, though they have ſometimes two, and their milk is like that of a cow. Their uſual food is that of a ſmall, black, round inſect, of about the ſize of a horſe-bean, which abounds in theſe ſeas, and of which the whale ſucks in prodigious ſwarms with his mouth, and afterwards grinds them with his ſpicula.

The nord-caper, ſo called from the vaſt number of them ſeen about the north cape in Norway, is much ſlenderer and ſmaller than the whale. The fin-fiſh equals the whale in length, but not in thickneſs, and has a fin on his back, from whence he received his name. He is extremely nimble, as well as ſtrong. He throws water higher than a whale of his ſize, has brown lips, which are twiſted like a rope, and his body very much reſembles that of a tench in colour.

Here is alſo the narval, or ſea-unicorn, which is chiefly remarkable for its long horn reſembling ivory, but is generally more ſolid and weighty. This fiſh is ſmooth like an eel, its colour white ſprinkled with black ſpots, and its eyes ſmall. It has two fleſhy fins, and a ſemicircular hole on the top of its head, from whence it ſpouts water like a whale. The horn from which it receives its name, grows ſtrait forward from the middle of its upper jaw, is curiouſly wreathed, and terminates in a point: with this it attacks the largeſt whale, and can ſtrike with ſuch violence as to pierce the ſide of a ſhip.

The laſt we ſhall take notice of is the ſword-fiſh, ſo called from their ſharp-pointed upper jaw, which reſembles a ſword: they purſue whale and fin-fiſh with great eagerneſs. They are of a ſlender form, of various ſizes, from three to twenty feet in length, and their eyes ſtand far out of their head. A few of them will diſpatch a large whale; and they feed chiefly on his tongue, after they have killed him.

The morſe and ſeal are among theſe amphibious animals. The morſe is as large as an Engliſh bullock, with four feet, a thick round head, and a ſhort neck, in which lies his principal ſtrength. He has red eyes, ſmall ears, and large noſtrils, from whence he ſpouts water. His ſkin is very thick, and covered with hair, and from his upper jaw proceed two long teeth as white as ſnow, and more eſteemed than ivory, as they keep their colour better. This creature is very bold, making towards the boat as ſoon as attacked, and endeavouring to overſet it.

Seals are of the ſize of a large dog, are moſtly black, but ſome grey, with very fine ſmooth hairy ſkins. The old ones make a noiſe like the howling of dogs, and the young ones like the bleating of lambs. Their head and body are ſhaped much like thoſe of a dog, whence they are by ſome called ſea-dogs. Theſe are the moſt ſerviceable of all animals to the Greenlanders, for their fleſh ſerves them for food, and the ſkin for cloathing and boats: of its entrails and membranes they make ſails and windows; its ligaments ſerve them for thread and cords; and of the bones they make all kinds of domeſtic utenſils and hunting implements.

The catching of ſeals makes a valuable branch of the fiſhery practiſed in theſe ſeas; three hundred ſeals yield near as much blubber as a middling ſized whale. The ſeals are not killed by the harpoon, but generally knocked on the head with clubs; and many bears are likewiſe ſhot, killed with lances, &c. upon the ice. The ſhips ſet ſail in

February for the seal-fishing, and in April for the whale-fishery; government allowing a bounty to these ships of forty shillings per ton, as far as three hundred tons, so that a ship of such a burden receives six hundred pounds country money. If a ship is clear of the ice after the first of June, and goes back again, she forfeits her bounty; and also if it is known she carries out with her less than six months provisions.

SECT. II.

Giving a Description of the Inhabitants of GREENLAND, their Language, Dress, Houses, Furniture and Boats: their Method of catching Whales, Seals, &c. with an Account of the Manners, Customs, Religion, and Trade of the People.

THE inhabitants of this country, Greenland, are in general short, but fat, plump, and well proportioned. Their faces are something flat, their hair black and lank, and their complexion of a browniſh red. They are strangers to the small-pox, and are seldom afflicted with epidemical diseases; but the scurvy is the reigning distemper, and on this occasion their common remedy is scurvy grass and other simples. They have neither surgeon nor physician among them; but readily rely on certain impostors who pretend to foretel future events, and to be skilled in physic. They have some instances among them of longevity, and these perhaps would be more frequent, were it not for the numberless dangers to which their manner of life exposes them.

There is something very singular in their language, which is difficult to be learnt, and yet is said to have many elegant phrases. The women have a particular manner of pronouncing their words, which generally terminate in an n. Mr. Egede has published a dictionary of their language, and for the instruction of the Greenlanders, the four gospels, with several small tracts, have been translated into the Greenland tongue, and printed at Copenhagen. The Greenland dialect is mostly the same throughout the whole country known to the Danes, except some little difference in the pronunciation.

They dress the skins of their deer, those of seals, and of certain birds, sewed together with the small guts of the seal. There is very little difference between the dress of the two sexes.

The cloathing of the men consists of a coat or jacket, with a cap or hood sewed to it, that covers the head and shoulders. This coat reaches down to the knees. Their breeches are very small, and fit close: and the hair of the skins the coat is made of is turned inward, to keep them warm. Over this coat they put a large frock made of seal-skins, dressed and tanned without the hair, in such a manner as to keep out the water. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen shirt, or for want of linen, one made of seals guts, which also helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Those seated near the ports frequented by the Danes and Dutch have shirts of striped linen, with coats and breeches made of red and blue stuffs, which they buy of the Danish or Dutch merchants, but after their own fashion, and these they wear upon extraordinary occasions. Their shoes and boots are made of seal-skins well dressed or tanned. They formerly wore stockings made of rein-deer or seal skins; but now they have worsted stockings of different colours, as white, blue and red, which they buy of the Danes.

The coats worn by the women are higher on the shoulders, and wider than the mens, with higher and larger hoods. The married women who have children have much larger coats than the rest, on account of their carrying their children in them upon their backs, for these are their only swaddling cloaths and cradle. They wear drawers, which reach to the middle of their thigh, and over them breeches, the drawers they keep on day and night; but the breeches, which come down to the knee, they only wear when they go abroad in winter, and as soon as they come home, pull them off. Next to their body they wear a waistcoat made of a young fawn's skin, with the hairy side inward. The coat, or upper-garment, is sometimes made of fine coloured swan-skins, trimmed and edged with white, neatly wrought in the seams and about the edges, which look very well. Their shoes and boots, with little difference, are like those of the men.

Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot, which becomes them; they commonly go bare-headed, both without and within doors; and in these southern parts seldom wear their hoods except it rains or snows.

The chief finery of the women consists in wearing glass beads of several colours, corals about their necks and arms, and pendants in their ears; some of them also wear bracelets of black skin set with pearls, with which they adorn their cloaths, and even their shoes. The Greenland women have likewise another more extraordinary kind of embellishment: they make black streaks between their eyes, on their forehead, upon the chin, arms and hands, by passing under the skin a needle and thread made black. Hideous as this renders them in the eyes of strangers, they think it extremely ornamental, and say, that those that do not thus adorn their faces, will have their heads turned into train oil tubs, that shall be placed under the lamps that burn in the land of souls, or departed spirits.

Their habitations are of two kinds, one of which serves for the winter, and the other for the summer season. The winter dwellings are the largest. These are dug deep in the earth, and raised a little above the surface of the ground with stone and turf. In this hut the windows are on one side made of seal-guts dressed and sewed together, or the maws of holybutts, which are white and transparent. On the other sides the beds are placed, which consist of benches made with boards, raised half a yard from the ground. Their bedding consists of the skins of seals and rein-deer. On the hearth is a great lamp in the form of a half moon, and over it are hung their kettles formed of a kind of marble, or, where they have the advantages of trade, of brass or copper, in which they boil their provisions. The entrance is dug narrow and winding under ground, and the door so very low, that they must creep on their hands and feet to get in, which is so contrived in order to keep out the cold. The inside is lined with seal-skins. Some of these houses are so large as to afford lodgings for seven or eight families. Upon the benches where their beds are placed, is the seat of the women, who employ their time in sewing and making up cloaths, while the men belonging to the family, or strangers, sit on the opposite side under the windows, upon benches placed there for that purpose.

It is observable, that though in one of these houses there are ten or twenty lamps of train oil kept constantly burning, their smoke is not perceived to fill the room; which is probably owing to the care they take to prevent it. Dry moss rubbed very small is laid on one side of the lamp, which being lighted, burns softly, and if not laid on too thick does not cause any smoke. This fire gives such a heat, that it not only serves to boil their victuals, but also heats their rooms to that degree, that they are as hot as a bagnio; however, to those who are not used to this method, the smell of the house is very disagreeable, as well from the number of burning lamps, all supplied with train oil, as from various sorts of raw meat, fish, and fat, heaped up in these habitations; but their urine tubs in particular emit a very disagreeable stench.

Every master of a family has one of these winter retreats, to which they betake themselves in October, and continue in them till the beginning of May. All the warm part of the year they lodge in tents, which are their summer habitations. These are made of poles set in a circular form, bending to a point at the top, in the form of a sugar-loaf, fenced by a double cover, the innermost of which is of the skins of seals or rein-deer, with the hairy side inward; and the outermost of the same skins, but without hair, and dressed with fat, that they may not be penetrated by the rain. In these tents they have their beds, lamps to dress meat, and a curtain made of the guts of seals, sewed together, through which, instead of windows, they receive the day-light.

These people commonly eat when they have an appetite, but their chief meal is at night; their common food is the flesh of the rein-deer and hares, all kinds of land and water-fowl, seals, several sorts of fresh water and sea-fish, and even some parts of the whale. Their manner of dressing victuals is extremely disgustful. They usually quench their thirst with water, yet can drink a great deal of brandy without being intoxicated; but they are said to prefer the blood of the seals to any other drink.

With respect to their marriages, the chief qualifications required in the bride are skill in domestic affairs, and especially in cutting out and sewing their garments. On the other hand, nothing recommends a suitor more than boldness, activity, and success in fishing and hunting. The bride, at the marriage festivities, puts on a shew of gravity, and a melancholy air. Relations never intermarry here,

not even to the third and fourth degree of conſanguinity. They have a reſpectful idea of marriage, and in general every Greenlander has but one wife. They indulge their children to a culpable exceſs; letting them do whatever they pleaſe, inſtead of moderately correcting, or checking them for their faults.

Hunting or fiſhing are the chief employments of the men, for which they have very curious tackle. The boats in which the men row to ſea are about ſix yards long, and only three quarters of an ell broad in the middle, ending in a very ſharp point at both extremities. They are made of very thin narrow boards faſtened together with whale-bone, and covered with ſeal-ſkins. Only one man goes out in a boat, the top of which is covered with ſkin, with only an opening in the middle, which, when the man has entered, is faſtened cloſe round his waiſt, ſo that no water can enter the boat; and thus equipped, he will row ſixty or ſeventy miles a day, though he has but one oar, which is ſix or ſeven feet long, and flat at both ends. Theſe boats are eaſily overſet, which they conſider as no great damage, if the owner eſcapes with his life. The larger ſort of boats are chiefly uſed by women. They have alſo a kind of open barges, pointed at both ends, but not very deep; theſe are covered with ſeal-ſkins, and are high at the extremities. They make uſe of them in coaſting from one part to another, in conveying their effects in their emigrations, or when they embark for the whale fiſhery.

The employment of the Greenlanders is for the moſt part at ſea. When they go to catch whales, they put on their beſt apparel; fancying, that if they were not neatly dreſſed, the whale would ſhun them. Upon theſe occaſions, about fifty perſons, of both ſexes, ſet out together in one of the large boats. When they have found the whale, they ſtrike him with their harpoons, to which are faſtened lines or ſtraps two or three fathoms long, made of ſeal-ſkins; at the end of which they tie a bag of a whole ſeal-ſkin filled with air like a bladder, that the whale, when he finds himſelf wounded and flies away, with the harpoon ſticking in his body, may be the ſooner tired and eaſily found, the air-bag hindering him from keeping long under water. When he loſes ſtrength they attaek him with ſpears and lances till he is killed, and then put on their coats made of dreſſed ſeal-ſkin, with boots, gloves, and caps, laced ſo tight together, that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they leap into the ſea, and begin to ſlice off the fat all round the body, and are ſometimes ſo daring as to get upon the whale's back, while he is yet alive, in order to make the quicker diſpatch in killing him, and cutting away the fat.

Nearly the ſame method is uſed in killing the ſeals, only the harpoon is leſs, to which is faſtened a line of ſeal-ſkin, ſix or ſeven fathoms long, and at the end of it a bag of ſeal-ſkin filled with air, to keep the ſeal when wounded from eſcaping by diving: but in the northern parts, where the ſea is frozen, they uſe other methods in catching of ſeals. They firſt look out for the holes, which the ſeals themſelves make with their claws, of about the bigneſs of a halfpenny, that they may fetch their breath. On their finding one of theſe holes, they ſeat themſelves near it, and as ſoon as they perceive the ſeal put his ſnout to it for air, immediately ſtrike him with a ſmall harpoon, which they have ready in their hand, to which is faſtened a ſtrap of a fathom long, which they hold in the other hand. After he is ſtruck, and cannot eſcape, they cut the hole large enough to bring him up through it, and as ſoon as they have got his head above the ice, kill him, and then lift him out of the water.

Another way of catching ſeals, is: they make a large hole in the ice; but in ſpring they find holes made by the ſeals themſelves, through which they get upon the ice, in order to repoſe and baſk themſelves in the ſun. Near theſe holes the fiſhermen place a low bench, upon which they lie down on their belly, having firſt made a ſmall hole near the large one, through which they ſoftly let down a pole headed with a harpoon, a ſtrap being faſtened to it, which one holds in his hand, while another, lying upon the bench with his face downwards, watches the coming of the ſeal, which when he perceives, he cries 'Ke,' whereupon the ſeal is inſtantly ſtruck by him who holds the pole.

In the ſpring, when the ſeals lie upon the ice, near holes which themſelves make to get up and down, the Greenlanders, diſguiſed in ſeal-ſkins, with a long pole in their hands, move their heads backwards and forwards, and ſnort like a ſeal, till they come ſo near that they are able to reach and ſtrike them with the pole. It is of the utmoſt importance to theſe people to excel in hunting and fiſhing, ſince on their ſkill in theſe employments depends their whole ſubſiſtence.

In fiſhing, they make uſe of hooks of iron or bones; their lines are made of white whalebone, cut very ſmall and thin, and with this tackle they catch abundance of fiſh. Their way of fiſhing for ſmall ſalmon or ſea trout is as follows: at low water they build ſmall incloſures of ſtone, near a river's mouth, or any other place where the ſalmon come: when the tide comes in, the ſalmon, which enter the river, paſs at high water over the incloſure, and remain in the river till the water falls again, when they endeavour to return to the ſea; but the fiſhermen way-lay them at the incloſure, and ſtop their paſſage at the time of low ebb, when the ſalmon are left on dry land, and may be caught with the hand: if they are left in holes, they take them with a pole headed with two ſharp hooked bones, or iron hooks.

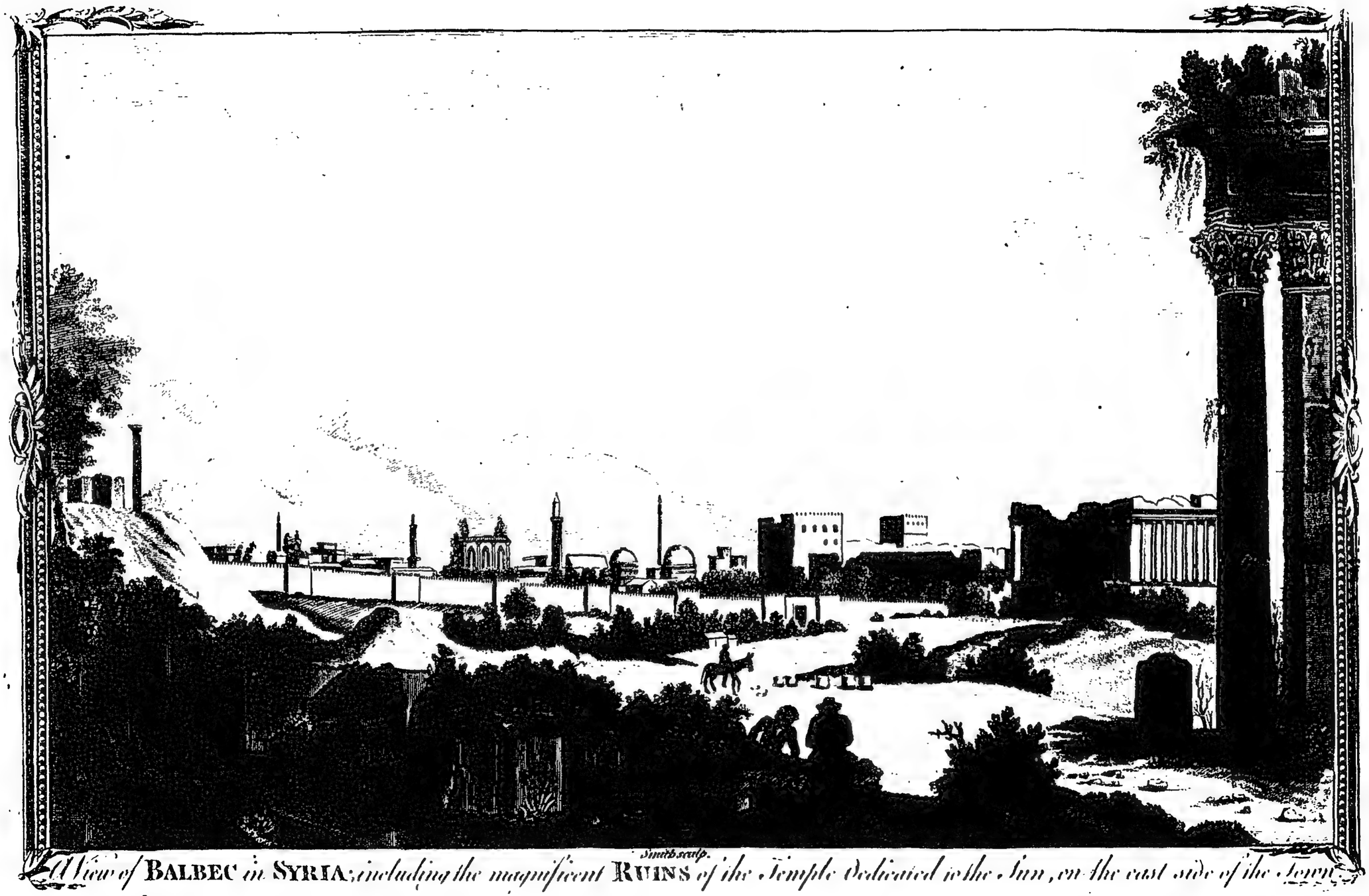
They are ſtrangers to trade, arts, and ſciences; have no traffic one among another, and their commerce with foreigners is very inconſiderable. They neither uſe nor have any knowledge of money; but fix a certain value on iron, which they barter for goods.

At their entertainments, they expreſs their mirth by drumming, ſinging, and dancing. They are accuſtomed from their very childhood to an unbounded liberty, all of them being on a level. They have indeed little regard to the forms of ceremony and decorum, which in other places obtain the name of politeneſs; yet are free, open, and cheerful in converſation; nothing pleaſing them better than merry jeſts and raillery. They live very ſociably, and repoſe great confidence in each other. Amorous intrigues of an unlawful kind are ſeldom or never heard of among them; and as they abſtain from theft, rapine, and violence among themſelves, they are never known upon any pretence to make war on their neighbours. They think themſelves greatly ſuperior to the Danes, and make no ſcruple to pilfer any thing from them, when it can be done with ſafety; but it is probable they have little idea of property: and as they behave with ſuch integrity to each other, it is natural to ſuppoſe that they have learnt this pilfering of the Dutch and Daniſh ſeamen. They exerciſe great hoſpitality, and indeed have moſt things in common; ſo that if there be any among them who cannot work, or get his livelihood, they do not let him ſtarve, but admit him freely to their table. They are remarkable for their good nature and inoffenſive behaviour: hatred and envy, ſtrife and rage, are rarely heard of among them. They have as great an abhorrence of ſtealing from each other as any nation upon the earth, and therefore keep nothing under lock and key; but leave all ſo free that every body may come at it, notwithſtanding which they have no fear of loſing it.

The Greenlanders are charged with having no idea of a God, and ſome authors have ſaid that their language has not any expreſſion to denote a Supreme Being; though they themſelves acknowledge that they are convinced of the immortality of the ſoul, and believe that as ſoon as a perſon dies he goes to the land of ſpirits, and there enjoys the felicity of hunting from age to age; while the body remains behind and moulders in the duſt. They maintain, however, that there is a ſpirit, which they call Torngarſuk, to whom they aſcribe a ſupernatural power, though not the creation of the world. The Angakuts, or prophets, form very whimſical ideas of this being, ſome repreſenting him as without form or ſhape, others giving him that of a bear, and others pretending that he has a large body and but one arm. They aſſign him his abode in the lower regions of the earth, where they tell you is conſtantly fine ſun-ſhine weather, good water, deer, and fowls in abundance. They likewiſe maintain that a ſpirit reſides in the air, whom they name the moderator, or reſtrainer; for theſe Angakuts pretend, by his order, to command the people to abſtain from certain things, as preſervatives from evil and danger.

They believe that there are ſpirits who govern the elements; and their notions of the heavenly bodies are very whimſical; they ſay the moon was once a young man, and the ſun a young woman his ſiſter, with whom he was familiar in the dark; but that ſhe being deſirous to find out her lover, rubbed her hands with ſoot, with which ſhe marked his white bear-ſkin coat, and hence they ſay came the ſpots in the moon. The ſun flying from his embraces, aſcended the air, whither the moon followed her, and ſtill continues to purſue, without being able to overtake her; but this is probably only a fiction of their poets, like thoſe of Ovid in his Metamorphoſes.

Their



A View of BALBEC *in* SYRIA; *including the magnificent* RUINS *of the Temple dedicated to the Sun, on the east side of the Town.*

Smith sculp.

Their time is not computed or meaſured by weeks or years, but only by months, beginning their computation from the ſun's firſt riſing above their horrizon in the winter, from whence they tell the moons, in order to know exactly the ſeaſon in which every ſort of fiſh, ſea animals, or birds, ſeek the land, that by this knowledge they may regulate their different employments. According to their aſtronomical ſyſtem, the heavens turn round the point of a huge rock.

A circumſtance very extraordinary in theſe people, thus ſeated in frozen regions, which might be ſuppoſed to damp the genius and extinguiſh the fire of imagination, is their talent for poetry, in which they take extreme delight. The poems they compoſe are a kind of lyric odes, the harmony of which depends both upon rhyme and quantity, there being a viſible regularity in the number of ſyllables of which their verſes are compoſed, and a plain regard to cadence even in their manner of reading them. They uſe this ſort of poetry, which, all things conſidered, is as far from being rude, as it is from being exact, to expreſs all their paſſions, ſuch as love, joy, grief, but more eſpecially anger; for when two people quarrel in this country, it is ſaid they challenge each other, not to fight, for that they never do but in jeſt, or by way of diverſion, but to contend in verſe; and he who firſt wants words to expreſs himſelf in this poetical duel, is held to be conquered, and ſo the controverſy ends without either law-ſuit or ſhedding of blood.

The Rev. Mr. Egede, who was ſent to Greenland by the Daniſh ſociety for propagating the Goſpel, lived among this people fifteen years, which he ſpent with the moſt indefatigable zeal and laborious application, by which means he made a great number of converts. He returned to Copenhagen in 1736, and by his ſolicitation a ſeminary was founded in that city for educating able miſſionaries and catechiſts to be ſent to Greenland. The Miſſion-college alſo ſends young lads to Greenland to learn the language, and to be inſtructed by the miſſionaries there, in order to qualify them for the miniſtry.

The trade of this country is at preſent carried on by the Copenhagen company, who ſend thither three or four ſhips every year, and the Dutch are prohibited from coming within ſeveral miles of their colonies. The commodities Greenland affords for commerce are whale-blubber, whalebone, ſea-unicorns horns, the ſkins of reindeer, bears, ſeals, and fox-ſkins, which they barter for the following merchandizes; ſhirts made of white, blue, red, and ſtriped linen, coarſe woollen cloth, knives, ſaws, needles, large fiſhing-hooks, and other hard-ware; looking-glaſſes, rafts, poles, deal boards, cheſts, kettles of copper, braſs, tin, &c.

Before we take our leave of this country, it may not be amiſs to preſent our readers with a ſingular, but well authenticated, relation of the adventures of four Ruſſian ſailors, who remained ſeveral years in Greenland.

Jeremiah Okladmkof, a merchant of Meſen, a town in the province of Jugovia, and in the government of Archangel, fitted out a veſſel, in the year 1743, carrying fourteen men; ſhe was deſtined for Spitzbergen, to be employed in the whale or ſeal fiſhery. The wind was fair for eight ſucceſſive days after they had ſailed; but on the ninth it changed, ſo that inſtead of getting to the weſt of Spitzbergen, the uſual place of rendezvous for the Dutch ſhips, and thoſe of other nations, annually employed in the whale fiſhery, they were driven eaſtward.

After ſome days, however, they approached within two Engliſh miles of the ſhore, when the veſſel was ſuddenly ſurrounded by ice, and they found themſelves in an extreme dangerous ſituation. In this alarming ſtate a council was held; when the mate, Alexis Himkof, informed them, that he recollected to have heard that ſome of the people of Meſen, ſome time before, having formed a reſolution of wintering here, had accordingly carried from that city timber proper for building a hut, and had actually erected one at ſome diſtance from the ſhore. This information induced the whole company to reſolve on wintering here, if the hut, as they hoped, ſtill exiſted; for they clearly perceived the imminent danger they were in, and that they muſt inevitably periſh if they continued in the ſhip.

Accordingly they diſpatched four of their crew in ſearch of the hut, or any other ſuccour they could meet with. Theſe were, Alexis Himkof, the mate; Iwan Himkof, his godſon; Stephen Scharapot, and Feodor Weregin. But as the ſhore on which they were to land was uninhabited, it was neceſſary that they ſhould make ſome proviſion for their expedition. They had almoſt two miles to travel over looſe ridges of ice, which being raiſed by the waves, and driven againſt each other by the wind, rendered the way equally difficult and dangerous: prudence therefore forbad their loading themſelves too much, leſt, being overburdened, they might ſink in between the pieces of ice, and periſh. They then provided themſelves with a muſquet, and a powder-horn containing twelve charges of powder, with as many balls, an ax, a ſmall kettle, a bag with about twenty pounds of flour, a knife, a tinder-box and tinder, a bladder with tobacco, and every man his wooden pike.

Thus accoutred, theſe four ſailors quickly arrived at Spitzbergen, little ſuſpecting the misfortunes that would befal them. They began with exploring the country; and ſoon diſcovered the hut they were in ſearch of, about an Engliſh mile and a half from the ſhore. It was thirty-ſix feet in length, eighteen feet in height, and as many in breadth. It contained a ſmall antechamber about twelve feet broad, which had two doors, the one to ſhut it from the outer air, and the other to form a communication with the inner room; this contributed greatly to keep the larger room warm when once heated. In the large room was an earthen ſtove conſtructed in the Ruſſian manner; that is, a kind of oven without a chimney, which ſerves occaſionally either for baking, or heating the room, or for a place to ſleep upon when the weather is very cold, to which latter uſe the Ruſſian peaſants frequently apply it.

The diſcovery of the hut was very agreeable to the ſailors, who perceived it had ſuffered much by the weather, it having been built a conſiderable time, but, bad as it was, they contrived to paſs the night in it. Early the next morning they haſtened to the ſhore, impatient to inform their comrades of their ſucceſs; and alſo to procure from their veſſel ſuch proviſion, ammunition, and other neceſſaries, as might better enable them to winter there.

When they reached the place of their landing, the aſtoniſhment and agony they felt was inexpreſſibly great, on ſeeing nothing but an open ſea, free from the ice, which but a day before had covered the ocean. A violent ſtorm, which had ariſen during the night, had certainly been the cauſe of this diſaſtrous event. But they could not tell whether the ice, which had before hemmed in the veſſel, agitated by the violence of the waves, had been driven againſt her, and ſhattered her to pieces; or whether ſhe had been carried by the current into the main; a circumſtance which frequenty happens in thoſe ſeas. Whatever accident had befallen the ſhip, they ſaw her no more; and as no tidings were ever after heard of her, it is moſt probable that both ſhe and all on board went to the bottom.

The unhappy wretches being deprived, by this melancholy event, of all hope of ever being able to quit the place, returned to the hut full of horror and deſpair, and their firſt intention was employed, as may be eaſily imagined, in deviſing means for their ſubſiſtence, and repairing their hut. The twelve charges of powder which they had brought with them ſoon procured them as many rein-deer; and it fortunately happened that there were great numbers of thoſe animals in the country.

On examining the hut, they found that there were cracks in many places between the boards of the building, that freely admitted the air. This inconvenience, however, was eaſily remedied, as they had an ax, and the beams were ſtill ſound, ſo that it was eaſy for them to make the boards join again; beſides moſs growing in great abundance all over the country, there was more than ſufficient to ſtop up the crevices, which wooden houſes muſt always be liable to.

Theſe climates are habitable but to few ſpecies of animals, by reaſon of the intenſe cold, which alſo renders them equally unfit for the production of vegetables. No tree or ſhrub of any kind is found in Spitzbergen; a circumſtance of the moſt alarming nature to theſe ſailors. Without fire it was impoſſible to reſiſt the rigour of the climate; and without wood, how was that fire to be produced or ſupported? Providence however, has ſo ordered it, that in this particular, the ſea ſupplies the defects of the land. In wandering along the beach, they collected plenty of wood, which had been driven aſhore by the waves, and which at firſt conſiſted of the wrecks of ſhips, and afterwards of whole trees with their roots, the produce of ſome more hoſpitable, but to them unknown, climate, which had been ſent into the ocean by the overflowing of rivers, or other accidents.

During the firſt year of their exile, nothing proved of more eſſential ſervice to them, than ſome boards they found upon the beach, having a long iron hook, ſome nails of about five or ſix inches long, and proportionably thick,

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and other bits of iron fixed in them; the melancholy reliques of ſome veſſel caſt away in thoſe remote parts. Theſe were thrown aſhore by the waves at that time when the want of powder gave our men reaſon to apprehend that they muſt fall a prey to hunger, as they had nearly conſumed the rein-deer they had killed.

This fortunate circumſtance was attended with another equally ſo; for they found, on the ſhore, the root of a fir-tree, of a form nearly reſembling that of a bow, which faſhion they ſoon brought it to, by the help of a knife; but ſtill they wanted a ſtring and arrows. Not knowing how to procure theſe at preſent, they reſolved upon making a couple of lances, to defend themſelves againſt the attacks of the white bears.

As neither the heads of their lances nor arrows could be made without the help of a hammer, they contrived to form the large iron hook before-mentioned into one, by beating it, and widening a hole, it happened to have about its middle, with the help of one of their largeſt nails: this received the handle, and a round button at one end of the hook ſerved for the face of the hammer. A large pebple ſupplied the place of an anvil, and a couple of rein-deer horns made the tongs. By means of theſe tools they made two heads of ſpears; and after poliſhing and ſharpening them on ſtones, they tied them as faſt as poſſible, with thongs made of rein-deer ſkins, to ſticks about the thickneſs of a man's arm, which they got from ſome branches of trees they found on the coaſt.

Having now equipped themſelves with ſpears, they reſolved to attack a white bear; and after a moſt dangerous encounter, they killed one, and thereby procured a new ſupply of proviſions. The fleſh of this animal they reliſhed exceedingly, as they thought it much reſembled beef in taſte and flavour. They ſaw, with much pleaſure, that the tendons could, with little or no trouble, be divided into filaments of what fineneſs they thought fit. This, perhaps, was the moſt fortunate diſcovery they could make; for they were hereby furniſhed with ſtrings for their bow, beſides other advantages.

They next proceeded to forge ſome pieces of iron into heads of arrows of the ſame ſhape, though ſomewhat ſmaller in ſize than the ſpears. Having ground and ſharpened theſe like the former, they tied them, with the ſinews of the white bear, to pieces of fir, to which, by the help of fine threads of the ſame, they faſtened feathers of ſea fowl, and thus became poſſeſſed of a complete bow and arrows. Their ingenuity reſpecting this was crowned with ſucceſs far beyond their expectation; for, during the time of their continuance here, they killed no leſs than two hundred and fifty rein-deer, beſides a great number of blue and white foxes. The fleſh of theſe animals ſerved them alſo for food, and their ſkins for cloathing and other neceſſary preſervatives againſt the intenſe coldneſs of a climate ſo near the pole. But they killed only ten white bears in all, and that not without the utmoſt danger; for theſe animals, being prodigiouſly ſtrong, defended themſelves with aſtoniſhing vigour and fury.

They attacked the firſt bear deſignedly, but the other nine they killed in defending themſelves from their aſſaults: for ſome of theſe creatures even ventured to enter the outer room of the hut, in order to devour them. It is true, all the bears did not ſhew equal ferocity, either owing to ſome being leſs preſſed by hunger, or to their being naturally leſs carniverous than the others: for ſome of them which entered the hut immediately betook themſelves to flight on the firſt attempt of the ſailors to drive them away. A repetition, however, of theſe attacks, threw the poor men into great terror and anxiety, as they were almoſt in perpetual danger of being devoured.

The three different kinds of animals before-mentioned, viz. the rein-deer, the foxes, and the white bears, were the only food theſe wretched mariners taſted during their continuance in this dreary abode. They were alſo for ſome time reduced to the neceſſity of eating their meat quite raw, and without either bread or ſalt, for neither of theſe could be procured. The intenſeneſs of the cold, together with the want of proper conveniences, prevented them from cooking their victuals in a proper manner. There was but one ſtove in the hut, and that was not well adapted for boiling any thing. Wood alſo was too precious a commodity to be expended in keeping up two fires; and the one they might have made out of their habitation to dreſs their victuals, could never have ſerved to warm them: beſides, the continual danger of an attack from the white bears, was another reaſon againſt their cooking in the open air.

As the eating their meat half raw proved very diſagreeable, in order, therefore, to remedy in ſome meaſure that hardſhip, they bethought themſelves of drying ſome of their proviſions, during the ſummer, in the open air, and afterwards of hanging it up in the upper part of the hut, which was continually filled with ſmoak. This meat, ſo prepared, they uſed for bread, and it made them reliſh their other fleſh the better, as they could only half-dreſs it. Finding this experiment anſwer their wiſhes in every reſpect, they continued to practiſe it during the whole time of their confinement in this country, and always kept up, by that means, a ſufficient ſtock of proviſions. In ſummer, they had water from ſmall rivulets that fell from the rocks; and in winter from the ſnow and thawed ice; this was of courſe their only beverage; and for drinking, and other purpoſes, their ſmall kettle was the only veſſel they could make uſe of.

Seafaring people are known to be extremely ſubject to the ſcurvy, and this diſeaſe increaſes in proportion as they approach the poles; which muſt be attributed to the exceſſive cold, or ſome other cauſe yet unknown. The ſailors, therefore, ſeeing themſelves quite deſtitute of every means of cure, in caſe they ſhould be attacked with ſo fatal a diſorder, judged it expedient not to neglect any regimen generally adopted as a preſervative againſt this impending evil. Iwan Hinkof, one of their number, who had ſeveral times wintered on the coaſt of Spitzbergen, adviſed his unfortunate companions to ſwallow raw and frozen meat broken into ſmall bits; to drink the blood of rein-deer warm as it flowed from their veins immediately after killing them; to uſe as much exerciſe as poſſible, and, laſtly, to eat ſcurvy-graſs, which this country produces.

Theſe remedies experience proved to be effectual; for three of the ſailors, who purſued this method, continued totally free from all taint of the diſorder. The fourth, Feodor Weregin, who was naturally indolent, averſe to drinking the rein-deer blood, and unwilling to leave the hut when he could poſſibly avoid it, was, ſoon after their arrival, ſeized with the ſcurvy, which afterwards became ſo bad, that he paſſed almoſt ſix years under the greateſt ſufferings: in the latter part of that time he became ſo weak, that he could no longer ſit erect, nor even raiſe his hand to his mouth; ſo that his humane companions were obliged to feed and attend him to the hour of his death, as if he had been a new-born infant.

They ſoon found the neceſſity of keeping up a continual fire in ſo cold a climate, and perceived that if it ſhould unfortunately go out, they had no means of lighting it again; for though they had a ſteel and flints, yet they wanted both match and tinder. In their excurſions through the country they had met with a ſlimy loam, or a kind of clay, out of which they found means to form a utenſil that might ſerve for a lamp; and they propoſed to keep it conſtantly burning, with the fat of the animals they ſhould kill. This was certainly the moſt rational ſcheme they could have thought of; for to be without a light, in a climate where, during winter, darkneſs reigns for ſeveral months together, would have added much to their other calamities. Having therefore faſhioned a kind of lamp, they filled it with rein-deer's fat, and ſtuck in ſome twiſted linen ſhaped into a wick. But they had the mortification to find, that as ſoon as the fat melted, it not only ſoaked into the clay, but ran through on all ſides. It was therefore neceſſary to deviſe ſome means for preventing this inconvenience, not ariſing from cracks, but from the ſubſtance of which the lamp was made being too porous. They therefore made a new one, dried it thoroughly in the air, then heated it red-hot, and afterwards quenched it in their kettle, wherein they had boiled a quantity of flour (part of the ſmall bag they had preſerved) down to the conſiſtence of thin ſtarch. The lamp being thus dried, and filled with fat, they now found to their great joy, it did not leak: but, for greater ſecurity they dipped linen rags in their paſte, and with them covered all its outſides.

Succeeding in this attempt, they immediately made another lamp, for fear of an accident, that in all events they might not be deſtitute of light; and when they had made theſe two, they thought proper to ſave the remainder of their flour for ſimilar purpoſes. As they had carefully collected whatever happened to be caſt on ſhore to ſupply them with fuel, they had found among wrecks of veſſels ſome cordage, and a ſmall quantity of oakum, which ſerved them to make wicks for their lamps. When theſe ſtores began to fail, their ſhirts and drawers were employed to make good the deficiency. By theſe means they kept a lamp burning without intermiſſion, from the day they firſt made it, till that of their embarkation.

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They were, however, expoſed the more to the rigour of the climate, from the neceſſity they were under of converting their ſhirts and drawers to the uſe above ſpecified; they alſo found themſelves in want of ſhoes, boots, and other articles of dreſs; and, as winter was approaching, they were again obliged to that ingenuity which neceſſity ſuggeſts, and which ſeldom fails in the trying hour of diſtreſs. They had ſkins of rein-deer and foxes in abundance, that had hitherto ſerved them for bedding, and which they now thought of employing in ſome more eſſential ſervice; but the queſtion was, how to tan them. After deliberating on this matter, they took the following method: they ſoaked the ſkins for ſeveral days in freſh-water, till they could pull off the hair tolerably well; they then rubbed the wet leather with their hands till it was nearly dry, when they ſpread ſome melted rein-deer's fat over it, and again rubbed it well. By this proceſs, the leather became ſoft, pliant, and ſupple, proper for anſwering every purpoſe for which it was intended. Thoſe ſkins which they deſigned for furs they only ſoaked for one day, to prepare them for being wrought, and then proceeded in the manner before mentioned, except only that they did not remove the hair. Thus they ſoon furniſhed themſelves with the neceſſary materials for all the parts of dreſs they had occaſion for.

Another difficulty which occurred was, they had neither awls for making ſhoes or boots, nor needles for ſewing their garments. Theſe wants, however, they ſoon ſupplied, by means of the bits of iron they had occaſionally collected. Out of theſe they made both; and by their induſtry even brought them to a certain degree of perfection. The making eyes to their needles gave them indeed no little trouble; but this they alſo performed with the aſſiſtance of their knife; for having ground it to a very ſharp point, and heated red-hot a kind of wire, they pierced a hole through one end, and by wetting and ſmoothing it on ſtones, brought the other to a point, and thus gave a very tolerable form to the whole needle.

A pair of ſciſſars to cut out the ſkins, was the next material thing wanted; but this deficiency was ſupplied by their knife; and though there was neither taylor nor ſhoemaker amongſt them; yet they contrived to cut out their leather and furs well enough for the purpoſe. The ſinews of the bears and rein-deer ſerved them for thread; and then they proceeded to make their new cloaths with the neceſſary implements which they had provided.

They wore, in ſummer, a kind of jacket and trowſers, made of ſkins, prepared as above; and in winter they wore long fur gowns, like the Samoieds or Laplanders, furniſhed with a hood, which covered their head and neck, leaving only an opening for the face. Theſe gowns were ſewed cloſe round; ſo that they were obliged to bring them over their heads, like a ſhirt, when they put them on.

After theſe diſtreſſed exiles had paſſed near ſix years in this diſmal place, Feoder Weregin, whoſe illneſs we before took notice of, and who all along had been in a languid condition, died; after having, in the latter part of his life, ſuffered the moſt excruciating pains. Though they were thus freed from the trouble of attending him, and the grief of being witneſſes to his miſery, without being able to afford him any relief, yet they were greatly affected at his death. They ſaw the number leſſened, and every one wiſhed to be the firſt that ſhould follow him. As he died in winter, they dug a grave in the ſnow as deep as they could, in which they laid the corpſe, and in order to ſecure it from the bears, covered it over in the beſt manner they could.

While the melancholy reflections occaſioned by the death of their comrade were freſh in their minds, and when each expected to pay this laſt duty to the remaining companions of his misfortunes, or to receive it from them, they unexpectedly got ſight of a Ruſſian ſhip. This happened on the 15th of Auguſt, 1749. The veſſel belonged to a trader of the ſect called by its adherents Stara Vieva, that is, the Old Faith, who had come from Archangel, and, propoſed wintering in Nova Zembla; but the contrary winds they met with in their paſſage made it impoſſible for them to reach the place of their deſtination. The veſſel was driven towards Spitzbergen, directly oppoſite to the reſidence of our mariners, who, as ſoon as they perceived her, haſtened to light fires on the hills neareſt their habitations, and then ran to the beach, waving a flag made of rein-deer's hide faſtened to a pole. The people on board, ſeeing theſe ſignals, came to an anchor not far from the land, as they concluded that there were men on the ſhore who implored their aſſiſtance.

The joy of theſe poor people, on ſeeing the moment of their deliverance ſo near, was almoſt indeſcribable. They ſoon agreed with the maſter of the ſhip to work for him on the voyage, and to pay him eighty rubles on their arrival, for taking them on board with all their riches, which conſiſted in fifty pud, or two thouſand pounds weight, of rein-deer's fat, in many hides of theſe animals, and in ſkins of the blue and white foxes, together with thoſe of the ten white bears which they had killed. They took care not to forget their bows and arrows, their ſpears, their knife and ax, which were almoſt worn out; alſo their awls and their needles, which they kept carefully in a bone box very ingeniouſly made with the knife only.

On the 28th of September, 1749, our adventurers arrived ſafe at Archangel, having ſpent ſix years and three months in their rueful ſolitude. But the moment of their landing had nearly proved fatal to the loving and beloved wife of Alexis Himkof, who, being preſent when the veſſel came into port, immediately knew her huſband, and ran with ſo much eagerneſs to his embraces, that ſhe narrowly eſcaped being drowned by ſlipping into the water.

On their arrival, they were all three ſtrong and healthy; but having lived ſo long without bread, they could not reconcile themſelves to the uſe of it; neither did they drink any thing but water, as they could not bear any ſpirituous liquors.

We ſhall conclude our deſcription of Greenland with a curious narrative of the methods made uſe of by eight ſeamen, viz. William Fakeley, gunner; Edward Pelham, gunner's-mate, the writer of this narrative; John Wiſe, and Robert Goodfellow, ſeamen; Thomas Ayerss, whale-cutter; Henry Bett, cooper; John Dawes and Richard Kellet, landmen; who wintered in Greenland, to preſerve their exiſtence in that inhoſpitable clime; and of their happy deliverance and return from it.

On the firſt of May 1630, the Salutation ſet ſail from the Thames, and arrived at Greenland on the 11th of the next month. Being in want of proviſions the latter end of the year, they ſent eight men on ſhore at a place pretty much frequented by rein deer, to kill veniſon, leaving them a boat, and orders to follow the ſhip to Green-Harbour, which lies to the ſouthward of the place where they went aſhore. Theſe men having killed fourteen or fifteen deer, lay that night aſhore, and propoſed next day to have gone on board the ſhip; but a great quantity of ice driving towards the ſhore, obliged the ſhip to ſtand out ſo far to ſea, that when they came to Green Harbour they were out of ſight. However, the ſhip being to rendezvous in Belſound, further to the ſouthward, and being to leave the country within three days, our huntſmen began to be very anxious, leſt the ſhipping ſhould be gone from thence too before they arrived. They thought it proper, therefore, to fling their veniſon into the ſea, in order to lighten the boat, and make the beſt of their way to Belſound, diſtant from thence about ſixteen leagues: but none of them knowing the coaſt very well, they overſhot their port about ten leagues, when, ſenſible of their error, they returned to the northward; but one of their company being ſtill poſitive Belſound lay farther to the ſouth, they were induced to make to the ſouthward again, till they were a ſecond time convinced of their miſtake; and then they turned their boat to the north again, and again arrived at Belſound; but had ſpent ſo much time in rowing backwards and forwards, that the ſhips had actually left the coaſt, and were gone to England, to their great aſtoniſhment, being provided neither with cloaths, food, firing, or houſe to ſhelter themſelves from the piercing cold they were to expect in ſo rigorous a climate. They ſtood ſome time looking on one another, as men amazed at the diſtreſs they were on a ſudden reduced to; but their conſternation being a little abated, they began to think of the propereſt means to ſubſiſt themſelves during the approaching winter; and the weather being favourable, they agreed in the firſt place, to go to Green Harbour, and hunt for veniſon; having two dogs with them very fit for their purpoſe.

Accordingly, on the 25th of Auguſt, they went in their boats to Green Harbour, where they arrived in twelve hours, being ſixteen leagues to the northward of Belſound. Here they ſet up a tent made with a boat's ſail, the oars ſerving for poles; and, having ſlept a few hours, went early next morning to their ſport, killing ſeven or eight deer and four bears, and the day following they killed twelve deer more, with which they loaded their boats; and, finding another boat which had been left there by the company, they loaded that with the greaves of whales (being the pieces which remain in the coppers, after the oil is drawn from them), and returned with their booty to Belſound. Here happened to be ſet up a large ſubſtantial

booth, which the coopers worked in at the fiſhing ſeaſon: it was eighty feet long, and fifty broad, covered with Dutch tiles, and the ſides well boarded. Within this booth theſe ſailors determined to build another of leſs dimenſions, being furniſhed with boards and timber, by pulling down a booth which ſtood near the former: and from the chimnies of three furnaces, uſed for the boiling of oil, they got a thouſand bricks, they found alſo four hogſheads of very fine lime, which, mingled with the ſand on the ſea-ſhore, made excellent mortar.

The weather was by this time grown ſo cold, that they were obliged to have two fires, to keep their mortar from freezing. They perſiſted, however, in their work, and raiſed a wall of the thickneſs of a brick againſt one of the ſides of their innermoſt booth; but wanting bricks to finiſh the reſt in like manner, they nailed thick boards on each ſide the timbers, and filled up the ſpace between with ſand: by which means it became ſo tight and cloſe, that the leaſt breath of air could not enter in; and the chimney's vent was in the greater booth. The length of this leſſer booth, was twenty feet, the breadth ſixteen feet, the height ten; their ceiling being made of deal boards five or ſix times double, and ſo overlaid, that no air could poſſibly come in from thence. Their door they did not only make as ſtrong and cloſe as poſſible, but lined it with a bed which they found there: they made no windows, except a little hole in the tiles of the great booth, by which they received ſome light down the chimney of the leſſer: they then made four cabbins, chuſing to lie two in each cabbin. Their bedding was the ſkins of the rein-deer, the ſame that the Laplanders uſe, and they found them exceedingly warm; and for firing, they took to pieces ſome caſks, and ſeven or eight of the boats which were left behind (for it ſeems they uſe a great many boats in whale-fiſhing, which they leave in the country every winter, rather than be at the trouble of carrying them backwards and forwards). Our ſailors ſtowed their firing between the beams and roof of the greater booth, in order to make it the warmer, and keep out the ſnow, which would have covered every thing in the greater booth, if it had not been for this contrivance.

On the 12th of September, obſerving a piece of ice come driving towards the ſhore, with two morſes, or ſea-horſes, aſleep upon it, they went out in their boat with a harping iron and ſpears, and killed them both; and on the 19th of the ſame month another, which was ſome addition to their food. But taking a very narrow ſurvey of all their proviſions, they found that there was not half enough to ſerve them the whole winter; and therefore they ſtinted themſelves to one meal a day, and agreed to keep Wedneſdays and Fridays as faſting days, allowing themſelves then only the fritters or greaves of the whales, which is very loathſome food. By the 10th of October the nights were grown long, and the weather ſo cold, that the ſea was frozen over; and having no buſineſs now to divert their thoughts, as heretofore, they began to reflect on their miſerable circumſtances, ſometimes complaining of the cruelty of the maſter of the ſhip, in leaving them behind; and at others, excuſing him, and bewailing his misfortunes, as believing him to have periſhed in the ice. At length putting their confidence in heaven, which only could relieve them in their great diſtreſs, they redoubled their prayers for ſtrength and patience to go through the diſmal trial, and received great ſatisfaction from their devotions, which no doubt were as ſincere and fervent as ever were offered up to the Divine Being.

Having now again ſurveyed their proviſions, they found that the fritters of the whale were almoſt all mouldy, having taken ſome wet; and of their bear and veniſon there was ſcarce enough left to afford them five meals a week; whereupon it was agreed to live four days of the week upon the mouldy fritters, and the other three to feaſt upon bear and veniſon: and leſt there ſhould want firing hereafter, to dreſs their meat, they thought it proper to roaſt every day half a deer, and ſtow it up in hogſheads; and with this kind of food they filled three hogſheads and a half; leaving ſo much raw as would ſerve to roaſt every Sunday a quarter, and a quarter for Chriſtmas-day.

It being now the 14th of October, the ſun left them, and they ſaw it no more till the third of February; but they had the moon all the time, both day and night, though very much obſcured by the clouds and foul weather.

There was alſo a glimmering kind of day-light for eight hours, the latter end of October, which ſhortened every day till the firſt of December, from which time, to the 20th of the ſame month, they could perceive no day-light at all. It was now one continued night, there appearing only in clear weather a little whiteneſs like the dawn of day towards the ſouth.

On the firſt of January they found their day a little to increaſe. They counted their days it ſeems, by the moon; and were ſo exact, that at the return of the ſhipping, they were able to tell the very day of the month on which the fleet arrived. As for light within doors, they made them three lamps of ſome ſheet lead they had found upon one of the coolers; and there happened to be oil enough to ſupply them in the cooper's tent; for wicks, they made uſe of rope-yarn; and theſe lamps were very comfortable to them in that long continued night. But ſtill their miſery was ſuch, that they could not forbear uttering haſty ſpeeches againſt the authors of their misfortunes; at other times, reflecting on their former ill ſpent lives, they conſidered this as a juſt puniſhment of their offences; and at other times that they were reſerved to bear witneſs to God's wonderful mercy in their deliverance; therefore they implored the protection of the Almighty, and continued conſtantly to fall down on their knees two or three times a day.

The cold increaſed to that degree, after the new year commenced, that it ſometimes raiſed bliſters in their fleſh, as if they had been burnt, and the iron they touched ſtuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold often ſeized them in ſuch a manner, that it made them ſore, as if they had been ſeverely beaten. Their water, the firſt part of the winter, iſſued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of baſon, or receptacle, by the ſea-ſide, where it remained with a thick ice over it, which they dug open at one certain place with pick-axes every day. This continued to the tenth of January, and then they drank ſnow-water, melted with a hot iron, until the twentieth of May following; and now they took another review of their proviſions, which they found would not laſt them above ſix weeks longer.

To alleviate their miſery, on the third of February, they were cheered again with the bright rays of the ſun, which ſhone upon the tops of the ſnowy mountains with an inconceivable luſtre: to them, at leaſt, this afforded the moſt delightful ſcene that was ever beheld; and after a night of many weeks or ſome months, what could be imagined more pleaſing to a mortal eye! As an addition to their joy, all the bears began to appear again, on the fleſh of which they had made many hearty meals: but theſe animals were as ready to devour our countrymen, as they were the bears, and, being pinched with hunger in this barren place, came up to their very door. One of theſe creatures, with her cub, they met at the entrance of their apartment, and gave her ſuch a reception with their pikes and lances, that they laid her dead upon the ſpot, and the young one was glad to make his eſcape; but the weather was ſo cold that they could not ſtay to flay her, but dragged the beaſt into their houſe, and there went to work, cutting her into pieces of a ſtone weight, one of which ſerved them for a dinner; and upon this they fed twenty days, eſteeming her fleſh beyond veniſon, only her liver did not agree with them; for upon eating it, their ſkins peeled off; though one of the company who was ſick, attributes his cure, in part, to the eating of it.

If it be enquired how they kept their veniſon and bear's fleſh without ſalt, it is to be obſerved, the cold is ſo extreme, that no corpſe or carcaſe ever putrifies. Had they been ſtocked with ſalt proviſions, they had infallibly died of the ſcurvy, as others did, who were left on ſhore, much better provided with liquors and other neceſſaries than theſe poor men were. By that time they had eaten up this bear, others came about their booth frequently, to the number of forty and more, of which they killed ſeven (one of them ſix feet high at leaſt) roaſting their fleſh upon wooden ſpits. Having now plenty of proviſions, they ate heartily two or three times a day, and could find their ſtrength increaſe apace, and their health eſtabliſhed.

The ſixteenth of March being now come, and the days of a reaſonable length, the fowls, which in the winter ſeaſon were fled to the ſouthward, began to reſort to Greenland again in great abundance; here they live and breed in ſummer, feeding upon ſmall fiſh. The foxes alſo which had kept cloſe in their holes under the rocks all the winter, now came abroad, and preyed upon the fowls, of which our countrymen, having taken ſome, baited traps with their ſkins, and caught fifty foxes in them, which they roaſted, and found to be very good meat; at leaſt in the opinion of men who had fed hitherto pretty much on bear's fleſh. Thus they continued taking fowls and foxes till the firſt of May, meeting with no other misfortunes,

except

except the loſs of one of their two maſtiff dogs, which went from their houſe one morning, in the middle of March, and was never ſeen afterwards; being probably overpowered by the bears, and eaten by thoſe animals.

In May, the weather beginning to grow warm, they rambled about in ſearch of willocks eggs, a fowl about the bigneſs of a duck, of which they found ſome, being a change of diet, they were very much pleaſed with: and now the ſeaſon coming on for the arrival of ſhipping, they went ſome of them every day almoſt to the top of a mountain, to ſee if they could diſcern the water in the ſea, which they had no ſight of till the twenty-fourth of this month, when it blowing a ſtorm, and the wind ſetting from the main ocean, broke the ice in the bay, and, ſoon after, turning about eaſterly, carried great part of the ice out to ſea; but ſtill the water did not come within three miles of their dwelling. The next morning, the twenty-fifth of May, none of their men happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outward booth, heard ſomebody hail the houſe, in the ſame manner as ſailors do a ſhip, to which the man in the outward booth anſwered in ſeamen's terms: they were then juſt going to prayers, and ſtayed but for the man above-mentioned to join with them. Surely no ſailors were ever ſo devout: but even ſailors will addreſs themſelves to heaven in their diſtreſs, when no human aid can help them; as ſick men will ſend for the prieſt, when the phyſician hath given them over.

The man who hailed them was one of the boat's crew that belonged to an Engliſh ſhip juſt come from England, which our religious ſailors no ſooner underſtood, but they put off their devotions, and ran out to meet their countrymen, looking upon them as ſo many angels ſent from heaven to their relief: but there was one mortification ſtill in ſtore, which no man would have expected; one of the ſhips which now arrived was commanded by the ſame maſter which left theſe poor wretches on ſhore; and he, barbarous brute! in order to excuſe his own inhumanity, began to revile and curſe them, calling them rogues and runaways: and this ſame man, it ſeems, had left ſeven or eight other men in Greenland two years before, which were never heard of afterwards; for which, no doubt, he richly deſerved the gallows, though our laws take but little notice of offences of this kind. But notwithſtanding the barbarity of their own captain, the commander and officers of the other ſhip took care they ſhould be kindly uſed, and brought to England, when the ſeaſon for whale-fiſhing was over, where they received a gratuity from the Ruſſia company, and were otherwiſe well provided for by them.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

PRUSSIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Account of the Kingdom of PRUSSIA, with its chief Diviſions; alſo a particular Deſcription of the Kingdom of PRUSSIA, properly ſo called, Brandenburg, Pruſſian Pomerania, Swediſh Pomerania, Magdeburg and Halberſtadt; their Boundaries and Extent, Towns, Rivers, Inhabitants, Trade, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, &c.

THIS monarchy is compoſed of twenty-one principal diviſions; namely, 1. Ducal, now Regal Pruſſia, ſituated in Poland; 2. Brandenburg; 3. Pruſſian Pomerania; 4. Swediſh Pomerania, in Upper Saxony; 5. Magdeburg; 6. Halberſtadt, in Lower Saxony; 7. Glatz, in Bohemia; 8. Minden; 9. Ravenſburg; 10. Lingen; 11. Cleves; 12. Meurs; 13. Mark, in the duchy of Weſtphalia; 14. Eaſt Frieſland; 15. Lippe; 16. Gulick, 17. Tacklenburgh, in the circle of Weſtphalia; 18. Gelder, in the Netherlands; 19. Neufchatel, in Switzerland; 20. Part of Sileſia; 21. The countries lately diſmembered from Poland, and now added to Pruſſia.

The kingdom of Pruſſia is bounded on the north by part of Samogitia; on the South by Maſſovia and Poland Proper; on the eaſt by part of Lithuania; and, on the weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic: the length being one hundred and ſixty, and the breadth one hundred and twelve miles.

With reſpect to the climate, the autumn, in this country, is uſually wet, and the winter ſevere; yet the air, being purified in ſome meaſure by the high winds, is tolerably wholeſome.

This country produces corn, flax, hemp, fruit, hops, paſturage, game, foxes, cattle, ſuch as horſes, ſheep, deer, &c. alſo bears, wolves, lynxes, wild-boars, &c.

The inhabitants are plentifully ſupplied with fiſh from the Baltic, and the rivers and lakes; and on the ſhore of the former great quantities of amber are found, incloſed in which are often ſeen ſpiders, flies, gnats, minerals, leaves, fiſhes, frogs, ants, drops of water, pieces of wood, &c.

There is likewiſe found a kind of manna, and an inſect, of whoſe eggs that beautiful red colour, called St. John's blood, is made. Wood, pit coal, wax, honey, pitch, &c. abounds; and glaſs is made of the aſhes of ſome kinds of wood. Beſides the lakes and canals, ſeveral fine rivers water the country, which afford good inland navigation; but the inundations ſometimes occaſion great damages.

The inhabitants of Ducal Pruſſia only, capable of bearing arms, amounted, previous to the year 1719, to ſix hundred, thirty-five thouſand, nine hundred and ninety-eight perſons. Since that period, ſeventeen thouſand Saltzburgers, and the ſame number of German, Swiſs and French coloniſts, have ſettled in this country; and theſe emigrants have, ſince their coming into this kingdom, erected and founded eleven towns, four hundred villages, fifty churches, eighty-ſix ſeats, and a thouſand ſchools; hence the number of inhabitants at the preſent time muſt be greatly augmented.

In Pruſſia, moſt religions are tolerated; but the Lutherans and Calviniſts prevail. In the thirteenth century, the knights of the Teutonic order made a conqueſt of the whole country, and committed the moſt inhuman barbarities; for they extirpated the natives, and put the Germans in their place; inſtead of converting the people, which they pretended was their view. But in 1454, one half of Pruſſia revolted from the knights, and put itſelf under the protection of Poland.

This occaſioned an almoſt continual war betwixt that country and the order, till the year 1525, when by a treaty concluded at Cracow, it was agreed that Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, the thirty-fourth and laſt maſter of the order, ſhould have the eaſtern part, under the title of a duchy, and that it ſhould deſcend to his and his brother's male heirs as a fief of Poland: but in 1657, the elector, Frederic William, had the ſovereignty confirmed to him and his heirs, on condition of its returning to the Poles in caſe of the failure of heirs male. In 1701, it was raiſed to a kingdom, by the elector Frederic, who was in a ſhort time after univerſally acknowledged as king of Pruſſia. He inſtituted the order of the black eagle, at Koningſberg, at the time of his coronation. The enſign is a gold croſs, like that of Malta, enamelled with blue, and worn at the end of a broad orange-coloured ribbon, which paſſes over the left ſhoulder: the number of knights is always thirty, and the ſovereign is the grand maſter.

In the year 1740, his late Pruſſian majeſty founded the order of merit. The mark is a golden croſs, with eight

eight points, enamelled with azure, and on the uppermoſt point is the letter F crowned, on the three lowermoſt points this motto, 'For Merit;' and on the four other points, which form a St. Andrew's croſs, are ſo many ſpread eagles in gold; this ſtar is fixed to a black ribbon, which they put about their necks, from whence it hangs down before.

By the inſtitution of an excellent police, the preſent king of Pruſſia hath brought this country into a very flouriſhing ſituation. The imports are trivial, and the exports many, conſequently the balance is greatly in favour of the country. The manufactures, exports, &c. being iron-work, paper, copper, braſs, linen, gold lace, ſilver lace, naval ſtores, fiſh, oatmeal, tallow, glaſs, gunpowder, cloth, camblet, ſilk, ſtockings, amber, lintſeed, hemp-ſeed, mead, caviar, &c. With theſe commodities, upwards of three hundred ſhips are annually laden, moſt of which go to Koningſberg, and ſome to other places.

His Pruſſian majeſty has a very conſiderable revenue from this country, amber alone producing twenty-ſix thouſand dollars annually: the other revenues ariſe from crown demeſnes, duties, cuſtoms, tolls, ſubſidies, &c. This monarch is abſolute, in political, civil, eccleſiaſtical, and feudal matters, in this as well as all his other dominions. And as he uſually reſides at Berlin, in his electorate of Brandenburgh, this country is governed by a regency, conſiſting of four great officers of ſtate, viz. the great maſter, burgrave, chancellor and marſhall. Theſe are aſſiſted by counſellors of ſtate, deputies from the nobles and from the commons. Here are likewiſe a board of commerce, a board of navigation, a college of war, a demeſne chamber, and ſeveral tribunals of juſtice.

Here, as in all other parts of his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, the military eſtabliſhment is very conſiderable. Each regiment is quartered upon a particular diſtrict, and all the young men of that diſtrict being regiſtered, are obliged, when called upon, to join the regiment.

This country was formerly divided into German and Lithuanian Pruſſia; German Pruſſia containing two hundred and eighty pariſhes, and Lithuanian Pruſſia one hundred and five pariſhes; but its modern diviſion is into the provinces of Little Lithuania, Oberland, Nantangan, and Samland. This latter province or circle lies near the gulf of Courland, and is celebrated for the vaſt quantities of amber which is found upon the coaſt.

The principal places are; Konigſberg, or Koningſberg, the capital, not only of this province, but of the whole kingdom of Pruſſia; which is ſituated on the river Pregel, in fifty-four degrees, forty-two minutes, north latitude, and twenty-one degrees, thirty-five minutes, eaſt longitude. It is well fortified, has ſeven bridges over the Pregel, and was founded by Offocarus or Premiſlaus I. king of Bohemia, in the year 1255, when that king came to the aſſiſtance of the Teutonic knights, againſt the pagan Samlanders. It conſiſts properly of three towns, formed by ſo many branches of the river, with the reſpective ſuburbs to each. Some geographers affirm, that this is a beautiful city: but on the contrary, the moſt judicious travellers are unanimous in its diſpraiſe. An ingenious Engliſh writer, in particular, the lateſt we know of who hath viſited theſe parts, ſays, "This is a vaſt city; I do not believe it is leſs than Copenhagen, and it contains fifty thouſand inhabitants, excluſive of eight thouſand ſoldiers: it is a great collection of houſes and ſtreets, without elegance, beauty, or order: the buildings are in a vile taſte and moſtly old. Here is an academy founded by one of the firſt dukes of Pruſſia, but our grammar ſchools in England are in general much ſuperior to it. A profeſſor ſhewed me the library and other apartments; there is nothing worth looking at, except the original paſsport given by Charles V. to Martin Luther, when he attended the diet of Worms, in 1521, and ſigned by the emperor's hand: this merits preſervation. Koningſberg has a conſiderable trade in hemp and flax; but it is ſeven German or thirty-five Engliſh miles from Oillau, the ſea-port, at the mouth of the river Pregel; ſo that only very ſmall veſſels can come up to the town. The preſent king of Pruſſia has not ſhewn any particular attachment for this part of his dominions, nor has he viſited the city ſince the year 1753, though he comes annually to make a general review of the troops at Graudentz, near Marienwarder, on the Viſtula, not far from hence."

The three diviſions of Koningſberg are Alſtadt, or the Whole Town, Lobenicht, and Kneiphoff. In the city and ſuburbs are a great many private gardens. The townhouſe and exchange are tolerable buildings; and the palace erected b the margrave Albert, is a magnificent pile, and very capacious, as it contains many courts, public offices, &c. The gardens and parks are great embelliſhments to it. The citadel, called Fredericſburg, erected in 1657, is a regular fortification, of a ſquare form, and ſurrounded by broad ditches. This city was formerly a hanſe town, and its trade is very conſiderable, and near the palace is The Collegium Fredericianum. Beſides the ſeveral hoſpitals and alms-houſes, there is a charitable fund, which diſtributes weekly penſions to above eight hundred perſons.

The town of Pillaw is well fortified, and has an excellent harbour, ſituated at the mouth of the bay or lake called the Freſche-Hoff, thirty miles to the weſt of Koningſberg. The larger veſſels, conſigned to Koningſberg, deliver and take in their cargoes here, as the Freſche-Hoff hath not a ſufficient depth of water to carry them up to Koningſberg: hence Pillaw is a place of conſiderable trade, and the town and harbour are defended by a ſtrong fort well planted with cannon. The peninſula in which Pillaw is ſituated, is, from its fertility and pleaſantneſs, termed the Pruſſian Paradiſe.

The ſmall village of Wogram is in the neighbourhood of Pillaw, where ſturgeons are boiled and packed up, and caviar is made of their rows.

Here is a narrow ſlip of land called the Curiſche Nerung, or Peninſula Caronenſis, which ſeparates the Baltic ſea from the bay called Curiſche-Hoff; it is a barren, narrow, and ſandy tract.

The town of Walau, ſituated at the conflux of the Pregel and Alle, conſiſts of two principal and five croſs ſtreets, but does not contain above three hundred houſes: it was founded in the year 1336.

Near this place are Great and Little Frederic's canals, which much facilitate the inland navigation of the kingdom: the king of Pruſſia purchaſed the property of theſe canals, and their reſpective tolls, of the Waldenburg family, in the year 1713.

The circle or province of Nantangan adjoins to Samland: it is fertile and populous; and contains, 1. Angerburg, which is defended by a ſtrong caſtle; it is celebrated for a capacious, beautiful, and well endowed church. 2. Raſtinburg, a handſome town, with a caſtle on the river Guleer. 3. Gardawen, on the river Omer, founded in 1325; it has two caſtles to defend it, and an elegant palace with fine gardens.

Oberland was formerly a very conſiderable province; is at preſent equally fertile, but leſs populous than it has been. It contains, 1. Oſterode, a conſiderable town on the lake of Dribentz, remarkable only for its ſalt works. 2. Holland is a well-fortified, handſome town, near the river Weiſke: here are ſome excellent ſalt-works, a magazine for corn, forrage, &c. 3. Morungen, a ſmall well-built town, ſituated upon a lake to which it gives name, is exceedingly well-fortified. Marienwarder is a conſiderable town, neatly built, and pleaſantly ſituated near the Viſtula, and on the borders of Pomerania.

Little Lithuania is one hundred and forty-four miles in length, and in general above fifty in breadth. This province is very woody, and was almoſt depopulated by the peſtilence in 1710; but King Frederic William reſtored it, by encouraging a great number of foreigners to ſettle in it; ſince this time it has been extremely well cultivated, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. It contains the following places: 1. Memel, a well-fortified town on the lake Curiſche-Hoff, about eighty miles from Koningſberg. It has a conſiderable trade in flax, lintſeed, thread, and hemp. Here are alſo a brewery, a ſoap manufactory, a ſalt factory, royal magazine, and a ſtrong citadel to defend the whole. 2. Tittſet, defended by a caſtle, is famed for its cattle, and the excellent butter made in its neighbourhood: it alſo contains a ſalt-factory. 3. Inſterburg, at the conflux of the Inſter, with the Angerap, is defended by a caſtle, contains a granary, ſalt-factory, and high court, and has a conſiderable trade for beer and corn; it is inhabited by about three thouſand families. 4. Stallupe-heren, a ſmall town of great trade in cattle; it had a charter granted to it in 1722: wood is ſcarce, and freſh water ſtill more ſo. 5. Ragint, a ſmall town: it is ſurrounded by palliſadoes, and has a ſtrong caſtle to defend it.

II. Brandenburg. This electorate has Poland on the eaſt; Luneburg on the weſt; Pomerania on the north; and Sileſia, with the electorate of Saxony on the ſouth. It is two hundred miles in length, and its greateſt breadth is about one hundred.

The climate is exceedingly cold in winter, and the ſoil in general not fruitful, as it is in a great meaſure ſandy, though under the reigns of the late and preſent ſovereigns a variety

a variety of methods have been taken to improve it. The productions which are moſt plentiful, are buck wheat, millet, flax, woad, tobacco, herbs, alum, ſalt-petre, amber, iron, ſtone, &c. Abundance of cattle and ſheep are bred here: and the woods not only ſupply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar and wood-aſhes, not only for domeſtic uſes, but for exportation. They have likewiſe a very conſiderable ſilk-manufactory here.

About ten years ago Brandenburg contained one hundred and twenty towns, two thouſand five hundred villages, and eight hundred thouſand inhabitants. But his preſent majeſty has greatly increaſed not only the manufactures, but the number of people, villages, and even towns in his dominions, and more particularly thoſe in this electorate.

The chief rivers in Brandenburg are, the Elbe, Preignitz, Warta, Oder, Havel, and Spree. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh, and are united by canals.

Brandenburg is generally divided into three parts, called Marcks, viz. 1. The Middle Marck, which lies weſt of the river Oder, extending to the Havel and Elbe. 2. The New Marck, which lies to the north eaſt on the banks of the Oder and Wart, ſtretching northward to Pomerania. 3. the Alt, or Old Marck, on the weſt ſide of the Elbe, between that river and Lunenburg. To theſe ſome add the Upper Marck, or Ukermarck, near the river Uker, and the Preignitz, which has the duchy of Mecklenburg on the north-weſt and north-eaſt; its northern ſituation makes it very cold, and the winter ſharp for ſeven or eight months; but they have plenty of firing. It is not very fruitful, by reaſon of its cold and watery ſoil; but it has large foreſts abounding with deer. The Old Marck, however, is ſaid to have plenty of herbs and fruit, and the New Marck has ſome corn and paſture, wherein are fed great flocks of ſheep, and ſome black cattle. They boaſt, indeed, in ſome parts, of their wine, but the Saxons deſpiſe it to a proverb. The country people are generally poor, and have ſorry houſes of accommodation. La Foreſt ſays, that if they were as much given to trade, as to drinking and feaſting, they might make conſiderable profit of their ſheep, and breed more black cattle; yet they are univerſally allowed to be brave. Their commodities are chiefly exported by the Elbe and the Oder, betwixt which there is a communication by a canal, which ſaves their paying toll in the Sound. The country is alſo watered by other good rivers, particularly the Spree, the Havel, the Netze, the Uker, and the Warta; and it has many lakes (the chief of which is the Ukerzee) the beſt ſtocked with fiſh of any in Germany.

I. The New Marck, lying next to Sileſia, we chuſe to deſcribe firſt. It has Sileſia on the ſouth, the Middle Marck on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, Poland on the eaſt, and runs out to Pomerania on the north. The Oder divides it from the Middle Marck, and the Uker Marck. It is about one hundred miles in compaſs. It belonged many years to the knights of the Teutonic order, till the 13th century, when it was purchaſed by the Brandenburg family; but they had not peaceable poſſeſſion of it till the 16th. Bimo, in his notes on Cluverius, ſays, that moſt of this marquiſate was ſold to the emperor Charles IV. by Otho of Bavaria, for twenty hundred thouſand pieces of gold, which Otho afterwards ſpent in the caſtle of Wolfſtein, upon a baker's wife, whom he had debauched. This diviſion abounds more than any of the others in corn and paſture, and has vineyards on the banks of the Oder, but they are of no great account. Sometimes the boors find quantities of old coin, and precious ſtones, which they ſell for little.

The chief places in it, are, 1. Cuſtrin, or Kuſtrim, its capital, thirteen miles north of Frankfort, and forty-five eaſt of Berlin. It was but a fiſhing village till 1537, when it was walled with ſtone, and otherwiſe fortified, and is reckoned the key of the New Marck. Guſtavus Adolphus beſieged it in vain in 1631. It is ſtrong both by art and nature, being ſituate in a marſh, at the conflux of the Oder and Warta. It has an arſenal well furniſhed, and a citadel which is reckoned impregnable. The burghers have neat houſes, well furniſhed, and the market-place is the beſt in all the marquiſate. It has two churches, in one of which, near the palace, are interred its princes. Beſides the town council, there is a council of the regency here for this diviſion, and a court of bailiwick.

2. Falkenburg, on the river Frage, or Rega, thirty-eight miles ſouth of Colberg, fifty eaſt of Stetin, and one hundred and ſeven miles north-eaſt of Berlin, on the frontiers of Pomerania, is only noted for its ſtrong caſtle.

3. Drieſſen, or Dreyſen, in Latin Drieſa, another town with a fortreſs, reckoned impregnable, near the Poliſh frontier, at the conflux of the Netze and the Frage, eighty miles north-eaſt of Berlin. On the Poliſh ſide it is defended by a large marſh, which reaches almoſt a muſquet-ſhot from the town; and its two rivers part at the entrance of the place, and encloſe it. The fortification is a regular pentagon, with ditches. The Swedes took it by the treachery of one of the inhabitants in 1639, but reſtored it by the peace in 1659.

4. Landſperg, on the river Warta, over which it has a bridge twenty miles eaſt of the Oder, twenty-four eaſt of Kuſtrim, thirty-five north eaſt of Frankfort, and ſixty-eight eaſt of Berlin. It is very conveniently ſituate for trade, which conſiſts much in caſting of iron ordnance. It was twice taken by the Swedes in the German wars, and as often retaken.

5. Sunneberg, or Sonneberg, on the ſame river, fifty miles eaſt of Berlin, was the reſidence of the bailiffs of the order of Malta, till the electors ſeized it in the 16th century, and aſſumed the power to preſent their bailiffs, and diſpoſe their commanderies.

6. Schwedt, upon the Oder, forty-ſeven miles north-eaſt of Berlin, is the appenage of one of the ſons of the family, who has a pleaſant garden and palace here; and from hence Philip, great uncle to the late king of Pruſſia, was denominated prince of Brandenburg Schwedt. The town is noted for a treaty of neutrality for Swediſh Pomerania, to prevent its being ruined by the late war in the north: but Charles XII. of Sweden refuſing to ſtand to it, loſt that country.

II. The Middle Marck lies in the middle of the marquiſate, and in the largeſt of the three diviſions, containing about one hundred miles from the banks of the Elbe to the Oder. It has Preignitz on the north, together with Mecklenburg, the Uker Marck, and the New Marck; which laſt diviſion bounds it likewiſe on the eaſt, together with Sileſia; on the ſouth it has Luſatia, and the duchy of Saxony; and the duchy of Magdebourg, on the weſt.

The chief towns are, 1. Lebus, or Libus, on the Oder, ſix miles north of Franckfort, twelve ſouth of Cuſtrin, and forty eaſt of Berlin. It was formerly a biſhopric, founded by Miceſlaus, the firſt Chriſtian prince of Poland, about the year 695. It embraced the reformation in 1555, and in 1628, it was united to the dominions of Brandenburg, by the elector, who was its biſhop, and, as ſuch, chancellor of the univerſity of Franckfort. The ſee, which has ſince been ſecularized, was ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, in Poland. The town ſtands between two hills, on one of which are the ruins of the old caſtle of the biſhop, which was burnt.

2. Franckort on the Oder, about ten miles north from the borders of Luſatia, ſixteen weſt from thoſe of Poland and Stetin, one hundred and thirty north of Prague, and two hundred and fifty-three north-weſt of Vienna. The Oder, over which there is a large timber bridge, divides it into two parts. It is ſaid to have been founded in the year 146, by Sunno, a prince of the Franks, who drove out the Vandals, and planted a colony here of his own people. In 1253, it was rebuilt, and enlarged one third by the elector John I. In 1379, the elector Sigiſmund gave it great privileges, upon its entering into the league of the Hanſe towns; and Joachim I. founded an univerſity here in 1506, ſupplying it with learned profeſſors from Leipſick; ſince which time it has bred many learned men. The Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed here in 1538. It was once a free and imperial city; but now exempt, and not ſo conſiderable as formerly. Nevertheleſs it has a conſiderable trade, chiefly in linen cloth and fells, by the Oder, and the canal betwixt that river and the Elbe; and has three great fairs a year. The ſtreets are wide, the houſes well built, and the market place is ſpacious and ſtately.

This city has ſtood the ſhock of various revolutions. It was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Charles IV. and, to pacify him, the inhabitants forced to pay him down twelve thouſand marks of ſilver. In 1631, the Swedes took it by ſtorm, when they put all the inhabitants to the ſword, to revenge the maſſacre of two thouſand Swedes, whom the emperor's general, count Tilly, had inhumanely put to death in the city of Brandenburg. However, it was reſtored to the elector by the peace of Weſtphalia. Without the gates there are the ruins of an antient Carthuſian monaſtery, of which Johannes ab Indagine, ſaid to have wrote three hundred tracts on various ſubjects, was prior. From hence to Berlin, which is a flat ſandy country, the road leads through.

3. Munchenburg, ſituated between Frankfort on the Oder and Berlin. This is a ſmall town, inhabited chiefly by the deſcendants of thoſe French Proteſtants who left their country when the edict of Nantz was repealed.

The little pleaſant city of Furſtenwald ſtands on the north ſide of the Spree, is the ſeat of a bailiwick, and contains an electoral palace.

Berlin, the capital of all the king of Pruſſia's dominions, and one of the largeſt, fineſt, and moſt populous cities in all Germany, conſiſts properly of five towns united under one town-council. In it are ſeveral fine palaces, with other magnificent and ſuperb buildings. The ſtreets are, for the moſt part, broad, regular, ſtraight, and ſome of them very long and elegant. There are alſo ſeveral large and beautiful ſquares, together with pleaſant walks. There are twenty-five churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, eleven Calviniſt, and one Roman catholic; an academy of ſciences, another of arts and painting, a college of anatomy and ſurgery, five ſeminaries and two public libraries.

In 1575 it was computed to contain five thouſand eight hundred and twenty-ſix houſes, and a hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand, ſix hundred and ſixty-one perſons, among which were ſix thouſand five hundred and forty-one French, one thouſand two hundred and fifty-three Bohemians, two thouſand five hundred and ninety-five Jews, and twenty-ſix thouſand three hundred and twenty-five ſoldiers who had families. This city is ſeated on the Spree, which paſſes through it in two principal branches, and is in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and the thirteenth degree forty-four minutes eaſt longitude, an hundred and fifty miles to the north-weſt of Prague, and is encompaſſed with agreeable gardens and vineyards.

The entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant. In going towards the palace, on the new bridge, which is of ſtone, over the Spree, is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Frederick-William the Great, which is eſteemed a piece of exquiſite workmanſhip, and was erected by *Frederick I. king of Pruſſia.* Both the man and horſe are of one entire piece, caſt at the ſame time, and coſt forty-thouſand crowns. The elector is repreſented in a Roman habit, ſomewhat above the common ſize, on a pedeſtal of white marble, adorned with baſſo relievo, repreſenting four ſlaves bound in chains to the corners of the baſe that ſupports the ſtatue.

The royal palace is a magnificent ſtructure of free-ſtone, begun by Frederick I. in 1699, and conſiſts of four ſtories, with fine cielings, large apartments, and ſuperb furniture; in particular the quantity of ſilver every where ſeen is amazing, for the tables, ſtands, luſtres, chandeliers, looking-glaſs frames, couches, &c. are ſaid to be all of that metal. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that the apartments in the palace are adorned with ſilver in every ſhape; but theſe ornaments are ſo maſſy, that the faſhion does not exceed ſeven per cent. ſo that four millions of dollars might with great eaſe be realized, if the exigencies of the ſtate required it. Here are the pictures of Charles V. and his empreſs, the frames of which are of ſilver, each weighing ſix centners, or ſix hundred and fifty pounds; and, there is a ſuperb crown luſtre of ſeventeen centners. There are alſo pieces of three, four, and five centners, and a grand muſic-gallery, finely ornamented, all of ſilver; beſides one end of a large apartment, for about twenty feet high, and as many broad, is richly furniſhed with gilt plate: yet all this is merely for ſhew, the court having other ſervices of plate for uſe. The king's particular apartments are elegant; but have nothing extraordinary; the prevailing taſte is white ſtucco and gilding. Several of the private apartments have tables with pens, ink, and looſe papers, which indicate the diſpatch of buſineſs, more than the regularity and elegance one naturally expects to find in a royal palace.

The hall has ſeveral good paintings, and the grand ſaloon is adorned with four pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting our Saviour driving out the money-changers, his waſhing the diſciples feet, the miraculous draught of fiſhes, and his laſt ſupper. The throne in the audience-chamber is of velvet, embroidered with gold in a grand taſte; but not loaded with ornaments. There is nothing extraordinary in the old quarter of the palace, except a bed of crimſon velvet, which has above two hundred cyphers with electoral crowns, all ſet with pearls, and the chairs in this room are in the ſame taſte. It is uſual for perſons of the royal blood to lie in this bed on their wedding night. The library is far from having a beautiful appearance; but all gentlemen have the liberty of reading there, from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

Here is a ſpacious building for the king's ſtables, which are divided into two courts and nine pavillions, at an equal diſtance from each other. The architecture on the outſide is gothic; but the inſide is more magnificent, and very lofty and lightſome. The mangers are of ſtone, and the pillars of the ſtands of iron, adorned with his majeſty's cypher gilt. Over the mangers are ſeveral large pictures of the fineſt horſes bred in the king's ſtuds. The backſide of theſe ſtables projects towards the river, a ſlope being formed inſtead of a ſtair-caſe, by which they deſcend. Here are noble apartments for the maſter of the horſe and the inferior officers, with large rooms over the ſtables, in which are depoſited a great deal of rich furniture and harneſs; among which are the accoutrements of the horſe on which Frederick I. rode at his public entry; all the ornaments of the bridles, the breaſt-leather, and crupper, as well as the bits and ſtirrups, being of gold, adorned with brilliants. Theſe ſtables are ſaid to have room for four hundred horſes.

One of the nobleſt ſtructures of the kind in Europe is the arſenal, which conſiſts of four grand buildings, that form a ſpacious ſquare, with four fronts almoſt exactly alike, and a handſome portico at the entrance of each. The lower ſtory is of ruſtic architecture, with arched windows, and that above it is of the Corinthian order. Over the principal gate, which is in the middle, is the model of the late king's grandfather in braſs gilt, incloſed in an oval frame; the four cardinal virtues, of a gigantic ſize, are placed on pedeſtals on each ſide of the portico, and ſeem to look towards the picture: over it is his majeſty's cypher ſupported by two men, and above it a large pediment covered with a beautiful baſſo relievo repreſenting Mars, reſting on a trophy, and looking at a couple of ſlaves chained at his feet. This edifice is crowned with a baluſtrade, and ſeveral noble trophies and ſtatues contribute to embelliſh it. The inſide is not leſs magnificent, the rooms of the upper ſtory being full of arms ranged in great order; the lower rooms are ſtored with braſs guns, and the walls and pillars that ſupport the roof covered with cuiraſſes, helmets, &c.

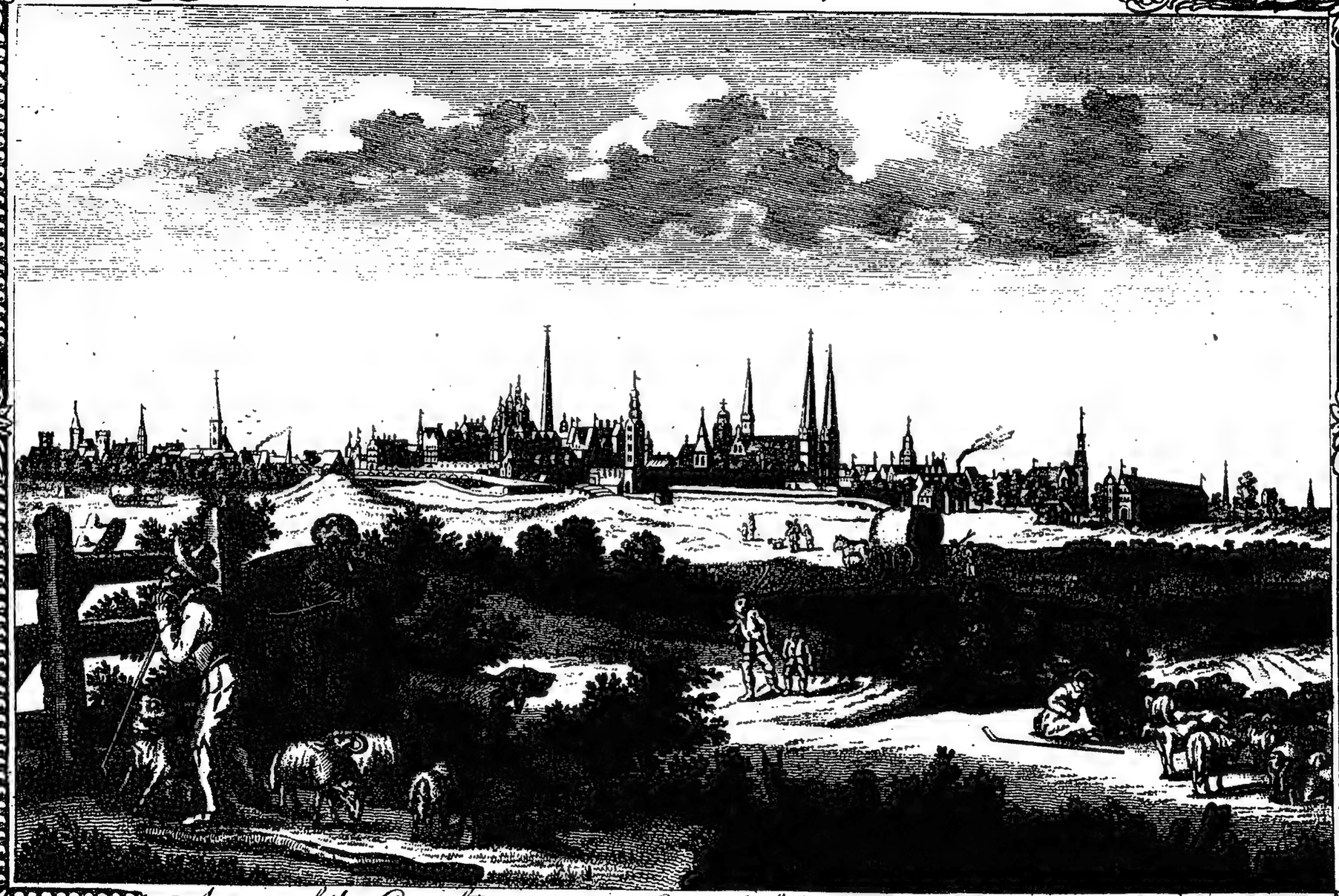
The houſe of the general of the ordnance is behind the arſenal: within it is contained the foundery, where a number of men are continually employed. There are ſeveral other arſenals in this city, where are kept field pieces, iron cannon, &c.

In this city is alſo an opera-houſe, elegantly built, the front of which is adorned with a noble portico, ſupported by ſix Corinthian columns, and in the architrave is written, "Fredericus rex Apollini et Muſes;" above which is a pediment adorned with baſſo relievo and ſtatues. The ſcenes are ſplendid, and in an elegant taſte. It has three galleries, and is ſaid to contain two thouſand perſons. The columns that ſupport the roof are calculated to throw the whole into a grand ſaloon; and the orcheſtra conſiſts of about fifty muſicians. The opera is entirely ſupported at the king's expence, and rendered in ſome degree ſubſervient to the ends of government. The extreme delight the late king took in muſic, and his great knowledge in that ſcience, carried this entertainment to a very high degree of perfection. In the upper galleries on each ſide of the ſtage were ſeated ſix trumpeters, who ſaluted the queen conſort when ſhe entered the houſe or retired; but the king himſelf would not allow this ſalutation to his own perſon, as he paid little regard to ceremony.

The houſes in the ſuburbs are generally of timber; but ſo well plaſtered, that they ſeem to be of ſtone, and the ſtreets are broad, ſtraight, and lightſome. Here was the reſidence of the queen mother, who was ſiſter to king George I. of England. This palace is named Mon Bijou, or My Jewel; it is a ſmall, elegant ſtructure, beautifully furniſhed, and has very fine gardens that have the river beyond them.

The palace of Charlottenburg is about five miles from the city of Berlin: it was founded by the late king's grandfather, and his majeſty finiſhed it according to his own taſte, which was extremely elegant. There is a range of about ten apartments, well diſpoſed, adorned with white ſtucco and gilding. The ball-room is worthy of the king, who is ſaid to have deſigned it: it has ten windows on each ſide, and beſides the ſtucco and gilding, which are here richer than in the other rooms, it is adorned with buſts, ſtatues, and large pier glaſſes. The ſtatues are well diſpoſed, and the gardens elegantly laid out.

The town of Oranjeburg, ſo called by its founder Frederick I. in honour of his mother, who was born princeſs of Orange, it delightfully ſituated near the Spree, about ſixteen miles north-weſt of Berlin. The apartments of this palace are grand. The miles from hence



A View *of the City of* BERLIN, *Capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, and the residence of the King of Prussia.*

Thornton Sculp.

to Berlin, and from thence to Potſdam, are diſtinguiſhed by mile-ſtones. Near this ſeat is a ſmall city of the ſame name, ſurrounded by beautiful meadows, watered and divided by many canals drawn out of the Havel, and bounded by woods, acroſs which ſeveral long viſtas are cut.

Spandaw, which is chiefly uſed as a priſon for ſtate criminals, is eight miles north-weſt of Berlin, at the conflux of the Havel and the Spree.

Brandenburg is ſituated in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and thirteen degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude, on the banks of the Havel, which not only divides the Old and New Town from each other, but ſeparates the fort from both, and likewiſe environs the New Town with a particular trench, on which a ſluice has been erected. The Old Town contains about four hundred inhabitants, and the New Town about twice that number. They are both under one magiſtracy, and each contains two churches. The fort reſembles a ſuburb, and in it is the cathedral church; the houſes of the greateſt part of the members of the chapter; and a riding ſchool, in which young noblemen are inſtructed. The biſhopric is ſecularized; but the chapter is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of ſeven perſons, who are the provoſt, the dean, the ſenior, the ſubſenior, and three other canons. In 1755 king Frederic II. conferred upon it a peculiar diſtinction, conſiſting of a chapter croſs of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in eight points. There is here a ſmall colony of French Calviniſts, with a manufacture of cloth, fuſtian, and canvas: and by means of the Havel a pretty good trade is carried on in this town.

The third diviſion, called Ni Alt, or Old Marck, has Mecklenburg on the north, Magdeburg on the ſouth, Saxe-Lawenburg and part of Lunenberg on the weſt, and the Middle Marck, on the eaſt. Some authors call it The Galibee of Germany, becauſe it abounds in fruits and herbs. It is divided into four petty provinces, namely, Oſtland, on the eaſt; Zermunland, on the weſt; Angerland, on the ſouth; and Zealand on the north. It is ſeparated from Preignitz, on the eaſt, by the Elbe. The chief places in this diviſion are,

1. Stendal, or Stendel, the metropolis, on the river Ucht, twenty-eight miles north of Magdeburg, and thirty-ſeven north-weſt of Brandenburg; it is a Hanſe town, neatly built, and well fortified. 2. Seltwedel, a large town, on the weſt ſide of the Jetz, thirty-ſix miles north-weſt of Stendal, and fifty north eaſt of Zell. Their chief trade is in beer, which they export. 3. Gardeleben, thirteen miles ſouth weſt of Stendal. 4. Tangermund, on the Elbe, at the mouth of the Anger, was firſt a caſtle built by the emperor Charles IV. who bought this Marck, and reſided here: it is a place of pretty good trade in corn, and other commodities. 5. Otterburg, ſeventeen miles north of Stendal, is noted for a good corn-market. 6. Werben, antiently Varinum, at the conflux of the Elbe and Havel, twenty miles north-eaſt of Stendal, was built by the emperor Henry the Fowler, on the ruins of the old Caſtellum Vari. 7. Havelburg, forty-one miles north-weſt of Brandenburg, was in 946 made a biſhopric, ſuffragan of Magdeburg, and its biſhop reſided at Witſtack, a town of Preignitz but aboliſhed at the reformation; ſince which the religion here has been Lutheran. 8. Potſdam, which lies four miles to the ſouth-weſt of Berlin, is agreeably ſituated on a branch of the Spree: it is of a conſiderable extent, and the buildings neat and regular. The elector Frederic William made this his ſeat, and in 1662 built the caſtle, which was afterwards enlarged by king Frederic I. and adorned with a fine portal. King Frederic William began to erect ſome coſtly additions to the town, for which purpoſe he cauſed ſeveral moraſſes to be filled up and built upon, with a canal fifty paces wide and two thouſand in length, to be carried on from the Havel, through the centre of the town to a branch of the ſame river. This canal is planted on both ſides with trees and environed with well-built houſes. King Frederic II. has raiſed the caſtle one ſtory, enlarged it with two wings and adorned it with magnificent apartments. The old houſes in the neighbourhood of the caſtle are pulled down, and inſtead of them, new, regular, and grand buildings have been raiſed for the owners at the king's expence. The apartments are remarkable for their elegance, particularly his majeſty's writing-chamber and ſtudy: the laſt is partitioned off by baluſtrades of ſilver.

The palace of Sans Souci (Without Care) is ſituated not far from Potſdam, on the top of a mountain, from whence there is a delightful landſcape, compriſing a view of the town, neighbouring country, rivers, lakes, woods, vineyards, groves, &c. This palace, though not very large, is extremely magnificent; and the furniture, though not ſuperb, is excellent. The paintings, ſtatues, gardens, &c. contribute to make the whole a moſt delightful place. The ſmall, but excellent library, is kept in an apartment wainſcotted with cedar, and adorned with foliage of gold; and the elevated ſpot on which the palace is built has plantations of vineyards, in which ſeveral terraces are cut.

Brandenburg contains, beſides the above principal diviſions, ſome other inferior diſtricts, &c. which are as follow, viz.

Preignitz, bounded by the Elbe and Havel, the duchy of Mecklenburg, and a part of the middle Marck, extends about forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth, and contains the following places: 1. Perlburg, the capital, on the river Stepenitz, contains about four hundred houſes. 2. Wittenburg, a ſmall town on the Elbe. 3. Prizwalk, on the Domnitz; it gives name to a circle, and an inſpection: it includes alſo the ſmall towns of Freinſtein, Putlitz, and Marienburg, with two foundations for proteſtant ladies. 4. Kyritz, on the river Jagelitz. 5. Lenzen, a ſmall town. 6. Witſtack, a ſmall town on the river Doſſe: theſe three laſt have a cryſtal and glaſs-houſe. 7. Weſſnack, on the Kartau.

In this diſtrict are alſo the following ſmall towns, viz. 1. Werder, ſituated upon an iſland in the Havel. 2. Sechauſen, a ſmall town ſurrounded by the river Aland. 3. Diſtorf, a Lutheran cloiſter, containing twelve ladies, ſix of whom are noble, and the other half deſcended from burghers. 4. Buck, a ſmall town on the Elbe. 5. Arendſee, a proteſtant nunnery, containing ſix proteſtant ladies and an abbeſs. 6. Arneburg, a ſmall town on the Elbe. 7. Nuendarf a proteſtant nunnery. 8. 9. Betzendorf, and Apenburg, belonging to the Schulenburg family, and forming a diſtrict. 10. Kalbe, belonging to the family of Alienſleben.

Pruſſian Pomerania is bounded by the Baltick ſea, on the north; by the principality of Mecklenburg, on the weſt; by part of Poland and Brandenburg, to the ſouth; and by Pruſſia to the eaſt. It is above two hundred miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and from fifty to eighty in breadth. Its air, by reaſon of its being the extreme north-eaſt corner of Germany, is reckoned the coldeſt of any part of it. The ſoil in many parts is ſandy and barren, and their arable lands near the ſhore are frequently overwhelmed with ſand; yet in other parts they have corn enough, both for conſumption and export, beſides good paſtures filled with cattle, and many large woods and foreſts which abound with deer, wild boars, hares, foxes, wolves, wild horſes, wild bulls, &c. and fowls of all ſorts. Here are alſo beavers, and ſuch plenty of water fowl, that they reckon twenty ſorts of ducks. They have great plenty of ſalt and freſh-water fiſh; particularly ſalmon, and very large lampreys, eſpecially in the bay of Stetin, and lake of Laſſen. About Grypſwald and Rugen they have good herring fiſhing, and in the lake Madduje, near Colbatz, there is a large broad fiſh called Muſcum, found no where elſe in Germany. There are many fair and fertile meadows betwixt the branches of the Oder, and as great quantities of fruit of all kinds, as in any province of Germany. They have no wine of their own growth, but excellent mum, and beer of ſeveral ſorts; particularly, the bitter beer of Stetin, the mum of Gripſwald, and the ſtout of Wollin, which mariners tranſport elſewhere: and as there are ſcarce any mountains in the country, it has no mines but ſome few of iron in the Upper Pomerania.

This country abounds with amber, eſpecially on the coaſts of Brandenburg-Pomerania, where it is not only thrown up by the ſea, and found among the ſea-weeds and ſands, but alſo dug out of the rocks and mines. It is frequently dug out of the ground, at a great diſtance from the ſea, and many times found by the huſbandmen, as they plow their lands. There is a particular lake in this country, that communicates with the ſea, where they gather it in nets when the ſea begins to flow, and ſometimes hale up pieces as big as one's fiſt. At firſt taking up it is ſoft, but ſoon hardens, by the air, into a ſtony ſubſtance. It is of ſeveral colours, white, yellow, black, and red. The ſort found in Pomerania is a dark-yellow. It is ſuppoſed to be an oil diſtilled from rocks, like Petroleum; and that the inſects, which are ſometimes found incloſed in it are entangled there while it is liquid; and that what is taken in the ſea, and in the adjoining lakes and rivers, is broke off from ſome rock or vein under-ground, by floods and tempeſts. In ſome places it is found in a matrix of wood, which the ſkilful know at firſt ſight.

This part of Pomerania is well watered by rivers and lakes. Among the former are, the Oder, the Pene, the Rega, the Perſant, the Wiper, the Stolp, the Rekenitz, and the Barte. The Rekenitz ſeparates Pomerania from Mecklenburg, forming a large lake near Damgarten, and falling into the Baltick at Dars. The Barte riſes near Stralſund, and falls into the ſea at Bardt. The Oder, ſoon after its entrance into Pomerania, divides into ſeveral branches; and, after having paſſed by Garts, Griffenhagen, Schwedt, and Stetin, flows into the Damnith lake, and then into Damantzkt; and at laſt dilates itſelf into a freſh-water lake, or ſea, called the Great Friſche Haff, which is an excellent road for ſhipping, thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth, abounds with fiſh, and falls into the Baltick by three currents, viz. the Divenow, the Swyn, and the Penemund, through which ſhips paſs to Stetin. Beſides the above-mentioned, there are many more rivers in Pomerania, which fall into the Baltick ſea.

With reſpect to the people, they are reckoned as ſtout and nimble as any in Germany, but are charged on the other hand, with being intemperate in drink, credulous, and prodigal. Cromer gives this character of the antient inhabitants, that they were ſtrangers to deceit or robbery, locked up nothing, were hoſpitable to all ſtrangers, and ſo kind to one another, that there were no beggars among them: but in the Pagan times, if fathers had more children than they could maintain, they were allowed to kill the females, though not the males. This, however, ſeems very inconſiſtent with their character for mutual benevolence.

The Pomeranian coaſt begins ſixteen miles eaſt of Roſtock; and as the iſle of Rugen bears due ſouth from the Sound, and the Baltick ſea is very open and wide between them, this has been the conſequence, viz. that the ſeas between the iſles of Iceland north, Bornholm eaſt, and Rugen ſouth, have been generally the ſtage of war between the fleets of the Swedes and Danes.

Formerly, the nobles, as well as the ſeveral towns of this duchy; had very particular privileges, which his late Pruſſian majeſty greatly abridged. The inhabitants are about half a million in number, being principally of German and Sclavonian deſcent, a dialect of the latter being the language of the country. Calviniſts and Roman catholics are tolerated there, but Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion. The duchy contains an univerſity, ſeveral colleges, grammar-ſchools, &c. Here are ſeveral manufactures, and great commerce is carried on by means of the Baltick and the ſeveral navigable rivers.

The following are the principal places in Pruſſian Pomerania, viz.

The capacious and handſome town of Stetin, or old Stebin, which is reckoned the capital of all Pomerania, and is ſituated on an elevated ſpot near the Oder, about ſeventy-four miles north-eaſt of Berlin. It is deemed one of the beſt fortified places in Europe; contains various manufactures, hath great trade, and exports prodigious quantities of corn, timber, linen, and naval ſtores. The proſpect of the river, and the iſlands formed by it, is very agreeable, and the neighbouring hills have a very romantic appearance.

The principal buildings are the colleges for education, college of phyſicians, tribunals of juſtice, board of health, chamber of commerce, court of admiralty, royal gymnaſium or ſchool of exerciſe, ſuperintendency, arſenal, caſtle, free-ſchool, and dock.

Ships of conſiderable burden come up to this town, and ſmaller veſſels may go much higher, though it is at the diſtance of forty miles from the ſea.

The inhabitants are noted for their civility to ſtrangers, and for the valorous defence of their city againſt the Imperialiſts, who beſieged it four months, in 1659, in vain; and again in 1677, when it held out five months, from July to December, againſt Frederick-William the Great, then elector of Brandenburg; who after one of the moſt remarkable ſieges that has been known in Europe, whereby moſt of the city was burnt to the ground, at the expence of thirty thouſand granadoes, twenty-four thouſand hand-granadoes, a hundred and fifty thouſand cannon-ſhots, and ninety-eight thouſand pounds of powder, and the garriſon reduced from three thouſand men to ſeven hundred, was obliged to grant it very honourable terms of capitulation. The account of this remarkable ſiege, and its deſperate defence, is ſo amply recorded in hiſtory, that all we ſhall obſerve farther of it is, that the burghers were even more reſolute, if poſſible, in the defence of it, than the Swediſh garriſon.

On the 15th of Auguſt, when moſt of their ſhips in the river had been ſunk and ſhattered, and the cathedral, with many of the houſes, burnt, the elector offered them honourable terms, which they refuſed; on the 22d, when the town had ſuffered much more, he took pity of the inhabitants, and made them another offer; but they were obſtinate, made it death for any to talk of a ſurrender, ſecured their wives and children in places prepared for them under ground, and made vigorous ſallies, but were repulſed. The 6th of September he ſent a trumpet to forewarn them of their danger, and to offer them larger privileges than they had; but they ſtill refuſed. He ſummoned them again on the 22d, after being joined by eight thouſand Danes, but to no purpoſe. The elector, having undermined their wall, filled the ditch, &c. ſummoned them again on the 1ſt of November, and threatened their ruin if they refuſed his new offers; but they replied, they would hold out to the end of the year, and hoped to have the ſame terms then: and though the town was in ruins, and one thouſand four hundred citizens killed, beſides ſoldiers, they continued reſolute, and made vigorous ſallies. On the 20th, and alſo on the 30th of that month, there were quarrels betwixt the garriſon, which was for capitulating, and the burghers, that oppoſed it, in which ſeveral fell on both ſides.

The king of Sweden, having ſent the town a new charter, the elector ſummoned them again December 19th, and offered to confirm their new privileges, with an exemption from taxes for many years, but ſtill they refuſed, and made ſeveral ſallies; but next day, finding no hopes of relief, they propoſed an honourable capitulation, which, if not granted, they declared they would die ſword in hand, and be buried in the ruins of the city. The elector generouſly complied, and ratified all the privileges granted them by their ſaid new charter: but the burghers, inſiſting on too high terms for the garriſon, hoſtilities were renewed with vigour on both ſides, till the 26th, when they accepted the elector's terms, who, on the 6th of January following, entered the town in triumph. He continued their magiſtrates, who, with the judges and miniſters, ſwore fealty to him; and, of his own accord, exempted their fiſhery from taxes for eight years, on condition, that they ſhould rebuild their churches; and he promiſed to rebuild the great one himſelf. He alſo continued the univerſity, the ſchools, and religion, as they were. The beſieged had a fine train of artillery, but wanted powder, ſalt, and wood. He reſtored the town to the Swedes by the treaty of Nimeguen.

The town of Anklam, or Anclam, on the river Pene, is ſeventeen miles ſouth-weſt from Grypſwald, and thirty-one north-weſt of Stetin; it is a well-fortified town, and was taken by the elector of Brandenburg in 1676, together with Demain on the ſame river, but both reſtored three years after by the treaty of St. Germain. Anklam, however, was retaken by the Pruſſians in 1715. It was formerly called Tanglim, and ſome authors will have it to be the ſeat of the Angli mentioned by Tacitus, who advanced from hence to the Elbe, and from thence to the iſland of Great Britain. It made a good figure once among the Hanſe towns. It is advantageouſly ſituated among good arable lands, and excellent paſture, with the conveniency of fiſhing, and of exporting their commodities abroad by the river Pene. It has four pariſh churches, and a yearly fair on the ſecond Sunday after the birth of our Lady. Martiniere ſays it ſuffered by ſeveral fires in the fourteenth century, when its churches, with a monaſtery and a town-houſe, were burnt; but the town was rebuilt with more beauty.

The town of Paſſewalck, antiently Pozdewalck, ſtands between Prentzlow and Turgelow, on the weſt ſide of the river Ucker, by which the inhabitants ſend their goods through the Haff to the Baltick. It has two parochial and two other churches. There is an excellent ſort of beer brewed here. It is a provoſtſhip, with ſpiritual juriſdiction over ten pariſhes. When Pomerania and the marquiſate were under different ſovereigns, this place was frequently a bone of contention, being on the confines of both.

Gartz is another town on the ſame confines, and is one of the paſſes of the Oder. It was walled in 1258, by Barnimus I. duke of Pomerania. It has eight pariſhes under its juriſdiction, and ſeveral yearly fairs. It was a great ſufferer during the long wars in Germany; for it always was a place of importance to the poſſeſſor from its ſituation.

Ukermunde ſtands where the Uker river falls into the Groſs Haff. It was walled in 1190, and Bogiſlaus III. duke of Pomerania, cauſed a caſtle to be built here. In

1469, it was beſieged by the elector of Brandenburg, aſſiſted by the Mecklenburgers, but they were obliged to abandon it. There is a fine walk of fir trees from hence through the middle of a great foreſt, which continues almoſt twenty miles, and within a league of Stetin; and there is a good road for ſeven miles from hence to Anklam.

The town of Demin, which gives name to a circle, is ſituated near the river Pene, and has a tolerable trade. Trepts, on the Tallen lake, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and has three annual fairs: and Politz, a ſmall town near the Triſchen-Haff, is celebrated only for its hop-trade.

Twenty-two miles north eaſt from Rugenwald, is ſituated the fortified town of Stolpe, with an antient caſtle.

Other places of leſs note are, 1. Neuwarp. 2. Tergelo, a caſtle on the Ucker. 3. Verchen, where is a convent of ladies. 4. Jarmen, on the river Pene. 5. Penkum, a remarkably pleaſant town. 6. Griffenhagen, on the Oder. 7. Dam, on the river Pene, where a ſteel manufactory is eſtabliſhed. 8. Baton, remarkable only for being the ſeat of a provoſt. 9. Piritz, which gives name to a circle and provoſtſhip, and is ſituated in a fine corn country.

Wollin is the eaſtermoſt of the two iſlands formed by the three mouths of the Oder. It is twenty-five miles long, fifteen where broadeſt, and is divided by the Swine from Uſedom. The town, which ſtands at that mouth of it called Druenow, is five or ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Rugen, twenty-five miles north of Stetin, and twenty ſouth-weſt of Wolgaſt. It was built out of the ruins of Julinum, once a very famous town; and was one of the largeſt cities in Europe, and its greateſt mart next to Conſtantinople, being inhabited by Danes, Swedes, Ruſſians, Jews, and merchants of all nations, who had their ſeparate ſtreets, and houſes of exchange; and ſaid to have been ſo powerful, as ſingly to maintain a war againſt Denmark, and to have taken its king Suinotte priſoner three ſeveral times: But, having been partly deſtroyed by lightning, and partly by the arms of Woldemar king of Denmark, it was in 1170, totally demoliſhed, and has been but an inconſiderable town ever ſince, its commerce having been transferred to Lubeck and Dantzick. In the late war it was taken by the northern allies.

The iſle of Uſedom lies weſt from that of Wollin, and is formed by the Pene, where it falls into the Baltick along with the Oder; ſo that one of the mouths of the Oder, which runs betwixt this and Wollin, is called the Swine; and the other, beyond Uſedom, and Pfin. Upon the deſtruction of Wollin the town of Uſedom was reſorted to by the Daniſh and Poliſh merchants, and became a place of good trade, being very large, and well fortified; but ſince 1473, when it was burnt down by accidental fire, it has been only an inconſiderable ſea-port. It received Chriſtianity by the preaching of the biſhop of Bamberg above-mentioned, who baptized many of the nobility that were aſſembled at the diet here in 1128. The iſland is about ſix miles in length, abounds with wild boars, deer, and hares, and was the park, in ſhort, where the dukes of Pomerania kept their game.

In 1630, the Swedes, to the number of three thouſand, landed here, and took it without reſiſtance; but in 1637, two thouſand Imperialiſts came upon it by ſurprize, and put them to the ſword; but, finding their countrymen were preparing to retake it with vengeance, they conſumed all the proviſions that were in the iſland, and then abandoned it. Mr. Hubner, who obſerves, that the harbour is commanded by two forts, ſays, the town was built in the room of Vineta, formerly a large and wealthy city, but covered with an inundation, notwithſtanding which he ſays the houſes and ſtreets are ſtill plainly ſeen in clear weather.

In the diſtrict of Colbatz are the towns of Neumark, Wolten, Worben, and Bennſtein; and the laſt town in the Stetin territory is Fidichio on the Oder.

On the Ihna, twenty-two miles from Stetin, ſtands the capacious handſome town of Stargard, which contains ſeveral churches, in one of which the Calviniſts are allowed the exerciſe of their religion. Here are, beſides a college, a free-ſchool, a houſe of correction, various manufactories, and a conſiderable trade. Golno is alſo ſituated on the Ihna; Greiffenberg on the Rega; Trepto, on the ſame river; and Camni, on the Dweno, thirty-two miles north of Stetin.

The ſmall town of Belgarden, or Belgart, on the ſame river, five miles ſouth-eaſt of Corlin, ſixteen from the Baltick, and fifty-ſix north-eaſt of Stetin. It has been a great ſufferer by wars and conflagrations; particularly in 1506, when it was quite burnt down to the ground.

Between the Willern and ſome other lakes is ſituated the town of New Stetin, which was built in the beginning of the fourteenth century, after the model of Old Stetin: it is commanded by a caſtle. There is a well-endowed religious foundation for ladies in the village of Manerillies, which gives name to a bailiwick.

Here are, beſides, many inconſiderable villages and hamlets; and the following towns, or their remains, viz. Satzig, Zachan, Jacobſhagen, Buto, Lawenburg, Stolpemunde, Ravenſtein, Maſſo, Stepenitz, Lepe, Lupo, and Stolpe on the river Stolp.

On the Zarn, not far from the confines of Poland, is the village of Ratzbur, which, in 1758, was ſacked and burnt by the Coſſacks and Ruſſians, together with nineteen neighbouring villages.

On the river Wiper, eighteen miles north-eaſt from Coſlin, and twenty from Camin, ſtands Rugenwald, the capital of Wenden duchy. It has four pariſhes in its diſtrict, is a well built town, and has a handſome caſtle. The town of Slage, or Slagven, ſtands on the ſame river, a few leagues above Rugenwald; but is ſmall, and ill-built.

Eighteen miles north-eaſt of Colberg, ſtands the town of Coſlin; it is pleaſantly ſituated, enjoys a good air, and is the uſual reſidence of the biſhop of Camin. It is not only ſurrounded with tides at high-water, but has a ſtream called Neſenbach, which turns mills for ſeveral uſes. The adjacent country is beautiful, and interſperſed with ſeveral hills. Here are a pariſh church and two others; alſo a college, which hath ſent forth many good ſcholars. Here are three annual fairs, viz. on All-Saints Day, the Thurſday after the fourth Sunday in Lent, and the Saturday after Lady-Day.

Thirteen miles eaſt of Colberg, and twelve weſt of Coſlin, ſtands the town of Carlin, which is the capital of a bailiwick. At the entrance of it there is a wooden bridge over a river, formed by the conflux of three ſmaller ones. It is a very pleaſant place, and has belonged to the biſhops of Camin ever ſince 1240. In 1643, it held out againſt a ſiege by the Imperialiſts. It has two annual fairs, viz. on the Saturday before Palm-Sunday, and on Aſcenſion-day.

At a ſmall diſtance from Colberg are Fredericſburg, a market-town, which gives name to a bailiwick, Gulzo a market-town, which gives name to a diſtrict; and Naugaſten, a ſmall town, ſituated on a lake, from which a lordſhip receives its name.

Thirty miles north-eaſt from Camin, and fifty-five from Stetin, is ſituated the town of Colberg, or Colburgh. Salt is made here, of which great quantities are ſent abroad, to the great enriching of the town, and the king of Pruſſia, to whom the town came by the treaty of Munſter. Its harbour, which is a good one, though ſomewhat too narrow, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It was antiently called Colobrega, and was the moſt conſiderable town belonging to the biſhop of Camin, who had it in exchange for Stargard, with three thouſand five hundred marks along with it. If they had more fuel, we are told there would be a greater quantity of ſalt made here than there is. This town is large, contains four churches, one of which is collegiate; has a grammar-ſchool, and a foundation for ladies.

Swediſh Pomerania comprehends the iſland of Rugen, which we have already deſcribed in our foregoing account of Sweden; the iſland of Hiddenſee, which is remarkable for a light-houſe; a few ſmaller iſlands, which are too inconſiderable to deſerve deſcription, and ſome places on the continent, of which the following are the moſt remarkable:

Stralſund, (which is the largeſt and richeſt town in Pomerania, the ſixth in rank of the Hanſe towns, and a free imperial city, by ſome reckoned the moſt conſiderable in the circle of Upper Saxony) ſtands near the banks of the ſea, over againſt the iſland of Rugen, nineteen miles north of Grypſwald, thirty two miles north-eaſt of Roſtock, and ſixty-ſix north-weſt of Stetin. Some derive the name from Senno II. king of the Franks, its ſuppoſed founder; but it more probably comes from the narrow ſea betwixt it and Rugen, all ſtreights, in the old German language being called Sundt. The firſt certain account of it is, that being for the moſt part deſtroyed, it was magnificently rebuilt, enlarged, and peopled with Germans by Jaromar, the prince of Rugen, about 1209; and that moſt of it being afterwards burnt by the Danes, the ſituation was altered by his ſon about 1230, when it was rebuilt, ſoon grew populous, and was fortified.

In the civil wars of Germany, count Wallenſtein, the imperial general, beſieged this city in vain; not long after which, the citizens put themſelves under the protection of Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The elector of Brandenburg took it in 1678, after deſtroying one thouſand five hundred houſes by bombs, and was the only prince that ever took it by force till then, the citizens having baffled the attempts of ſeveral princes to ſubject them, and having at one time oppoſed the united forces of Denmark, Sweden, and ten other princes; but he reſtored it with other towns of this country, next year, by the treaty of St. Germains. In 1711, the kings of Poland and Denmark beſieged it in vain. In 1715, the king of Sweden, Charles XII. arrived here from his long confinement in Turky, after his defeat at Pultowa, animated the garriſon to hold out a vigorous ſiege againſt the kings of Denmark and Pruſſia, aſſiſted by the Ruſſians and Saxons; but notwithſtanding his continually ſupplying them with men and proviſions from the iſles of Rugen, the town was forced to ſurrender on terms, after four months ſiege. It was, however, by the treaty of peace in 1720, relinquiſhed again to the Swedes, who continue maſters of it.

The magiſtrates of Stralſund are empowered to determine all cauſes among themſelves without an appeal; to coin money, and raiſe troops for ſea and land ſervice; to make leagues and confederacies for advancing their trade; to chuſe what prince of the empire they pleaſe for their protector; and in caſe of a naval war by the empire, they are not obliged to venture their ſhips farther abroad than is conſiſtent with the ſafety of the city; nor are they obliged to give more than they pleaſe in the contributions which the other towns in the duchy are taxed at. It ſuffered much by a fire in 1680, as well as by its ſeiges above-mentioned, but is now a flouriſhing city. It lies in a ſort of peninſula formed by the ſea and the lake Franeken. The ſea from hence to Rugen is about a mile over, and there are ſix gates, with as many bridges, leading to them from the city, to which the merchant ſhips in the harbour are faſtened.

On the land ſide the town is regularly fortified with bulwarks and fiſh-ponds, two muſquet-ſhots in breadth, beſides large ditches, and natural marſhes, only paſſable by four cauſeways and bridges, leading from four gates, and all fortified; which make approaches to it very difficult. It has an excellent haven, where ſhips come up into the very town; and is ſo well ſituated for trade, that it has a very great and gainful commerce both by ſea and land; for here begins the exports of all thoſe ſtaple commodities which all Europe ſends for to the Baltick, as corn and naval ſtores, viz. hemp, flax, &c. but eſpecially corn, of which great quantities are exported, this being the firſt city in the Baltick to which the Dutch trade for it. Here are alſo great quantities of honey and wax, tar, pitch, roſin, hides, tallow, and linen; eſpecially canvas, of which a good ſort is made here. The ſtreets are broad, and the buildings beautiful, the private houſes being of ſtone, and uniform.

The town of Barth, which is upwards of ſeventy miles north-eaſt of Stetin, ſtands in a bay ten miles from Stralſund. It gives name to a ſmall principality, and is celebrated for an excellent kind of beer. It is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and has a foundation for ladies, firſt begun in 1733.

Beſides the above, in this duchy, are the following places of leſs note: 1. Kenz, a ſmall village in the neighbourhood of Barth. 2. Daingard. 3. Treberis, an old but important frontier town. 4. Gruim. 5. Franburg. 6. Richtenberg, on the Trebel. 7. Eldena, a large village. 8. Wagaſte, a town near the river Pene. 9. Gutſkow, on the river Pene, eight miles ſouth of Grypſwald, and ten weſt of Wolgaſt, between Anclam and Loytz. This town was the firſt in theſe parts that embraced Chriſtianity, upon its being preached by Otton, biſhop of Bamberg, called the apoſtle of Pomerania, who built a church here in the room of its pagan temple. 10. Loytz, on the river Pene, between Gutſkow and Demain. 11. Laſſau, ſituated alſo on the river Pene.

The laſt to be mentioned, is Grieffswalde, ſituated at the bottom of a gulf oppoſite to the iſle of Rugen. It is handſomely built, ſtrongly fortified, poſſeſſes a good trade, has great privileges, and produces a large revenue. Here is an univerſity, a grammar-ſchool, and a German ſeminary; and the three paſtors of the town are theological profeſſors. In the neighbourhood are ſalt ſprings, which are not of any utility for want of fuel. Here are two annual fairs, on St. James's and All Saints days. The town has a good harbour, with a great many ſhips belonging to it.

The duchy of Magdeburg has Brandenburg and the duchy of Mecklenburg on the north; Anhalt and Halberſtadt, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt; the Upper Saxony, with part of Brandenburg, on the eaſt; and the duchy of Brunſwick Wolfembuttle on the weſt; and the Elb runs through it. It is fifty, or at moſt ſixty miles, from eaſt to weſt, and thirty from north to ſouth, according to ſome, yet others make it ſeventy from north to ſouth: but the diſparity of theſe computations is, no doubt, owing to the inequality of its form, by reaſon it is ſo indented with its neighbouring dominions. That part of the duchy on the weſt-ſide of the Elbe abounds with corn, but no wood, and that on the eaſt ſide of has plenty of wood, but no corn.

It was formerly an archbiſhopric, erected at the requeſt of the emperor Otho I. with ſubjection to none in ſpirituals but the Pope; and its prelate was primate of all Germany till the reformation, when the canons, having embraced Luther's doctrine, choſe the elector of Brandenburg's ſon adminiſtrator of the archbiſhopric; after which it remained in the adminiſtration of a ſecular prince, till 1648, it was eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Munſter, that after the death of the then adminiſtrator, the whole country ſhould devolve on the elector of Brandenburg as a ſecular eſtate, and a dukedom; which, together with the biſhopric of Halberſtadt, was given him as an equivalent for the Hither or Upper Pomerania, granted by that treaty to the king of Sweden, who is condirector with the elector, of the circle of Lower Saxony. It is accordingly now ſubject to that elector, and is ſaid to have advanced his annual revenue at leaſt ſix hundred thouſand rix-dollars.

Magdeburg, its capital city, (formerly one of the Hanſe-Towns, and reckoned the chief city of all Germany, as it is now the metropolis of the circle of Lower Saxony) ſtands on the Elbe, thirty-nine miles ſouth-weſt of Brandenburg. It is as ancient a city as moſt in Germany: the name ſignifies Maiden Town, which ſome aſcribe to the worſhip paid in it to Venus, till her image and temple were deſtroyed by order of Charlemagne, who, being in love with its ſituation, built St. Stephen's church there, with its treaſure, together with a fort to curb the Saxons. The town was firſt built about the year 940, by Otho I. who made it imperial, and enlarged by his empreſs Editha, daughter to our Saxon king Edmund, who, ſome ſay, founded it; but others, with more probability, that ſhe received it from him as part of her dowry in marriage.

The firſt tournaments in Germany were appointed here by the emperor Henry the Fowler, to which none were admitted but thoſe of noble extraction both by father and mother, and of a clear reputation, eſpecially in their conduct to the ladies; with an excluſion alſo of all uſurpers, traitors, oppreſſors of widows and orphans, heretics, murderers, and cowards. This city had formerly the ſupreme juriſdiction in ſpirituals and temporals over all Saxony. Its archbiſhop was alſo a count palatine, and determined all cauſes; but now they have no other court beſides what is kept by their burgomaſters and magiſtrates, who govern here under the elector of Brandenburg. The ſituation of this city is very fine, having an outlet on all ſides to ſpacious plains that are all very fruitful in corn, as well as an inlet of riches by the river Elbe; but there are few towns in Germany that have ſuffered ſo much as this by war, and other misfortunes.

In 1013, Magdeburg was almoſt entirely ruined by Boleſlaus king of Poland, and reduced to aſhes in 1180, by a fire. In 1214, the emperor Otho IV. came and deſtroyed its ſuburbs, with its three churches of St. Peter, St. James, and St. Catharine, which were afterwards, however, rebuilt. It has been ſeveral times put under the ban of the empire, and puniſhed with long ſieges, particularly in 1547, when, depending on aſſiſtance from John Frederick elector of Saxony, the citizens turned out the canons; and in 1549, and 1553, when, for refuſing to receive the interim of Charles V. it not only loſt the title of archbiſhopric, and was put under the ban of the empire, but was beſieged at leaſt a year by Maurice elector of Saxony, who was ſent to reduce it; but, being himſelf a Proteſtant, ſpun out the ſiege; and having prevailed on the Magdeburghers to ſurrender at laſt, on a promiſe to join his proteſtant brethren in the war againſt the emperor, was as good as his word, and made uſe of his garriſon to reinforce his army in the war he then declared againſt the emperor. But this city was the greateſt ſufferer in that called the thirty years war; becauſe, for ſo long a time, Germany was ravaged on all ſides: for in 1631, the emperor's general

general count Tilly, took it by ſtorm, after a long ſiege, maſſacred the inhabitants in a moſt barbarous manner, and burnt and deſtroyed the whole town, except the cathedral, and a few inconſiderable houſes, or rather cottages, of fiſhermen, ſo that ſixteen churches and chapels, many of them covered with lead, and one with copper, were reduced to aſhes; and of forty thouſand burghers, not above four hundred eſcaped, and theſe had no ſupport. The general having ordered his ſoldiers to ſpare neither age nor ſex, they ripped up women with child, murdered ſucking infants in ſight of their parents, and raviſhed young women in the very ſtreets; to prevent which, many of them ran into the Elbe, and others into the fire before the face of the barbarous and brutiſh general, who uſed afterwards to boaſt of this cruelty in his cups, and called it the marriage feaſt of Magdeburg.

Great aſſiſtance has been afforded to this city by the electors of Brandenburg, who have repaired its fortifications, which having been carried on many years, are very ſtrong; and they have rebuilt one ſtately church. The jeſuits have alſo a very fine one, the three religions being tolerated here according to the treaty of Weſtphalia; and the town is populous and extenſive, and ſaid to have a more flouriſhing trade than any in the Elector's dominions. The cathedral, which, as we obſerved, was ſpared, is a very fair and magnificent ſtructure, built after the Engliſh model, was founded in 1210, by archbiſhop Albert I. and dedicated (as the former that was burnt) to St. Maurice. Here is that called Otho's chapel, where he is repreſented in baſſo relievo over the altar, with his empreſs Edgitha, and the figures of nineteen caſks of gold which had been ſpent by them upon the former cathedral. This church has forty-nine altars, and the high altar in the quire is of one ſtone of divers colours, curiouſly wrought, nine Hamburgh ells long, four broad, and one thick. Here is a fine large organ, the maſter-pipe of which is thirty-three feet long, and ſo big, that a man can ſcarce claſp it, and is valued at two tun of gold. Behind the high altar are the tombs of the emperors Otho, and the empreſs Edgitha, whoſe bones were removed hither from the ruins of the old cathedral. In the front of the choir there is a fine marble ſtatue of St. Maurice, the patron of the church, having a ſhield in one hand, with the imperial eagle; and in the other, the ſtandard which the citizens march to field with in time of war. Among other ornaments, here are the ſtatues of the five wiſe virgins ſmiling, and the five fooliſh ones lamenting; both very well done. In the ruins of the cloiſter of the Auguſtine friars, of which order Martin Luther was one, there are a chamber, bedſtead, and table, which appear by an inſcription over the door, in German verſe, to have belonged to that reformer.

The elector Frederick I. built a houſe in this city, which faces the great ſquare before the cathedral, and is oppoſite to the citadel he built, which is divided from it by the Elbe. This river brings up a great many merchant ſhips from Holland, Hamburg, &c. to its quay, and forms an iſland before the town, which has ſome works of earth caſt up, with ſeveral houſes, and large warehouſes of fir-timber for building ſhips, which is carried to Hamburgh, and there bought up by divers foreign nations. The iſland is joined both to the country and the town by two bridges, whereof the firſt is defended by a fort built of free-ſtone. Over againſt the town-houſe there is incloſed, in a ſort of cage, an equeſtrian ſtatue, which the city erected in honour of Otho, accompanied with the ſtatues of his two wives, Edgitha above mentioned, and Adelais; and ſeveral figures of armed men, holding the arms of his chief hereditary domains. In the great market-place there is the ſtatue of Roland, ſuch as Charlemagne cauſed to be ſet up in all the towns, which he either founded or repaired. The late elector erected an academy of cadets here, as well as at Berlin, and other towns, where the young gentlemen are inſtructed in the rudiments of war.

The great ſquare before the elector's palace has few equal to it for extent, and fine houſes that encompaſs it, which are all uniform, three ſtories high, and were all raiſed in the time of the late elector. There is an arſenal in it, which is full of cannon and ſmall arms, and though not ſo magnificent as that of Berlin, may be ranked among the chief elſewhere. The chapter of Magdeburg meets in the cathedral, and bating the change of religion, is on the ſame footing as before the reformation; and the canons muſt all make proof of their nobility; though this is a punctilio with which the elector, who confers all its prebends and dignities, ſometimes diſpenſes. The revenue of its provoſt is computed at twelve thouſand crowns a year. The town of Halle, which is large, is ſituated on the Saole, twenty-four miles north-weſt. It received its name from the ſalt-pits diſcovered, before the birth of our Saviour, and which was beſtowed by the emperor Otho the Great on the archbiſhopric of Magdeburg. His ſon Otho gave the place a charter, called it Halle, and made it an imperial city. The town contains four ſalt-ſprings, many boiling-houſes, &c. Theſe ſalt-ſprings, and the univerſity, have rendered Halle a flouriſhing place.

The univerſity was founded in 1694, by Frederick I. king of Pruſſia. From the year of the foundation, to the year 1744, the number of ſtudents amounted to twenty-nine thouſand two hundred and twenty; of whom two were princes, one hundred and twenty counts, two thouſand two hundred and fifty-three barons and gentlemen, twelve thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-eight ſtudents of divinity, twelve thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-ſix ſtudents of law, and one thouſand nine hundred and forty-one ſtudents of phyſic. Since which time, to the preſent period, the improvement has been more rapid, and the number of ſtudents conſiderably increaſed. This is ſuperior to the univerſity of Leipſic, with reſpect to the abilities of the profeſſors, the diſcipline of the ſtudents, and the cheapneſs of living. Here are, 1. A library conſiſting of above ten thouſand volumes. 2. A Lutheran and Calviniſt gymnaſium. 3. A free ſecular Calviniſt nunnery. 4. Three Lutheran churches. 5. Many Calviniſt churches. 6. A popiſh chapel. 7. A Jew's ſynagogue. 8. Several chapels, hoſpitals, &c. Excluſive of the ſtudents, garriſon, &c. the inhabitants only are computed at fourteen thouſand.

The magiſtrates have a large eſtate, and extenſive juriſdiction, great power, and many privileges. The orphan houſe is a laudable inſtitution, and the houſe of correction and work-houſe are extremely beneficial. The manners of the inhabitants is courteous and polite, and the German language is ſpoken here in its utmoſt purity.

In this town are various manufactories for gloves, ſtuffs, fuſtians, flannel, porcelain, gold, ribbons, metal buttons, ſilk ſtockings, woollen ditto, red and yellow leather, cloths, linen, tobacco-pipes, ſilver, ſtarch, &c. Here are many plantations of mulberry-trees, for the purpoſe of feeding ſilk-worms, and the improvement of the ſilk-manufactory.

This duchy alſo contains the following towns, viz. 1. Calbe, on the Saole. 2. Great Salze. 3. Engeln, on the Bode. 4. Troſe, on the Elbe. 5. New Holdenſleben, on the Ohre. 6. Newſtadt, or New Magdeburg. 7. Sudenburg. 8. Elmen. 9. Stasfuſt, on the Bode. 10. Wolmerſtadben on the Ohre. 11. Schozebeck, on the Elbe. 12. Acken, alſo on the Elbe. 13. Oebsfield, on the Aller. 14. Berg. 15. Burgh, on the Ihle, where is a conſiderable woollen manufactory. 16, 17. Sandau and Jericho, both on the Elbe. 18. Lobun. 19. New-market. 20. Lebegun. 21. Wettin. 22. Connern. 23. Rotenberg. 24. Giebickenſtein. 25. Alſleben.

The town of Glauche, near Hallis, is in the bailiwick of Giebickenſtein; is celebrated for an orphan-houſe, in which two hundred orphans are continually maintained and educated, and many other perſons occaſionally relieved. In the ſchool are taught Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and French; theology, logic, mathematics, phyſic, geography, hiſtory, writing, arithmetic, ſinging, and epiſtolary correſpondence. Here are two inſpectors, fifty preceptors, a diſpenſary, laboratory, muſeum, printing-preſſes, &c. Excluſive of the preceptors, officers, and orphans on the foundation, above a hundred other ſtudents and poor ſcholars are allowed their dinner and ſupper, inſomuch that, with perſons occaſionally admitted, near ſeven hundred perſons eat together in one large hall. Independent of the above, here are four German ſchools, under the direction of two inſpectors, and one hundred and ten preceptors. Near the orphan-houſe is an academy, where young gentlemen are taught every polite and valuable branch of erudition at their own expence.

Halberſtadt is a ſmall province, or principality; it is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt, by the principality of Anhalt; on the weſt, by the archbiſhopric of Hildeſtein, on the eaſt, by part of the electorate of Saxony; and on the north, by Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. It is thirty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth, has a good ſoil, yields plenty of corn, and the foreſts have ſtore of veniſon. The north-weſt part is full of fens and marſhes, through which dikes and roads are caſt up.

Halberſtadt, the capital, which gives name to the country, was heretofore an imperial city. It ſtands on the river Hotheim, or Hotteim, twenty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Magdeburg, and twenty-eight ſouth eaſt of Brunſwick. It

It was made a biſhopric by Charlemagne in 780, when the ſee was transferred hither from Oſterwick. Hiſtorians give an account of forty-eight of their biſhops, moſt of them of the Houſe of Brunſwick, and more remarkable for being ſoldiers than ſcholars. Their fifteenth biſhop Rambard defeated the emperor Henry V. in the woods of Welfo. Their eighteenth, Utric, was routed by Henry the Lion, duke of Brunſwick, who took and burnt the town, with the citizens and clergy that fled to the cathedral. Their twenty-ninth, Albert of Brunſwick fought twenty battles, and gained moſt of them, over his rivals, who were ſet up againſt him by the Popes. Their thirty-firſt was Albert a great philoſopher, who being defeated by Gerard the eloquent, biſhop of Hildeſheim, it occaſioned a jeſt here, That Rhetoric was too hard for Logic. Their forty-fourth, Henry Julius of Brunſwick, was choſen when but two years old, on condition, that the dean and chapter ſhould have the government for twelve years, and pay their infant-biſhop an annuity. In 1591, he introduced Luther's reformation here. He was ſucceeded by his three ſons, one after the other, the laſt of whom, Chriſtian, took part with the Proteſtants in the civil wars of Germany, and was a great, but unfortunate warrior. Their forty-eighth and laſt biſhop was Leopold William of Auſtria, who, being put in by the Imperialiſts, reſtored popery; but the Swedes, retaking the town, reſtored Lutheraniſm, and kept poſſeſſion of bith city and dioceſe, till the biſhopric was ſecularized, and given to the elector of Brandenburg by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

The ſtreets of this town, which is well-built, are ſtrait and uniform, and many of the buildings fair and ſtately: but the moſt remarkable is an inn called the Commis, or factory, reckoned the largeſt in Europe, and to have the beſt, and greateſt accommodation of the ſort, for ſtrangers: ſo that in the time of the civil war, Wallenſtein the emperor's general kept his court in it for ſome months, and found lodging in it for all his attendants and guards. The trade here is inconſiderable, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of the river; but as it is the ſeat of the regency of the principality, and of the courts of juſtice, it is much frequented. Its cathedral, which is a free-ſtone pile, adorned with remarkable ſtatues, and worth ſeeing, belongs to a chapter wherein the catholics and proteſtants are equally admitted, and both are allowed their public worſhip. Behind its choir there is an image of the Virgin Mary, with ſeventy-two titles of honour. The catholics have ſeveral convents in the town, of which that of the Recollets is the moſt beautiful, and their church is very fine: upon the whole, it is ſaid to be a ſtrong and populous city. It has ſix gates and a town houſe. The houſes which are on the hill, or about it, are called the town; thoſe below it, the ſuburbs. On the top of an hill, in an eſplanade, ſtand two churches with the canons houſes.

In this province are alſo the following towns, viz. 1. Gimingen, on the river Folke, ten miles to the eaſt; it was formerly the reſidence of the biſhops of Halberſtadt. 2. Aſcherſleben, on the Enne. 3. Weferlingen, on the Aller. 4. Ermſleben, on the Selke. 5. Dardeſſen. 6. Zilly. 7. Horenburg. 8. Reinſtein. 9. Oſterwick, on the Ilſe; where are ſeveral woollen manufactories.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Counties of GLATZ and MERIDEN; alſo of the Duchy of CLEVES, the Principality of MEURS, and County of MARCH, in the Duchy of WESTPHALIA: and of EAST FRIESLAND, LIPPE, GULICK, and TACKLENBURG, in the Circle of WESTPHALIA; their Boundaries and Extent, Situation, Towns, Rivers, Mountains, Produce, Revenues, Manufactories, &c.

GLATZ is bounded by Sileſia, Moravia, and Bohemia, and ſeparated from them all by almoſt inacceſſible mountains, ſo that it is a country very difficult to be entered. It is about thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, and is beautifully diverſified with villages, hills, dales, meadows, fields, ſtreams, &c. and produces wheat, paſture, wood, quarry-ſtones, jaſper, cornelians, game, fiſh, pit-coal, marble, topazes, mineral waters, &c. It is exceedingly fertile and populous. There is in it a high mountain, which ſerves as a weather-glaſs to the whole country.

The diets have been diſcontinued, ſince Glatz became ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. It was not conquered by that monarch, but ceded to him in 1742. For the government of Glatz, a regency is appointed; but an appeal, either in civil or eccleſiaſtical matters, lies to the court of Berlin; and the offices are ſubject to the war and domain chambers at Breſlaw. The language is German. The principal manufactures are thread and cotton; but the favourite employment of the inhabitants are tillage and grazing. The people in general were Roman catholics till the country came into the poſſeſſion of the king of Pruſſia: ſince which, he has eſtabliſhed Lutheraniſm.

The capital, which bears the name of the country, is ſituated near the Neyſs, on the declivity of a hill. It is ſtrongly fortified, contains an old caſtle, which hath been much improved by the Pruſſians, and a new one which they have lately erected; the latter is admirably ſituated on a hill oppoſite to the former, with a river between them. Here are commodious barracks for the garriſon; and the adjacent country may be laid under water by means of ſluices. The town contains a college, two convents, ſeveral churches, and enjoys a tolerable trade.

The other leſs conſiderable towns are, 1. Laudee, on the Biela. 2. Habelſchwardt, on the Neyſs. 3. Reiſnerz, remarkable for its mineral ſpring, and its manufactures of cloth, pluſh, and paper. 4. Hunſdorff, which has a copper-mine. 5. Wimſchelburg, it carries on a great trade in thread and woollens. And Neurode, chiefly noted for cloths, ſtuffs, and ſnuff.

Meriden is a principality, and was ceded to the elector of Brandenburg at the treaty of Munſter; it lies between Oſnaburg and Schoumburg, is twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-five from north to ſouth. The northern parts are full of woods and hills, and have plenty of game, and the ſouthern parts abound with corn, great quantities of which they export.

The capital, of the ſame name, is a neat, well-fortified town, on the north ſide of the Weſer, thirty miles eaſt of Oſnaburg. It was made a biſhopric by Charlemagne, and continued ſo as ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne till 1638, when it was ſecularized by the treaty of Munſter. In Charlemagne's time a caſtle was built at the foot of its bridge over the Weſer; of which ſome remains, with other antiquities, are yet viſible. In 1529 the reformation took place here with ſuch vehemence, that the chapter was obliged to leave the city, for which the inhabitants were, in 1538, put under the ban of the empire; and in 1547 they were, in conſequence, obliged to ſurrender their town to Charles V. They were almoſt ever after in continual troubles and revolutions, on account of religion, during the wars in Germany. The city was taken by the Imperialiſts under count Tilly in 1628, and by the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh in 1634. It was taken the firſt time by ſtorm, when Tilly put near three thouſand men, ſoldiers and inhabitants, to the ſword. In 1636, the Swedes undertook to protect the proteſtant inhabitants againſt the perſecution of the chapter, and kept poſſeſſion of it on that account till 1650, when, in purſuance of the treaty of Weſtphalia, this once-imperial city, and alſo one of the Hanſe-towns, was delivered to the elector of Brandenburg, who keeps a garriſon here. It was again taken by the French in the war in the reign of George II. and retaken by the Engliſh and Hanoverian forces, who engaged the French on the 1ſt of Auguſt 1759, and defeated their army.

The majority of the inhabitants are Proteſtants; but the cathedral, a noble and large, though dark ſtructure, is in the poſſeſſion of the Roman catholics; as are likewiſe the churches of St. John and St. Simeon, with a large monaſtery adjoining to the latter. This place is encompaſſed with a wall, and defended with ſome half moons, but is commanded by a neighbouring hill. It has two chapters, one of canons, and the other of canoneſſes, into the latter of which the ladies muſt make proof their nobility, in order to be admitted. They have here a particular ſort of pale beer, much eſteemed in Germany, and reſembles oat-ale.

Here are alſo the following places: 1. The town of Peterſtagen, defended by a caſtle. 2. Hanſberg, made a city in 1722. 3. Lubeck, a fortified town inhabited by Lutherans. Here are a ſchool, alms-houſe, ſugar-houſe, chapter-houſe, &c. The trade conſiſts of cattle, yarn, woollen, linen, beer, and ſpirits.

Ravenſburg lies ſouth from Oſnaburg and Meriden, north-weſt from Lippe, and north from Rheda. This county has its name from the capital: it is thirty-eight miles long, and forty broad, and belongs to the king of Pruſſia; but is for the moſt part rocky and mountainous.

The town of Ravenſburg, with its ſtrong fort, are ſituated on a hill near the river Heſſell, eighteen miles ſouth of Oſnaburg. Moſt of the antient ſeats of the German

princes and nobility are ſituated on a hill, which accounts for ſo many of their counties, &c. terminating in berg, a hill; and their towns in burg, or borch, ſignifying a town.

The principal places are thoſe which follow: 1. Bilevelt, or Bielfeldt, formerly a Hanſe-town, in the road from Meriden to Munſter, ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Ravenſburg, at the bottom of a great hill, and defended by the impregnable fort of Sparenburg. It made a brave reſiſtance againſt the French, when they attacked it from a neighbouring hill with granadoes and fire-balls; for the burghers covered their houſes with webs of linen (their chief manufacture) dipped in milk, which prevented their doing much damage. Their linen is bleached on the adjacent hills, where it is watched by boys, who, on the approach of travellers in the night-time, make a hedious howling.

Twenty-two miles ſouth-eaſt from Oſnaburg is, 2. The town of Hervoden, or Herfurt, pleaſantly ſituated, and famed for the manufacture of linen. It is divided into the Old Town, the New Town, and Radewich, by the rivers Elſe, Aa, and Werne. It was formerly an imperial city, but it is ill built, and chiefly noted for a famous nunnery founded in 832, the abbeſs of which formerly held this city in ſubjection, till Anne counteſs of Limberg, and abbeſs of this nunnery, gave up the city to William duke of Juliers, in the year 1547. The king of Pruſſia has a garriſon in the town. The abbey embraced the reformed doctrine about two centuries ago, and is perhaps the only one of its kind in Europe, becauſe the abbeſs and all the nuns are Calviniſts. There is alſo another nunnery on a hill near the town, which is a ſort of nurſery to the abbey, and where the young ladies are taught needle-work, &c. It was founded in 1101, and is governed by a deaconeſs, a treaſureſs, and all the officers that belong to collegiate churches; but otherwiſe ſubject to the abbeſs of Hervoden, who, as princeſs of the empire, has all the hereditary officers common to electors.

The king of Pruſſia, as count of Ravenſburg, is protector of the abbey.

The places of leſs note are, 1. Engeren. 2. Ulotowe, on the Weſer, twenty miles ſouth-eaſt of Hervoden, and thirty eaſt from Ravenſburg. 3. Schideſche, a ſmall hamlet, with a foundation for ſeventeen Roman catholic, Lutheran, and Calviniſt ladies. 4. Verſmold, which has a conſiderable linen trade. 5. Bunde, where is a mineral ſpring, and alſo a linen manufactory.

The province of Lingen is ſituated between the biſhoprics of Munſter and Oſnaburg, is fifteen miles long, ten broad, has a fertile ſoil, and produces plenty of pit-coal and ſtone. On the death of William III. of England, the whole country was ſeized by the king of Pruſſia, and incorporated with Tecklenburg. Calviniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion: but here are many Lutherans and Roman Catholics. The principal place is Lingen, the metropolis, which ſtands on the river Ems, ten miles ſouth of Meppen, and forty-five north of Munſter. It came to William prince of Orange by his lady the heireſs. The Ems here is very broad, and bears large veſſels that get into the ſea near Embden. It once had a caſtle and other fortifications. The ſands about this place keep the air dry, and free from fogs. King William erected an academy here; beſides which, he founded five places in a Latin ſchool for poor ſcholars, and did every thing he could to promote the proteſtant religion in this country, which was at that time entirely popiſh; the profeſſors of it were obliged to have their marriages and baptiſms in the proteſtant church; and a prieſt could not lie here one night without leave from the magiſtrates, as a puniſhment for the revolt they excited among the people in the year 1674, which was ſuppreſſed by the prince of Orange in perſon. At the academy are a printing-houſe, and a good library.

Here is alſo the ſmall town of Rheda, with a caſtle, near the Ems, and that of Ibbenbukren, near which are ſeveral coal-pits and ſtone quarries.

Cleves is bounded by Juliers, on the ſouth; Zutphen, on the north; Guelderland, on the weſt; and Munſter, on the eaſt. It is forty miles long, about fifteen broad, and in general fertile, pleaſant, and well watered by the Rhine, Roer, Emſer, Lippe, Iſſel, &c. Dikes are cut as a ſecurity againſt inundations; and the country abounds in corn, fruits, black cattle, game, fiſh, horſes, &c. The inhabitants are fond of trade, and the rivers and lakes afford them many commercial advantages.

The metropolis of this duchy, alſo called Cleves, is ſituated fifty-five miles weſt from Munſter. It has its name from being chiefly among cliffs, and on the declivity of a hill, between the Rhine and the Maeſe, in one of the fineſt countries of Germany. Over the ſouth gate of the town is an inſcription, denoting that Julius Cæſar founded a caſtle here, that Auguſtus garriſoned it, that Ulpius Trajanus made it a colony, and Ælianus Adrianus a city. It is now ſmall, but pleaſant, well built, and well peopled, having ſeveral fine houſes belonging to perſons of quality; but thoſe of the ordinary towns-people are mean. The caſtle is large, and pleaſantly ſituated on the top of a hill, but irregular, and not very ſtrong. From an ancient Gothic ſtructure, called the Swan Tower, there is a noble proſpect of the neighbouring country, and particularly of the Rhine, which lies three miles from it to the north, and there divides itſelf into two branches, both commanded by the fort Schenk. There are ſtately apartments in the caſtle, which was the palace of their ancient dukes, and where the king of Pruſſia reſides when he comes to this city, which ſubſiſts chiefly by the reſidence of his deputies, who govern the duchy; and by the meeting of the ſtates, who aſſemble in the caſtle. The governors and magiſtrates are Calviniſts, and have a large handſome church, beſides the chapel of the caſtle; but the public churches here, and in moſt parts of the dutchy, are in the poſſeſſion of the papiſts, by virtue of an agreement with the duke of Newburg and Juliers, who was thereupon obliged to allow the proteſtants a liberty in his dominions. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of the caſtle is navigable, by ſmall veſſels, to the Rhine.

Prince Maurice's parks are on the weſt ſide of the city, where are alſo pleaſant ponds, canals, fine water-works, grottoes, &c. Above them lies the high hill of Sternberg, from whence may be ſeen Utrecht, though fifty miles off, with near forty other cities and great towns, twelve of which are ſeen through ſo many walks cut in the woods. The prince's houſe ſtands in a wood on the eaſt ſide, and among other rarities, has a noble collection of old Roman urns, and divers other monuments of antiquity. Beſides the great church, a monaſtery of Capuchins, and another of Franciſcans, are the only public buildings in the city. On the road, two leagues from this city, there is the palace of Moiland, where the king of Pruſſia reſided in 1734, as he returned from the Imperial army on the Rhine; and there is a continued range of walks from hence to Santen, which is five leagues.

Gennep is a ſmall town on the Niers; Udema, a little village pleaſantly ſituated; and Gock, a town which formerly belonged to Gueldres, but in 1773 was incorporated with Cleves; Craneburg is a ſmall town with a Roman catholic collegiate church.

The town of Emmerick, or Embrick, is large, rich, and beautiful, pleaſantly ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, four miles eaſt of Cleves. It is very antient, one of the Hanſe towns, and has a pretty good trade. It was formerly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, but, on the emperor's perſuation, they reſigned it to the duke of Cleves in 1609, on condition that the Spaniards ſhould reſtore Rhinberg to the elector of Cologne; which they not performing. the Dutch repoſſeſſed it, and fortified this and ſeveral other towns of the duchy, as a frontier againſt the Spaniards: but they afterwards gave them up to the elector of Brandenburg. This town was taken by the French in 1672, but reſtored in 1674 to the elector, who had mortgaged it to the Dutch. Over-againſt it, in the Rhine, there is a large iſland, at the corner of which, next to the town, there was a fort, which commanded the river. The governor and magiſtrates, and many of the burghers, are Calviniſts, and have a church here; but the reſt, by agreement, are poſſeſſed by the papiſts.

The town of Rees is ſituated on the ſame ſide of the Rhine, nine miles higher, and eight miles eaſt of Cleves: it was a fortified town, and taken and reſtored by the French in the ſame manner as Emmerick, but lately diſmantled. An excellent ſculpture in gilt wood, containing the hiſtory of the life of Chriſt, is preſerved in a proteſtant church here.

Nine miles weſt of Weſel, and thirteen from Cleves, is Stanten: it ſtands in a valley between hills, half a league from the Rhine; is a large town, and ſuppoſed to have been the Vetera Caſtra of the antients, in which Julius Cæſar reſided. The place is much decayed: but has a great church, like a cathedral, with thirty fine altars, and the goſpel hiſtory carved exquiſitely in wood; here are alſo fine altars, and abundance of relics. This was the place where the provincial treaty was made in 1614, for the partition of the ſucceſſion of Juliers, Berg, and Cleves, between the families of Brandenburg and Newburg. The town is walled, but has no fortifications.

The ſmall town of Burich, on the Rhine, is oppoſite to the mouth of the Lippe; near which are Dinſlaken, Orſoy, Holt, and Iſſelburg.

Over-againſt Rees, on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, ſtands the Calcar, on the river Men, between Santen and Cleves, being five miles ſouth-eaſt of the latter, and north-weſt of the former. It was built and fortified by the dukes of Cleves, for a defence againſt any ſudden invaſion from Cologne and Guelderland. It ſoon grew populous and rich, by a trade in linen; but ſince one of its dukes built a vaſt granary here, for the boors to bring their corn to, it has been more conſiderable for making malt and beer. Its moſt ſtately buildings are, the Town-houſe, St. Nicholas's church, and a monaſtery of Dominicans; the latter of which has a good library. It has a ſtrong caſtle, and a fine market-place. but the ſtreets are narrow, and it is ſurrounded with water and moraſſes. The road from hence to Cleves is through a barren country, but there are ſome caſtles in it.

Marienboon ſtands between Calcar and Santen: this is a rich monaſtery, with a Latin inſcription on the wall next the road, expreſſing their gratitude to Frederic William, elector of Brandenburgh, for accepting their great collection of manuſcripts in 1650, inſtead of turning them out, and converting their revenues to the public uſe.

The town of Weſel, called Nether Weſel, to diſtinguiſh it from Upper Weſel, in the electorate of Treves, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, near the mouth of the river Lippe, ten miles eaſt of Santen, and eighteen ſouth-eaſt of Cleves. It was formerly a Hanſe-town, and alſo Imperial, but exempted, by the dukes of Cleves, from the contributions paid by theſe towns to the military cheſt of the empire, according to the Matricala.

It is not only the largeſt and beſt-built town of the duchy, but populous and well ſituated for trade. It grew rich by the concourſe of merchants that fled thither from the perſecution in the Spaniſh Netherlands, and was garriſoned by the Dutch, to whom it was mortgaged by the elector of Brandenburgh, but taken and plundered by the French in 1672, they alſo exacted heavy contributions from the inhabitants, which forced many of them to retire; but it was reſtored in 1674 to the elector, after the French had diſmantled it. Though the place ſubmits to the king of Pruſſia as its ſovereign, it is governed by its own laws. Both the town and its two ſuburbs are full of ſoldiers, and well fortified after the modern way; in the middle of the courtines are galleries which run into the ditch, and have ſeparate places for the men and women in caſe of a ſiege. This may well be reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Europe: it has a good citadel towards the Rhine, a ſmall harbour for veſſels that trade on that river, an arſenal well ſtored with all neceſſaries for defence or offence, and ſeveral churches and monaſteries. The porch of the great church is remarkable for the birth of Peregrine Bertie (afterwards earl of Lindſay), whoſe mother, the ducheſs dowager of Suffolk, and Mr. Bertie, her huſband, being forced to fly beyond ſea from queen Mary's perſecution, were reduced to ſuch difficulties here, becauſe they durſt not make themſelves known, that they could not get any better accommodation. There is an hoſpital in this town, founded and richly endowed by a chancellor of this duchy and his ſon, for the aged and decrepid. The country is a plain and gravelly ſoil from hence to Duiſburg.

Here is alſo the ſmall town of Lobith, on the Rhine; and Eltenburg, near that river, which has an imperial foundation for ladies. Deuſburg, on the Roer, thirty-one miles from the ſouth of Cleves: it is well fortified, has a proteſtant univerſity, a commander of the Teutonic order, two monaſteries, a nunnery, and two pariſh churches.

Meurs is a ſmall principality, ſurrounded by the archbiſhop of Cologne and the duchies of Cleves, Berg, and Gueldres. It is watered by the Rhine, and yields plenty of corn, cattle, and veniſon. The revenue is upwards of thirty thouſand rix-dollars. As prince of Meurs, the king of Pruſſia has a ſeat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and the diets of the circle.

The principal places are, 1. Meurs, or Mors, a compact, ſmall, well-fortified town, where the provincial colleges hold their meetings: here is a caſtle, a Calviniſt church, and a Latin ſchool. 2. Crefeld, a ſmall town, containing manufactures of ſilk, linen, velvet, &c. and defended by a citadel.

Marck is reckoned the largeſt county in Weſtphalia, being forty miles in length and breadth. It is ſituated between the Lippe and the Roer, divided into fifteen bailiwicks, and ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. It lies weſt from the duchy of Weſtphalia, north from that of Berg, and ſouth-eaſt of Cleves; and is thought to have its name from being the antient boundary between Germany and Gallia Belgica. This country is both fertile and rich, as it yields grain, pulſe, fruit, coals, lead, ſilver, ſalt, game, flax, hemp, wood, iron, copper, ſtone, cattle, fiſh, and other neceſſaries. Iron and ſteel are the principal manufactures. People of all perſuaſions are tolerated here, and the government is inveſted in the ſame colleges as that of Cleves.

On the river Lippe is ſituated the town of Hamem, the capital of the county: it is fifty-five miles north-eaſt of Cologne, was antiently one of the Hanſe-towns; but though the adjacent country abounds with corn, flax and hemp, it is a poor place, that ſubſiſts chiefly by lodging travellers who paſs between Brandenburg and the Netherlands.

Schwertes, on the Roer; Camen, on the Zeſick; and Weſthoven, are very inconſiderable towns, though very pleaſant. Syberg has a church ſeated on a rock, where formerly ſtood a caſtle belonging to the Saxons.

On the river Arſe, Weſt of Hamem, ſtands Soeſt, or Sonſt. It is a populous city, ſeated in the neck of this country, which ſhoots into Weſtphalia. It is fortified with a double wall, whereon are thirty watch towers, and a large deep ditch. It has fourteen pariſhes, and many churches, beſides chapels, one of which is collegiate, and under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Cologne. It has many privileges, particularly the liberty of hunting and killing veniſon in any of the neighbouring counties. It has alſo a court of judicature within itſelf, from which there lies no appeal, except to the chamber of Wetzlaer. It has as many gates as pariſhes; but it is in ſo ruinous a ſtate, that very few of the ſtreets are paved. Here are ſeveral convents, and a famous nunnery called Paradiſe. The Lutherans poſſeſs two of the pariſh churches, and a nunnery, which, like other proteſtant nunneries in Germany, is a ſort of free boarding-ſchool, raiſed on the ancient popiſh eſtabliſhments, where young ladies, generally of the beſt families, are educated; and ſome ſpend their lives in them; but take neither the vow nor the habit; nor are they tied down to many rules.

In this country are alſo the following places: 1. Lipſtadt, on the river Lippe. 2. Hoken-Limburg, a borough on the Lippe, is a fief of the county of Marck, and under the protection of the regency of Cleves. 3. Hoerde, on the Emſcher, where are a Lutheran and Calviniſt church; near it is a free ſecular foundation for an abbeſs, and fifteen other ladies, partly proteſtants and partly Roman Catholics: the inhabitants are chiefly employed in nail-making. 4. Hagen, on the Volme, contains a Lutheran, Calviniſt, and Romiſh church. The inhabitants manufacture cloth, ſword-blades, paper, knives, hammers, &c. White alabaſter with red veins, and black with white veins, are found in the diſtrict. 5. Plettenberg, on the Elbe, has ſtone quarries, and iron and woolen manufactures in its neighbourhood. 6. Schwelm, a trading town, with a Latin ſchool, a foundation for proteſtant and Roman catholic ladies, a Lutheran, Calviniſt, and popiſh church, and a medicinal ſpring. 7. Hattingen, on the Roer. 8. Blankenſtein, on the ſame river. 9. Caſhiop has in it a Roman catholic, Lutheran, and Calviniſt church. 10. Nienrade, on the Lippe. 11. Bockuna. 12. Lindenſcheid. 13. Herdicke, on the Roer, has a free ſecular foundation, for Roman catholic and proteſtant ladies, and a Lutheran, Calviniſt, and Roman catholic church. 14. Iſerlon, or Lon, has manufactures of ſilk, braſs, iron, and wool, and has three Lutheran churches, one Calviniſt, and one Roman catholic.

The town of Dartmund is twenty-ſix miles weſt of Soeſt, and thirty-ſeven north of Cologne. Though it is a ſmall place, it is rich and populous; having a pretty good trade, and a communication with the Rhine, by its river Empſer. It has an univerſity, which was erected in 1548. The eſtabliſhment here is Lutheran.

In a large plain, fourteen miles eaſt of Dartmund, ſtands Unna, now ſubject, with the above, to the houſe of Brandenburg. It is not ſo large as Hamem, but was formerly reckoned one of the richeſt cities of Lower Germany.

The town of Altana is large and populous: it has a Lutheran and Calviniſt church, a caſtle on a high rock, and ſome trade in iron and wire. Being ſurrounded by mountains on all ſides, there is but little arable ground near it; ſo that the inhabitants are ſupplied with grain from other places.

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We next proceed to the circle of Weſtphalia, containing Eaſt Frieſland, Lippa, Gulick, and Tacklenburg,

The firſt of theſe, namely Eaſt Frieſland, called alſo the earldom of Embden, has the German ocean on the north, the county of Oldenberg on the eaſt, the biſhoprick of Munſter on the ſouth, and the gulph Dollart, with the mouth of the river Ems, on the weſt, which parts it from the province of Groningen. The king of Pruſſia claimed and ſeized this country after the death of the emperor, Charles VI. the laſt count of Eaſt-Frieſland, who left no iſſue.

The chief river is the Ems: the language ſpoken by the people is High and Low Dutch. The prevailing perſuaſion is Lutheran, and the trade is very conſiderable in horſes, horned cattle, butter, cheeſe, linen, rape-ſeed, barley, and wool. The air is thick and moiſt, the country low and marſhy, and the inundations frequent and dangerous; but the paſtures are rich and fertile. Here are abundance of horſes, ſheep, horned cattle, &c. and plenty of butter, cheeſe, milk, &c. The great number of dikes are ſignally ſerviceable to the country, which, however, produces but little corn; but, beſides what we have already mentioned, here is great plenty of turf provided for fuel.

The city of Embden is rich, large, and populous; fortified towards the land by a double ditch, regular bulwarks, and baſtions; and on the ſouth by a ſtrong wall and the river. It is ſituated on the north ſide of the Ems, and on the bay called Dollart; twenty-four miles diſtant from Groningen to the north-eaſt, and fifty-five from Bremen to the ſouth-weſt. The iſland Neſſa, which lies in the Dollart bay, over againſt this city, makes the harbour as large and convenient as any on the German coaſt. They have alſo artificial canals, by which they can bring large veſſels into the heart of the town; and by opening their ſluices, they can lay the neighbouring country under water, and make the town inacceſſible. Their houſes are generally neat and high, and the town hall very magnificent. They are very induſtrious, and much addicted to trade; aſſerters of their liberties, and excellent ſoldiers. They make good proviſion for their poor, and allow freedom of worſhip to all but papiſts. It is divided into three parts, the Old Town, the Faldern, and the ſuburbs. The moſt remarkable buildings, are the town-houſe, library, and cathedral church. In 1750, the king of Pruſſia eſtabliſhed an Eaſt-India company here.

The other places of leſs note are, 1. Norden, ſituated on a little gulph, about fifteen miles diſtant from Embden to the north. 2. Aurick, about ten miles from Embden to the north-eaſt, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, the reſidence of the count prince of Eaſt-Frieſland. This is the capital of a little diſtrict called Auricherland, which is marſhy and full of woods. The ſupreme court of judicature is held here. 3. Jemgum is an opulent borough, and has a harbour on the Ems. 4. Hoge, which gives name to a diſtrict. 5. Leer, a large well-inhabited town, on the Leda. 6. Gretſyhl, a borough town on the German ocean. 7. Eſens, about fourteen miles diſtant from Aurich towards the north, and twenty-five from Embden to the north-eaſt. 7. Witmund, about five miles from Eſens to the eaſt.

The county of Lippe, which is narrow, lies between Paderborn on the ſouth, and Ravenburg on the north. It is in general mountainous and heathy, but has ſome corn land. This country hath ſeveral proprietors, viz. the king of Pruſſia, the king of Great Britain, the counts of Lippe Schawenburg, and Lippe Detmold, and the biſhop of Paderborn. The inhabitants are Calviniſts.

The chief places are the following; viz. Lemgau, which contains a Lutheran academy, two Lutheran and one Calviniſt church, a palace, and a foundation for ladies. 2. Detmold on the Warra. 3. Blomberg. 4. Horn. 5. Sabz-Uffen. 6. Bandorf. 7. Swalenberg. 8. Lipſtadt, already mentioned, which partly belongs to the county of Marck and that of Lippe. 9. Alverdiſcen, a borough town. 10. Sternberg is a caſtle appertaining to a diſtrict belonging to the king of Great Britain.

The people who profeſs Calviniſm are remarkably induſtrious; and, as an encouragement thereto, the country is extremely fertile.

Gulick or Juliers, ſituated between the Mars and the Rhine, has Cleves and Gelderen on the north, Cologne on the eaſt, the Palatinate on the ſouth, and the Netherlands on the weſt; being ſixty miles long and thirty broad. The ſoil produces woad, or wood for dyeing; and the country abounds in corn, paſture-grounds, good neat cattle, and an excellent breed of horſes.

The only place worthy of mention is Juliers, or Gulick, the capital city; it is ſituated on the river Roer, twenty-five miles weſt of Cologne, in ſix degrees eaſt longitude, and fifty-one north latitude. It is a ſmall fortified town, defended by a caſtle.

Tacklenburg lies eaſt from Lingen, and weſt from Oſnaburg, and is about thirty miles long, and ten broad: in 1560, it fell to the counts of Benthem, and ſince to the king of Pruſſia. Its antient counts had large dominions, now parcelled out to others. Its capital, which bears the ſame name, has a ſtrong caſtle and a fort: this town is ten miles weſt of Oſnaburg, and twenty-three north of Munſter.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of GELDER in the Netherlands, and NEUFCHATEL in Switzerland; their Situation and Boundaries, Towns, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Manufactures, &c.

THE High Quarter, or Upper Gelderland, has Dutch Brabant, and part of the biſhopric of Liege on the weſt, part of the duchy of Gulick on the ſouth, part of the duchy of Cleves on the north, and part of the ſame duchy, and of the electorate of Cologne on the eaſt; ſo that it is entirely divided from Dutch Gelderland. Its breadth is unequal, and about twenty-four miles in the broadeſt part; and its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about thirty-five miles.

The Spaniards kept poſſeſſion of this country after the commonwealth of the United Provinces was ſettled; but it was conquered by the allies during the war occaſioned by the death of king Charles II. of Spain, about his ſucceſſion. The king of Pruſſia, for whom it is very conveniently ſituated, laid claim to it: and, by the treaty of Utrecht, it was agreed that he ſhould keep the city of Gelder, the præfectorſhips, towns, boroughs, fiefs, lands, quit and other rents, in that part of the high quarter of Gelderland, which he was actually in poſſeſſion of; which was yielded to him, his heirs and ſucceſſors, of either ſex, for ever; together with the county of Keſſel, and the bailiwick of Krickenbeck.

The town of Gelder, from which the whole province derives its name, is twenty miles diſtant from Cleves to the ſouth, and eight from Venlo towards the north. It ſtands in a plain, on the river Niers, which, dividing itſelf here into two branches, forms an iſland, in which this city ſtands. It receives the Niers into its trenches, lies in the midſt of marſhes; and is ſo well fortified beſides, that it is reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt places in the Netherlands. It has an handſome caſtle, formerly the ſeat of its governors, and is ſuppoſed to have been built by Wichard, the firſt lord of this country, who erected it into a principality after the death of Charles the Bald. The heireſs being afterwards married to Otho of Naſſau, who was created count by the emperor Henry IV. about the year 1069; one of his deſcendants was made duke by the emperor Lewis, of Bavaria, in 1339; but his poſterity failing, it came to the count of Egmont, who ſold it to Charles duke of Burgundy, by whoſe daughter it came to the houſe of Auſtria.

Gelder was taken by the confederates in the beginning of the war in the Low Countries, but betrayed to the Spaniards in 1587. The Duch beſieged it in 1637, 1639, and 1640, but without ſucceſs. The French ſeized it in the beginning of the laſt continental war; but it was re-taken by the Pruſſians, after a blockade of fifteen months and fourteen days bombardment. By the treaty of Utrecht, it was ceded to the king of Pruſſia, in exchange for the principality of Orange, to which he had a right, as heir to king William III. and which had been ſeized upon by the French king.

This country contains, beſides the capital, the following places; viz. 1. Keſſel, a large borough with a fine caſtle: this borough lies on the Maeſe, about thirteen miles diſtant from Gelder to the ſouth. It is the capital of a county, or diſtrict, which was yielded to the king of Pruſſia by the treaty of Utrecht.

2. Stralen is about four miles diſtant from Gelder towards the ſouth. It was formerly fortified; but the French having taken it in 1672, demoliſhed its fortifications. It belongs now to the king of Pruſſia, and is the capital of a ſmall territory. The village of Zant lies near it.

3. Five miles above Gelder to the eaſt, on the river Niers, ſtands Wachtendenck: it is well fortified; but its chief ſtrength conſiſts in the marſhes that ſurround it, and in its ditches, filled with the waters of the Niers. In the beginning of the wars in the Low Countries, it was taken

Louis, count of Naſſau, brother to the prince of Orange, in a hard winter, by marching ſome troops over the ice, which the garriſon had neglected to break. In 1588, it was furiouſly battered by count Mansfield, general of the Spaniards; and it is obſerved, that bombs were uſed for the firſt time at this ſiege; notwithſtanding which, the beſieged defended themſelves ſo bravely, that the Spaniards were going to retire after three months ſiege; but juſt as the town was on the point of being relieved, it was betrayed to them by the governor.

Neufchatel is a principality, being bounded by the biſhopric of Baſil, and the territory of Biel, towards the north; by the lake Neufchatel towards the eaſt; by the canton of Bern on the ſouth; and by Franche Comte, or Burgundy on the weſt; being about twelve leagues in length from north to ſouth, and ſix in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The air of this country, near the lake, is temperate, but very ſharp in the mountainous parts of it; the ſoil is ſtrong, but produces the beſt wine in Switzerland, by the ſale whereof to foreigners, great advantages accrue to the natives.

The French language is ſpoken here, and the inhabitants reſemble that nation more in their manners and cuſtoms than the Germans, having more vivacity than the reſt of the Switzers, with a great ſhare of vanity. They are, in a manner, a free and independent people, notwithſtanding they have always had a prince for their head; for nothing is determined but by the concurrence of the three eſtates. They have alſo the privilege of chuſing their own magiſtrates and ſtandard-bearer, and are ſubject to no taxes but what they lay upon themſelves; and the whole country is of the reformed religion, except the two villages Crerior and Landeron, the inhabitants of which are Roman catholicks.

Upon the death of the ducheſs of Nemurs, the laſt countefs of Neufchatel, as heireſs of the houſe of Longueville, the ſtates of the country were inclined to ſubmit themſelves to the late king of Pruſſia, as heir by his mother to the houſe of Orange, which derived its title to Neufchatel from the marriage of one of its princes with the heireſs of the houſe of Chalons, the direct ſovereign of theſe two countries. Several competitors alſo aroſe at the ſame time, who claimed as heirs in blood to the houſe of Longueville; but the ſtates rejected their claim, and adjudged it to the heirs of the houſe of Chalons, and the king of Pruſſia accordingly took poſſeſſion of it.

The chief towns in the country of Neufchatel, are, 1. Neufchatel, the capital; and, 2. Landirm. The firſt of theſe, called by the Germans Newburg, is ſituated at the north-eaſt end of the lake, to which it communicates its name, about twenty miles north-eaſt of Bern, and fifteen north-weſt of Friburg. The town is well built, and adorned with ſeveral handſome fountains; it is governed by a council of ſixty burghers, and enjoys great privileges; among which, the moſt conſiderable is, that they are fellow citizens with the canton of Bern, which is not only their protector, but umpire of all the differences between them and their ſovereign; and this canton ſupported them in their civil and religious rights, while they were under the dominion of popiſh princes. The counts of Neufchatel were formerly allied to the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Solcure, and Friburg; but ſince the inveſtiture of the king of Pruſſia, the popiſh ſtates do not ſeem fond of renewing the alliance. Landeren is remarkable for its advantageous ſituation, and noble caſtle, the reſidence of the prince, which is ſituated near the lake of Biel.

With reſpect to the duchy of Sileſia, as ſome parts of it have been ceded to the king of Pruſſia, and others have been ſeized upon by him at various times, and under different pretences, he now poſſeſſes the principal places in the whole; it may therefore with great propriety be deemed, and conſequently deſcribed, as a Pruſſian province. It extends on both ſides of the Oder from the Carpathian mountains, where it riſes, to the borders of Brandenburg. It is ſeparated from Bohemia and Moravia to the ſouth-weſt and ſouth, by the mountains called Riſſenbergen, and bounded by Poland on the eaſt, Luſatia and part of Bohemia on the weſt, Brandenburg on the north, and Hungary on the ſouth. From north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt it is about two hundred and twenty-five miles, and about an hundred where broadeſt; but it is much contracted at both extremities.

There are many barren mountains on the ſide next to Bohemia, but the reſt of the country is good ſoil, abounding with corn, wine, ſweet cane or galengal, madder and flax; and on the mountains that divide this duchy from Moravia, there are mines of ſilver, the richeſt in Germany, which were mortgaged by the late emperor, Charles VI. upon the advance of money from Great Britain, &c. by the title of the Sileſian loans, at five and ſeven per cent. There are others of copper, lead, iron, quickſilver, ſalt, ſaltpetre and chalk.

Its four chief mountains are, 1. Zottenberg, or the Sileſian Weathercock, becauſe by the top of it the neighbours prognoſticate the weather. Here are the ruins of an old caſtle demoliſhed by the citizens of Breſlaw, becauſe it was a ſhelter for robbers. From this hill they dig a fine dark-greeniſh marble. 2. Gratzberg, or Gradiſberg, on which duke Frederick built a caſtle, now a watch-tower. 3. Spitſberg, with a beacon near the former. 4. Georgenberg, in the duchy of Schweidnitz, famous for the Terra Sigillata, firſt diſcovered by Montanus, an eminent phyſician and chymiſt, who wrote a Latin tract on its virtues.

Its chief river is the Oder, which riſes near a town of that name on the borders of Moravia, and traverſes this duchy from ſouth to north-weſt. Many ſmaller rivers riſe here, and fall into the Oder, increaſing it to a large navigable ſtream before it paſſes into Brandenburg. Its rivers abound with freſh-water-fiſh, as do alſo its ponds and lakes, eſpecially lampreys, which are taken in vaſt quantities in the Neiſſiſh lake, &c. Its meadows alſo have cattle, and its foreſt veniſon, with all the wild and tame beaſts and fowl that are in any part of the German empire.

The number of inhabitants are computed at a million and a half, being a mixture of Germans, Moravians, Poles, &c. The language is in ſome places German, and in others Sclavonic. Since the country fell under the dominion of the Pruſſians, no diets have been held, but all the other privileges of the inhabitants have been confirmed to them. The eſtabliſhed religion is the proteſtant; but Roman catholics, Jews, Greeks, &c. are tolerated. The principal manufactures are hats, glaſs, gunpowder, iron wares, woollens, linens, cottons, and thread.

Chriſtianity was planted here, as in Poland, about the end of the ninth, or beginning of the tenth century; but at firſt the Chriſtians worſhipped in private, for fear of their magiſtrates, till about 965, that the court itſelf turned Chriſtian, when no leſs than nine biſhopricks were erected in this country. Soon after Luther's appearance they embraced the Augſbourg confeſſion, for which they had a charter granted them by the emperor Rodolph II. in 1609, but Ferdinand II. repealed their charter, and very much reſtrained the exerciſe of their religion, which, though reſtored by the treaty of Weſtphalia, was again invaded by the Auſtrian family, till Charles XII. king of Sweden, obliged the emperor Joſeph, to allow it them again, with freſh conceſſions. Since that time theſe too have been virtually revoked by degrees; but ſince Sileſia has fallen into the hands of the king of Pruſſia, the Calviniſts and Lutherans, as well as the Roman catholicks, have had full liberty of conſcience.

The whole revenue from Sileſia and the county of Glatz, is very conſiderable, and is managed by the domain officers of Breſlaw and Glogau. In this part of Sileſia the exciſe revenue is only levied in walled towns, and fluctuates; but in the reſt of the duchy the contributions are fixed, and the ſame both in peace and war.

Geographers divide Sileſia into Upper and Lower, and theſe are again ſubdivided into principalities and lordſhips. The property and juriſdiction of ſome of theſe belong immediately to the king, and others to his ſubjects.

Lower Sileſia is divided into the principalities of Breſlaw, Brieg, Schweidnitz, Jauer, Lignitz, Wolau, Glogau, Neyſze, Oels, Shgan, Munſterburg, Trackenberg, Carlath; and the lordſhips of Wartenburg, Miltſch, and Goſchietz.

Breſlaw principality is a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the middle of Sileſia, lying on both ſides of the Oder, with the duchies of Wolaw and Oels, and the barony of Wartenberg on the north; the duchy of Brieg on the eaſt, part of Brieg and the duchy of Schweidnitz on the ſouth, and part of Schweidnitz and the duchy of Lignitz on the weſt. Its firſt duke was Boleſlaus, a Poliſh prince, ſo created by the emperor Frederick I. in 1163, but the following princes not being able to defend themſelves againſt the Tartars and Poles, they were forced to put themſelves under the protection of the king of Bohemia, to whom, Buno ſays, the emperor Frederick II. gave it as a fief of the empire; but it was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria before its late ceſſion to the king of Pruſſia.

Breſlau, or Breſlaw, the capital of this principality, is ſituated on the Oder, which, on the north ſide, runs cloſe by the walls, and in that part receives the Ohlau, after its winding

winding courſe through Old Breſlau. The preſent old city was formerly encompaſſed by this laſt river, as with a moat, all without the Ohlau to the walls of the city being additions made by the emperor Charles IV. The ſeveral parts comprehended under the name of Breſlau are collectively of great extent; for, including the ſuburbs, the whole circumference is not leſs than nine Engliſh miles. The fortifications of the city are of no great importance. It has ſeveral large and regular ſquares; the main ſtreets are broad, and, beſides many noble edifices, it contains a number of very elegant houſes and other private buildings. The part called the Dominſel, though lying without the circuit of the town, is defended by low walls, ſtrengthened with baſtions, and in it ſtands the citadel of St. John, which, in 1759, together with the deanery, was deſtroyed by fire. In the ſame part is alſo the biſhop's library, which forms a particular building; the abbey of the Holy Croſs; three or four ſmall churches; the biſhop's palace, which is a very ſpacious ſtructure; the dwellings of the prebends, ſome of which have very beautiful gardens; and the electoral hoſpital for poor children of both ſexes.

Brieg, in Latin, Brega, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, ſtands on the river Oder, and is not only well fortified, but is one of the largeſt, handſomeſt, and moſt conſiderable cities in all Sileſia. It has four ſuburbs, and a very long, lofty, and ſtrong wooden bridge. The caſtle, which was anciently the reſidence of the dukes of Brieg, was burnt down during the ſiege of the city, in 1741. On the ſouth ſide of Brieg ſtands the abbey of St. Hedwiga, which is in the poſſeſſion of the papiſts; beſides which there is alſo a Jeſuits college and a Franciſcan convent. To the Lutherans belongs the parochial church of St. Nicholas, and they have alſo an academy founded by duke George II. with the church of the Holy Trinity, in which the Poliſh congregation aſſemble. In 1643, this city held out a ſiege againſt the Swedes, but in 1741, the Pruſſians made themſelves maſters of it in four days.

Schweidnitz principality borders to the eaſt on thoſe of Brieg and Breſlau, to the northward on thoſe of Lignitz and Jauer, to the weſtward alſo on Jauer, and to the ſouthward on Bohemia and the country of Munſterberg. It is one of the largeſt and moſt populous principalities in all Sileſia, and, in conjunction with the principality of Jauer, is ſuppoſed to form one-eighth of the duchy. In this principality are ſeveral very high mountains: it, however, affords a ſufficiency of grain, timber, and fruit; and, abounds in game of all kinds; as alſo in cattle and pit-coal. Beſides theſe advantages, it has excellent flax and wool; and the inhabitants are remarkable for their induſtrious improvement of theſe advantages, by carrying on a variety of manufactures. This is chiefly done in the hilly parts of the principality, where its greateſt trade is carried on. It has no large rivers, the principal of them being the Werſtitz, Polnitz, and Bober.

The town of Schweidnitz, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, is ſtrongly fortified, ſituated on the little river Werſtitz, one of the moſt delightful ſpots in all Sileſia. Its ſtrength formerly conſiſted of a triple wall; but in 1748, Frederic II. cauſed it to be fortified with regular works of very great ſtrength. The pariſh church was in the hands of the Jeſuits, who got footing in this town in 1629, and are likewiſe poſſeſſed of a college and ſeminary adjoining to it. There are here a Dominican, Minorite and Capuchin monaſtery, with an Urſuline nunnery, all of which have their reſpective churches. St. Michael's church, without the lower gate, is a commendam of the red ſtar prebends of St. Matthias at Breſlau. Without the town is a Lutheran church, the head miniſter of which is inſpector of the churches within the circles of Schweidnitz, Reichenbach, and Strigan, and the principality of Munſterberg. The greateſt part of this city was burnt down in the year 1716; but has been ſince rebuilt with much more beauty than before, and all entirely of ſtone; in particular, the new town-houſe is a moſt elegant ſtructure. However, in 1757, it was taken by the Auſtrians, after a ſiege of ſixteen days, during which it was in a great meaſure deſtroyed by the bombs, red-hot bullets, and fires occaſioned by them; but in 1758, the Pruſſians recovered it, after a ſiege of the ſame continuance.

The town of Reichenbach is ſituated on the little river Peil. In this town is a commandery of the order of St. John, to which belongs the patronage of its parochial church, which is popiſh; and there is here alſo a Lutheran oratory. Without the Frankenſtein gate is a priory dedicated to St. Barbara, and without the Schweidnitz gate, an hoſpital that has a ſmall church. In 1632, this city was pillaged by the Saxons; in 1634, by the Imperialiſts, and in 1638, it ſuffered ſtill greater calamities from the Croats. In 1642, it was ſacked by the Swedes, and in 1643, its imperial garriſon demoliſhed upwards of one hundred and forty houſes for fuel. In this town are ſome conſiderable manufactures of fuſtian, linen, and canvaſs.

Striga, one of the towns of the laſt mentioned duchy, eight miles north of its capital, ſtands on the river Polſnitz, and is noted for excellent beer, and that remarkable mineral called Terra Sigillata.

The duchy of Jauer contains twelve towns, which came to Charles IV. king of Bohemia, by marriage. It has Bohemia on the ſouth, Upper Luſatia on the weſt, the duchies of Sagan and Glogaw on the north, and thoſe of Lignitz and Schweidnitz on the eaſt. The river Bober, which riſes in it, runs through it from north to ſouth.

Jauer, its capital, lies in a pleaſant valley, and a good air, near the rocky mountains which divide Sileſia from Bohemia, ten miles ſouth of Lignitz, and twenty-ſeven weſt of Breſlau. It is not ſo big as Schweidnitz, and no river paſſes through it; but it has ſtrong walls, with high ramparts, and deep ditches. It has a fair pariſh-church, with a convent of Bernardines, and a great citadel, in which reſides the bailiff or lieutenant of both the duchies of Jauer and Schweidnitz. There is a fine town-houſe in the middle of a large ſquare of houſes, built with galleries for people to walk under. It ſuffered much by the civil wars in 1648, when the church was burnt down, but has ſince been rebuilt in a more ſtately manner.

The principality of Lignitz is divided into ſeven diſtricts, denominated from the principal towns, is the beſt corn country in Sileſia, and abounds with a white ſort of Terra Sigillata. It lies betwixt the Oder and the duchy of Jauer. It had its particular princes, the laſt of whom died in 1675, when this, together with the duchies of Brieg and Wolau, which he alſo poſſeſſed, devolved to the emperor, in ſovereignty and propriety.

Its capital, of the ſame name, ſtands on the Cat, or Katſbach, a ſmall rivulet, two German miles north from Jauer, and ſix weſt from Breſlau, and ſouth of Glogaw. It was walled round, made a city, and, moreover, ſo adorned by Boleſlaus, the firſt duke, who reſided here about 1170, that it was the chief city of Sileſia, next to Breſlau. It was farther beautified and fortified by Boleſlaus the Bald. Frederic II. another of its dukes, encompaſſed it with a ditch in 1532, to ſecure it from the frequent incurſions of the Turks: and Henry XI. augmented the ditch, and made new works to ſtrengthen it. It is, in ſhort, a large town, has a noble ſtrong caſtle, a ſtately town-houſe and hoſpital, and is famous for a victory obtained near it, over the Imperialiſts, in 1635.

In this town are many meal, ſawing, tan, paper, fulling, and powder-mills, and a conſiderable trade in linen and madder. It alſo contains ſeveral churches, Lutheran, Roman catholic, &c. a college, military academy, and the palace of the antient princes, with the chapel in which they were buried. In this principality are alſo the towns of Geldberg, Haynaw, Luben, and Parchwitz.

Wolaw principality is in general woody and marſhy, yet has a few corn lands: the rivers are the Katſbach and Oder. Its chief towns are Wolaw, the capital; Winziz, Rautdem, Steinau, on the Oder: Ratzen, on the Baltick, and Henenſtadt, on the ſame river, which was burnt down by the Auſtrians in 1739.

Glogaw is the largeſt principality in Lower Siberia. It is watered by the Oder, Batch, and Bober, yields abundance of corn, wine, and wood, has ſeveral woollen manufactories, and is divided into ſix circles.

Its capital, Glogaw, has the epithet of Great, to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name in Upper Sileſia. It was taken in 1741, by the Pruſſians, and its fortifications conſiderably augmented: here is a lake, the fiſhery of which is farmed out, and produces a conſiderable ſum annually. It is the ſeat of ſeveral courts, officers, &c. has a college, a Lutheran, a Calviniſt, and ſeveral Roman catholic churches and convents, and is ſtrongly fortified and well garriſoned.

In this principality are alſo the following towns; viz. 1. Gurau, which was burnt by the Ruſſians in 1759. 2. Sproltau, at the conflux of the Sprolte and Bober. 3. Grunberg. 4. Schuibus, on the Schwemme; and, 5. Freyſtadt.

Neyſze principality is remarkable for its northern diſtricts, being more fertile than the ſouthern. It is watered

by the Olaw, the Neyſze, the Billaw, and the Oppar; tobacco is cultivated here.

The principal places are, 1. Ottmackaw, on the Neyſze, where the biſhop has a palace and a court of regency. 2. Neyſze, on the river of its own name, ten miles to the ſouth of Grotkaw, and twenty-ſix eaſt of Glatz; it is watered by the river Billaw, and is the ordinary reſidence of the biſhop of Breſlau. Moſt of its houſes are very high, and built of free-ſtone, forming fine ſtreets and public ſquares. It is encompaſſed by a good wall, and a ditch full of water, has ſeveral churches and convents, and is commanded by a fort on a neighbouring hill, erected in 1743, by order of the king of Pruſſia, and defended by a ſtrong garriſon. It it noted for a great trade in bed-ticking. 3. Grotkaw is eight miles north-eaſt from Munſterberg, and eighteen from Oppelen. The houſes are moſtly built of timber; but the biſhop's palace, the church, and town-hall, are of ſtone. It has good gates and walls, with a triple ditch. It ſtands in a fine plain, near a foreſt, in a good air, and a fruitful ſoil, between Brieg on the north, and Munſterberg on the ſouth-weſt. It has a large pariſh church.

Oels principality is ſandy and barren; is divided into four circles, and has the following towns; viz. 1. Oels, the capital, which is ſmall. 2. Bernſtadt, on the Weyda. 3. Conſtadt.

Sagan principality abounds with wood and iron; and contains, 1. Sagan near the frontiers of Luſatia. 2. Priebus, on the Neyſze. 3. Naumberg, on the Bober.

Munſterberg is a very mountainous principality; notwithſtanding which, it yields abundance of grain, flax, hemp, wood, hops, cattle, ſheep, &c. It is watered by the Neyſze and Olaw, and contains, 1. Munſterburg, the capital, twenty miles north-eaſt of Glatz, and thirty ſouth-eaſt of Schweidnitz; it ſtands in a fruitful plain, at the head of the river Olaw, which falls into the Oder at Breſlau, thirty-two miles to the ſouth: it takes its name from a monaſtery built here by the emperor Henry I. who founded the city. 2. Henrichau. 3. Frankenſtein, on the Pauſo, which contains a palace, a convent, two churches, a Ciſtercian abbey, ſeveral offices, courts, &c. 3. Warlka, a little town on the Neyſze.

Trachenburg abounds in grain, cattle, and timber, but contains only the two ſmall towns of Trachenburg and Praſnitz.

Carolath is tolerably fertile; but contains only the two inconſiderable towns of Carolath and Benthen, on the Oder.

Wartenberg contains only a ſmall town of the ſame name, a Roman catholic and Lutheran church, a Calviniſt meeting-houſe, and a palace.

Militſh, a lordſhip, is only remarkable for its large foreſts, belonging to the king, and for one town of the ſame name, ſituated on Bartſch.

Goſchutz lordſhip contains only two inconſiderable towns: it is ſurrounded by the principality of Oels.

In Upper Sileſia, the moſt conſiderable places are, the principalities of Oppelen, Troppau, Yagerndorf, Ratiber, Teſchen, Bilitz, and the lordſhip of Pleſs.

Oppelen is a very barren principality, and full of lakes, but contains twelve circles, which receive their names from the following towns; viz. 1. Oppelen, on the north bank of the Oder, over which it has a bridge, thirty-ſix miles from the frontier of Poland, forty north of Troppau, thirty above Breſlau to the ſouth-eaſt, and ſixteen ſouth-weſt of Brieg. It is the capital of the principality, contains a college, ſeveral convents, and in the circle to which it gives name, there is a royal foundation for caſting bombs. 2. Roſenburg. 3. Lublinitz. 4. Great Strelitz. 5. Toſt. 6. Gleowitz. 7. Schlawentitz. 8. Koſel, a fortified town, with a palace, Roman catholic church and convent. 9. Little Glogaw. 10. Newſtadt, on the Prudnitz. 11. Zulz, in which are many Jews. 12. Falkenſtein, on the Steira.

Troppau principality is watered by the Oppa, is very fertile, and contains, 1. Troppau on the Oppa, the capital of Upper Sileſia; it is a walled town, and contains ſeveral churches, convents, a college, a palace, &c. 2. Hildſchim, a ſmall, fortified, and walled town.

Jagerndorf is likewiſe a fertile principality, and contains ſeveral mineral ſprings. The principal towns are, 1. Jagerndorf, which takes its name from the great number of huntſmen that formerly lived in it, there being plenty of game in the neighbouring woods. The capital of its own name, on the river Oppa, is a ſmall town, defended by a caſtle and other fortifications, erected by George, marquis of Brandenburgh, and is fourteen miles weſt of Troppau, and above thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Munſterberg. The king of Pruſſia founded his claim to Sileſia on that of the late marquis. 2. Leobſchutey, a walled town. 3. Katcher, a ſmall open town.

Patibor principality has a ſoil tolerably fertile in corn and paſture, and abounds in lakes, ponds, ſtreams, &c. It forms a circle, the inhabitants of which are Poles, or deſcendants of Poles; and the only place worth naming is Ratibor on the Oder, which contains ſeveral convents, a palace, &c.

Teſchen principality is likewiſe full of lakes, moors, mountains, &c. The only places worth mentioning are, 1. Teſchen, a walled town with a palace, Lutheran and Roman catholic church, a college; and, 2. Skorow, a ſmall open town, on the Viſtula.

Bilitz principality is tolerably fertile: Bilitz, a little walled town, on the Biala, is the only place worthy of obſervation.

In the lordſhip of Pleſs, there is only a little city of the ſame name, and a caſtle near the river Weiſſel, with the title of a barony. The Lutherans and Roman catholics have each of them a church here; but the former are the moſt numerous.

SECT. IV.

General Account of the PRUSSIAN Dominions; Religion and Manufactures of the Inhabitants; Titles of the King of PRUSSIA: Number of Inhabitants, Troops, Revenue, &c.

LUTHERANISM is the eſtabliſhed religion in Pruſſia; but Calviniſm is greatly encouraged, and Greeks, Jews, Roman catholics, &c. are tolerated. The nobility, in general, are deſcended from the antient Germans; but the peaſants are a mixed breed, and either vaſſals to the king or nobles. The manufactures of Pruſſia are daily advancing and improving, particularly thoſe of ſilk, linen, cloth, camblets, glaſs, iron, copper, paper, gunpowder, braſs, &c.

Pruſſia is by nature well ſituated for trade, and the late acquiſition of maritime territories has greatly increaſed the revenue, and added to the power of his Pruſſian majeſty: but it is hard to ſay, whether his ſubjects have been greater gainers by his encouraging and promoting commerce, manufactures, agriculture, population, order, and the regular diſtribution of juſtice, or ſufferers by the wars in which his ambition hath involved them, and the prodigious ſtanding army he keeps conſtantly on foot, to maintain his conqueſts, and extend them as opportunity offers.

The titles of the king of Pruſſia run thus: "Frederick, king of Pruſſia, margrave of Brandenburg, of the holy empire; arch-chamberlain and elector, ſovereign and ſupreme duke of Sileſia; ſovereign prince of Orange, Neufchatel, and Valengin, of the county of Glatz, Gelders, Magdeburg, Cleves, Juliers, Berg, Stetin, Pomerania, the Caſſubi and Wends; Mecklenburg and Croſſen; duke burgrave of Nurenburg; prince of Halberſtadt," &c. &c. As an elector, he poſſeſſes the ſeventh place; as arch-chamberlain, carries the ſceptre before the emperor at his coronation; and in the college of the princes of the empire, he poſſeſſes five voices.

The ingenious Mr. Hanway, who has, in his writings, given many intereſting particulars concerning the dominions of the king of Pruſſia, tells us, that "Berlin abounds in elegant ſtructures and elegant ſtreets, and is computed near one third as big as London, but has not above one eighth part of the inhabitants; from whence we may eaſily account for graſs growing in many of the principal ſtreets. The inhabitants were formerly computed at eighty thouſand, now they are reckoned at one hundred and ten thouſand, including the garriſon of ten thouſand; all the Pruſſian dominions, Sileſia excepted, hardly contain two millions of people. This acquiſition of twenty thouſand inhabitants and ſubjects is imputed to the good conduct of the king, in granting privileges and lands, ſufficient to induce many to eſtabliſh themſelves in this capital; and, conſidering this country is ſo extremely deſpotic and military, without any foreign trade, and ſurrounded by neighbours who want little or nothing of them, manufactures here may be ſaid to flouriſh. They make woollen cloth ſufficient for the army, and great part of home conſumption, and Sileſia is well known to produce a great ſupply of fine linens, which are ſent all over Europe, and alſo to America. Their export of woollen cloth to Ruſſia was once conſiderable, but at preſent is very ſmall: ſo many thouſands of French manufacturers having found protection in this country, gold and ſilver lace, and wrought ſilks, are hardly to be bought in any place ſo cheap.

"The

"The king of Pruſſia has generally an hundred and twenty thouſand troops in his pay; his officers included, they amount to an hundred and forty thouſand. This prince has a body of eighty ſquadrons of huſſars, each of one hundred and thirty men. I ſaw many of them (ſays our author) in the towns through which I paſſed, and was ſurpriſed by what means they could be collected, ſo youthful, comely, ſtrong, and well-ſhaped; but the king has his emiſſaries all over Europe. Whilſt I was at Dantzick, continues he, a young man, of whom I had ſome knowledge, had procured himſelf a lodging in priſon; but, on condition of entering into the Pruſſian ſervice, his debt, which was about twenty pounds, was immediately offered to be paid.

"The huſſars are armed with a light muſket and ſabre, both which are kept in admirable order. Their cloathing is of coarſe red cloth, made cloſe to their bodies, and ſtrengthened at the elbows by leather in the ſhape of a heart; their breeches are of well-dreſſed ſheep-ſkins; their boots ſhort and light, but the ſoles of them durable; their caps are ſtrengthened in the ordinary way, ſo as to ſtand a cut. They are the only denomination of ſoldiers in the Pruſſian ſervice who have no chaplain.

"Beſides the huſſars, the king has a ſmall body of men, whom they call hunters, who are reputed the moſt faithful couriers in the army, and are often times promoted for their fidelity in hazardous enterprizes. The Auſtrians are ſaid to have employed men under this denomination among their ranks, with pieces loaded with ſingle balls, to mark out the officers of the enemy, in which they are very dextrous. This, which is confeſſedly an unwarrantable practice, induced the Pruſſians, according to the report of the latter, to take the ſame method: but no quarter is granted on either ſide, when theſe hunters are taken priſoners.

"In general, the Pruſſian ſoldiers are remarkable for their very ſhort cloathing, which is calculated for many wiſe ends, though at firſt view, it ſeems to be frugality to a ridiculous degree.

"The army has uſually new regimentals twice in three years only; but the king's guards, and ſome few other regiments are cloathed annually. The late king required the ſoldiery to wear white ſpatterdaſhes winter and ſummer; but his preſent majeſty, obſerving the inconvenience as well as inelegance of it, gives his men black for the winter; theſe are made of fuſtian, or a thick kind of linen cloth. The ſoldiers have alſo breeches of woollen cloth in this ſeaſon; whereas in ſummer they are of white dimity or linen, which are very light and clean. They obſerve an uniformity about their heads, by wearing queues, which are eaſily kept in repair; they are generally powdered, but always ſo when on duty; and this modern elegance in dreſs not only ſerves to preſerve the natural hair or wig, but gives the ſoldier a reſpect for his own perſon; and the ſmallneſs of his pay is in ſome ſort compenſated by the rank in which he is taught to conſider himſelf.

"The Pruſſian arms are reported incomparably the largeſt and moſt weighty of any in Europe; though ſome of the fuſileers, who are ſmaller-bodied men, have their arms proportioned to their ſize. As to the cleanneſs of them, it is ſcarce credible how far this is carried; a ſoldier can hardly find time to be idle or wicked. Notwithſtanding the great weight of their arms, the tactic art is carried here to the higheſt perfection: and nothing can give more pleaſure to thoſe who have any idea of the harmony of this ſort of motion, than the exerciſe of the Pruſſian ſoldiers, which they go through twice a day; when the weather is bad, it is performed under cover, for which proper places are appointed. A ſoldier in this ſervice muſt apply diligently to his duty, or he will paſs his time very ill; inaſmuch as the leaſt motion of the head, not according to art, is corrected.

"According to their eſtabliſhment, two thirds of the army ſhould be compoſed of foreigners; and this method, as well as the ſmall number of inhabitants in the Pruſſian dominions, make it obvious how difficult it muſt be to recruit an army; ſo that however formidable this prince may appear, if we conſider his country as little plentiful in reſources of wealth as of inhabitants, that ſtrength muſt be deemed artificial in a great meaſure, which has ſo great connection with foreign dependencies: however, all the world muſt allow that the ſtrength derived from the acquiſition of Sileſia, which conſtitutes a great part of this prince's power, is more natural; but whether it is more ſtable, we will not pretend to determine.

"A common ſoldier's pay, in this country, is eight groch (fourteen pence) a week, and of this three pence is ſuppoſed to go in waſhing and materials for cleaning their arms, for which they are ſo much diſtinguiſhed: but they have alſo bread allowed them. Upon this calculation, one hundred and twenty thouſand men coſt but three hundred and ſixty-four thouſand pounds, ſo that if we reckon thrice this ſum, in order to include their ammunition bread, the pay of officers, and cloathing, it does not much exceed one million ſterling: ſuch is the incredible force of diſcipline and œconomy: but this is a leſſon which we are not well acquainted with in Great Britain. One remarkable proof of this œconomy is, that the Pruſſian army, as well as the officers of the crown, receive their pay before it is due. Sileſia, according to ſome calculations, ſupports near forty-thouſand men; from whence we may judge how reluctant the houſe of Auſtria muſt have been to part with it. The ſubſidy which the king receives from France is ſaid to be no leſs an object than three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling in value.

"It is computed that the revenues of the houſe of Brandenburg, including the late king's conqueſt, amount to eight millions of dollars (one million, four hundred thouſand pounds); but this ſum is thought to exceed the reality. Theſe revenues ariſe from a tax of about half the rent of the lands, and near forty per cent. on the value of all eatables, ſoap, candles, &c. and yet what muſt appear moſt ſtrange to us in England, is, the advantages ariſing from the national œconomy, and the regularity which runs through every branch of the government, and particularly in the parſimony of the court, ſecures the property of the people enough to animate their induſtry, and make their chains ſit eaſy."

We now proceed to the hiſtory of Pruſſia; previous to which, it will be proper to obſerve, that the houſe of Brandenburg, or rather that of Hokenzollern, is ſo antient, that its origin is loſt in the darkneſs of antiquity. However, the ancient Pruſſians are allowed to have been a very brave and warlike people, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on various pretences, attempted to reduce them to ſlavery. They made, in particular, a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland, and in the year 1163, the Poliſh monarch, Boleſlaus IV. was defeated and ſlain by them.

With reſpect to religion and policy, they remained Pagans in opinion, and independent in circumſtances, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights, of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, attempted to convert them by force of arms. Several bloody wars enſued, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the zealous fury of the Teutonic knights, and the latter endeavoured to re-people the country with Germans, after having ravaged it with incredible barbarity.

A treaty was entered into, in 1466, between Caſimir, king of Poland, and the Teutonic knights, in which it was agreed, that the country now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the protection of the king, and that the knights ſhould poſſeſs the remainder, on condition of acknowledging themſelves vaſſals to Poland. However, this treaty was ſoon broken, another ſeries of bloody wars enſued, and the knights attempted, but in vain, to become independent of the Poles.

Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt maſter of the Teutonic order, in 1525, concluded a peace, and entered into a treaty at Cracow, in which it was ſtipulated, that the margrave ſhould be acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, which, on that account, was called Ducal Pruſſia, but ſtill it was to remain a fief of Poland. In this manner the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order ended in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near three hundred years. In the year 1657, the elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, ſurnamed the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed from its vaſſalage to Poland; and Caſimir, king of Poland, acknowledged its independency.

The late king of Pruſſia, in his Memoirs of the Houſe of Brandenburg, ſays, that this Frederick William began his reign under the moſt deſperate circumſtances: "He was, ſays he, a prince without territories, an elector without power, a ſucceſſor without inheritance, and juſt in the flower of his youth; an age which, expoſed to the boiſterous current of his paſſions, renders mankind almoſt incapable of direction; yet he gave marks of the moſt conſummate wiſdom, and of every virtue that could render him worthy of command: he regulated his finances, proportioned his expences to his revenues, and got rid of thoſe ignorant or corrupt miniſters, who had contributed to the injuries of his people.—Europe, in him, beheld a

prince, whoſe actions diſplayed the noble ſoul, and the ſuperior genius; one while tempered with prudence, another time bearing that character of enthuſiaſm which forces our admiration; a prince who conſtantly repaired his loſſes without foreign ſuccours; who formed all his projects himſelf, and put them in execution; who by his wiſdom retrieved a deſolated country; by his policy and prudence acquired new territories; by his valour aſſiſted his allies, and defended his people; a prince, in fine, who was equally great in all his undertakings." This celebrated prince died of a dropſy, April 29, 1688, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick, who was afterwards the firſt king of Pruſſia.

This great titular alteration was chiefly owing to the intereſt of the Proteſtant powers; for as the reformed religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors were of that perſuaſion, the Proteſtant intereſt was made uſe of to raiſe Frederick to the dignity of a king, and he was accordingly ſoon acknowledged as ſuch, not only by the empire of Germany, but by all the other powers of Europe. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, gives no very favourable picture of the virtues or abilities of this prince; but he ſpeaks warmly in praiſe of his own father, Frederick William, who ſucceeded Frederick, the firſt king of Pruſſia, in the year 1713. This prince certainly had great talents and uncommon courage, but he too frequently exerted both at the expence of that magnanimity and humanity which ought ever to embelliſh the heart of a monarch. He amaſſed ſo much money during his reign, that at his death, which happened in 1740, he left behind him the enormous ſum of ſeven millions ſterling, a treaſure which afterwards enabled his ſon, the late king of Pruſſia, to purſue the moſt important plans; and which, joined to his ſagacity, courage, and great military talents, raiſed him to the utmoſt degree of conſequence and reſpectability in the opinion of all the reſt of the European powers.

The late monarch, Frederick II. was born in 1712, married in 1733, to Elizabeth Chriſtina, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, born November 8, 1715; and began his reign January 21, 1740. Nothing remarkable of his early years hath been tranſmitted to us, except that he had an early taſte for literature, and the polite arts, and ſhewed a particular paſſion for French breeding and delicacy of manners, in oppoſition to the inelegant cuſtoms that had prevailed in his father's court. In particular, his father was fond of drinking to exceſs, a vice which the prince abominated: this, and other ſimilar circumſtances, determined him at length to leave his father in a ſecret manner, and, as is generally believed, to retire to the court of England, where he propoſed to live under the protection of his uncle, king George I. till either the death of his father, or ſome change of conduct, ſhould remove the difficulties of his return. Whatever the deſign was, it is certain that he had concerted it with a young officer of the gens d'armes, named Katte, and two others. The ſecret however, was diſcovered, and the prince, Katte, and one of the officers, were ſeized; but the other fortunately made his eſcape. A council of war, which aſſembled at Koppenick, was appointed to enquire into the conduct of theſe officers. One of them was caſhiered, and condemned to three years impriſonment; another, who had retired to foreign countries, was outlawed; but with regard to young Katte, the votes were equally divided; one half of his judges were for finding him guilty of death, and the other half were for acquitting him, ſo that they were obliged to leave the deciſion of it to the king. The affair being at this criſis, young Katte wrote a pathetic epiſtle to the king, imploring his clemency, but in vain; the king ordered him to be beheaded; which ſevere ſentence was put in execution; notwithſtanding ſeveral perſons of diſtinction intereſted themſelves in his behalf, and tried to ſave him. The prince, who had been ſecured, was ſoon afterwards ſet at liberty; but that he might feel the power of a king and father in its utmoſt rigour, he was, againſt his will, married to the princeſs Elizabeth Chriſtina, already mentioned. He did not, indeed, oppoſe the commands of his father, but ſubmiſſively married the princeſs, but without profeſſing either eſteem or affection for her; and conſidering the claim of filial duty as fully ſatisfied by the external ceremony, he abſtained, during the life of his father, from her bed. Thus ſecluded from public buſineſs, and in a ſtate of alienation from his wife, his whole time was ſpent in literary acquiſitions and uſeful ſpeculations. Hence he acquired that fund of learning and knowledge of mankind which have ſince rendered him ſo conſpicuous to the world. After the death of his father, he did an act of juſtice to his princeſs, by receiving her as his wife, and acknowledging her as his queen before the whole court.

We ſhall here annex a further account of the family of this great monarch; viz. Louiſa Amelia of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, born the twenty-ninth of January, 1722; married January the ſixth, 1742, to William Auguſtus, prince royal, who died June the twelfth, 1758. Their iſſue,

1. Frederick William, now king of Pruſſia, born September the twenty-fifth, 1744. Hath iſſue by his firſt conſort Elizabeth, princeſs of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, Charlotte, born May the ſeventh, 1767. He was married July the fourteenth, 1769, to his ſecond conſort, Frederica Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt. Hath iſſue by her,
   1. Frederick William, born Auguſt 3, 1770.
   2. Frederick Charles Louis, born Aug. 3, 1773.
   3. Frederica Louiſa Wilhelmina, born Nov. 18, 1774.
   4. Frederick Chriſtian Auguſtus, born May 1, 1780.

Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina was married to prince William, of Orange Naſſau, Stadtholder.

CHAP. IX.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE EMPIRE OF

GERMANY.

SECT. I.

Deſcribing the Boundaries and Extent, Soil, Produce, Rivers, &c. in GERMANY; with a Geographical Survey of the Country in general, and a Topographical Account of the Circle of UPPER SAXONY; its Towns, Rivers, Trade, Manufactures, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

GERMANY is bounded on the north by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the eaſt by Poland and Bohemia, on the ſouth by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy; and on the weſt by France and the Low Countries. It is ſituated between forty-five and fifty-five degrees north latitude, and five and nineteen degrees eaſt longitude; is ſix hundred miles in length and five hundred in breadth.

In ſpeaking of the German empire, a judicious writer has, with great juſtice, obſerved that this country, for divers good reaſons, muſt challenge the ſpecial notice and ſtudy of the curious; it being the ſeat of a great people, and of many ſovereignties of different denominations, and under various forms of government; a country of large extent, and the ſcene of many and great actions; a country whoſe affairs and tranſactions are interwoven with thoſe of every nation in Europe, of which it may be termed both the head and center; a country whoſe princes are every day forming alliances of marriage, &c. which pave their way to the principal thrones of Europe, ſeveral of which, viz. thoſe of Great Britain, Poland, Sweden, and Pruſſia, we

A NEW & CORRECT MAP of the EMPIRE of GERMANY, from the Latest IMPROVEMENTS and Regulated by Astronomical OBSERVATIONS.

Table Exhibiting the Distances from Town to Town in German and English Miles.

Distance from Berlin to	Ger M.	Eng. M.	Distance from	Ger M.	Eng. M.
Breslaw	40½	187½	Ratisbon to Berlin	60	277½
Dresden	20	92	Breslaw	67	310
Egra	43½	202	Dresden	39	180
Leipzig	21	97	Egra	27½	82
Magdeburg	16	74	Leipzig	59	180½
Prague	37	172	Magdeburg	55	254½
Ratisbon	60	277½	Prague	32	148
Vienna	79	362½	Vienna	50	231½
Distance from Prague to Berlin	37	172	Distance from Vienna to Berlin	79	366½
Breslaw	32	243½	Breslaw	48	222
Dresden	27	78½	Dresden	39	273
Egra	23	106½	Egra	38	267½
Leipzig	28	129½	Leipzig	70	323½
Magdebur	40	186	Magdeburg	86	387½
Ratisbon	32	148	Prague	42	194½
Vienna	42	194½	Ratisbon	50	231½

7 9 11 13 15 East Longitude 17 from London 19 21 23 25 27 29

54 52 50 48 46

we ſee filled at this day by four of its princes; a country which, for the great work of the reformation begun there, the good ſenſe, conſiderable learning, and the many uſeful and ingenious inventions of the natives, highly deſerves of all her neighbours: to all this it may be added, that it is our original country; that from hence came our anceſtors, whoſe language, cuſtoms, laws, we in good meaſure ſtill retain, together with what conſtitutes the chief glory and happineſs of the Britiſh iſles, viz. their form of government. Upon theſe accounts no Engliſhman can call this country foreign, nor its natives foreigners to him. Indeed, moſt nations in Europe have been either peopled from hence, or ſubdued by its armies; as happened to this iſland by the Saxons; to Gaul, by the Franks; to Italy, Spain, and Africk, by the Goths and Vandals: to thoſe glorious people almoſt all Europe, and part of Aſia and Africa, owed their freedom from thoſe chains wherewith the Roman power had ſo long bound them: and wherever any of their colonies ſettled, they eſtabliſhed juſt and mild government on the ruins of tyranny and deſpotiſm.

That ſort of earth, called terra ſigillata, is found in Germany, but ſeldom any where elſe; ſome call it terra lemnia, becauſe it is alſo brought from the iſle of Lemnos: it is a ſort of hard earth, with white, yellow, and red veins, and ſaid to be an antidote againſt all ſorts of poiſons. There are good quarries of marble in Bavaria, Tirol, Liege, and other provinces; and for precious ſtones, as diamonds, agates, cryſtals, jaſpers, of ſeveral colours, fine alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, Turquois ſtones, rubies, &c. this country ſurpaſſes moſt others in Europe, there being vaſt collections of them in the cabinets and rarity-chambers of the emperor, the electors of Bavaria, Brandenburg, Hanover, Saxony, and other princes, and of many private men, as well as thoſe which are the ornaments of churches and images. They are dug for the moſt part out of the mines, and frequently found in the rivers. A remarkable natural curioſity, peculiar to Germany, is the ſchiefferſtein, a blackiſh, glittering kind of ſtone or ſalt, which, melted and brayed, yields much copper, and ſome ſilver. In one part of Saxony theſe ſtones are dug up every where in the fields. They exhibit a lively repreſentation by fair copper ſtrokes of fiſhes of divers ſorts, frogs, and other animals, that abound in a neighbouring lake.

In this country, the ſoil is exceeding fruitful, eſpecially on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube, where alſo the air is very temperate; but in the northern part it is cold, and the ground leſs fruitful. The ſituation of this country is the reaſon that the weather is more conſtant, and the ſeaſons more regular, than in thoſe countries that border upon, or lie in the ocean. In thoſe provinces that lie next the ſea, and that abound with lakes and rivers, there is plenty of rain. In other parts, where the ſurface of the earth is drier, there are ſometimes conſiderable droughts. The north wind from the Baltick, and the bleak mountains of Sweden, bring froſts and ſnow: the eaſtern blaſts coming over a vaſt continent of three or four thouſand miles, from China and Japan, bring dry and unwholeſome weather: the ſouth, in the ſummer, brings refreſhing breezes from the Alps: but the ſouth-weſt wind, as with us, is both the moſt frequent and wholeſome that blows in Germany. In general, this country, and Poland, are ſo like to Britain, both in climate and ſoil, that no countries in Europe agree better with Engliſh conſtitutions.

Beſides great plenty of corn, cattle, ſheep, wool, cloth, horſes, fiſh, &c. the earth alſo affords mines of divers ſorts of metals and minerals, as iron, bitumen, nitre, ocre, copper, tin, lead, and even ſilver in ſome parts; allum, vitriol, quickſilver, ſalt, coal, &c. In general the ſurface is even, and though in ſome parts it is hilly, it is no where mountainous, except towards the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alſace, ſerve as boundaries and bulwarks againſt France and Italy.

In their foreſts and waſtes are many things, both for the ſuſtenance of the poor, and the delight and luxury of the rich; they yield plenty of wood for fuel and building, and abound with great variety of wild-fowl, and all ſorts of good veniſon; they alſo feed vaſt numbers of hogs, and ſome of them, as the foreſt of Ardenne, afford good paſture for ſheep.

Fiſh abound in the rivers and lakes, in greater variety and perfection, than in any other country, perhaps, in Europe.

They have, in their orchards, great numbers of our common fruit-trees; and in the ſouthern provinces there is plenty of the more delicate ſort, as peaches, apricots, figs, olives, &c. in good perfection. They have rich wines, of which the Rheniſh and Moſelle, in particular, are exported in vaſt quantities to foreign nations; and not only equal, but preferable, to ſome of the wines in Italy. The very mountains of the Alps, on the German ſide, are in many places cultivated to the top, and the valleys abound with paſtures and vines. In ſhort, no country, perhaps, in the world abounds with ſo great variety of every thing conducing to the comfort of life as this; though others may exceed it in the goodneſs of ſome particular articles of product: nevertheleſs, even of theſe they have enough and good, of every ſort; and they might ſtill have them in greater perfection, were the inhabitants induſtrious; or rather, did the landed men give encouragement to huſbandry and induſtry; for want of which, it is obſerved, that the people neither underſtand, nor take care to manure the ſoil, or to improve the native treaſure of the country; and that to this general neglect it is owing, that the ſovereign princes in Germany are ſufferers, as well as the ſubjects; and the landlord becomes bankrupt with his tenant: for to this ignorance and diſcouragement of huſbandry, on the one hand, and to the exceſſive vanity and paſſion of their great men for foreign luxury and finery, on the other, it may chiefly be attributed, that Germany exports leſs, and imports more, than, perhaps, any country whatever.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Germany are, the Danube, the Rhine, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Weſer; to theſe may be added, the Aller, the Mein, and the Inn.

The firſt of theſe rivers, namely the Danube, antiently called the Iſter, riſes in the Black Foreſt, in Suabia; runs through that country and Bavaria to Ratiſbon, and thence to Vienna. After dividing Hungary into two parts, it continues its courſe to Belgrade, in Servia, and then, proceeding to Turkey, falls into the Black Sea by ſeveral channels.

It is very broad, runs with a very rapid current, and hath three great cataracts, which are, 1. The Saw Ruſſel, or Swine's Snout, near Lintz: ſo called, from a pointed rock hanging over, which hath under it a dangerous whirlpool; it is ninety-two miles from Vienna. 2. Der Strudel, near Greinon, in Auſtria, where the falling of the water makes a horrid noiſe. And, 3. Der Wurbel, another very dangerous whirlpool, about a furlong from Der Strudel. The watermen of theſe parts have a method of paſſing them without much danger. As ſoon as this cataract is paſſed, a fellow comes on board from a chapel dedicated to St. Nicolas, on the bank of the river, with the ſaint's picture, and an alms-box for the paſſengers to throw in ſomething, as a thank-offering to that ſaint for their deliverance from the danger.

On this river are frequently ſeen market-boats, &c. of ten or fifteen tons, going every week from Ulm to Vienna, which, with the turnings and windings, is a courſe of about four hundred miles. It receives ten other conſiderable rivers before it comes to Belgrade: it enters Hungary thirty-five miles beyond Vienna; and, before it leaves Germany, runs about five hundred miles, and about one thouſand more through Hungary, and Turkey in Europe, before it falls into the Black Sea. Its whole courſe thither from its fountain, is about twenty-ſeven degrees; which, reckoning ſixty miles to a degree, is one thouſand ſix hundred and twenty miles, without including its turnings and windings, which muſt make it at leaſt one third more; ſo that it may well be affirmed to be longer than the Nile in Egypt, which in many particulars it reſembles. It has three heads; but which is the true one, the German geographers themſelves are not agreed. Cluverius, whoſe authority ſeems the beſt in matters of this nature, places it in the Black Foreſt, at the foot of a little hill, and ſays the fountain is walled in.

The waters of the Danube are always muddy and whitiſh; and the channel is kept almoſt as full in the ſummer, by the melted ſnow from the hills, as by the floods in the winter. Its waters have been found by repeated experiments to be medicinal, though not to the ſame degree as mineral ſprings; and, it is ſaid, that in thoſe places, where there are no natural baths, the people bathe with the water of this river warmed: theſe, with its other virtues, are aſcribed to its waſhing ſo many mines, and to its ſaline tinctures, which are ſo ſtrong, that a ſort of a ſalt has been actually made of the water, which has ſupplied the want of better; yet, after it has ſtood ſome hours to ſettle, it is freſh enough for drinking.

This celebrated river abounds with all thoſe fiſh that are

to be found either in our running or ſtanding waters, and they are generally much larger, but not ſo ſweet as ours. There are ſeveral fiſh in it not common elſewhere, which ſeem to be of the ſalt-water kind, and are ſuppoſed to come from the Euxine. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable is the hanſon, a griſly fiſh, ſomewhat like our ſturgeon, almoſt as big as a crocodile, ſome being eighteen or twenty feet long. Shoals of them come about the fiſhermen's boats at the ſound of a trumpet or horn. It is reckoned a dainty by the Auſtrians and Hungarians, and is only to be met with at the tables of noblemen.

The Rhine riſes in two ſprings in the Alps, which, falling into Swiſſerland, unite eight miles from the city of Coire: and ſoon after dilates itſelf into a large lake, called the Boden Sea, or Lake of Conſtance; whence, paſſing weſtward to Baſil, it turns up to the north, and runs between Swabia and Alſace into the Palatinate, receiving the Neckar at Manheim, and the Maine at Mentz; then it runs to Coblentz, where it receives the Moſelle: it afterwards waters Cologne, and paſſes on through the duchy of Cleve, receiving the Roer and the Lippe, and other ſmaller rivers by the way; and paſſes into the Netherlands at Schenchenſchant, five miles below Cleve, where it is very broad, and its courſe very ſwift; but the navigation of it is interrupted by nine cataracts, the moſt dangerous whereof are two in Swiſſerland, one near Scaffhuyſen, (where the whole river falls ſeventy-five feet) and the other near Lauffenburg. Here the watermen either hale their boats aſhore, and launch them on the other ſide, or elſe let them down by ropes. The direct courſe of this noble river is above four hundred miles, and, including turnings, ſix hundred.

The Elbe riſes out of the mountains near Hirchburgh, in Sileſia, upon the confines of Bohemia, through which it runs in eleven ſeveral ſprings; which, being united, paſs northward, between Miſnia and Luſatia, into Saxony; receiving by the way, the Warlitz, Orlitz, Moldau, and Ægra, paſſing by Magdeburg, Lawenburg, and Hamburg; and, a little below Gluckſtadt, divides into two branches, which fall into the German Ocean ſixty miles below Hamburgh. It is very large and deep at that city; ſo that ſhips of four or five hundred tons ride at anchor in it. The courſe of this river, which is very winding, is as long as that of the Rhine. It runs above five hundred miles through the north of Germany; as the Rhine does through the weſt, and the Danube through the middle and ſoutherly parts. The tide runs about ten miles above Hamburgh, and the river is navigable, by ſmall veſſels, a great way up into Germany; which very much promotes the trade of the country, eſpecially by its communication with the Spre, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, and the Moldaw in Bohemia. As the courſe of it is very ſlow, it abounds with ſuch fiſh as are common in ſtanding waters.

The Oder has its ſource in Moravia; and, after a current of three hundred Engliſh miles through Sileſia and Brandenburg, falls into the Baltick Sea, betwixt Swediſh and Brandenburg Pomerania: it runs in a pretty ſtrait courſe through the north-eaſt part of Germany: it is navigable by ſmall veſſels a great way above Stetin: canals are cut betwixt this river and the Elbe, which very much promote the trade of the electorate of Brandenburg. Before it falls into the ſea, it forms ſeveral iſlands; and, juſt at its mouth, there is a great freſh-water lake, called Freſh Haff, from whence it falls into the ſea in three currents, which make as many ſafe harbours. This river, and the adjoioing lakes, are full of fiſh; the bare cuſtoms on the ſalmon and lampreys, ſome of which are of a vaſt bulk, amounting to a conſiderable ſum. Not far from the mouth of this river, in the Baltick, there is a herring fiſhery, which is a great rarity in this country, the Baltick having very few fiſh of any ſort.

The Weſer riſes in the mountains of Thuringen, runs through Heſſe and Weſtphalia, and empties itſelf into the ocean forty miles below Bremen, within twenty miles of the mouth of the Elbe: it runs above two hundred and fifty miles, and is ſo full of fiſh of ſeveral ſorts, that here are ſome in ſeaſon for every month.

The Aller runs through the country of Lunenburg, and falls into the Weſer below Verden.

The Mein riſes near the borders of Bohemia, paſſes through Franconia, the electorate of Mentz, the ſouth part of the principality of Naſſau, waſhes the walls of Frankfort, and other conſiderable cities, and falls into the Rhine at Mentz.

The Inn is a large river that riſes on the frontiers of Swiſſerland, runs through Tirol and Bavaria, and falls into the Danube at Paſſau. Its courſe being among the Alps, it cannot be very navigable; and, as it waſhes ſeveral ſalt-pits and minerals, there are but few fiſh in it.

There is a vaſt number of foreſts in every part of this country, which are well ſtocked with game of all ſizes and colours, and many of them of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, rabbits, foxes, bears, wolves, boars, &c.

The emperor Maximilian, the grandfather and predeceſſor of the celebrated emperor Charles V. divided Germany into ten great circles, and this diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we ſhall confine ourſelves to the nine circles which now actually ſubſiſt; and theſe are, in the north—1. Upper Saxony. 2. Lower Saxony; and 3. Weſtphalia. In the middle—4. Upper Rhine. 5. Lower Rhine. 6. Franconia. In the ſouth—7. Auſtria. 8. Bavaria. 9. Swabia.

Upper Saxony is bounded on the weſt, by thoſe of the Upper Rhine and Lower Saxony; on the eaſt by Pruſſia and part of Poland and Siberia; on the ſouth, by Bavaria, Bohemia, and Franconia; and on the north, by the Baltick. This circle is of a conſiderable extent, and contains the places immediately to be deſcribed.

The ſoil in the electorate of Saxony is rich and fertile, yielding corn, fruit, flax, tobacco, wild ſaffron, timber, coals, terra ſigillata, marble, ſerpentine ſtone, vitriol, ſalt, cinnamon, antimony, arſenic, ſilver, tin, iron, pulſe, hops, hemp, anniſeed, wood, wine, porcelane clay, fuller's-earth, free-ſtone, copper, lead, precious ſtones of various kinds, ſulphur, allum, amber, quickſilver, biſmuth, cobalt, &c. Here are alſo plenty of horſes, horned cattle, ſheep, deer, &c.

In this electorate, the principal rivers are, the Elbe, Mulde, Pleiſſe, Saoli, White-Elſter, and Schwarze Elſter. Theſe as well as the lakes and rivulets, contain great quantities of fiſh; and the White-Elſter yields abundance of beautiful pearls. The country is, in general, well cultivated and populous.

The provincial diets are held every ſix years, and the ſelection diets convened every two years. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion, though the different branches of the electoral family have uſually been Roman catholics, who, as well as the Calviniſts, are tolerated in moſt parts of the electorate. With regard to eccleſiaſtical matters, the country is divided into pariſhes, ſubordinate to ſpiritual inſpectors, which latter are all accountable to the eccleſiaſtical council and upper conſiſtory of Dreſden.

Learning flouriſhes here, commerce is encouraged, and manufactures are arrived at great perfection, particularly thoſe of porcelane, iron, braſs, ſteel, gold, ſilver, cotton, ſilk, wool, hats, caps, dyeing, tapeſtry, &c.

The elector of Saxony is the ſixth in dignity, and great marſhal of the empire: his revenues are very conſiderable; notwithſtanding which, the electorate is ſaid to be deeply in debt.

With reſpect to the extent of the electoral circle, or duchy of Saxony, it is very near forty miles in length, and almoſt as much in breadth: the ſoil is ſandy.

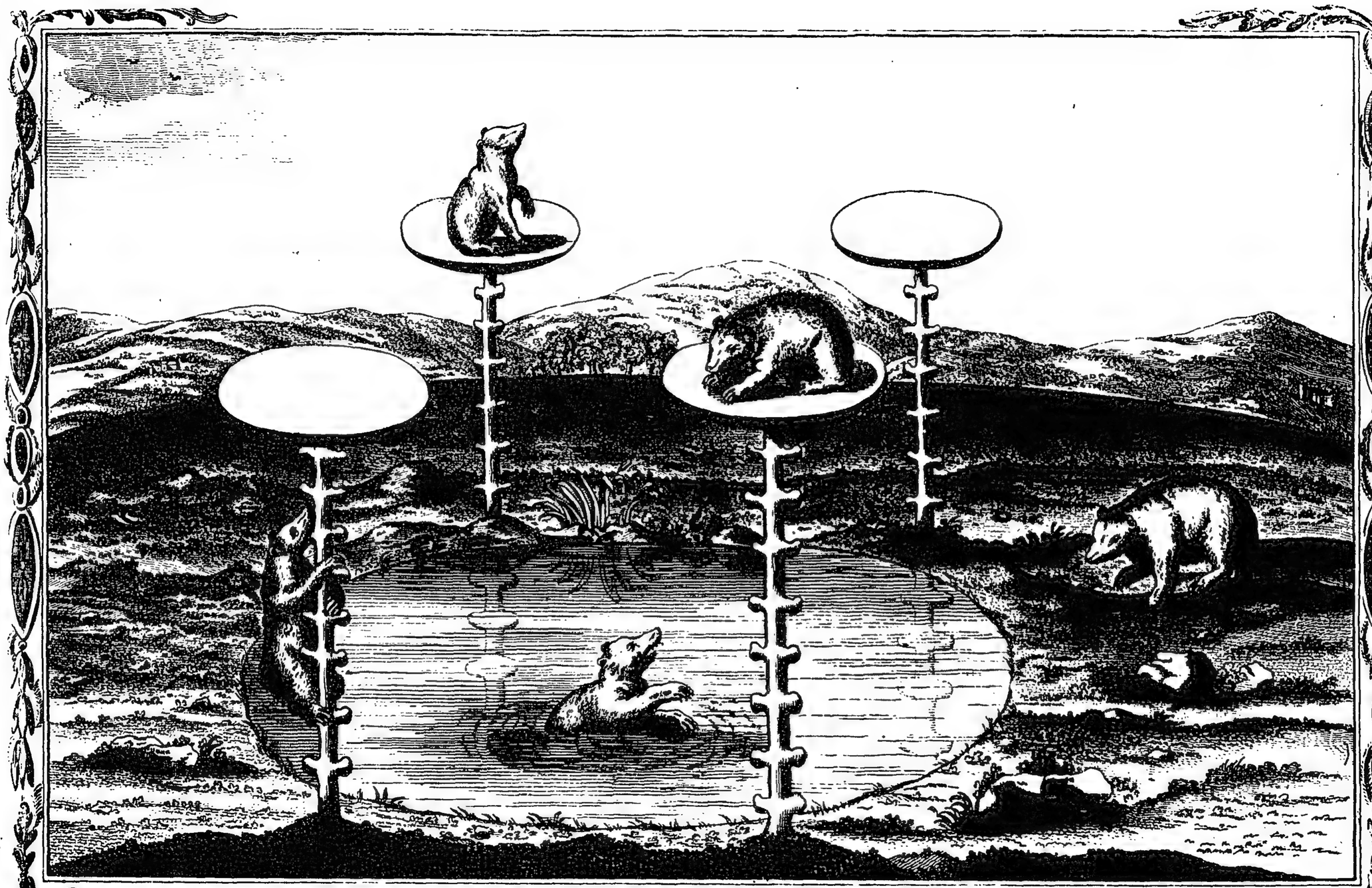
The capital, Wittenberg, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Elbe, fifty-five miles north-weſt from Dreſden. It is the ſeat of an aulic judicatory, a conſiſtory, a ſpiritual inſpection, and a general ſuperintendency. It is ſmall, but well fortified, and contains an univerſity and a Latin ſchool. The library appertaining to the univerſity is very valuable; but the Pruſſians, who took the place in 1756, greatly damaged the fortifications. Martin Luther firſt preached here againſt the pope's indulgencies, and was buried in the cathedral of All-Saints.

Here are alſo the following towns, viz. 1. Kemberg, a ſmall town. 2. Zahna, which, though ſmall, has a ſeat and voice in the diets. 3. Schmiedeberg, ſurrounded by mountains. 4. Remhards, where is a curious laboratory for making mechanical and optical machines; in particular, the camera obſcura. 5. Barby, on the Elbe. 6. Gomberg. 7. Annaburg, a borough town, on a little iſland. 8. Herberg, which has a woollen and ſalt-petre manufactory. 9. Lichtenberg, containing an electorate palace, with pleaſure-gardens. 10. Grafenhaynchen. 11. Niemeck. 12. Schweidnitz. 13. Lieberwerden. 14. Ubigau. 15. Slieben. 16. Pretch. 17. Belziz. 18. Seyda. 19. Jeſſen. 20. Wahrenbruch. 21. Schonewalde. 22. Protin. 23. Bitterfield. Moſt of theſe are inconſiderable towns, yet have a ſeat and voice in the diets. 24. Hohenbuckau. 25. Baruth, in the Gaila. 26. Sommowevalde. 27. Brehna, a little town, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets.

Thuringia



Perspective View *of* DRESDEN, *the Capital* City *of* Saxony



White sculp.

View of the Elector of Saxony's BEAR-GARDEN, *at Dresden in Germany*

Thuringia circle abounds in corn, cattle, ſheep, horſes, &c. It contains the following places, viz. 1. Tenſtad, which gives name to a bailiwick. 2. Pforte, where is a free-ſchool for one hundred and fifty ſcholars. 3. Frawenprieſnitz. 4. Treffurt, near the Werra. 5. Weiſenfels, a handſome town on the Saale: above the town is a white rock, at the ſummit of which is a fine caſtle, called Auguſtuſburg, is erected. This town likewiſe contains manufactures of ſilk and velvet, a Latin ſchool, and a gymnaſium, or ſchool of exerciſe. 6. Roſbach, a village celebrated for the defeat of a formidable army of French and Auſtrians, in the year 1757, by the preſent king of Pruſſia, in its neighbourhood.

Meiſſen margraviate, or circle, is a plentiful country, and its fields produce great quantities of grain; the foreſts furniſh plenty of veniſon; the rivers are full of fiſh; and the hills abound with minerals. It contains likewiſe many conſiderable vineyards, but the wine is not generally admired: upon the whole, however, it is allowed to be one of the moſt fruitful and populous diſtricts in Germany; and its inhabitants have univerſally the character of being the moſt lively and poliſhed people in the whole empire.

The city of Dreſden, which is the capital, not only of Meiſſen, but of all Saxony, is ſituated in fifty-one degrees north latitude, and thirteen degrees thirty ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſixty-ſeven miles north of Prague, and two hundred and ten north-weſt of Vienna. The name is derived from three lakes in the neighbourhood, which are called, in the country-language, Dreyen-ſeen. This is one of the fineſt cities in Germany, with reſpect to the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation, the beauty of its ſtructure, and the number and magnificence of its embelliſhments. It was originally fortified by Charlemagne, and ſince his time the works have been ſo greatly augmented and improved by its dukes and electors, that it is now a place of great ſtrength and importance. Many of its parts are defended by a double ditch, and the baſtions have ſtone facings. The houſes, which are built of free ſtone, are high and ſubſtantial; the ſtreets are ſtrait, ſpacious, elegantly paved, and well lighted: the cathedral church is a noble ſtructure: and ſeveral large ſquares give the whole city an uncommon air of magnificence. The ſtone bridge over the Elbe, which divides the city into Old and New Town, and conſiſts of ſeventeen arches, is one of the nobleſt ſtructures in the univerſe. At the entrance of New Dreſden is a noble building, called the palace of the Indies; it conſiſts of three ſtories, all the apartments of which are filled with the moſt curious and coſtly Japan and China wares, brought from thoſe countries.

The houſhold goods are all Indian, and there is one ſet of furniture ſcarce to be paralleled, which conſiſts of feathers of various colours, all natural, but inlaid with ſo much art, that it might be taken for a fine flowered ſattin. A very pleaſant garden belongs to this magnificent palace, which runs down to the Elbe, and is adorned with ſtatues of white marble, which were purchaſed for the late elector, at Rome, of the cardinals Annibal and Alexander Albani, nephews to Pope Clement XI. beſides two noble obeliſks, and two very fine fountains. Near the palace of the Indies ſtands a magnificent ſtructure, built by the ſtates of Saxony, for maintaining two companies of cadets, all gentlemen of the country, who are here inſtructed in all the ſciences fit for perſons of quality. In the ſame ſtreet there is an amphitheatre, or area, for the battles of wild beaſts, ſuch as lions, tigers, bears, and, in ſhort, all the fierceſt animals from the four quarters of the world; of which great numbers are kept for the purpoſe. Here is a hunting-houſe, where bears are kept, with fountains and ponds in which they waſh, and ragged poſts round them, by which they climb up to ſcaffolds on the top, where they dry themſelves; alſo a place called the horn gallery, which has ſeveral apartments, well painted with all ſorts of hunting of wild beaſts and fowls. In the old town there is a large caſtle, and ſome of the fortifications ſtill to be ſeen, which were made by Charlemagne. In this quarter ſtands alſo that called the prince's palace, which was formerly a very fine building, but all of it has been conſumed by fire, except one part, containing very fine apartments, nobly furniſhed, and accommodated by the elector to the modern taſte; but they belong only to the elector and electreſs; for the electoral prince and princeſs live in a ſeparate palace, which communicates with it by galleries, where the rooms are ſomewhat too ſmall, but they are perfectly well diſpoſed, adorned with fine paintings and rich furniture.

The palace, or caſtle of the elector, joins to the bridge, at the entrance of the new town: it is an antient ſtructure; and makes ſo mean an appearance, that it is ſaid the late king, if he had lived, propoſed to pull it down, and had ſet apart eight millions of crowns for the expence of building a new one. The inſide of it, however, far ſurpaſſes the outſide; the apartments being noble, and ſplendidly furniſhed. There is a great gallery, which contains antique buſts, veſſels, pictures, and ſeveral other curioſities; a ſpacious hall, adorned with fine draughts of cities; pictures of giants, and the habits of many nations, and divers large chambers full of a ſurpriſing collection of rarities, and the greateſt curioſities, both of art and nature, eſpecially pictures, of a very great value, and wonderful performances in clock-work. In this palace are two chapels, one for the Roman catholicks, the other for the Lutherans. The firſt was heretofore a theatre for the operas, but the late elector turned it into a chapel, on account of the marriage of his only ſon (the preſent elector) with the eldeſt daughter of the emperor Joſeph. The ſecond, which was always the chapel of the proteſtant electors of Saxony, he left for the uſe of his wife, who conſtantly adhered to that religion. The treaſure of it is extremely rich, conſiſting of veſſels, chaſubles, and other moveables, of gold and ſilver, heretofore conſecrated and given to this chapel by the electors. In this palace is alſo the regal treaſury, commonly called the grune gewolbe, or the green vault, compoſed of three arched rooms, which contain prodigious riches, and ſhines all over with gold and precious ſtones: ſo that it is one of the fineſt places in the world. Here are ſeveral ſets of brilliant diamonds, rubies, emeralds, pearls, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones: every ſet is complete, and conſiſts of buttons, buckles, loops for hats, &c. ſwords, hangers, ſword-belts, canes, muffs, ſnuff-boxes, watches, tweezer-caſes, pocket-books; in ſhort all the jewels that can poſſibly be imagined, even to the furniture of a horſe; and they are ranged in caſes of cryſtal, with admirable nicety.

There is a very fine garden, near this palace, called the Zwinger-Garten, which is reckoned the Thuilleries of Dreſden, though not large enough to deſerve the name. It is ſemicircled, in the ſhape of a horſe-ſhoe, with magnificent buildings of free-ſtone, that form arches, over which there runs an open gallery, that unites three large pavilions, and has baluſtrades adorned with ſtatues. In the middlemoſt there is a fine grotto, and here are green-houſes for orange-trees, &c. The upper ſtory contains a very beautiful ſaloon, faced with marble, with gilded ornaments: the ceiling is magnificent, the windows are of large plate glaſs, and the reſt of the building which joins to this garden is of the ſame magnificence, but ſeems a little too much incumbered with carved work, which is more in the Gothic taſte than the modern.

The elector's ſtables and riding-houſe are next to the garden. In them are a great number of exceeding fine horſes, and ſome of all ſorts of the rareſt breeds, which have iron racks, and copper mangers. There is a curious fountain and pond near them, ſurrounded with baluſters, for the horſes to water and waſh in; and before the ſtables there is a long arched walk, painted with curious horſes, over which there is a gallery with the pictures of all the dukes and electors of Saxony in their robes and military habits; particularly, the two generals Hengiſt and Horſa, under whom the Saxons invaded England, are depicted here, after the romantic manner they are deſcribed by our monkiſh hiſtorians. In the chambers over the ſtables are kept the rich harneſſes, and other ſumptuous equipages, many of which are of the Turkiſh mode, plated with maſſy ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones. Here are likewiſe a great many curioſities; particularly, a gun which diſcharges forty times ſucceſſively, without intermiſſion; a ſilver equeſtrian ſtatute, which, moved by a ſpring, carries a cup of wine, or other drinking veſſel.

Here is an arſenal, with great quantities of all ſorts of arms, ſeveral ſuits of armour, and coats of mail, in ſilver and ſteel, that have been uſed by the electors in their wars, and repreſentations of Turkiſh and Hungarian parties of horſe and foot, with their commanders at their head, ſo contrived, as to turn round. There are five or ſix houſes here, called hotels, which in Italy would paſs for palaces; but that called the Hotel de Hoym, from its preſent owner, who is the fourth in ſix years time, is reckoned the moſt conſiderable of them all. The count bought it of the veltmarſhal Fleming's widow (one of the greateſt matches in Europe), on her marriage to a Polander, who took her into Poland with him.

This city has very extenſive ſuburbs, but they contain no building of conſequence, except the palace in the elector's great garden, built by his grandmother; and that called

called the Turkiſh Palace, from being finiſhed entirely after the Turkiſh manner, where a former elector gave an entertainment to his daughter-in-law, on her firſt arrival here from Vienna.

The elector had other ſeats, which, however, he ſeldom viſited; as Pilnitz, Moritzbourg, Auguſtuſburg which lies in the circle of the mountains), and Anneburg (which we deſcribed juſt now): and the preſent elector has built a very handſome ſeat at Warmſtorf, or Hubertſbourg, five miles from Leipſick, where he hunts in ſpring and autumn: but ſome think thoſe of Pilnitz and Moritzbourg are the fineſt.

About three miles from the city there is a bed or quarry of ſtones, which, according to the deſcription, ſomewhat reſemble the Giants Cauſeway, which we ſhall give an account of, in Ireland: they riſe about ſeventeen ells above ground, repreſent columns with ſeveral corners, and are ſo joined, as if done by art. They have from four to ſeven columns apiece, are ſmooth on the outſide, look as if they were mixed with iron, are hard as adamant, and very weighty.

The inhabitants of Dreſden vie with thoſe of Halle for ſpeaking the beſt High Dutch. It has been obſerved of them in the general, there are none more devoted to pleaſures; ſuch as plays, maſquerades, balls, feaſts, running at the ring, races on ſleds, tournaments, hunting matches, &c. of which they have abundance, except when the elector is in Poland; and then foreigners complain they have but a melancholy time, for want of company, as well as the uſual entertainments; becauſe nobody keeps open houſe, and they are all ſelect ſocieties, to which it is difficult to gain admittance: but, when the elector is here, the people partake in moſt of the pleaſures of his court, the generality of the entertainments which he gives being public; ſo that plays and maſquerades are free for all people of faſhion, without any thing to pay. The citizens wives are ſaid to be more ſociable here than in any town in Germany, and fondly give themſelves the airs of quality, eſpecially in the article of dreſs, a luxury which has infected the wives of the mechanics, and even of the livery-gentry, to ſuch a degree, that were a ſtranger to come hither on Sunday, or a holiday, when every body is dreſſed, he would think that money was extremely plentiful.

Next to Dreſden, the following are the moſt remarkable places: 1. Lommatſch, on the Jahne, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets. 2. Rieſſa, on the Elbe. 3. Pilnitz, on the ſame river. 4. Wilſobruff, belonging to Schonbrug. 5. Kotſkenbroda, celebrated for the vineyards in its neighbourhood. 6. Keſſeldorf. 7. Dipoldiſwalda. 8. Rabenau. 9. Dohna. 10. Gottleulic. 11. Berggieſzhubel, each of which has a voice and ſeat in the diets. 12. Liebſtadt. 13. New Gayſznig. 14. Hohenſtein. 15. Neuſtadt.

16. The town of Meiſſen, from whence the marquiſate is denominated, was built in 928. It was formerly its capital, but is now inconſiderable: it ſtands twelve miles north-weſt of Dreſden, and forty-ſix ſouth of Wittenberg, on a river of its own name, on the left ſide of the Elbe. Here is an admirable porcelane manufactury, which produces ware far ſuperior to that brought from China, and is ſold much dearer. It lies partly in a valley, and partly on the ſide of a hill, on the top of which are the palace, a venerable old pile, in the form of a caſtle; and the cathedral, in which are the tombs of many princes and noblemen.

17. 18. The towns of Wehlau and Sebnitz have each a ſeat and voice in the diets. 19. Altſtadt. 20. Scandau, on the Elbe. 21. Beſchoſswerda, on the Weſenitz. 22. Stolpen, on the ſame river. 23. Hayn, or Haya, on the river Reder, ten miles north-eaſt of Meiſſen.

24. The town of Torgaw has a bridge with ſtone pillars, on the Elbe, twenty miles ſouth of Wittenburg, and forty north-weſt of Dreſden. The caſtle, which is adorned with a beautiful church, has ſeveral very large and noble apartments: there is one dining room that will hold ſeventy-eight tables, another twenty-nine, and a fine large hall, adorned with the pictures of ſeveral emperors, kings, electors, and other princes; and in another room, there are portraits of their fools, or jeſters: here is alſo a chamber lined throughout with looking-glaſs. In a gallery of this caſtle is to be ſeen the genealogy of the Saxon family, with the pictures, arms, and abſtract of the lives of its princes.

25. The town of Mulberg, on the Elbe, ſituated about nine miles ſouth of Torgaw, and twenty-eight north-weſt of Dreſden, is the capital of a bailiwick, near the coaſt of Rederwack. Here is an antient caſtle, which was a few years ago repaired; this was yielded to the elector by the biſhop of Meiſſen, at the ſame time with the caſtle of Dreſkaw, a little below it. 26. Belgern. 27. Schilda. 28. Dommitzſh. 28. Oſechatz, are all ſmall towns, with each a ſeat and a voice in the diets. 30. Dahlen, belonging to the Bunau family. 31. 32. Strehla and Finſterwalda, which are Bohemian fiefs. 33. Frederickſtal. 34. Seinſtenburg. 25. Zeithayn. 36. Krahau. 37. Muckenburg. 38. Ortrand. 39. Eiſenberg. 40. Lauſznitz. 31. Monitzburg. 42. Neuſalſa. 43. Radeburg, on the Roder, gives name to a diſtrict. 44. Pirna, on the Elbe, gives name to a diſtrict, and has a ſeat and voice in the diets.

The town of Konigſtein, on the Elbe, has a ſeat and voice in the diets, a fuſtian manufactury, and is defended by an impregnable fortreſs, on the top of a rock. On the ſide towards Dreſden there are ſtrong works, and a triple battery of cannon. The caſtle can neither be undermined, nor raked with ſhot from the adjacent eminences; and, as it contains a well, magazines of all kinds of proviſions, paſture and arable land, gardens, &c. it would be impoſſible to reduce it by blockade. It commands the navigation of the Elbe, is the repoſitory of the archieves, and the place of retreat of the electoral family in times of danger.

The city of Leipſick, or Leipzig, (in Latin Lipſia) gives name to the circle whereof it is the capital. It ſtands in a charming fruitful plain (between the rivers Saale and Mulda), abounding with all neceſſaries and pleaſures; particularly, large and rich meadows, mowed conſtantly twice, and ſometimes thrice a year, beſides pleaſant woods, and many fine orchards, with all ſorts of fruits, there being neither orchards nor gardens within the walls of the city. It is ſituate at the conflux of three other leſſer rivers, the Elſter, Pleiſſa, and Pardo, or Barde, twenty-eight miles north-weſt of Meiſſen, forty ſouth of Wirtemberg, forty-one weſt of Dreſden, ſixty-four ſouth of Magdeburg, and two hundred and thirty-eight north-weſt of Vienna. It is ſuppoſed to have been built by the Vandals about anno 700, and to have derived its name from Lipzk, a lime tree, with which the country once abounded; and hence ſome Latin authors call it Philurea, from the Greek φίλυρα a lime tree. It was in this city that in 1520 Luther diſputed with Eckius againſt the pope's ſupremacy, and it ſoon after embraced the reformed religion.

As it was the misfortune of this part of the country to become the chief theatre of the long German war, this city was in two years taken five ſeveral times, and at laſt by the Imperialiſts, in 1633, but reſtored by the treaty of Prague, in 1635. It is noted for three ſignal victories obtained near it by the Swedes over the Imperialiſts, viz. in 1631, when Guſtavus defeated Tilly; in 1641, and in 1642, when the arch-duke Leopold, and general Picolomini, were defeated by the Swediſh admiral Torſtenſon, who afterwards obliged the town to ſurrender. It is famous alſo for an univerſity, which was founded in 1409, by Frederick and William, dukes of Saxony, out of a detachment of the ſcholars from Prague, of whom there came hither not leſs than two thouſand in one day, by reaſon of the quarrel between the Huſſites and papiſts.

The univerſity has twenty-four profeſſors in four colleges, wherein the nations are diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral claſſes, bearing the names of Miſnia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Poland. It has bred many learned men, and been honoured with the dukes of Sleſwick and Holſtein, Stetin and Pomerania, the duke of Mecklenburg, and other ſovereign princes, for its rectors. It is not ſubject to the elector, but to the town. Their library has abundance of MSS. that belonged to the monaſteries demoliſhed at the time of the reformation, of which the moſt valuable, becauſe it was a rarity, perhaps, not to be met with elſewhere, is, Tretzer's Greek Commentary on Homer's Iliads, in a fair character. A monthly book is publiſhed here, being a ſort of Journal des Scavans, or Memoirs of Literature; containing an account of remarkable pieces in all parts of learning, intituled, Acta Eruditorum Lipſiæ; which ſhew, that phyſick, anatomy, and the mathematicks, are very much cultivated here; though divinity, eſpecially the controverſy with the Socinians, Papiſts, Jews, &c. is their chief ſtudy. It is ſaid, this univerſity has lately been eclipſed, in ſome degree, by the neighbourhood of Halle, it has always ſupported itſelf with credit.

Leipſick is the ſeat of a high court of judicature, where the elector himſelf is obliged to appear, when ſummoned. It was firſt opened about the year 1520, when Auguſtus,

the then elector, eſtabliſhed the college, to conſiſt of a preſident, and ſix aſſeſſors; of whom, three are civilians, and the other three of the city council, with a regiſtring clerk. Its method of proceeding is deſcribed in the "Chronicon Lipſienſe," as well as by Zobelius, in his "Differentia Juris Civilis & Saxonici."

This city is called, by ſome, the jewel of the electorate of Saxony, not only for its fine ſtructures, but for the conſiderable revenue it yields to its ſovereign. The town itſelf is not great, but it is populous, with regular ſtreets, and ſtately houſes, generally five or ſix ſtories, but about the market-place eight or nine ſtories high, and ſubſtantially built of free-ſtone, adorned with great fine windows, but a little too much charged with ſculpture, and not duly proportioned; and they are high-rented. The town-houſe is a large noble ſtructure. St. Nicholas's church is very fine, and the beſt adorned within of any Lutheran church in Germany. The ground-floors of moſt of the houſes are warehouſes, where the merchants ſtore their goods for the fairs at New-Year's-tide, Eaſter, and Michaelmas, to which there is a vaſt concourſe of merchants from the moſt noted places in Europe, who are exempted from tolls. So many rich curioſities are then brought hither, and there is ſo great a vent for them, that at the fair of 1737, the goods entered at the cuſtom-houſe were computed to be worth near five millions. The king and queen of Poland, who were there, together with the dukes of Saxe-Gotha, Weiſſenfels, Merſberg, &c. laid out vaſt ſums. The late kings of Poland and Pruſſia uſed often to be at theſe fairs; and we are told that, at the New-Year's fair in 1709, were counted no leſs then forty-four princes or princeſſes of ſovereign families. The German tongue is ſpoken here with ſo much purity, that the citizens boaſt they herein excel thoſe of Halle. The town is fortified with ramparts and a ditch, but they are not of ſo much importance as its ſtrong caſtle of Pleiſſenburg, or the river Pleſſe; which, however, when Charles XII. of Sweden marched into Saxony, in 1706, the late elector did not think tenable, and ordered the governor to ſurrender it, without hazarding a ſiege. There is commonly a good garriſon in it, and the ſuburbs are very large.

The city of Leipſick has four magnificent free-ſtone gates, at each of which is ſet up a mile-poſt, after the manner of the Romans; which kind of poſts are at the gates of all the towns, and even of the villages of the electorate; and from hence they count the leagues, which are divided at the end of every quarter of a mile by other poſts, not ſo big, upon all the great roads, ſhewing the diſtances. The gardeners of Leipſick are reckoned the beſt in Germany, and value themſelves upon forcing the products of nature more early than others. Their aſparagus is delicious, and extraordinary large. This place is particularly noted for its larks, which are ſent all over Germany, Poland, Holland, and Denmark; inſomuch that the very cuſtom-duty paid here for larks is ſaid to amount to twelve thouſand crowns a year, which is almoſt incredible; if it be alſo true, as is aſſerted, that ſixty of thoſe birds pay but a groſh, or about two pence halfpenny of our money, for the duty: but certain it is, that the fields hereabouts are covered with larks from Michaelmas to Martinmas. In the woods alſo are abundance of nightingales, of which great numbers are taken and kept in cages. There are tolerable good ordinaries here, and at Dreſden; but the proviſion at the towns and villages in the road betwixt thoſe cities, though ſo much frequented, is ill-dreſſed, and the houſes naſty. There is a remarkable wood in this neighbourhood, called Roſendahl, which, in the language of the country, ſignifies the Vale of Roſes; it conſiſts of fourteen walks, all agreeably diverſified, with a great meadow in the middle, and each walk commands a noble proſpect.

The other places in this circle are, 1. Tacho. 2. Rotha. 3. Liebertwolkwitz. 4. Old Ranſtadt. 5. Delitzſh. 6. Landſburg. 7. Zorbig. 8. Duben. 9. Eilenberg. 10. Nawenhof, on the Borde. 11. Brand. 12, 13. Trebſen and Nerchau, both on the Malde. 14. Grimmia, on the Mulder. 15. Mutſchen. 16. Wermſdorf. 17. Colmen. 18. Reiſznig. 19. Dobeln. 20. Lochlitz, has a ſeat and voice in the diets; ſeveral manufactories, a ſtrong caſtle, and a ſuperintendency.

Erzgeburg circle receives its name from its mountains, which are rich in mineral ores. The following are the moſt conſiderable places; viz.

1. Freyberg, which is the principal mine town, on a branch of the Mulde, ſituated thirteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Dreſden, contains about ſixty thouſand inhabitants, and is ſtrongly fortified. Near the principal church is a chapel, in which many of the electors have been buried. It is the ſeat of ſeveral mine-offices, a court of juſtice, ſuperintendency, &c. In the neighbourhood are ſeveral valuable mines of ſilver, copper, tin, lead, ſulphur, vitriol, &c. Here are likewiſe a public library, a gymnaſium, a cannon and bell-foundery, a lace and thread manufactory, and a brewery.

The other places of note are, 2. Brand, inhabited by miners. 3. Grimthall, where the ſilver is ſeparated from the copper. 4. Schellenberg, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets. 5, 6, 7. Haynichen, Sayda, and Seiſſen, belonging to the lords of Schoneberg. 8. Schopa. 9. Oedern, a manufacturing town, with a ſeat and voice at the diets. 10. Chemnitz, a large town, with a ſuperintendency. 11. Fromkenberg, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets, and gives name to a diſtrict. 12. Mulde, which gives name to a bailiwick. 13. Granaten. 14. Travenſtein. 15. Rechenberg. 16. Altenberg, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets, and gives name to a bailiwick, in which are the ſmall towns of Old Geyſzing, Glaſzhutte, and St. Georgenfeld, an electoral foreſt and hunting-ſeat, with ſeveral tin, ſilver, and iron-mines, mills, ſmelting-houſes, &c.

17. The ſmall town of Zoblitz, in the diſtrict of Lauterſtein, has a ſeat and voice in the diets, an iron-foundery in its vicinity, and is celebrated for the great quantities of aſbeſtos, of divers colours, granites, &c. found in its neighbourhood, which likewiſe abounds with the ſerpent-ſtone, which is of various colours; but the red, being the moſt valuable, is claimed by the electors, though all the ſeveral kinds are worked, by the inhabitants, into various trinkets and utenſils. 18. Wolkenſtein, on the Zſchopa, gives name to a bailiwick, which contains the little towns of Marienberg, Goſtadt, Geyer, Thumb, Annaberg, Bucholz, Irberſdorf, Lengefeld, and Drebach; the inhabitants of all which are either employed in the lace manufactory, or in mining, as this bailiwick produces great quantities of iron, tin, ſilver, allum, cobalt, vitriol, ſulphur, and arſenic. 19. Stolberg has a cloth manufactory. 20. Grunhayn gives name to a bailiwick. 21, 22. Zwonitz and Schlottau are mining towns. 23. Schwargenberg, inhabited by miners, &c. gives name to a bailiwick. 24. Schuberg, on the Mulde, has a conſiderable trade in gold and ſilver lace, thread, ſilk, ſmalt, &c. 25. Neuſtadt, a ſmall mining town, has a ſeat and voice in the diets: ſome of the mines not only produce metals, but various kinds of jewels. 26. Joharm Georgenſtadt, famous for the mines in its neighbourhood, a lace manufactory, and for the great quantity of emery made by its inhabitants. 27. Wieſonberg, on the Mulde. 28. Korchberg. 29. Zſchorlaw. 30. Werdaw. 31. Criminitzſchau on the Pleſſe. 32. Zwickau, on the Mulde, which gives name to a bailiwick and ſuperintendency. It carries on a great trade in wool, cards, deals, coals, marble, cloth, leather, iron, ſandſtone, corn, and other commodities.

In the circle of Vogtland are the following places; viz. 1. Oelſnitz, on the Elſter, remarkable for a pearl-fiſhery, and giving name to a ſuperintendency. 2. Vogtſberg, which gives name to a bailiwick. 3. Adorf, on the Elſter, which has a ſeat and voice in the diets. 4. Mark-Neukerchen, celebrated for being inhabited by ſome of the beſt inſtrument-makers in Germany. 5. Schoneck. 6. Elſterberg, on the Ulſter. 7. Plauen, a pleaſant place, on the ſame river, ſixty-eight miles from Dreſden, is the capital of this circle, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and defended by an old caſtle. 8. Netzſchau. 9. Mylau. 10. Keichenback.

In the circle of Neuſtadt are the following towns and places; viz. 1. Neuſtadt, on the Oſta; it has a caſtle, mine-office, and ſeat of ſuperintendency. 2. Ranis. 3. Berga, on the Elſter. 4. Werdn. 5. Muchenberſdorf, 6. Lubenguma. 7, 8, 9. Triptis, Auma, and Ziegewrucks, each of which has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire.

Merſburg circle, or foundation, is ſituated betwixt Saxe-Hall and Saxe-Naumberg. It was formerly a biſhoprick (ſuffragan to Magdeburg), but ſecularized by the treaty of Paſſaw in favour of the houſe of Saxony. One of the dukes, who was adminiſtrator of it, having introduced Lutheraniſm here about 1562, it has been ſince applied as a portion for one of the younger ſons, to whom it gives the title of duke, who is enabled to keep a very genteel court, with the revenues of other bailiwicks, as well as of this once noble biſhoprick.

The city of Merſburg, where the duke reſides, is in a charming ſituation, amidſt gardens and meadows, on the banks of the Sala, or Saal, ſixteen miles north of Naum-

burg, and ten south-east of Halle, and seventeen north-west of Leipsick. The emperor Otho I. who founded its see in 952, made it also an imperial city. It is a pretty large populous place, and thought to derive its name from Mars, whom the pagan Saxons worshipped here by the name of Irmanseul. The great church, which was the cathedral founded by the emperor Henry II. a gothick building, is worth seeing, were it only for the magnificent tomb of the emperor Rodolph, who died, after the loss of a hand, in battle with his competitor Henry IV. and near it is a library of very antient MSS. It may be observed here, once for all, that part of the revenues of this, and the other bishopricks, secularized in favour of the Saxon and Brandenburg families, is appropriated towards the maintenance of a number of canons belonging to each cathedral, and the rest to the administrators of the respective princes.

The city is well built, though not in the modern taste. Its walls and its seven towers are of free-stone. The wars in the last century did great damage to this place, which was successively the prey of the contending armies. Count Tilly took it in 1631, as the Swedes did afterwards, and the Imperialists and Saxons all mattered it in their turn. It had formerly a very flourishing trade, and a very famous yearly fair from 1047 to the year 1200, when it was almost entirely burnt down, and the merchants removed, with their effects, elsewhere. The baron de Pollnitz tells us, that when he was here, in the time of the late duke, he was carried into a hall hung quite to the top of it, with bass viols; and that there was one, in particular, that reached from the floor to the cieling, so that there was a ladder set for those who wanted to inspect it more minutely.

In this circle are the following places: 1. Zwenkau, on the Elster. 2. Skeuditz, on the same river; it gives name to a bailiwick. 3. Shaafstadt. 4. Lauckstadt. 5. Letzen, in the neighbourhood of which was fought the famous battle between the Imperialists and the Swedes, in which the former were defeated; but the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus was slain.

Saxe-Naumburg is a secularized bishoprick, about twenty-five miles long, and fifteen broad, which lies betwixt Saxe-Altenburg on the north-east, and Saxe-Gotha on the west, and was seized by the late elector of Saxony, in 1718, on the death of the last duke of Saxe-Zeits.

The chief city, which was once a bishop's see, under the archbishop of Magdeburg, and an imperial town, stands on the river Sala, or Saal, where it receives the Unstrut, fifteen miles south of Merseburg, twenty-five south-west of Leipsick, thirty-four east of Erfurt, sixty south-west of Wittenberg, and seventy-five west of Dresden. This town is famous for its fairs, which are the most considerable in Saxony, next to those of Leipsick. Hubner says, that in 1714, it was burnt down upon its fair-day, which is the twenty-ninth of June, and that here is a large castle built by one of the landgraves of Thuringia. Its antient cathedral is yet standing, and the Lutherans have a chapter of canons, who must prove their nobility by sixteen descents, both by the father's and mother's side. The suburbs of this city are almost all vineyards, but the wine so bad, that they give it away.

The bishoprick was founded by the emperor Otho I. in 951, at Zeits, and transplanted hither in 982. Lutheranism was introduced here in the beginning of the sixteenth century, by its bishop, after whose death the elector took the administration. It was quitted to him by the treaty of Passaw, in 1552, and it gave a title to a branch of the family, which was called administrator; but the last turning papist in 1717, by which he was made incapable of enjoying the protestant bishoprick, this emperor pleaded, that he should enjoy half of the revenue, which amounts in the whole to seventy thousand crowns a year; but the chapter refused it, as contrary to the treaty of Westphalia. He was duke of Saxe-Zeits, recanted before he died, but did not live to be restored to the administration.

The following places are in this bishoprick: 1. Weissenfels, on the Sala, ten miles east of Naumburg. 2. Zeits, on the Elster; is the seat of a regency, and has other colleges. 3. Osterfeld. 4. Regis, on the Plesse. 5. Crossen, on the Elster.

Weimar principality lies on the east side of the bishoprick of Eufurt, to the west of Naumburg, and between the river Saal and the county of Schwartzburg, is about forty miles long, and sixteen broad, and contains the bailiwicks of Bercka, Jena, Orlamund, Dornsberg, and Tondorf, with the forests of Tanroder and Brembach, the lakes of Ilmenau, Rosta, and the towns of Bustet, Battelstet, Almanstet, &c. Besides those we have mentioned, which is properly the duchy of Weimar, the duke's other estates in Upper Saxony are those of the branch of Saxe-Jena, which was extinct in 1691, viz. the bailiwicks of Bomberg, Burget, Capolendorf, Apolda, &c. and the university of Jena, of which the prince is joint-sovereign with the duke of Saxe-Eisenach, with whom he enjoys many other things in common, such as the reversion of several estates, archives, tolls, and mines. His revenues are computed at about eighty thousand pounds a year, with which he maintains a thousand regular troops in the finest order and uniform, and keeps a tolerable court.

The chief places in this principality are: 1, Magdela. 2. Butstoff, on the Losse, where there is a superintendency. 3. Berka, on the Ilm; gives name to a bailiwick. 4. Tanzoda, on the same river. 5. Rosenburg, on the Losse. 6. Buttlestadt. 7. Apolda. 8, New-Mark, in the bailiwick of Burgelin, which last place is a walled town, with a superintendency. 9. Dornburg, on the Saal, likewise a superintendency. 10. Oldisleben, near the Unstruct, gives name to a bailiwick. 11. Salza, on the Ilm.

Eisenach principality lies on the frontiers of Hesse. It is mountainous, and the surface barren; but the hills are replete with mines of iron, copper, allum, vitriol, saline springs, &c. The established religion is Lutheranism.

The principal places are, 1. Eisenach, its capital, which gave name to the principality. It is situated on the Nesse, where that river receives the Horsel into it; and contains a gymnasium, a ducal palace, a seat of high colleges, and a superintendency. Martin Luther suffered eleven months imprisonment in a castle on a neighbouring mountain. 2. Willhemthal. 3. Rahla. 4. Kreutzburg, on the Werra. 5. Marksula, on the Suhl. 6. Gerstergen, on the Werra, gives name to a bailiwick which includes Barka, a small town on the same river. 7. Allstert, an antient town, which gives name to a superintendency and a bailiwick. The emperor Otho had a palace in this town, and held a diet here in 974. 8. Remba. 9. Ringleben, on the Gera, which, with the Great Rudestet, gives name to a bailiwick, which contains Mark Uppach, a county town. 10. Farnroda, a village, which gives name to a lordship.

11. The town of Jana, on the Saal, fourteen miles east of Weimar, is pleasantly situated among vineyards, and well fortified. Here is an university, with a library, observatory, physic-garden, &c. a consistory, superintendency, Latin and German society, free-school, and ducal palace. Both the town and university have fine gardens and good estates. The former gives name to a bailiwick, in which are Kirchberg, an old castle, which gave name and title to a burgrave; and Labedo, a small town, about two miles from Jana.

Coburg duchy is placed in the circle of Upper Saxony, though the inhabitants call themselves Franconians; and it is by the matricula deemed to be in this circle: it belonged formerly to the counts of Henneberg, bnt has been possessed by the dukes of Saxe-Gotha ever since 1674. It extends sixteen miles in the broadest part, and is forty-three in length.

The principal town of this duchy, of the same name, lies about twenty-one miles north-east from Bamberg. It is one of the most antient towns in Germany, is pretty large, and well-built, and defended by the duke of Saxe-Gotha's strong castle, on a neighbouring hill, where Euther, who resided here for the most part during the diet of Augsburg, in 1530, to be at hand to instruct his adherents, was several times imprisoned for speaking freely of his superiors; and where he composed several hymns and epistles, some of which he dated from the Desart, and others from Gruboc, by a transposition of the letters, as it is thought, to conceal his confinement. Here is a college with eleven professors of several faculties, called Casimir college, because founded, in 1602, by John Casimir, the elector of Saxony, who had, in 1597, also built the house for the courts of justice. In the citadel are the old archives, wherein are preserved many important memoirs relating to the history of the Reformation. The court or palace where the dukes resided is in the town itself, very near the great church. The Augsburg confession is the religion professed in this duchy.

This duchy, according to Hubner, belongs in part to the duke of Hildburghausen, or Hilpershausen, which is the name of a town, with a fine castle, where he resides, a grand building of free-stone, in the modern taste. To him also belongs Holdburg, another small town, with a fine castle, and several others.

The rest of the places in this duchy are as follow: 1. Gestingshausen, on the Steinach. 2. Rodach, on a river of

of the ſame name; it has a caſtle and ſuperintendency. 3. Neuſtadtander-heyde, on the Rote. 4. Steinhead. 5. Schalkau, on the Itſch: it gives name to a bailiwick. 6. Senneburg; it alſo gives name to a bailiwick, in which are two market-towns, named Indenbach and Murſchnitz. 7. Neuhauſz; it gives name to a bailiwick. 8. Eiſzfeld, on the Werra, has a ſuperintendency, and gives name to a bailiwick. 9. Koningſberg contains a ſuperintendency, and gives name to a bailiwick. 10. Haſſtaden. 11. Heldbury, on the Kreck, contains a ſuperintendency, and gives name to a bailiwick, in which is Ummerſtadt, a ſmall town on the river Rodach.

The principality of Saxe-Gotha bounds with Naumberg on the eaſt; the landgrave of Heſſe, and Saxe-Eyſenach, on the weſt; the county of Eufurt, and Saxe-Hall, on the north and north-eaſt, and Franconia on the ſouth. Its dukes are deſcended from the elector John Frederick the Magnanimous, who was deprived by the Emperor Charles V. in 1574, ſince which the electorate had devolved to the upper branch.

Its ſovereign poſſeſſes (beſides the duchy of Gotha, which is about thirty miles long, and twelve broad, including the lordſhips of Tenna, Wachſenburg, and Ichterſhauſen) the bailiwick of Kranickfeld, the monaſtery of Volkenroda; and in the county of Altenburg, the towns of Altenburg, Orlamunda, Kala, Leuchtenburg, Schmoelle, Sichweighoff, in the principality of Coburg, and the ſmall principality of Eiſenberg, where are Renneberg, Comburg, and Roda. His titles are the ſame as thoſe of the duke of Saxe-Eyſenach, with the addition only of the lordſhip of Tonna, and they differ but little from thoſe of the elector of Saxony: and as of all the Saxon princes of the Erneſtine branch this duke is the moſt powerful, ſo of all the courts of Saxony, next to that of Dreſden, he is the moſt numerous, and the moſt magnificent. He has all the officers of ſtate that are common to ſovereign princes. By the prudent management of his public finances, his ſubjects are the leaſt burdened with taxes of any ſtate in Germany; yet the revenues of the late duke were computed at a million of crowns, or two hundred thouſand pounds a year, with which he kept on foot between two and three thouſand men, regular troops. His guards are well cloathed, his liveries rich, and his tables ſerved with more elegance than luxury.

The capital, Gotha, is a large walled town, on the river Leina, twelve miles weſt of Erfurt, and twenty eaſt of Eyſenach, and in a fine corn country, about two days journey ſouth of Hanover. Here are two churches and an hoſpital. Its chief trade is in dyers woad, of which they have three crops, whereof the third grows wild. This herb is reckoned ſuch a ſovereign balſamick, as to cure wounds almoſt with a touch, if taken in time: it reſembles plaintain, but has a longer leaf: the roots fatten barren ground exceedingly, and being brought over England, thrives well in ſeveral places.

Martiniere, who quotes Zeyler's Topography of Saxony, and Hubner's Geography, for his authorities, writes, that after the year 1530, eight or nine thouſand men were employed eleven years in fortifying its old caſtle; that John Frederick, elector of Saxony, being taken priſoner by Charles V. it was by his order demoliſhed; but that when the elector was ſet at liberty, in 1552, he rebuilt it, and made it larger; but that his ſon, having refuſed to deliver up Grumbach, and ſome others, who had taken refuge there, and were put under the ban of the empire, he himſelf was alſo put under the ban, and beſieged there by Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, the executioner of the mandate; and the place, being taken in 1567, was demoliſhed a ſecond time, at the expence of fifty-five thouſand, five hundred and fifty-nine florins, after a ſiege which coſt nine hundred, fifty-three thouſand, ſix hundred and thirty-four, when the duke was carried priſoner to Auſtria, his chancellor and Grumbach quartered, and the others hanged or beheaded; but duke Erneſt, ſurnamed the Pious, rebuilt it, cauſed both that and the town to be encompaſſed with ditches and ramparts, and gave it the name of Friedenſtein, or the Caſtle of Peace, in oppoſition to its antient name of Grimmerſtein, or the Caſtle of Furies. It ſtands by itſelf on a hill, from whence there is a vaſt proſpect over a fertile plain. In one of the chambers there is a library and cabinet of curioſities: it contains alſo a chapel, a mint, an armoury, a playhouſe, and a laboratory, and is embelliſhed with fine gardens; as is Fredericſhall, another ducal palace in the ſuburbs. Here are ſeveral churches, a military and other hoſpitals, porcelane and other manufactories, an academy for cadets, various ſchools, a college, foundery, riding-houſe, green-houſe, water-works, &c.

Other towns in this principality are, Hernia, Frederichrode, Waltherhauſen, Ichterſhauſen, Ohrdorf, Grafen Tonna, Blaſſi Zell, Frederickſwerth, Herbſleben, and Kramchfeld.

Altenburg principality has Theringe on the north, Vogtland on the eaſt, and Franconia on the ſouth and weſt. It is well watered, has a fruitful ſoil and rich mines. The inhabitants are Lutherans, and have five ſuperintendants.

The principal places are, 1. Eiſenberg, which gives name to a diſtrict and ſuperintendency. 2. Carnburg, on the Saal. 3. Sulza, on the Ilm. 4. Roda on the Roda. 5. Orlamunda, on the Saal. 6. Ronneburg, which gives name to a ſuperintendency and diſtrict.

7. The town of Altenberg, on the Pleſſe, thirty-ſeven miles weſt of Dreſden, is the ſeat of the chief officers for the diſtricts of the principality. This town gives name to a diſtrict, which contains Lucca, Schmollen, Goſzitz, and Muſelwitz. It is a large place, and was once an imperial city; contains a foundation for the education of young ladies of decayed families, a houſe belonging to decayed families, another belonging to the Teutonic order, an orphan-houſe, a houſe of correction, a college, muſeum, and library.

Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld principality contains the following places: 1. Saalfeld, a handſome town on the Saal, in which are a mint for the circle of Upper Saxony, a ducal palace, a grammar-ſchool, vitriol-houſe, ſmelting-houſe, ſeveral churches, manufactories of cloth, gold and ſilk ſtuffs, &c. 2. Poſneck, a ſmall, but populous town, full of potters, clothiers, and curriers. 3. Lehſten, in whoſe neighbourhood is an excellent ſlate-quarry. 4. Grafenthal, near the river Zepten. 5, 6. Blankenhayn and Wandelleben, are the only towns in the territories belonging to the houſe of Hatzfeld.

Querfurt is a ſmall principality, containing only the following places worthy of notice: 1. Querfurt, from which the principality receives its name, is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency. 2. Heldrungen gives name to a diſtrict and ſuperintendency. 3. Dahrne, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency. 4. Juterback, on the Angerback.

Anhalt principality, ſituated between the rivers Elbe and Saal, is ninety miles in length, and extends thirty-five in the broadeſt part. It is divided into the four branches of Deſſau, Bernburg, Zerbſt, and Cothen; and, when the dominions were divided, it was agreed to ſubmit to the eldeſt of the family; who has the ſupreme government, and the only power to aſſemble the reſt upon buſineſs of importance. They have all but one vote in the diet, in which they generally depute one of their number to repreſent them. The right of ſeniority has been eſtabliſhed for ſome years in the branches of Bernburg and Zerbſt, which are the moſt numerous.

The prince of Anhalt-Deſſau poſſeſſes the principality of Deſſau, with the town of that name, Worlitz upon the Elbe, Rudegaſt, Sunderſleben, Oranienbaum, a ſeat on the confines of the electorate of Saxony; Ragun, Jeſnitz, &c. The prince of Anhalt-Bernburg has the lordſhips of Bernburg, on the Saal, and Ballenſtadt, Old Anhalt (from whence the family is denominated), Hartzgerode, Little Zeitz, where he reſides, and the abbey of Gernrode, for ladies, of which laſt the princes of Anhalt have the advowſon. The prince of Anhalt Cothen has the town and territory of that name, between the Saal and Mulda, with Plotzkow, the bailiwicks of Nienburg, on the Saal, heretofore an abbey; Wolfen, the upper country of Warenſdorf, and Guſten. And the prince of Anhalt-Zerbſt poſſeſſes the town of that name, with the bailiwicks of Lindau, Coſwitz, Roſwick, Roſla Muhlingen, of Magdeburg, Water-Nienburg, Domburg, Meckern, and the lordſhip of Javern, and he has the reverſion of the territory of Kniphauſen. It is computed, that the revenue of each is about ſeven thouſand pounds a year, except Deſſau and Zerbſt, which are believed to be worth more.

There is no univerſity in this country, but prince Lewis, of Cothen, founded a learned ſociety, the members of which have been chiefly employed in tranſlations of antient Greek and Latin authors, and the improvement of the German language. He was the firſt preſident; and in a ſhort time, above twenty princes and ſix hundred noblemen entered into the ſociety, which is called the Fructifying Society, and have very much advanced the learning, and improved the language of the Germans. This is a good corn country, is watered with the Saal and the Mulda, and its principal trade is in beer. The people of Deſſau are partly Calviniſts, and the reſt Lutherans; but in the town of Zerbſt there are of both theſe perſuaſions.

The chief towns are, 1. Deſſau, on the Elbe, at the influx

influx of the Mulda, eight miles ſouth of Zerbſt, and twenty eaſt of Bernburg. It lies in a pleaſant fruitful country, is well fortified, and adorned with the prince's palace. In one of the chapels there is the tomb of one Rehebeck, an old miller, who having followed Waldemar, marquis of Brandenburg, to the wars, where the latter was ſlain, the former perſonated him ſo artfully, that he was reſpected as the marquis himſelf. The trade of this town is in excellent beer, which is tranſported all over the country.

2. The town of Zerbſt ſtands a little eaſt of the Elbe, ten miles north of Deſſau, and forty-ſix north of Leipſick. It is very antient, and well fortified, according to the import of the name, which, in the Wendiſh dialect, ſignifies fort. It is remarkable for little elſe but being the ſeat of its prince, and having a ſtrong beer brewery, of a more excellent quality than that at Deſſau.

3. The fortified town of Benburg ſtands in a fruitful territory, on the banks of the Saal, eight miles from the Elbe, eighteen eaſt of Deſſau, and twenty ſouth of Magdeburg. The prince has a palace here, ſeparated from the town by the river.

4. Barbi ſtands near the influx of the Saal into the Elbe, between Anhalt and Magdeburg. It belongs to a prince of the Weiſſenfels branch of Saxony, who has erected a noble caſtle in it, with commodious apartments, and crimſon velvet furniture, embroidered with gold. Here is a ſuperb ſaloon, which, with the cloſet and cieling, are finely painted. It has gardens delightfully ſituated by the ſide of the Elbe. The duke of Barbi is reckoned to be the only Calviniſt prince of the Saxon family.

5. Quedlinburg is a little ſtate in this circle, betwixt the principalities of Anhalt and Halberſtadt, which has the title of an abbacy, from an abbey of great note, that was founded here by Henry I. who was buried in it in 936: and, becauſe he ſpent much of his time here in taking birds, was ſurnamed, The Fowler. After he had defeated forty thouſand Huns, near Merſburg, he began to build the church, to fulfil a vow which he had made for the proſperity of his arms; but dying ſoon after he had dedicated the church to St. Servetus, his widow Matilda carried it on; his ſon, the emperor Otho, completed, and richly endowed it; and his daughter Matilda was the firſt abbeſs. On the extinction of the then Imperial family, the protectorſhip paſſed into that of Anhalt, and thence into that of Saxony, in which it hath continued till the cloſe of the laſt century, when the late elector ſold the protection fee of the abbey, and of the city of Northauſen, to the elector of Brandenburg, for fifty-thouſand pounds; when the latter garriſoned the town, and eſtabliſhed ſeveral courts in it. The abbeſs being a princeſs of the empire, and the firſt of thoſe princeſſes who only derive their title from their abbeys, complained of this to the diet, (wherein ſhe has her deputy among the prelates of the Rhine) but without effect; ſo that ſhe has little more than the ſhadow of power in the city, and the abbey itſelf has loſt much of its antient ſplendor; for the abbeſſes have not, as formerly, their hereditary officers, &c.

The chapter has four dignitaries, viz. the abbeſs, the prioreſs, the deaneſs, and the canoneſſes, or nuns. All theſe ladies muſt be at leaſt baroneſſes, and prove their noble extraction for eight deſcents. The abbeſſes have commonly been of the Imperial or electorate families. Thoſe of Brandenburg, Brunſwick, and Anhalt, poſſeſs fiefs which they hold of the abbey. No abbeſs can be choſen without the conſent of its hereditary protector; and the emperor's confirmation is ſufficient to render his election valid, without need of any from Rome; for that court has had nothing to do with the abbey ſince 1539, when Lutheraniſm was introduced by its abbeſs, the counteſs of Stolberg. No vows are made here; the canoneſſes, who receive and return viſits, know no reſtraints; both the abbeſs and her nuns may leave the abbey, and marry; and ſince the reformation, ſeveral of the abbeſſes have been widows.

The revenue of this Lutheran abbey does not exceed five thouſand pounds a year; its eſtate, beſides the little city of Quedlinburg, being only the villages of Ditfurt and Suderole, which laſt is claimed by the elector of Brandenburg, as belonging to his ſecularized biſhoprick of Halberſtadt. The title of the preſent incumbent is ſaid to be Mary-Elizabeth, by the grace of God, abbeſs of the Imperial and ſecular abbey of Quedlinburg, born princeſs of Holſtein, &c. She gives audiences with all the affected pomp of ſecular princes, and is ſeated under a canopy, ſurrounded by her chaplain and officers: her abbey has more the air of a little court, than of a religious houſe.

The little city of Quedlinburg, where the abbeſs reſides, is ſituated on the river Bode, that was formerly a hanſe-town, and afterwards ſubject to the abbey; but the citizens rebelling againſt their abbeſs in 1745, they were made ſubject to the elector of Saxony, though now it is in other hands. It is eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Halberſtadt, and forty-nine north-weſt of Halle. This town is ſo very near the frontiers of Lower Saxony, that ſome geographers have placed it in that circle. A famous council was held here in 1085.

The family of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle poſſeſs the free Imperial palace of Walkenreid, by whom it is held as a bailiwick; but, on its account, pay an aſſeſſment to the empire, and to the chamber of Wetzlar. The only places of the leaſt importance in the whole bailiwick, are, the town of Walkenried, on the Zorge, and the town of Zorge, where two iron manufactories are eſtabliſhed.

Schwarzburg principality (the ſouth part of which is ſeparated from the north) is ſurrounded, on the ſouth, by Coburg, Altenburg, Eiſenach, and Erfurt; on the north part, by Thuringia, the electorate of Saxony, the counties of Stolberg, Hohenſtein, Eichsfelde, and the territory of the imperial town of Mulhauſen.

In this principality are many fertile ſpots, yielding all kinds of grain, roots, fruits, &c. The country produces wine, game, veniſon, ſalt, timber, ſilver, alabaſter, and copper. The rivers are, the Schwarze, Saale, Helme, Wepper, Ilm, Gera, Elbe, Gera, and Zorgange. The inhabitants amount to about one hundred thouſand; the profeſſed religion is Lutheraniſm.

The principal places are, 1. Ehrich, on the Helme. 2. Kinglen. 3, 4. Haſzelben, and Ebeleben. 5. Grueſſen, on the Helme.

6. The town of Sonderhauſen, on the Wepper, has a palace near it, the apartments of which are fine, and the gardens elegant. In the armoury is an image of Puſtrich, a Wandiſh idol, in ſhining black metal. Its head, on which the right hand reſts, is large and diſproportionate, with a hole in the top of it, and its belly is prominent and hollow. In lieu of a mouth, a round hole is ſubſtituted; the legs are both mutilated, and the right is bent in a particular manner. The middle of the left arm, which reſts on the lap, is broken off. This town gives name to a bailiwick, and is the ſeat of the public offices.

7. Keula is a ſmall town, which gives name to a bailiwick, at which a foreſt begins that is twenty miles in length. 8. Arnſtadt, on the Gera, has a handſome ſtone bridge, with ſix arches. 9. Planen is a ſmall town on the Gera. 10. Keſurnburg, an old caſtle, which gives name to a bailiwick. 11. Auguſtenburg. 12. Geren. 13. Langewieſen, on the Ilm, is a fief of Mentz. 14. Breituback, on the ſame river.

The territories of Rudolſtadt contain the following places, viz. 1. Rudolſtadt, on the Saale: and in the bailiwick to which Rudolſtadt gives name, there is a ſmall town called Teichel. 2. Blankenburg, on the Rhine. 3. Konitz. 4. Leutenberg. 5. Ehrenſtein. 6. Frankenhauſen. 7. Arnſberg. 8. Stranſberg. 9. Hermingen, on the Helme. 10. Kalbra.

The county of Stolberg, which lies north of the lower county of Schwartzburg, eaſt of Hohenſtein, and weſt of Mansfeld, is about twenty miles long, and ten broad, and gives name to counts of a very antient, and once a very powerful family, whoſe domains lie diſpoſſeſſed, but moſt of them are in the circle of the Upper Rhine; and they have right to the ſucceſſion of the counts of Schwartzburg. They are divided into the two chief branches of Iſenberg and Gudern; and the latter into thoſe of Stolberg and Orenberg. They are ſovereign counts, of the Lutheran religion; and, beſides their large bailiwicks in the circle above-mentioned, they have the county of Weringerode, in the principality of Halberſtadt, near the borders of which, among the mountains, ſtands the caſtle of Stolberg, which, it is ſaid, was built by Otho Colonna, a Roman gentleman.

The county of Mansfeld is one of the four, called Hyrcinian counties, the other three being Stolberg, Hohenſtein, and Zegenſtein. It has Stolberg, and the upper county of Schwartzburg, on the weſt; the principality of Anhalt, on the north; the duchy of Saxe-Merſburg, and Saxe-Hall, on the ſouth; and part of Anhalt and Saxe-Hall, with the river Saale, on the eaſt. It is above thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, and eighteen from north to ſouth. It abounds with ſeveral ſorts of minerals, very profitable to the inhabitants, particularly that called the Scheifferſtein, peculiar to this and the neighbouring provinces: it is a blackiſh, glittering kind of ſlate, which, melted and bruiſed,

bruiſed, yields much copper, and ſilver. Out of it the inhabitants melt copper, each hundred weight of which contains ten or twelve ounces of pure ſilver. In theſe ſtones are lively repreſentations, in fair copper ſtrokes, of fiſhes of ſeveral ſorts, frogs, water rats, and other animals, that abound in a neighbouring lake. This ſtone is very common hereabouts.

Some writers aſſert, that the pedigree of the counts of Mansfeld is derived from Burchard, viſcount of Quernfurt, to whom the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa gave this country, for his ſervice in the Holy Land; and his ſucceſſors have enjoyed it ever ſince, but pay homage to the elector of Saxony. There have been ſeveral great men of this family, ſome of whom have been privy counſellors to the emperors of Germany, and deputy-governors of Saxony: and the names of ſeveral of them ſhine in the annals of Germany and the Netherlands; but it is now divided into four or five branches, which makes them leſs conſiderable than formerly. Some of the young counts, in the ſixteenth century, oppoſed ſeveral of the Lutheran doctrines, which gave riſe to a ſect, called Mansfeldians. The two chief branches left are thoſe of Bornſtet and Eiſleben: the latter lives now at the town of that name, and has nothing to depend on but the hunting, fiſhery, and patronage of the churches; the family being ſo deeply in debt, that the greater part of the eſtates which formerly belonged to it, are ſeized by the creditors, and the remainder was ſequeſtered to the elector of Saxony, who mortgaged his part, in 1715, to George I. of Great Britain, for ſix hundred thouſand ſix-dollars; ſo that Bornſtet, with its diſtrict, two eſtates in Bohemia, and the ſmall principality of Pondi, are all the preſent count is poſſeſſed of.

The counts who have voices in the Imperial diets, may purchaſe eſtates in any part of the emperor's dominions, may inliſt volunteers, and cannot be ſued by the emperor, but only in the Imperial chamber: but that which properly belongs to counts of territories, ſuch as thoſe of Mansfeld, &c. is, that they were antiently created and inveſted by the delivery of one or more banners, for ſeiſin of their territories, as dukes were inveſted; and the re-delivery of thoſe banners to the emperor, was deemed the ſurrender of them.

The only town or village in this country, worthy of deſcription, is Eiſzleben, the capital of the county, which is divided into Old and New. It is populous, a great thoroughfare, contains many breweries, and has a caſtle to defend it: this place is celebrated for the birth and death of the great reformer, Martin Luther.

Wernigerode county is ſituated on the borders of the principality of Halberſtadt; is twelve miles long, nine broad, partly level, and partly mountainous. The Blockberg mountain here is reckoned the higheſt in Germany, and the ſnow generally covers it all the year round.

The level parts of this country are fertile in grain, pulſe, flax, fruit, herbs, timber, &c. and the whole abounds in horſes, cattle, game, ſalt-petre, chalk, cobalt, lime-ſtone, free-ſtone, marl, clay, iron, and lead. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm.

The principal places are; 1. Wernigerode, which gives name to the county; and is defended by a ſtately caſtle, adorned with admirable gardens, and containing a fine library, with many valuable archives. This town conſiſts of three parts, viz. the Old Town, the New Town, and the ſuburb of Noſchonſade, containing, in the whole, about eight hundred houſes. It may be laid under water, by means of the Zillicher rivulet. The corporation has a property in ſome large woods, from which the burghers are allowed timber for building, and a certain quantity for fuel. The inhabitants are employed in breweries, diſtilling, and cloth and woollen manufactories. Along the Villiche are ſeveral oil, fulling, copper, meal, ſawing, and other mills.

2. The large village of Drubeck has a foundation for ſix proteſtant ladies. 3. Ilſenburg is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. 4. Haſſerode, which gives name to a bailiwick.

The lordſhips of Reuſſen are ſurrounded by Etzgeburg, Vogtland, Neuſtadt, Culmback, Bamberg, Saalfeld, Lentenberg, Altenberg, and the bailiwick of Zeitz. The plains are fruitful; the hills rich in minerals, and the rivers abound in fiſh. The people employ themſelves in woollen and iron manufactures, and profeſs the Lutheran religion.

The principal places are, 1. Greitz, on the Elſter, encompaſſed with woods and mountains. 2. Zeulenroda. 3. Burg, a caſtle on a rock. 4. Trawrenth. 5. Moſchlitz. 6. Gera, in a pleaſant vale near the Elſter. 7. Schlewitz, gives name to a lordſhip; in which are three market-towns, viz. Tanna, Gorgwitz, and Market Hohenleuben. 8. Lobenſtein, on the Lemnitz. 9. Hirſchberg, in the lordſhip of Eberſdorf. The lordſhips are very rich, which is owing to the great induſtry of the inhabitants.

In the lordſhips of Schonberg are ſeveral flouriſhing manufactories. The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and very induſtrious. The counts of Schonburg have a ſeat in the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle.

The principal places are, 1. Waldenburg, on the Mulde. 2. Hartenſtein, which gives name to a lordſhip. 3. Stein, on the Mulde. 4. Loſnitz. 5. Wechſelburgh. Theſe are all ſmall towns. The people of theſe lordſhips ſeem to be unaffectedly pious in their deportment, and particularly attentive to their religious duties.

The county of Honſtein, though rather hilly, abounds in corn, graſs, cattle, deer, game, timber, iron, jaſper, and alabaſter.

The moſt remarkable places are, 1. Honſtein, which gives name to the county, and to a bailiwick. 2. Ilfild, on the Behr. 3. Bleickrade, in the lordſhip of Lora, which, with the town of Kaettenberg, is now incorporated with the principality of Halberſtadt: both of which belong to the king of Pruſſia. 4. Ebrich, on the Zorge, is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency. 5. Sachſa. 9. Great Bodungen, on the Bode. 7. Benneckſtein, famous for its iron mills.

SECT. II.

Treating of the Circle of LOWER SAXONY, the ſeveral Dominions belonging to it, their Boundaries and Extent, Towns, Buildings, Inhabitants, Manufactures, Produce of the different Countries, &c.

LOWER SAXONY is bounded, on the north, by the duchy of Sleſwick and the Baltick; on the ſouth, by the circle of Upper Saxony, and a part of that of the Upper Rhine; on the weſt, by the circle of Weſtphalia and the North Sea; and, on the eaſt, by part of the circle of Upper Saxony. This country, in general, may be deemed very fruitful, though in ſome parts it is woody, ſandy, and marſhy.

We ſhall proceed to a deſcription of thoſe parts of this circle which we have not yet mentioned; beginning with Brunſwick-Lunenberg, ſeveral diſtricts of which country (though many places abound in heathy, marſhy, ſandy, and barren ſoils), are exceedingly fruitful in wheat, oats, peas, vetches, roots, tobacco, wood, barley, rye, beans, fruit, madder, flax, hemp, &c. Here are likewiſe great quantities of timber, cattle, game, horſes, ſheep, fiſh, minerals, turf, honey, wax, pitch, ſalt-ſprings, &c.

There are, in theſe territories, ſeveral manufactories of woollen cloths, ſtuffs, linen, thread, lace, cotton, carpets, gold twiſt, galoons, fringe, ſword-knots, taſſels, halberts, embroidery, tobacco-pipes, tobacco, ſkins, hats, gunpowder, paper, colours, fire-arms, ſalt, &c.

The eſtabliſhed religion here is Lutheraniſm: but Roman catholics are tolerated in ſome places, particularly at Hanover and Gottingen; and in all the electoral dominions, Calviniſts and Jews enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion.

With reſpect to the anceſtors of this illuſtrious houſe, it may be proper to mention, that the houſe of Brunſwick being united in the two ſons of Henry, duke of Zell, in 1546, the branch of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle and Beveren, deſcended from Henry, the eldeſt of thoſe ſons; and the electoral branch of Brunſwick-Lunenburg from William, the youngeſt ſon; and that the anceſtreſs of both branches was Margaret, queen of Scotland, wife of king Malcolm III. and ſiſter to Edgar Atheling, the Saxon, who was the true lineal heir of the crown of England, both of the Daniſh and Saxon race; which Edgar dying without iſſue, the right of ſucceſſion to the crown fell to queen Margaret's poſterity, in whom centered at once the hereditary titles of the Scottiſh, Pictiſh, Britiſh, Daniſh, and Saxon royal families.

In 1692, the creation of the electorate, which is attached to the duchies of Hanover and Zell, was concerted at the congreſs at the Hague, by our king William III. of glorious memory, and happily effected by its influence, in conjunction with moſt of the proteſtant princes of the empire, on purpoſe to counterbalance the acceſſion of the popiſh branch of the Palatine family in the electorate of the Rhine. It was oppoſed by ſeveral German princes,

and particularly by the duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, out of envy; but the then emperor Leopold, in order to teſtify his gratitude to the proteſtants for their aſſiſtance in the war againſt France, and conſidering not only the perſonal merit of duke Erneſt, but the great dignity of the Brunſwick family, who had the firſt ſeat in the college of princes at the diet, and was one of the moſt conſiderable in the empire for antiquity, wealth, and power, ordered it to be put to the queſtion, in the college of electors at Ratiſbon; wherein it was reſolved, on the 7th of October, 1692, that the electoral dignity ſhould be conferred on the ſaid prince Erneſt and his heirs. The college of princes immediately entered their proteſt againſt this reſolution, as contrary to the laws of the empire, becauſe done without their concurrence: nevertheleſs, the emperor gave prince Erneſt the inveſtiture, by delivering the electoral cap to his plenipotentiaries, and declaring him elector, in the following December.

The following is ſaid to be the extent of the particular dominions of this elector; namely, the principality of Grubenhagen, forty miles both in length and breadth; the duchy of Hanover, or Calenburg, forty miles long, and twelve broad: the duchy of Lunenburg, eighty miles long, and fifty broad; the duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg, thirty miles long, and fifty broad; the duchy of Bremen, including Verden, ſixty miles long, and forty broad; the county of Hoya, thirty miles long, and fifteen broad; and the county of Diepholt, thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth.

The pretenſions of the elector are only to the ſmall county of Eichfeld, (of which the elector of Mentz is poſſeſſed), as part of the principality of Grubenhagen; to the county of Reinſtein, as as vacant fief; to the larger half of the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim; and to the fortreſs of Peyna. His revenues ariſe, 1. From the ſalt-pits, or ſprings, within the walls of Lunenburg. 2. From taxes on land, cattle, merchandize, public houſes, and inns. But his greateſt revenues ariſe from the rich mines of ſilver, iron, and copper. The mines of Clauſthall, with thoſe of St. Andrew and Altena, yield near two hundred thouſand pounds a year; but whether this computation is to be underſtood as clear of all charges, is not ſpecified; ſo that, upon the whole, this elector's revenue is calculated to amount to, at leaſt, four hundred thouſand pounds a year.

In the year 1692, the elector had near fourteen thouſand regular troops on foot. Now that the eſtates are increaſed above one half, by the addition of Lunenburg and Bremen, he may raiſe an army of betwixt thirty and forty thouſand men, without greatly diſtreſſing his ſubjects, In the year 1729, he reviewed a body of nineteen thouſand eight hundred and ninety men; and in September 1735, that number was augmented to twenty-two thouſand regular troops.

In the year 1687 there was an hereditary and perpetual union made between that electoral family and that of Saxony, for the mutual guarantee of the peaceable poſſeſſion of their eſtates againſt all diſturbers and invaders; which treaty was renewed in 1731 and 1736.

Bremen duchy has the Weſer on the weſt; the Elbe, and part of Lunenburg, on the eaſt; the German Sea on the north, and part of Verden and Oldenburg, on the ſouth. It is about ſixty miles in length, and forty in breadth, including Verden. It is divided into, 1. The land of Bremen, properly ſo called, which lies ſome miles round the city. 2. Wurſterland, along the coaſt from the Weſer to the mouth of the Elbe. 3. Hadeland, the north part of the duchy at the mouth of the Elbe, where the people are reckoned ignorant, but ſo fond of gay cloaths, that their neighbours have a proverb, "that there are no peaſants in Hadeland." Part of it belongs to Hamburg, and part to Saxe-Lawenburg. 4. Kedingerland, in which lies Stade. 5. Altland, a pleaſant fruitful tract, of about fourteen miles in length. Betwixt Bremen and Stade the country is deſart, and either a barren ſand, or a moraſs; but the other parts towards the rivers are very pleaſant, and abound with fields, meadows, and orchards. The inhabitants, who formerly relied ſo much on their valour, that they ſcorned to build forts, are ſtill reckoned as good ſoldiers as any in Germany; and it is ſaid of the Wurſtlanders, in particular, that they will fight and drink with the beſt men in Germany. The ſituation of the country betweeu two ſuch navigable rivers, has given the people in general a diſpoſition for trade and commerce.

Ludovicus Pius, the emperor, gave this country to Anſgarius, the firſt archbiſhop of Bremen and Hamburg, whom he made metropolitan of Denmark, and all the known countries to the north. He died in 865, and his day is as much obſerved by the common people here, as Chriſtmas. Denmark and Sweden were no longer dependent on this ſee, when Lunden was erected into an archbiſhoprick: but this country continued ſubject to its archbiſhops, till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, the archbiſhoprick was ſecularized, converted into a duchy, and given to the Swedes, for reſtoring the peace of the empire, and giving up other places which they had taken during the war. As their anceſtors had frequent wars with their archbiſhop in defence of their liberties, they pleaded for the ſame exemptions when made ſubject to the Swedes, who continued their maſters till 1712, when this country and Verden were conquered by the king of Denmark. This prince mortgaged it ſoon to the elector, our late king, who in 1715, had two hundred and fifty-thouſand pounds granted him by his parliament, to enable him to make the purchaſe of it. There was an oppoſition, indeed, made to it, in both houſes, and a clamour raiſed againſt it without doors; but however convenient it might be for the elector of Hanover, whoſe family was poſſeſſed of Bremen once before, and to whoſe dominions it lay contiguous, the legiſlature wiſely judged it might be of the moſt dangerous conſequence to the crown of Great Britain, that any foreign prince, eſpecially a maritime power, ſhould hold the key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Weſer.

Any one who takes the pains to peruſe the maps of this part of the empire, will perceive, that, whilſt that king was in poſſeſſion of the duchies of Bremen and Verden, he was maſter of the ſea-coaſt from Denmark almoſt to the Seven Provinces. The maps ſhew, that the Elbe runs, for above five hundred miles, through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the reſt of Germany, and that the Weſer paſſes, for about two hundred and fifty miles, through Heſſia, Weſtphalia, Oldenburg, and ſome other countries of the empire: and the vaſt importance of thoſe rivers to our trade, will be confeſſed by every one who conſiders that all our woollen, and other Engliſh manufactures, and almoſt all our commodities, both domeſtic and foreign, to the value of many hundred thouſand pounds a year, are by thoſe ſtreams conveyed to innumerable markets; and that by the ſame navigation a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreigner, either to lock it up from us, or to lay what impoſitions he pleaſed on it, as might have been the caſe, if his late majeſty had not got Bremen and Verden out of the hands of the king of Denmark.

In 1717 this country ſuffered very much by inundations from the Elbe, the banks of which are in ſome places very low, and would be frequently overflown, where it not for the dikes. In 1720, the crown of Sweden conſented in form to the diſmemberment of this duchy from its other dominions, and confirmed it to the Brunſwick family.

In this, and a very large part of the lower circles of Germany, the common dialect is a ſort of Lower-Saxon, neither Dutch nor High-German, but partaking of both, or rather the root of both; for it ſeems to have retained more of the antient Anglo-Saxon than of the Dutch or High-German: yet every one underſtands High-German, and it is the language of their printed books, and written letters, and ſermons.

This country is watered by many rivers. The Tech, the Umme, and the Hamma, join together, and fall into the Weſer; as do the Brept, the Lun, the Stotel, and ſeveral others: the Eſſa, the Schwingel, and the Oſte, fall into the Elbe.

We ſhall deſcribe the places of moſt note from Harburg to the mouth of the Elbe; which are,

1. Boxtehude, on the Eſſa, or Eſt, fifteen miles weſt of Hamburg, and eaſt of Stade, and forty-eight north-eaſt of Bremen, in a pleaſant country, ſo fruitful, as to be reckoned one of the granaries of Hamburg. It is a pretty large town, with broad ſtreets, and is ſurrounded with a ditch and wall, upon which there are old ruinous towers. Its river, which comes out of Lunenburg, and is navigable for boats up to the town, falls into the Elbe at Crantz, about four miles off, where the latter is about a mile over; and from hence there is a fine proſpect of Hamburg. The town, which firſt had its riſe from a nunnery of ladies of a family of that name, was of ſuch note formerly, as to be admitted into the Hanſeatick league, and ſtill retains the privileges of a city, with burgomaſters, and ſenators. One of the dukes of Brunſwick attempted, in vain, to reduce this place in 1424, as did,

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in 1552, one of the counts of Mansfeld, who, for mere ſpite, becauſe he could not take it, ſet fire to the neighbouring nunnery. During the civil wars of Germany it was ſeveral times taken from, and retaken by the Swedes; who being, at length, reſtored to it in 1679, kept it, with the reſt of the duchy of Bremen, till the whole country was conquered by the Danes, and made over to the late elector of Hanover.

2. Stade, which is reckoned the ſecond town in the duchy, next to Bremen, has a good trade, and a healthy air, in a fruitful country, on the river Zwinga, or Schwingel, which falls into the Elbe two miles below it, twenty-ſeven miles weſt of Hamburg, and forty-four north of Bremen. This, beſides its having been a free imperial city, and one of the Hanſe Towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges; particularly, for being an aſylum or ſanctuary for all offenders, with a right of toll for ſhips paſſing up the Elbe; but became ſo poor, by Hamburg's outſtripping it, that it was forced to ſell its ſtock to that city, and put itſelf under the protection of the archbiſhop of Bremen, it having formerly been the capital of a marquiſate of its own name, which was annexed to that ſee by its marquis in the thirteenth century. After its abovementioned decay, our Engliſh merchants, upon ſome diſguſt taken at Hamburg, removed hither: which revived its trade, ſo that again it became rich and populous, and is in good condition at preſent, though the Engliſh returned to Hamburg. The town is well built, and its town-hall, market place, and churches, are handſome ſtructures.

3. Bremerfurd, or Breme-Verden, is a walled town, with a good caſtle, that commands the neighbouring plains; and a palace, which was formerly the archbiſhop of Bremen's, on the river Oſte, that runs into the Elbe. It is fifteen miles ſouth from Stade, and twenty-eight north of Bremen; and the chief trade of it is by paſſengers betwixt theſe towns. The chancery of the duchy is kept in this town.

4. Ritzbuttle, or Rutzenbuttle, is a bailiwick, conſiſting of a caſtle, with fourteen villages, belonging to the Hamburghers, and ſituate on the coaſt where the South Elbe falls into the North Sea, not ten miles from the utmoſt point of land of this country, and thirty-two north-weſt of Stade. Here the Hamburghers have a pretty good harbour, called Cuxhaven, which is of great benefit to ſhips coming on the Elbe in winter, when the river is full of ice. Here likewiſe their ſhips often ſtop, at their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news, and to know whether all is well with the city, before they venture up. Here are their privileged pilots, who by their ſtatutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at ſea, near the outermoſt buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occaſion ſhall require, on board every ſhip coming into the Elbe. But, notwithſtanding this is one of the moſt dangerous rivers in Europe to come into, as all ſhips coming to Hamburg are obliged to pay half pilotage, whether they have pilots on board, or not, they are ſeldom at ſea but in good weather, when they are leaſt wanted; which has occaſioned the loſs of many a rich ſhip within the river. The Hamburghers have another fort in this neighbourhood, called New-werck, or Nieu-wark, which ſerves for ſtrengthening the former, on the land, againſt the country.

Adjoining to the bailiwick of Ritzbuttle is the little diſtrick of Hadeln, or Hadeland (the moſt northern part of this duchy), which, with its capital, Otterndorff, on the river Medame, and the town of Hadeln, came in the ſixteenth century from the archbiſhops of Bremen to the houſe of Saxe-Lawenburg: but the male line of that houſe becoming extinct in the year 1689, and a diſpute ariſing, about the inheritance between the female heirs and the king of Sweden, the emperor cauſed it to be taken into ſequeſtration, under which it remains, as it is ſaid, to this day. The caſtle of Otterndorff, which belongs to Saxe-Lawenburg, commands moſt of the diſtrict.

The next that follow are the towns on the Weſer, viz.

1. Carelſtat, or Carlſbourg, as Baudrand calls it, is rather a fortreſs than a town, on the river Geeſte; which, having filled its ditches, falls into the Weſer, thirty-one miles north-weſt of Bremen. It was founded by Charles X. of Sweden, taken by the dukes of Brunſwick in 1676, and reſtored by the treaty of Fontainebleau in 1679. The late Charles XII. in 1698, granted liberty of conſcience, with thirty years exemption from taxes, to all proteſtants that would ſettle here: but there are but a ſmall number of inhabitants.

2. Bremen, the capital of the duchy, ſtands in a fruitful plain, twenty-three miles eaſt of Oldenburg, ſixty ſouth-weſt of Hamburg, fifty-five eaſt of Embden, eighty-three north-weſt of Brunſwick, eighty-nine weſt of Lunenburg, ſixty-five weſt of Zell, ninety north of Munſter, and about four hundred and ſixty north-weſt of Vienna. It is an antient, large, populous, and flouriſhing town, a free imperial city, and the third in rank among the Hanſe, of whoſe three renowned free imperial cities, viz. Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, though it is reckoned the leaſt conſiderable, it is certainly much the oldeſt, it being noted for ſhipping when the monks, ſent by the pope to convert the Saxons, embarked here for England, which was two hundred years before Hamburg was built, and above five hundred before the building of Lubeck. An archbiſhoprick was founded here by Charles the Great, who made it the metropolis of the north. The archiepiſcopal ſee at Hamburg was tranſlated hither, or rather incorporated with this ſee, in 1223. Henry V. granted the cities great privileges, in reward of their valiant performances in the holy war. It had ſeveral privileges alſo granted it by the emperor Wencenſlaus, for clearing the coaſt from pirates, and protecting the merchants trading on the Weſer; and no goods were allowed to go down this river, and paſs this city, without being firſt landed here. The inhabitants have the privilege alſo of fiſhing from the bridge of Hoye, four German miles above Bremen, down to the ſea; as likewiſe in the rivers Hunte, Ochtum, Wemme, and Leeſum, which flow into the Weſer. The city is well ſupplied with fiſh, both from its rivers, and the ſea; and they have every month ſeveral ſorts in ſeaſon. Among others, they catch great quantities of ſalmon and lampreys, the former of which, being dried and ſmoked, and the latter pickled, are in great eſteem throughout all Germany. Rudolph II. endowed them with the privilege that neither their perſons nor goods ſhould be liable to arreſt, attachment, or other impoſition, throughout the empire; and Charles V. gave them the right of coinage.

On receiving the reformation in 1552, and zealouſly defending it againſt one of their archbiſhops, that emperor ordered the city to be beſieged by the duke of Brunſwick; againſt whom it made ſo gallant a defence, that, after almoſt a year's continuance, he was forced to raiſe it. The archbiſhops did not embrace the reformation till 1585. This city pretends to a right of vote and ſeſſion in the diet ever ſince Charlemagne, which was confirmed to them, though the archbiſhop oppoſed it, by the emperor Ferdinand III. in 1641. Afterwards, on the ſecularization of the archbiſhoprick in the reign of Queen Chriſtina of Sweden, new diſputes aroſe, which came to a rupture in 1654, and though they were compoſed under Charles Guſtavus in 1658, they broke out again under Charles XI. who claimed the ſovereignty of that city, as well as that of the duchy, which had been yielded to the Swedes by treaty: but the ſenate totally diſclaimed it, on the baſis of the tenth article of the treaty of Oſnaburg, whereby it was declared a free imperial city; though the archbiſhoprick, with all the rights belonging to it, was added, by the emperor and empire, to the crown of Sweden. The Swedes, nevertheleſs, not being ſatisfied, beſieged it above ſix weeks, but raiſed the ſiege, at the interpoſition of the neighbouring princes; and then followed the treaty of Habenhauſen in 1666, by which the city was obliged to part with ſome of its antient privileges, and to wave its pretenſions to the right of ſitting and voting in the diet till 1700, which right is diſputed with them to this day.

The town is governed by a ſenate, compoſed of four burgomaſters, or conſuls, and twenty-four ſenators, or common-councilmen, conſiſting of four diviſions, viz. one burgomaſter, and ſix ſenators, to each of the four wards. They are choſen out of the chief citizens, ſo that the government is a kind of ariſtocracy. This ſenate decides all cauſes, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and criminal; and from it there lies no appeal, except in the latter, where the ſum litigated exceeds ſix hundred Rheniſh guilders of gold, or about two hundred and ten pounds ſterling; in which caſe, there may lie an appeal to the imperial chamber of Wetzlar. If any of the members die, or become incapable, they muſt chuſe another in twenty-four hours; for which end, one elector is choſen out of each claſs by lot, and then ſhut up in a room, without ſeeing any one till the election is over. They have their own ſtatute-laws, which were enacted in 1281, but have been ſince amended. It has a juriſdiction of about ten miles round, abounding with paſtures, well ſtocked with cattle, and is bordered with territories belonging to his Britannic majeſty. The river Weſer, which is navigable about thirty miles from the ſea, runs through it, and divides the old city from the new; but there is a communication by a bridge of boats, and ſeveral wooden bridges. The river is

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not navigable for ships of burden farther than Fegefack, six miles below the town, where there is a custom-house, and where all ships load and unload: so that all goods are brought up from thence in flat-bottomed vessels.

The city of Bremen carries on a considerable trade with England, particularly in all sorts of Westphalian linens, and sends several ships, particularly to London, every year; here being a great consumption of the English woollen manufactures, which they receive not only from England, but chiefly by way of Hamburg and Holland, and disperse again through the whole circle of Westphalia. It sends ships likewise to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and a great number to Davis's Straits. It has a considerable inland trade, particularly to the great fairs and marts in Germany, to which, among many other goods, it sends large quantities of callicoes and sugar, printed and refined here, though not to that perfection as at Hamburgh. Its beer is very much esteemed in Germany, and therefore exported in large quantities. Its other commodities are minerals, timber, corn, cattle, and leather; in dressing of which, and cloth, they are very expert; so that both are sent hither, for that purpose, from other countries. Its duties upon importation and exportation are very low, which is a great encouragement to its trade, and gives it an advantage over the Dutch in the countries betwixt this city and their republic. It is reckoned, in short, the next port to Hamburg, in the whole empire, for commerce; and, in time of war, it also fits out ships of force to convoy their merchantmen. It generally sends twenty-five or thirty ships a year to the whale-fishery in Greenland; and their harpooners are frequently hired both by the Dutch and English, being esteemed the most expert in all Germany.

The old and new towns are both of them pretty well fortified with high walls, a broad ditch, and a counterscarp: the former has several towers on the walls, after the old manner, but the walls of the new town have eight fine bulwarks. It is, however, stronger by nature than art. A garrison of five hundred men is kept here, besides the guard, day and night, at the town-house, by two hundred of the citizens. From the city wall, or ramparts, which are planted with rows of trees, there is a most agreeable prospect of the river and adjacent country; and on it there is a road for coaches, as well as foot-passengers.

Here is a grand arsenal, well stored with artillery, small arms, and other utensils and tools of war, both antient and modern. There is also a lesser, which is a sort of armory for the burghers; it being a spacious hall, where their council of trade meets, the walls of which are handsomely adorned with small arms. At the entrance of it there is a figure of a warrior in complete armour, who, by some mechanism under the steps, as soon as you tread on them, lifts up the bearer of his helmet with his truncheon to salute you. From the gallery of the grand arsenal, which contains the greater part of the small arms, ranged in a very beautiful manner, there is a passage to the gymnasium, or academy, built after the Reformation, which was at first only a free-school, afterwards advanced to the title of an university; which, by the munificence of several worthy citizens, makes as good a figure as some of the best in Germany; and many great men have been produced by means of this seminary.

The town-house, senate, or council, is a large gothic structure, built in 1405, and adorned, on the outside, with several statues of the emperors and electors, besides those of Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, and other antients; and a picture of the old and new towns. The council-chamber has the pictures of twelve German emperors, down to Leopold. The courts of justice and other apartments here, are plainer than suits with the dignity of the offices they are put to; and the lower part, or hall, in which there are doors that lead to the courts of justice, is filled with toy and print-shops, and in others (like ours at Westminster) are sold stationary and haberdashery wares, &c. At the one end of this building, but separated by a street, there is a public structure, with a piazza and shops under it, which serves for an exchange.

Here are several hospitals, particularly, one for superannuated or disabled mariners; and another for the sick, lame, decrepid, and old poor people, of both sexes. It is a plain, but commodious structure, with a very handsome chapel. Adjoining to it is a house of correction for vagabonds and criminals, where lunatics are also kept, and such as happen to kill a person inadvertently, the plea of chance-medley not being admitted in this country. Such a strict discipline is kept in it, that it is observed, though there are at least an hundred profligate persons in it, not an indecent word is heard out of their mouths, they being almost continually obliged to accompany the task-master in singing psalms and hymns.

The new town, on the south side of the Weser, in which stands the university and the arsenal, consists chiefly of gardens and little pleasure-houses, belonging to the principal merchants and other inhabitants of the old city, has larger and much more regular streets than the latter, and they are most of them planted with wild chesnut and lime-trees.

The old town is said to have been walled eight hundred years ago. On the largest of its wooden bridges there is an engine that raises water, and distributes it all over the city; and there is a sort at the head of it, which is well guarded. The streets of this town, on the north side of the river (in which are the cathedral and senate-house) center in the market-place, wherein stands an old gigantic image, one of those erected in many of the German cities, by order of Charles the Great, by the name of Statua Rolandina; on which is an antient inscription, denoting it to be a testimonial of the liberty granted by Charles the Great to this city. On the opposite side of the market is a public-house, which, at the same time, serves as a sort of common hall for the several colleges or assemblies of the burghers and the council of trade.

There is a spacious wine-cellar under the senate-house, wherein are five huge vessels, each of which contains upwards of an hundred hogsheads, whereof four are always kept full of Rhenish wine, and the fifth is left empty, to gratify such as have the curiosity to enter it. There is one vault of choice old hock, the key of which is kept by the presiding burgomaster, and only a number of bottles left in the hands of the master of the cellar, to be sold at about a dollar, or four and six-pence a bottle. The custom, which afterwards became general in the other Hanse towns, of swearing new-comers by bread and salt, and making them free, on paying a fine of good liquor to the company, is said to have originated here. The city coins a little piece of money of its own, called a groat, which is worth about a halfpenny: an hundred and sixty-three of their yards make one hundred English.

The little town of Ottersburg is situated about fourteen miles north-east of Bremen: it has a strong castle, or pass, on the borders of the bishoprick, and was formerly the bishop's seat. It was twice taken by the Imperialists, and once by the Swedes, in the German civil wars. It has a pretty large borough on the river Wemme, from whence the road towards Bremen is very bad, sandy, and full of the branches of the river, in the middle of which is a fort, with four bastions, that commands a long dike, or causeway, with several cuts in it, over which are bridges.

On the other side of the town, at the distance of twelve miles, stood the monastery of Closterseven, charmingly situated, which is now a considerable borough, adorned with many fine gardens, and embellished with a handsome church. This is the place where, in 1757, the convention was concluded between the duke of Cumberland and the duke de Richlieu, the French general.

Besides the above, here is, 1. The large village of Scharmbeck, which gives name to a district. 2, 3. Hagen and Stotel, which give names to bailiwicks. 4. Bardel. 5. Neuenwalde.

Wildeshausen bailiwick, on the Hemte, has but an indifferent soil. The crown of Sweden, in 1700, mortgaged this bailiwick to the electoral house of Brunswick Lunenburg; and in 1720, at the peace of Stockholm, made over all right and claim thereto, as well as to Bremen and Verden.

The town of Wildeshausen, from which the whole receives its name. It is situated on the Hemte, contains about three hundred dwelling houses, a few churches, and some other public buildings; about half the inhabitants are Roman catholicks, who are not allowed the use of bells, church-music, or processions: nor are they permitted to be baptized, married, or buried by their own priests, but must have those ceremonies performed by a Lutheran minister. The vestiges of an antient abbey, and the ruins of an old castle, are still to be seen here.

The principality of Lunenberg-Zell is bounded on the north by the duchy of Lawenburg and the Elbe; on the south by Calenberg, Hildersheim, and part of Brunswick; on the east by another part of Brunswick, and the duchy of Mecklenburg; and on the west by Bremen, Verden, and Hoya.

The soil is in many parts sandy, heathy, and marshy; the banks of the Elbe, Aller, and Jetze, however, are fertile, and abound in wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, buck-wheat,

wheat, pulſe, hops, alder, pines, beach, oak, firs, birch, flax, hemp, &c. Here are likewiſe plenty of horſes, cattle, ſheep, bees, veniſon, ſalt-ſprings, and lime-ſtone. The rivers Elbe, Aller, and Ilmenau, produce great quantities of fiſh, and, being all navigable, are of great advantage to the country in a commercial point of view.

This whole principality contains about two hundred Lutheran churches, which are under the direction of two general, and fifteen ſubordinate ſuperintendants. The manufactures are linens, ribbons, hats, bleached wax, gold wires, ſilver ditto, cottons, ſtockings, ſtarch, refined ſugars, wooden wares, barges ready built, ſmall ſhips and boats.

The king of Great Britain, on account of this principality, has a ſeat and voice both in the college of the princes of the empire, and the circle of Lower Saxony. The revenues ariſe from the demeſne, tolls on the Elbe, contributions, duties on cattle, beer, wine, brandy, and other commodities.

The principal places are the following; viz. 1. Lunenburg, the metropolis of the principality. This is a large city, ſituated on the river Elmen, or Elmenau, which is navigable from hence to the Elbe. It is twenty-ſeven miles from Hamburg, and ſixty-eight from Hanover. It was formerly a Hanſe-town, and an imperial city, and at preſent is ſuppoſed to contain about nine thouſand inhabitants. Here were formerly ſeveral convents, out of the revenues of one of which, viz. the Benedictine, an academy for martial exerciſes was founded, where the youth of the principality are taught the French language, dancing, fencing, and riding.

A Latin ſchool, conſiſting of four claſſes, was likewiſe founded, and well endowed, out of the ſame revenues. The ſuperintendency of theſe, and the eſtate appropriated to their ſupport, is veſted in a landſchaff director, and an aufreiter, who are both ſelected from the Lunenburg nobility. The firſt of theſe officers is the head of the ſtates of the principality, and the preſident of the provincial college. He aſſumes the title of excellency, and in public writings ſtiles himſelf, "By the grace of God, landſchaff-director, and lord of the manſion of St. Michael, in Lunenburg."

The public edifices are, three pariſh churches, three hoſpitals, a ſalt magazine, an anatomical theatre, the ducal palace, the town-houſe, the academy, the barracks for the garriſon, and the conventical church of St. Michael, in which the antient dukes lie interred, and where the celebrated table taken from the Saracens by the emperor Otho is depoſited: it is eight feet long, and four broad, was plated over with chaſe gold, and had a rim richly embelliſhed with precious ſtones of an immenſe value; but in 1698, a gang of robbers broke into the church, ſtripped this magnificent table of a large diamond, two hundred emeralds and rubies, and moſt of the gold.

Here are many rich ſalt-ſprings, a fifth of the product of which belongs to the king of Great Britain. The ſalt is the beſt in Germany. The other articles, in which the commercial part of the inhabitants deal, are wool, honey, wax, lime-ſtone, flax, linen, beer, &c. and warehouſes are erected along the borders of the Elmenau, for the reception of goods from all parts of Germany, to be conveyed to Lubeck and Hamburgh.

2. The town of Bugdorf, on the Aw, which gives name to a bailiwick and ſuperintendency. 3. Ahlden, on the Aw, where Sophia Dorothea, conſort of his Britannic majeſty George I. reſided, after their ſeparation, till her death in 1726. It is the ſeat of a bailiwick.

4. Ulrzen, which is a neat, little, compact town, at the conflux of the Wiper and two other rivulets, which form the river Elmenau: it is twenty ſix miles ſouth of Lunenburg, and thirty-three north-eaſt of Zell. It was formerly called Lawenwald, i. e. Lion Foreſt, and had its preſent name from the neighbouring monaſtery of Oldenſtadt, formerly called Old Ulſen. It is ſaid that the firſt Anglo-Saxons came to Britain from this place, and thoſe who returned hung up a gilt tin ſhip in the market-place, as a memorial of their ſucceſs, which continued there till 1646, when moſt of the town was burnt down, and never wholly rebuilt ſince; but the houſes are more ſplendid and regular than before, and the ſtreets larger.

5. Hudemuhlen, on the Aller. 6. Rethem, on the ſame river, and gives name to a bailiwick. 7. Garto. 8. Brome, on the Ohre. Theſe two laſt belong to the barons of Berufdorf. 9. Elſel, on the Aller, gives name to a diſtrict. 10. Soltau, at the conflux of the Soltau and Bohme, gives name to a bailiwick. 11, 12, 13. Klotze, Fullerfleben, and Gifforn, give name each to a bailiwick and ſuperintendency. 14. Wittengen, an old town in the bailiwick of Kneſebec. 15. Hoſſering, on the Hardau. 16. Badenleick, ſituated on a lake. 17. Wuſtro. 18. Blekede, on the Elbe. 19. Dalenburg, on the Retze.

20. The ſmall town of Hitzacker is ſituated in a little iſland in the Jetzer. Here is a great annual fair; and the bailiwick, to which the town gives name, contains the foreſt of Ghorde, which is about ſixteen miles in compaſs.

21. The town of Zell is ſeated on a ſandy plain, near the conflux of the Aller and Fuhſe, twenty-four miles north of Hanover, and forty-ſeven ſouth of Harburg. The town is antient, having a charter dated in 1203, wherein it is called Tſelle. It only conſiſts of three ſtreets that run parallel, but is well fortified, the ramparts being broad and high, well mounted with cannon, but not regular. Here are held the chief courts of judicature for this dutchy; and in 1485, its duke, Henry, built a palace next to that called the Hanover Gate, which is a ſquare building, with four platforms at the four corners, moated round. Several coaches may go in front on the terrace round the town, which is adorned with trees planted all along; and the adjacent fine gardens, orchards, and grottoes, form a very agreeable landſcape. There is but one church in the town, and that without a ſteeple. The French refugees have their church in the ſuburbs, which are very large. Here are ſtill a great many French catholics, as well as Proteſtants, and the former have a chapel. All the buildings are of timber, except the churches, the caſtle, and the houſe of correction, which are of brick. The elector has a regency here, which judges all cauſes without any appeal to the council of ſtate at Hanover. Betwixt this town and Harburg is a ſandy road, with ſcarce any thing but heath. The poſt ſtages, which are of four miles, are very ill ſerved, and the inns the worſt in Germany. Though there is a good deal of heath betwixt this town and Hanover, yet the country is very well cultivated; for the inhabitants not only make turf of the heath for fuel, but it alſo ſerves for paſturage and manure. By the river Aller, a trade is carried on from hence to Bremen.

The caſtle of Ahlen is in the neighbourhood of this town: the heireſs of Lunenburg-Zell, who was married to the late elector, and afterwards divorced, died in it, after thirty years reſidence; which was more a voluntary retirement than any ſort of confinement, and where ſhe had the beſt of uſage and reſpect, and full liberty to go whither ſhe pleaſed; and here the late queen of Denmark retired, after the unhappy treatment ſhe experienced at the Daniſh court.

During the war in 1757, a moſt barbarous tranſaction reduced the inhabitants of Zell to great diſtreſs; for, after the convention above-mentioned, the duke de Richlieu, commander of the French forces, by a piece of cruelty ſcarce to be paralleled in hiſtory, ordered not only the ſuburbs of Zell to be burnt, but even the orphan-houſe, which contained a great number of children, to be ſet fire to, when the whole was reduced to aſhes, and a great number of the poor innocent infants periſhed in the flames—the ſtain of which barbarous act will remain indelible on that *polite* nation to the lateſt poſterity!

The town of Bardewic on the Luke, is ſituated four miles from Lunenburg: it was formerly a ſtrong populous city, but is now a ſtraggling village: it had nine churches, of which the cathedral only is left, wherein there is ſtill a college of eight reſidentiary canons, and a few vicars; but the biſhopric was transferred to Verden, and the diſtrict about the church was transformed into kitchen-gardens. Over the gate, there are ſome barbarous Latin verſes, in an old Gothic character, which ſhew that the town was built two hundred and thirty-five years before Rome, and deſtroyed by Henry the Lion, in 1189. They write, that he took this revenge on the city becauſe it refuſed to acknowledge him, after he was proſcribed by the emperor Frederic I.

In the moſt eaſtern part of this duchy, ſtands the town of Daneburg, on the river Jetze, ſix miles from its influx into the Elbe, and thirty-three ſouth eaſt of Lunenburg. It is the capital of the rich and fruitful county of this name, which was given by its count, in 1642, to Otho, duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, and yielded by the latter to the houſe of Lunenburg Zell, for their pretenſions to the city of Brunſwic. This country lies along the Elbe, having Mecklenburg on the north, the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the eaſt and ſouth, and the duchy of Lunenburg on the weſt. The Germans write this place Dannenburg, agreeable to the etymology of its name, which ſignifies a Mountain of Fir-trees.

The other towns in this dutchy are, 1. Snackenburg, a large trading town at the confluence of the Elbe and Weckt, or Beſſe, ſixty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Lunenburg;

2. Harburg, on the Seeve, fifty miles from Zell. 3. Lucino, on the Jetze. 4. Lune, a village. 5. Medingen, on the Elmenau. 6. Winsen-an-der-Luke, a small city on the Luke. 7. Ebstorf. 8. Wienhausen, on the Aller. The two last contain convents for ladies. 9. Isenhagen, on the Ise, has likewise a Lutheran convent for ladies. 10. Walstrode, that is, Walo's Cross, on the river Bohome, twenty-five miles north-west of Zell, and forty south-west of Lunenburg, not far from the confines of the dutchy of Verden.

Grabenhagen principality is surrounded by Calenburg, Wolfenbuttle, Wernegerode, Blackenburg, Hohenstein, Klettenburg, &c. Some parts of it are fertile, and others very rich, producing wheat, barley, pease, buck-wheat, slate, marble, jasper, sulphur, zink, rye, oats, beans, flax, lime-stone, alabaster, sand-stone, salt, cobalt, gold, silver, lead, iron, and copper.

Here are several quarries, or mines, which are chiefly in the mountain and forest called the Hantz. The rivers are the Leine, the Oder, and the Ocker. The states are composed of the abbey of St. Alexander, and that of the blessed Virgin at Einbeck; the noble proprietors of mine manors, and the cities of Einbeck and Osterode, at which the diets are alternately held once a year.

The manufactures and commodities of the country are flax, linen, sand-stone, marble, copper, iron, lead, slate, timber, salt, sulphur, zink, starch, printed cottons, woollen goods, thread, fire-arms, vitriol, lapis calaminaris, powder-blue, &c.

The electors, on account of this principality, have a vote in the college of princes, both in the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle of Lower Saxony. The sovereign's revenues arise from the produce of the demesnes, and of the mines; and appeals lie from the courts here to the chancery of Hanover.

The principal places are the following: 1. Einbeck, the capital of the principality; it is situated at the conflux of the Ilme and the Leine, about forty-two miles from Hanover. It is well fortified by towers, bulwarks, ramparts, a double ditch, and outworks; and is surrounded by a fine country, very fertile, particularly in corn. It was formerly a free imperial town, and its magistrates still enjoy some valuable privileges. It is large and populous, divided into three parts, called the Munster, the Neustadt, and the Markt, and has a tolerable trade, particularly in beer, woollen manufactures, and printed cottons. It was formerly a bishop's see, the cathedral and chapter of which still remain. The latter consists of a Lutheran senior, nine canons, one vicar, and four vicarii ordinarii, who, together, send a deputy to the diet. The revenues of the antient abbey of the blessed Virgin are now enjoyed by a senior and nine canons, who have likewise a representative at the diets. A large district belongs to and is subject to the jurisdiction of Einbeck, which formerly coined gold, silver, and copper money, and was a town so early as 1256.

2. The mine town of Wildeman is surrounded on all sides by lofty rugged mountains. 3, 4. Lautenthal and Schulenburg. 5. Collerfeld. 6. St. Andreasberg, a mine-town, pleasantly situated. 7. Altenau, a small mine-town in a valley.

8. The large open mine-town of Clausthall contains near a thousand houses, and above ten thousand inhabitants. Here is a silver smalting-house and a mint, where about five hundred thousand rix dollars are annually coined. The place is defended by a garrison of invalids, and contains two churches, an orphan-house, a grammar-school, a mine-office, and a forest-bailiwick-office. Though the rest of the country is so pleasant, the air of the Hantz-Forest, almost the whole year round, is so cold, and rain, hail, snow, fogs, storms, &c. are so frequent, that the cultivation of the land cannot be pursued with any degree of success. On the mountain, which covers part of the forest, are produced oaks, ash, alder, pines, beech, aspin, birch, and firs; and this amazing plenty of wood is of the utmost importance, as, without it, the mining works could not be carried on. That part of the forest called Brunswic-Lunenburg-Hartz is divided into mine and forest-bailiwicks, part of which belong to the king of Great Britain, and part to the prince of Brunswic. The inhabitants of the Hartz are composed of miners, smalters, officers, handicraftsmen, wood-heavers, carriers, servants, ministers, and school-masters.

9. The town of Osterode is situated not far from the Hartz, and is divided into Old and New Town: it contains about three hundred houses, three parish-churches, a grammar-school, woollen-manufactory, &c. 10. Salzder Helden, on the Leine. 11. Herberg. 12. Scharzfels is defended by a castle situated on a high rock. The castle gives name to a bailiwick, which contains stone-quarries, iron-works, chalk-pits, copper-mines, a linen manufactory, and plenty of flax: in the neighbourhood are fine caverns, called the Scharzfel caves, where the ebur, fossile, and drop-stone are found. 13. Lautenbury, on the Oder. 14. Elbingerode, which gives name to a bailiwick, that abounds in pine, slate, warm baths, marble, iron ore, jasper, &c.

There is a mill, at the village of Lucashoff, for sawing marble; at those of Ludershoff and New Hutte, are flatting-mills; and at Konigshoff stood antiently the palace of Konigsburg.

Calenberg principality is bounded, on the south by Grubenhagon, on the north by Lunenburg, on the west by Schawenburg and Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, and on the east by the bishopric of Hildesheim. It is thirty-five miles in length from north to south, and eighteen in breadth from east to west. A considerable part of this principalty is mountainous and barren, but other districts are rich and fertile, and abound in corn, pulse, tobacco, beech, pine, aspin, flax, fruit-trees, oak, alder, birch, turf, coal, free-stone, mill-stone, horses, black cattle, sheep, venison, game, marl, iron ore, salt springs, medicinal springs, &c. and the streams abound with all kinds of fish.

In this principality are three protestant abbeys and six convents, of which three are inhabited by men and six by women. Lutheranism is the established religion; and the Lutherans have two hundred churches; the Calvinists are allowed five, and the Roman catholics six.

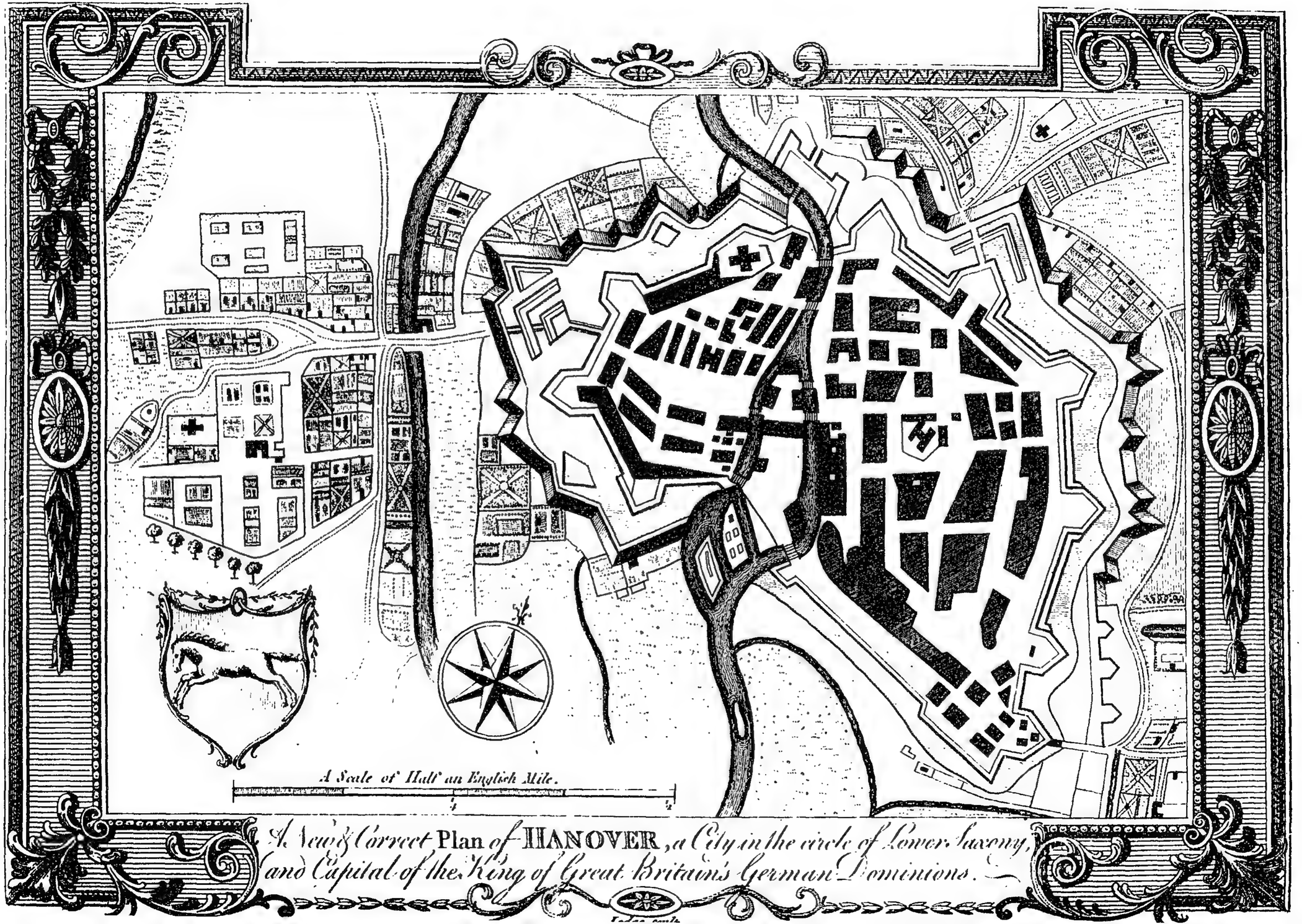
The commodities and manufactures of the country are wool, cotton, tobacco, flax, silk, gold lace, silver ditto, embroideries, leather, carpets, stone wares, iron, brass, copper, glass, galoons, fringes, tassels, gunpowder, linen, &c.

The French, in 1757, over-ran this principality, and did great damage, though they were soon dispossessed of it. The proprietor of it is entitled to a vote in the college of princes at the diet of the empire, and that of the circle. To the supreme tribunal of Hanover it nominates two assessors, and two to the high court of appeal at Zell. The revenues arise from demesnes, excise, a military tax, stamp-duty, card ditto, duty on corn, cattle, sheep, magazines, &c.

The principal towns and places are the following; viz. 1. Hanover, which is the metropolis and seat of the present elector, as it always was of the dukes, after the removal of their court hither from Calenberg, on the death of George, the last duke of Brunswick-Calenberg. It is pleasantly situated in a sandy soil, on the river Leine, which is navigable here for small boats. It is twenty-six miles south-west from Zell, twenty-seven west from Brunswick, and three hundred and sixty-five east from London. It was antiently called Lawenroda, from a neighbouring castle, subject to the counts of that title; and had its present name in Henry the Lion's time, because of a ferry here; Hanover in the old Saxon dialect, signifying as much as Have-over in English. It is divided by the river into the New and Old Towns. Most of the houses are of timber and clay, but there are many of brick and stone. The streets are regular, broad, and well furnished with lanthorns for the winter nights. It is regularly fortified, and the ravelins before the gates are well mounted with cannon. Here was once a monastery, since metamorphosed into a palace, at one end of the city, near the ramparts, though they scarce deserve that name. It is a large structure of free stone, with several square courts, and fine staircases; but the whole is rather commodious than magnificent: it is, however, adorned with charming tapestry and paintings, and very richly furnished. Here is a closet of rarities, with a noble collection of medals, antient and modern, and a very fine chapel. When the court is here, there are frequent concerts, balls, and assemblies; and a French comedy used to be acted three times a week, at a pretty theatre in the palace, where all people are admitted gratis, the expence being defrayed by the elector. Here is also an opera-house visited by all foreigners, the paintings and contrivance being not inferior to any in Europe of the kind.

The most remarkable of its churches are, 1. St. James's, in which there are two crucifixes, with fine pictures of the apostles and many saints, though the Lutherans pay no adoration to them. 2. That of the Holy Cross, much finer and neater than the other, having a double row of galleries round it from the altar, and upon the first the history of the gospel in fifty-three parts, painted by the ablest masters. Besides these, there are St. George's and

St.



A New & Correct Plan of HANOVER, a City in the circle of Lower Saxony, and Capital of the King of Great Britain's German Dominions.

St. Giles's churches. Here are four fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners. It was once a free imperial city, and a Hanſe town, when it had a flouriſhing commerce; but its chief trade now is in that ſweet, but muddy liquor, called Brewhan, which they ſend in great quantities to the neigbouring towns and villages. This liquor had the name from a famous brewer, one Conrade Brewhan, of this neighbourhood; who, having ſerved his time at Hamburg, came and ſet up here in 1526. Though it is not a large town, it is bigger than Zell. The Roman catholic church here was granted to thoſe of that communion by Erneſt, the firſt elector, as one of the conditions demanded by the emperor Leopold,* who inveſted him, and alſo engaged him to admit of an apoſtolical vicar in his dominions, and to permit him to reſide at Hanover. Here is a conſiderable number of Roman catholics, but the nobility and gentry are almoſt all Lutherans. The princeſs Sophia cauſed a new church to be built here for the French refugees, to which our king William III. was alſo a benefactor. Beſides a houſe here for orphans, there is one hoſpital within the town, and another without. This city has acquired a new luſtre ſince the acceſſion of the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover to the electoral college in the diet of the empire; but more eſpecially ſince its advancement to the throne of Great Britain; and is of particular note for the famous treaty concluded here in 1725, to counterbalance that of Vienna, between the Roman catholic powers.

There are ſeveral pretty ſeats in the neighbourhood; one particularly called the Fantaſy, or the Whim; and another Montbrillant, or Mount Pleaſance; which were built by two ſiſters-in-law; viz. Madame de Kilmanſeck (late counteſs of Arlington), and the counteſs of Platen. Theſe lead to the pleaſant palace of Herenhauſen (i. e. the Houſe of the Lord of the Manor), a caſtle built on the river Leine, by order of the prince who was the firſt elector, about the ſame diſtance north from Hanover as the palace of Kenſington from St. James's. A ſtrait walk leads up to the houſe, which is adorned with charming gardens; a wilderneſs of ever-greens; one of the largeſt and nobleſt orangeries in Europe; a perfect theatre cut out into green ſeats, with arbours and ſummer houſes on both ſides of it, for the actors to dreſs in, the whole ſet off with fine ſtatues, many of them gilt; and, above all, here are noble fountains, with very large baſons, beautiful caſcades, and water-works that throw the water up much higher than the famous fountain at St. Cloud in France, which was always looked upon as the moſt conſiderable of the kind till this was ſet up, by the direction of William Benſon, Eſq; whom his late majeſty took with him to Hanover, for that purpoſe, in 1716, made him ſurveyor-general of his works, and gave him other marks of his favour.

2. The village of Linner. 3. Rehburg is the ſeat of a bailiwick, which yields grain, flax, hops, oak, beech, coal, &c. 4. Ricklingen is a parochial village, near which is a ſtone monument erected to the memory of duke Albert of Saxony. 5. Neuſtadtam Rubenberge, on the Leine, gives name to a bailiwick and ſuperintendency. 6. Calenburg, from which the principality took its name. 7, 8. 9, 10. Marienſee, Wennigſen, Marienwarder, and Walſinghauſen, have each Lutheran convents for ladies, and ſend repreſentatives to the aſſemblies of the ſtates. 11. Marienrode. 12. Munder, on the Hamel. 13. Lockum. 14. Eldagſen. 15. Winſtorf, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and of a Lutheran abbey, to which belong an abbeſs and four conventualiſts, with ſeveral canons. The abbey has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the principality; it was founded in 870, by a biſhop of Minden.

16. Hamelen, which is a very ancient city, twenty-three miles ſouth-weſt from Hanover, and forty-one ſouth from Brunſwick. It is ſituated in a fine country, on the river Hamel, from which it takes its name. The Hamel diſembogues itſelf into the Weſer, on which an admirable ſluice was finiſhed in 1734, at a great expence. There is likewiſe a bridge of nine wooden arches over the Weſer. The other public edifices are an abbey, two Lutheran churches, a Calviniſt ditto, barracks, an hoſpital, a poor-houſe, a town-houſe, and a free ſchool.

Woollen, ſilk, linen, and leather manufactories, are carried on here. The magiſtrates are allowed to coin money, and have very extenſive privileges, and civil and criminal juriſdiction within their liberties, which contain many villages, foreſts, a ferry, &c. The abbot of Fulda, who was formerly ſovereign of the town, ſold it to the biſhop of Minden; and when the latter came to take poſſeſſion of it, the citizens oppoſed him, but were defeated with great ſlaughter, near Sedemunde.

17. The town of Bodenwerder, which is ſubject to inundations. 18. Lauenau gives name to a bailiwick. 19. Reker. 20. Erzen, on the Humme. 21. Sprunge gives name to a bailiwick. 22. Lawenſtein, the capital of a bailiwick. 23. Hemmendorf, on the Saal. 24. Salz-Hemmendorf, a borough. 25. Dumgen. 26. Grohode. 27. Polle, on the Weſer, the ſeat of a bailiwick.

28. The town of Gottingen is ſituated on the New Leine, which is a canal drawn from the Old Leine, and about fifty miles from Hanover. It is ſtrong, well-built, and well-paved. The ancient gymnaſium was, in 1734, converted by his Britannic majeſty, king George II. into an univerſity. Its library is the beſt in Germany: and here is alſo a fine obſervatory, an anatomical theatre, a phyſic-garden, a ſchool for teaching midwifery, an academy of exerciſes, ſciences, and belles lettres, and a German ſociety, which are all included under, and belong to, the univerſity. The Latin ſchool has eight maſters, and is under very good regulations. Here are an armoury, ſix Lutheran churches, and one Calviniſt ditto, an alms-houſe with a church belonging to it, and an orphan-houſe. The ſauſages made here are in great eſteem.

On a hill, in the territory belonging to the town, antiently ſtood an imperial burgh and palatine town, called Grone, which was the principal reſidence of the Saxon emperors after Otho the great. The town's eſtate and juriſdiction are very conſiderable, conſiſting of ſeveral villages, woods, meadows, and paſtures. It was formerly one of the Hanſe, and had a mint for coining. This town was for ſome time in the hands of the French, namely in the campaigns of 1757 and 1758.

29. Lauenforde, on the Weſer. 30. Norton, on the Leine. 31. Hedemunden, on the Werra. 32. Sichelſtein (in Engliſh, Sickle-ſtone). 33. Burſfield. 34. Northeim, on the Rhume. 35. Hardegſen, on the Eſpolde. 36. Uſlar, divided into the Old and New, the former of which is walled. 37. Dransfield, between Goſſingen and Minden. 38. Moringen, on the river Mohr. 39. Munden, ſituated in a vale on the Fulda, which a little below joins the Werra, and then the united ſtreams take the name of the Weſer. Theſe rivers, with the iſlands they form, and the neighbouring gardens, hills, woods, &c. afford a moſt delightful proſpect. The buildings are two Lutheran churches, one Calviniſt ditto, a bridge over the Werra, a free-ſchool, and barracks for a regiment of ſoldiers. The gardens within and around the town amount to the amazing number of two thouſand; and the manufactures are ſilk, flax, and tobacco.

This being the commercial centre for Heſſe, Thuringia, Nuremberg, Franckfort, Franconia, Bavaria, and all parts of Saxony, a great number of factors reſide here; and none, who are not freemen of Minden, are allowed to trade beyond this town, but muſt conſign their goods to factors here; and whatever is brought in any veſſel muſt, according to the ſtaple weight, be unladen here. On Tueſdays and Fridays a veſſel goes up the Fulda from hence to Capel, which none but Freemen of Munden have a right to navigate. The French had for ſome time poſſeſſion of this town, in the laſt war, in the reign of George II.

Wolfenbuttle principaliy is part of the duchy of Brunſwic, being divided into two parts by the dioceſe of Hildeſheim and the principality of Halberſtadt. The northern port is rather level, and produces conſiderable quantities of grain, flax, hemp, pulſe, fruits, cattle, ſilk, &c. The ſouthern parts contain ſeveral mines and ſalt-works. The ſtates deputize repreſentatives to the diets, which are held at Brunſwic four times a year. The chief manufactures are flax, ſilk, wool, tobacco, glaſs, lead, iron, ſteel, porcelain, wax, blacking, &c. The high colleges for this principality are the privy-council, convent-office, chancery, treaſury, high court of juſtice, and conſiſtory. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion. The rivers are the Weſer, Leine, Ocker, Schimter, and Aller.

The town of Brunſwic, which is the metropolis of the country, ſtands ſixty-one miles weſt from Magdeburg. It had its name from the founder, Bruno, duke of Saxony, who built it in the year 861. It was once a Hanſe town, and an Imperial free city. Though at preſent much decayed from its priſtine ſplendor, it is ſtill rich and populous. It is ſituated on the Ocker, contains handſome houſes, is well paved, and very ſtrongly fortified. It is about two miles in circumference, and divided into the Old and New Town. The principal trade is in leather, butter, hops and mum.

The chief buildings are the ducal palace, which is capacious, magnificent, ſplendidly furniſhed, and contains many

many fine paintings, an excellent library, and a cabinet of curioſities; an armory, a cavalier-houſe, an academy for martial exerciſes, a college, a play-houſe, a cuſtom-houſe, a houſe of correction, a council-houſe in the Old and New Town, a mint, an orphan-houſe, two gymnaſiums, a college of phyſic, an anatomy and ſurgery-ſchool, a lazaretto, a caſtle, St. Leonard's hoſpital, a kind of college called the Templehof, which formerly belonged to the knight's templars; and the following churches; one for the Calviniſts, one for the Roman catholicks, and ten for the Lutherans, among which is the cathedral, dedicated to St. Blaſius, which contains the ducal burying-place, the records of the electoral family, and two large monuments of duke Henry the Lion, and his ſecond conſort. The chapter of this cathedral conſiſts of a provoſt, a dean, a ſenior, ten canons, and ſeveral inferior prebendaries and vicars: but the dean is the firſt member of the ſtates. The Lutheran foundation of St. Eyriac conſiſts of a dean, who is one of the ſtates, a great committee, and five canons.

The convent of Riddaghauſen is about two miles from Brunſwic; the ramparts of the city are planted with mulberry-trees, and the gardens belonging to the ducal palace are laid out in a very exquiſite taſte. Spinning was introduced here in the year 1530, by one Jurgen, a ſtatuary and ſtone-cutter. This was the firſt capital place that embraced the Reformation. The road from hence to Wolfenbuttle is paved, and lined on each ſide with trees. The Lutheran convent of the Holy Croſs has a church of its own, and is ſituated without St. Peter's Gate. The French got poſſeſſion of this city in 1757, but evacuated it in the following year.

Scheppenſtadt, on the Altenau, is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency; and in the village of Lucklum there is a commander of the Teutonic order.

The village of Salzdalum gives name to a bailiwick, and takes its own from a conſiderable ſalt-work in the neighbourhood. The ducal palace here has a fine large gallery, which contains above a thouſand pictures, by the moſt eminent maſters; and here is likewiſe a ſmall gallery, embelliſhed with many beautiful paintings. In the china cabinet are above eight thouſand pieces of exquiſite beauty, and in another above a thouſand enamels of Raphael de Urbino, admirably executed. The great gallery is two hundred feet long, fifty broad, and forty high, and the leſſer are an hundred and ſixty long and twenty broad. In the latter, beſides the above cabinet, are ſix ſmaller ones, for curioſities of art and nature. Adjoining to the palace is a convent, which ſends repreſentatives to the diets; was founded by duke Antony Ulric and his dutcheſs, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and has a provoſt, a domina, and fifteen ſiſters of noble families. The garden, chapel, &c. are extremely grand.

The town of Wolfenbuttle, from whence the dutchy is denominated, ſtands on the river Ocker, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Brunſwick, nineteen eaſt of Hildeſheim, and twenty-ſix north-weſt of Halberſtadt. It is the antient ſeat of the dukes, being ſtrong, by its ſituation near the marſhes, and ſo well fortified, that it is reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Germany; and here is an arſenal, well furniſhed. It is divided into two parts, one called Arx Guelphica, which is the ducal palace, ſo named from duke Ecbert, of the family of the Guelphs: the other, Henrickſtadt, from the founder, duke Henry. The palace, which is the ſtrongeſt and moſt ſtately that belongs to the duke's family, has noble apartments, rich furniture, coſtly paintings, and a library reckoned one of the beſt in Europe, which was founded by the learned duke Auguſtus. The librarian's catalogue, publiſhed in 1604, numbered the volumes at one hundred and ſixty-four thouſand; another in 1660, mentioned only twenty-ſeven thouſand, ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix volumes, and one hundred, fifteen thouſand, five hundred and four tracts, by fifty-ſix thouſand, three hundred and ninety-three authors. There are two thouſand MSS. particularly four hundred and thirty-eight folios of French embaſſies, tranſcribed from the French king's library; forty-one volumes written by the founder himſelf, twelve of which are on muſic, beſides his Commentary on Trithemius's Cryptography, and a very learned tract on the antiquity and myſtery of the game of cheſs.

The new church here is an admirable piece of architecture, and twenty-one dukes and dutcheſſes are interred under it: here is alſo an academy and a muſeum. The town is not half ſo big as Brunſwic. There is another palace of the duke's at Saltzdahl (about a league from the town, and from Brunſwic), the road to which is lined with a very fine row of trees. This caſtle, built by duke Antony Ulric, is as magnificent a ſtructure as any that has been raiſed by ſovereign princes; and, beſides its immenſely rich furniture, there is a numerous, but choice collection of pictures, in a great gallery, which is one of the fineſt rooms in all Germany; and there are two cabinets, one full of vaſes and urns, painted by Raphael, and the other full of the fineſt porcelane.

Twenty miles eaſt of Brunſwic and Wolfenbuttle, and near the frontiers of Magdeburg, ſtands the town of Helmſtadt, which has its name from the elms about it. Charles the Great built this town, anno 782: it is chiefly noted for the Academia Julia, or univerſity founded and richly endowed, about 1576, by duke Julius, and his ſon Henry Julius, who alſo furniſhed it with a good library. It has very conſiderable privileges, particularly one granted by the emperor Maximilian II. that its rector is to have for ever the title and dignity of count palatine. The elector of Hanover, and the duke of Wolfenbuttle, are joint ſovereigns, and have the direction of it alternately. No univerſity in Germany has made a better figure, or had more learned Lutheran profeſſors than this. The three faculties, on account of which it confers degrees, are divinity, law, and phyſic. Among the manuſcripts in its library, there is an antient Hebrew pentateuch, in two volumes, for which ſome Jewiſh rabbies offered a great ſum. The town is encompaſſed with walls, ditches, and ramparts: has three churches, and a fine ſuburb, called Oſtendorff. The faculty of divines here was charged with giving their opinion in the caſe of the marriage of the princeſs of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, with the late emperor Charles VI. that a proteſtant princeſs might, with a ſafe conſcience, embrace the Romiſh religion; but they refuted it in 1708, by a public declaration, as a popiſh forgery.

The abbey of Gandersheim is ſituated on the borders of the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, eighteen miles ſouth-weſt of Goſlar, which was founded by a duke of Saxony, in the ninth century, for ladies of noble families; and its firſt abbeſſes were ſucceſſively the founder's three daughters. It is now greatly reduced, and depends on the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, who maintains an abbeſs, four canoneſſes, and eight canons. Though this abbey is in Lower Saxony, the abbeſs takes her ſeat among the prelates of the Rhine. It embraced the Reformation in the ſixteenth century, ſo that the abbeſs and nuns are Lutherans. Its bailiwick is about two miles in compaſs, and contains about twenty villages. There is a caſtle in the bailiwick, which is watered by the river Ganda, that runs into the Leine.

In this principality are alſo the following towns and places; 1. Scheningen, which has a ſuperintendency. 2. Konigſlutter, on the rivulet of Lutter. Here is at preſent a Lutheran monaſtery, governed by an abbot, a prior, and four conventuals. In its church lie buried the emperor Lotharius, his empreſs Richenza, and duke Henry the Magnanimous. It takes precedence of the other convents in the principality, and ſends a repreſentative to the diet, and the grand committee. 2. Supplengenbury, a commandery of the order of St. John. 3. Calvorde, on the Ohre. 4. Vorsfeld, a market-town on the Aller, is the ſeat of a bailiwick and ſuperintendency. 5. Heſſen. 6. Marienburg. 7. Marienthal. 8. Seeſen, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency and bailiwick. 9. Gittel. 10. Julius Halle.

The moſt remarkable places between the Weſer and the Leine are, 1. Holzmunden. 2. Stadt-Olendorf, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency. 3. Amelunxborn. 4. Eſcherhauſen. 5. Otterſtein, which gives name to a bailiwick. 6. Furſtenberg. 7. Greene, on the Leine. 8. Bevern, a market-town on the Bever.

Mecklenburg dutchy is bounded by Pomerania on the eaſt, by the biſhoprick of Lubeck, and the territories of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, on the weſt; by the electorate of Brandenburg on the ſouth, and by the Baltick on the north. It is ſituated between fifty-three degrees, ten minutes, and fifty-four degrees, forty minutes, north latitude; and between thirty-one and thirty-four degrees, thirty-five minutes weſt longitude, from the iſland of Ferro, being an hundred and thirty-five miles in length, and about ninety at its greateſt breadth. It is well watered by ſeveral fine rivers and lakes, and conſequently well ſupplied with fiſh. It is likewiſe extremely fertile and rich, and yields plenty of corn, hemp, timber, paſture, ſheep, game, cattle, horſes, wine, butter, cheeſe, flax, fruit, wool, &c.

In this dutchy the peaſants are in a ſtate of villainage,

but the nobility enjoy very conſiderable privileges; the ſtates are compoſed of the nobility and towns, in the diets, which are ſummoned annually, and held alternately at Sternburg and Malchin. The inhabitants of this country are moſtly Lutherans, under the direction of their ſuper-intendents. There are alſo ſome Calviniſts and Roman catholics.

The whole dutchy is divided into three circles; viz. the circle of Mecklenburg, the circle of Wenden, and the circle of Stargard; the principal places in which are the following:

Schwerin, in the circle of Mecklenburg, is the capital of the dutchy, and a very pretty town, being ſituated on a great lake of that name, eighteen miles ſouth of Wiſmar, and thirty-eight ſouth-weſt of Roſtock. It was the ſee of a biſhop, tranſlated hither from Mecklenburg, in 1062, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bremen, but converted into a ſecular principality by the treaty of Oſnaburg, and granted to Adolphus-Frederic, duke of Mecklenburg, as an equivalent for Wiſmar, which was to remain to the Swedes. Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, who fortified the town, built and endowed a cathedral here, and drove the pagan Mecklenburghers, by thouſands, into a place of the lake of Schwerin, where the then biſhop baptized them; from whence that part of the lake is ſtill called the Font. The duke of Mecklenburg has his reſidence here at a caſtle, in which he impriſoned the burgomaſters of Roſtock, in 1716, and, after ſix months confinement, ſet them at liberty, on renouncing, upon oath, their immunities and privileges.

Sternburg, a ſmall town on the lake, is one of the places where the diets are held. Boitzenburg, on the Baitze, has a priory and a toll on the Elbe. Panchim is ſituated on the Elbe, which divides it into Old and New Town. It had once a caſtle and a mint, and has ſtill two churches. Rhena is a ſmall town on the Radegaſt. Greves Mulen, Kropeliën, Kriewitz, Hagens, Newſtadt, Buko, Bruel, Wittenburg, Grabo, and Lyaz, are all ſmall towns of little conſideration at preſent.

The town of Domitz, forty-three miles eaſt of Lunenburg, ſtands in an iſland made by the conflux of the Elbe and Elda, with a caſtle on the former, where the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin obliges ſhips to pay toll. This fort, which is ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt, if not the only one in the dutchy, is acceſſible but by a timber bridge. In 1328, the elector Lewis, of Brandenburg, alienated this town to the count of Schwerin, with the cuſtoms, and all the country on both ſides the Elbe, for ſeven thouſand five hundred marks of Brandenburg coin. The ſaid country, or moſt part of it, returned back to the Brandenburg family by marriage, but the caſtle remained in the hands of the dukes of Mecklenburg, who are ſtill poſſeſſed of it, together with the cuſtoms, which are ſaid to amount, one year with another, to eighty thouſand rix-dollars. In 1627, the Imperial general, count Tilly, took this town; but in 1631, it was retaken by the Swedes. In 1637, the Imperialiſts and Saxons took it again. The Swediſh general, Bannier, attempted to recover it in 1639, and blocked it up part of the following year, but did not reduce it till 1643. They generally ſend hither thoſe priſoners who are deſtined to a long confinement.

The town of Gadebuſh, twenty-two miles weſt of Wiſmar, is remarkable for a great victory obtained near it, in 1712, by the Swedes over the Danes. Mecklenburg, which gives name to the dutchy, and title to the dukes, though formerly a large town, is now but an indifferent village. It formerly had three convents, and was the ſee of a biſhop, but gradually declined as Wiſmar roſe. Dobberan, which was antiently a Ciſtertian monaſtery, is now only a hunting ſeat. Many great perſonages have been formerly interred in the church. Eldena, on the Elda, has a hill containing allum, a ſalt-work, and gives name to a bailiwick.

The circle of Warden contains the following places; viz. 1. Guſtrow, a pretty large town, well fortified, ſeventeen miles ſouth of Roſtock, and thirty-ſeven from Schwerin. It has a caſtle, which was the reſidence of the dukes of Guſtrow; after the extinction of which branch, the emperor adjudged the city and its dependencies, in 1697, to the late duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, who reinforced the garriſon; but the troops of Sweden and Lower Saxony refuſed to quit the place. The duke, however, continued there till April, when three thouſand of the troops of the directors of the circle attacked and obliged him to ſurrender, and forced the duke and the Imperial miniſter to quit the place, into which they put a garriſon, and deſired the emperor to name commiſſioners to take the adminiſtration upon them till the ſucceſſion was ſettled, which was in 1701. Its caſtle is adorned with a moſt elegant garden, it is a grand edifice with four fronts, and is ſaid to be the fineſt in all the country.

2. Malcho is a ſmall town between the Plan and Calpin lakes. 3. Krako is ſituated on a lake of the ſame name. 4. Plan is on a lake from which it receives its appellation. 5. Dobbertin is a Lutheran convent for ladies.

6. Roſtock, is a free imperial city, and one of the Hanſe towns, ſtands on the river Warna, which falls eight miles below it into the Baltick ſea, and is ſeventeen north of Guſtrow, and twenty-five north-eaſt of Wiſmar. It is an antient city, walled in 1160, by Burevinus, king of the Heruli, and, as appears by its charter, dated in 1218, modelled by the laws of Lubeck. This town being, with the duchy, ſeized by the Imperialiſts in 1629, was retaken by the Swedes in 1631, and after the treaty of Munſter, they built a fort here, and by their garriſon demanded a toll of all ſhips, which very much leſſened the trade of the town, and induced many of the merchants to remove the Mecklenburg miniſters, who endeavoured to have it redreſſed at the treaty of Nimeguen, but without effect. Moſt of the town was burnt in 1677, but is ſince rebuilt with more magnificence. In 1712 it was ſeized by the Swedes, on pretence of its having furniſhed their enemies with proviſions; and in 1715 the duke of Mecklenburg, not being ſtrong enough to defend it againſt the Danes, agreed that, on condition of their not interfering with the civil government, they ſhould have a garriſon and a magazine here.

This city is divided into the Old, New, and Middle Towns, conſiſting of fourteen wide long ſtreets, beſides ſmaller, and many thouſand ſtately houſes. It boaſts of ſeven remarkable things, each ſeven in number: ſeven doors to St. Mary's church; ſeven large ſtreets centering in the market place; ſeven gates; ſeven bridges over the Warna; ſeven towers on the town-hall; ſeven great bells belonging to the town-clock, which chime at certain hours; and ſeven vaſt lime trees in their common garden. The chief commodity is beer, the ſame as formerly called Lubeck beer, which they export in great quantities; for ſome years ago they had two hundred and fifty privileged brewers, who brewed, it is ſaid, as many thouſand tons a year, beſides what private perſons brewed for their own uſe; ſo that the duke of Mecklenburg's revenue, from the exciſe on beer, is ſaid to be greater than from all other articles together. The Warna is navigable to the very walls; but large ſhips come no farther than Warnemunder, a little town ſeven miles lower, juſt where the Swedes built their fort. The city is governed by twenty-four aldermen, choſen from the nobility, univerſity, and merchants. Four are burgomaſters, two chamberlains, two ſtewards, or bailiffs, for the river, to cleanſe it, and take care of the haven at Warnemunder; and here are two judges, to determine all cauſes finally, coin money, and chuſe officers; but on matters extraordinary, a lower houſe of one hundred common councilmen, choſen out of the trades, is ſummoned to give their opinion.

The univerſity, one of the beſt and largeſt in Germany, was founded in 1419. The city, being at half the charges with the duke, chuſes nine of the eighteen profeſſors; and out of them the Rector Magnificus, who appoints their meetings, takes care of their treaſury, &c. During theſe two laſt centuries, this has been one of the moſt flouriſhing univerſities in Germany. The biſhop of Schwerin was, by charter, made perpetual chancellor, who deputed one of the oldeſt profeſſors vice-chancellor.

7. Teſzien and Laoga are both ſituated on the river Reckenitz. 8. Schwan on the Warna. 9. Iwenaſh, near Stavenhagen. 10. Dargem. 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16. Goldberg, Penzlion, Stavenhagen, Tetero, Neukalden, and Groyen, are ſmall inconſiderable towns. 17. Wahren, on the lake Calpin. 18. Robel, on the lake Maritz. 19. Malchion, on the borders of Pomerania; it is one of the places where the diets are held. 20. Sultz. 21. Ribnitz; has a nunnery for ladies, of the order of St. Clere.

Stargard circle contains, 1. New Brandenburg, ſituated on a lake; it ſends a deputy to the leſſer committee of the ſtates, has a grammar-ſchool, two churches, a ſuperintendent, and is celebrated for its hop trade. The neighbourhood is ſingularly pleaſant, and the inhabitants remarkably healthy.

2. Old Stargard gives name to a lordſhip and circle. 3. Friezland is a town on a lake, which gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Euſterbergh, a ſmall town. 5. Weſembergh is the principal place, in a fertile territory called Pomel,

the inhabitants of which are extremely benevolent and charitable. 6. Strelitz gives name to a branch of the ducal family, and is ſituated among marſhes. It conſiſts of New and Old, which ſtand at a ſmall diſtance from each other: the prince's palace, which is at the latter, is adorned with pleaſant gardens, and has a very elegant appearance. 7. Nemaro, a bailiwic. 8. Miro.

9. The town of Wiſmar ſtands among fens, on a bay of the Baltic, between Roſtock and Lubeck, twenty-five miles weſt of the former, and eaſt of the latter, and fifty-five miles weſt of Stralſund, eaſt, long. twelve degrees eleven minutes, lat. fifty-four degrees, three minutes. It is ſuppoſed to have been built in the thirteenth century, out of Mecklenburg's ruins; for, being of timber, it was burnt in 1262, and rebuilt handſomely of ſtone, and its government modelled in 1626, upon the plan of Lubeck; ſo that it ſoon became one of the Hanſe towns, ſtrongly fortified, and the harbour for their men of war. It was taken by the Imperialiſts during the civil war, 1629, but retaken by the duke of Mecklenburg and the Swedes in 1632, and by Munſter treaty given to the latter. It has been ſeveral times taken by the Danes, but again reſtored to the Swedes. In 1690, its magazines were blown up by lightning, moſt of the new city deſtroyed, with one of the new gates; the arſenal, churches, and houſes damaged, thirty people killed, and two hundred wounded. In 1711 it was beſieged by the Danes; and in 1716 ſurrendered to the allies, Danes, Brandenburgers, Hanoverians, Saxons, and Ruſſians, who found in it three hundred cannon, a vaſt quantity of bombs, grenadoes, and ammunition. In 1720 it was reſtored by treaty to the Swedes, on condition that the walls and fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed; in which ſtate it now remains.

The houſe of Mecklenburg is divided into two branches, namely, Schwerin and Strelitz. The latter commenced with duke Adolphus-Frederic II. younger brother of the duke of Schwerin, and grandfather of the preſent duke of Strelitz, Frederic IV. who was born May 5, 1738, and ſucceeded to the government December 11, 1752. He was made a knight of the garter in 1764, and has three brothers, and two ſiſters; the younger ſiſter is our moſt gracious ſovereign, Sophia Charlotte, who was born May 19, 1744, and married the 8th of September, 1761, to his preſent Majeſty George the Third, king of Great Britain, &c. This princeſs wrote an elegant epiſtle to the king of Pruſſia, during the war which ended with the reign of king George II. which has been equally admired for the humanity of the ſentiment, and elegance of the diction. Her Majeſty's ſhining qualities have endeared her to the Britiſh nation; being no leſs admired for her literary accompliſhments, than reſpected for her amiable diſpoſition, and thoſe virtues which adorn her ſex.

The imperial city of Hamburg, the greateſt emporium of Germany, and the ſecond of the Hanſe towns, ſtands on the north ſide of the river Elbe, twenty-ſeven miles north weſt of Lunenburg, thirty-ſeven ſouth-weſt of Lubeck, fifty-five north of Zell, fifty-one ſouth of Sleſwick, ſixty-five north-eaſt of Bremen, ſeventy-two from the mouth of the Elbe, one hundred and fifty-five ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, one hundred and ninety-five north-eaſt of Amſterdam, and four hundred and ſixteen north-weſt of Vienna, in ten degrees eleven minutes eaſt longitude, and fifty-three degrees forty-one minutes latitude. The town owes its origin to Charlemagne, who, to ſtop the progreſs of the Sclavi, or northern Sclavonians, cauſed his lieutenants to build two forts on the Elbe, one of them at this place, which thoſe people took and demoliſhed in the year 810, but Charlemagne rebuilt it next year, and erected a church, the only one in Hamburg for above three hundred and fifty years. It was firſt declared a free and independent city in 1220. The emperor Maximilian, in the diet of Augſburgh, declared it free and imperial. Since that time, Hamburg has been inveſted with ſovereign power within its own juriſdiction, like other imperial cities; and in the year 1641, was accordingly ſummoned to the diet of the empire, though, as both Denmark and Holſtein proteſted againſt it, the Hamburghers have not yet enjoyed their right of ſitting and voting there. Great privileges have, from time to time, been granted them by ſeveral emperors. And, for their keeping a light houſe at Helgoland, above-mentioned, which is four German miles within the ſea; they are alſo excuſed paying toll at Stade to our king, as Elector of Hanover; yet the kings of Denmark have ſince compelled them ſeveral times to pay tolls at the caſtle of Gluckſtadt.

They derived their chief ſecurity from the continual jealouſies between Sweden and Denmark; but in 1712, on occaſion of the northern war, the Danes, Muſcovites, and Saxons, having their armies in the neighbourhood, made their ſeparate demands, with threats in caſe of refuſal: and they were obliged to compound with the firſt for two hundred and thirty thouſand dollars, and with the ſecond for two hundred thouſand. Denmark has ſix times extorted money from it ſince 1645. At the firſt time it received one hundred and twenty thouſand crowns; in 1679, two hundred and twenty thouſand; in 1686, two hundred and forty thouſand, which they gave the Danes to buy off the ſiege; two hundred thouſand at another time; one hundred and eighty thouſand in the war with Sweden, and two hundred and forty-ſix thouſand in 1712, after which the late czar got two hundred thouſand crowns of them on ſome other pretences. In 1713 the city was viſited by a plague.

It is very advantageouſly ſituated, both for domeſtic and foreign trade. It has ſuch a port and river as none in Europe, except the Thames, excels. Beſides the Elbe, which enters the German ocean here, they have a channel open to the Trave, for the ſake of a communication with Lubeck and the Baltic, without being at the trouble and hazard of going about by the eaſt ſea, round the coaſt of Jutland and the Scaw, and without the obſtructions of the toll, and other difficulties of the Sound; ſo that the veſſels in the Trave are within forty miles of the Baltic, whereas it is upwards of four hundred miles round Jutland, &c.

The trade of this place exceeds that of any city which has no kingdom or republic annexed to it; and the exports and imports of it ſingly exceed thoſe of many great kingdoms, even in Germany. The Elbe, and many great navigable rivers that fall into it, after a courſe through ſome of the largeſt, richeſt, and moſt trading parts of Germany, furniſh it with all the product and manufactures of Auſtria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. By the Havel and Spree it has trade with Brandenburg electorate; and by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, its commerce extends into Sileſia, Moravia, Poland, almoſt to Hungary: ſo that it has more manufactures, &c. for exportation, than moſt cities in the world. The principal exports (chiefly to Great Britain) are of various kinds of different countries; particularly Sileſia diapers, and the lawns of Miſnia and Luſatia; German linen from Oſnaburg, Lunenburg, &c. Hamburg dowlas, and other ſtrong linens, from Lower Saxony; coarſe linen, barras, crocus, hinderlands, and many other ſorts from Lower Germany; linen-yarn from the ſame countries; tin-plates, braſs, iron, and ſteel wire, chiefly from Upper Saxony; clap-boards, pipe and hogſhead ſtaves, wainſcot boards, oak plank and timber, and kid ſkins from Brandenburg; corn from many provinces, chiefly Brandenburg and Saxony. Of the number of articles which they import from abroad, the chief are the woollen manufactures of England. The value of ſuch from Yorkſhire only is ſaid to be above one hundred thouſand pounds. The article of Engliſh ſtockings formerly came to above twenty thouſand pounds per annum; and all Engliſh goods vended here, amount to ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds annually.

The Engliſh merchants, having great privileges, make an extraordinary figure here. They appear as a body, hold a court, with particular juriſdiction and powers among themſelves; and as they are called in London the Hamburg company, ſo they are here called the Engliſh hans or ſociety. They have a church and miniſter of their own. The Engliſh are numerous, this being ſtill the ſtaple of the Engliſh trade. They have the ſame privileges to import herrings, as the Dutch are allowed.

The Hamburgers drive great trade to Ruſſia and Livonia; and for goods ſent to the north of the empire, and to Poland, they have great returns, not only in linen, yarn, and fine flax, but in honey, wax, anniſeed, lintſeed, drugs, &c. all by the Oder into the Spree, and ſo into the Elbe, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg; and therefore the Danes cannot interrupt this trade, nor obtain any part of it. Above two hundred Engliſh ſhips alone come into this harbour in a year, though moſtly from Spain, Portugal, and Italy, from and to which the Hamburg merchants pay them double the freight they do for their own ſhips, becauſe the Engliſh being free from the Turks by their Mediteranean paſſes, they ſave more than that by inſurance. Indeed they, in 1751, aimed at taking much of this trade into their own hands, on their own bottoms, &c. but happily the king of Spain ſo deeply reſented their Treaty with the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and eſpecially furniſhing them with warlike ſtores, &c. that he not only inhibited commerce with Hamburg, but laid an embargo on

on their goods, &c. in Spain. But on reſtraining them from any more ſuch trade with the Barbarians, the difference ſubſided.

Hamburgh has a great ſhare in the Greenland whale-fiſhery; and the fins and whale-bone is a manufacture managed by its people. It commonly ſends fifty or ſixty ſhips a year in this trade; ſo that they export great quantities of oil and fins, though they buy from the Dutch more than their own ſhips ſupply. In war, it fits out ſhips of force to convoy the merchantmen, and may be ſaid to be ſtrong both at land and ſea, being able to arm twelve or fourteen thouſand men, beſides having a conſtant garriſon of near two thouſand. It exports great quantities of beer brewed here, and hath ſeveral manufactories, viz. weaving of damaſks, brocades, velvets, the richeſt ſilks, and ſugar-baking, here being as good loaf ſugar as is made in London, though indeed they are forced to buy their Muſcavado ſugars chiefly from Great Britain. Callico-printing employs numbers of people: and of late they have begun to print linens alſo. In ſhort, Hamburgh is become a rich and powerful city, and without diſpute, drives the greateſt inland trade, at this time, of any city in Europe, London and Amſterdam excepted. It has an undoubted right to a place in the diet of the empire. She has pretenſions alſo to her being a free city, as not to be ſubject to the empire like other imperial cities, and on that account always refuſes to pay contributions to the military cheſt in time of war; but then the Hamburgers, under colour of a particular treaty with the emperor, wiſely avoiding to embarraſs themſelves with the affairs of Germany in caſe of a war, do the ſame in effect.

The government is veſted in the ſenate and three colleges of burghers, and is a mixture of the ariſtocratical and democratical. Of the latter, becauſe all their taxes and impoſts are granted by the burghers, without whoſe conſent the ſenate cannot raiſe one penny, and becauſe the management of the finances is in ten of the burghers: of the former, becauſe they have a ſenate choſen out of the principal perſons of the republic, who alone have the powers of aſſembling and diſſolving the convention of the burghers; to whom the burghers that are managers of the finances are accountable, who treat with foreign princes without the intervention of the burghers, and who are veſted with almoſt every act of ſovereignty, but that of managing the finances and laying taxes. The government, thus conſtituted, is under the protection of the emperor, for which the Hamburgers pay him eighty thouſand crowns a year. But how little this has availed them, is too well known; and the protection they have from England, for the ſake of trade, is certainly their greateſt ſecurity.

The ſenate conſiſts of four burgomaſters, of whom three are lawyers, and one a merchant, (two of whom preſide alternately for a year), twenty-four ſenators, viz. eleven lawyers, and thirteen merchants; four ſyndics, who are all lawyers, and give their opinions as our judges do in the houſe of lords, but have no vote; and four ſecretaries, of whom the principal is called prothonotary: all theſe are, upon every vacancy, choſen out of their own bodies. Here is alſo a court of Admiralty, conſiſting of a burgomaſter, four ſenators, ſix merchants, and two maſters of ſhips, aſſiſted by a ſecretary, and a water-bailiff. Their law is the civil, or Juſtinian, and, in criminal cauſes, the ſtatutes of the emperor Charles IV. with which they have likewiſe their own ſtatutes, but both puzzled and obſcured by numberleſs comments, and contradictory precedents. The firſt or chief of the three colleges is that of the Ober-Alten (or principal elders), which conſiſt of three members, choſen out of each of the five wards of the city; has great power, like that of the tribunes at Rome; can demand of the ſenate to call a convention of the burghers, and even impeach a ſenator, and require a conference with the ſenate on that or other occaſions. When the three colleges, conſiſting in the whole of one hundred and eighty members are aſſembled, and the ſenate at the ſame time, which is in all extraordinary caſes, particularly, for laying taxes, the gates of the city are ſhut, a ſtrong guard is drawn up before the ſenate houſe, and centinels poſted at all its avenues. Each ward debates and votes by itſelf, and, when the queſtion is put by the ſenate, the majority of the five determines it. Their eccleſiaſtical government, of which the ſenate is the head, is managed by a conſiſtory, or convocation of the paſtors, archdeacons and deacons, of the five principal, and ſeven ſmaller churches or chapels; in all, 29.

The principal religion is the Lutheran, and the Calviniſts were obliged to go to worſhip at Altena till within theſe few years paſt, that they have been allowed one or two churches within the walls of this city; but this is a favour not granted to the Roman Catholics, againſt whom they were ſo exaſperated in 1719, upon a public attempt of their prieſts to make proſelytes in the city, that a mob ſtripped and demoliſhed a chapel that was building here by the Imperial reſident, together with the ſaid miniſter's houſe; for which the Hamburgers being threatened by the emperor (Charles VI.) with military execution, they were forced to find another houſe and chapel at their own expence, and to make good all the other loſs and damage, beſides paying a fine, and ſending two members of the ſenate, and two of the burghers, to Vienna, to beg the emperor's pardon; after which, he took the citizens into his ſpecial protection, and eſpouſed their cauſe heartily againſt the antiquated pretenſions of the Danes. They are obliged, however, to allow the Roman catholics their worſhip in the ambaſſadors houſes. They have here what they call a private confeſſion, previous to the holy communion, though it differs in nothing from ours that is general, and the abſolution the ſame; but even the pooreſt of the people here are forced to give a fee to the prieſt for ſuch confeſſion, which cuſtom, not known in any other proteſtant city, is reckoned the more inexcuſable in this, becauſe its churches are immenſely rich, and have great ſums of money at uſury, out of which they might afford the clergy a competent maintenance.

The fame of Hamburg is juſtly great for its care of the poor, here being more hoſpitals, in proportion to its bigneſs, than in any other proteſtant city in Europe: one, in particular, for orphans, like our Blue Coat hoſpital in London, the yearly revenue of which amounts to betwixt fifty and ſixty thouſand pounds. Sometimes they have above three hundred infants abroad at nurſe, who, when able to dreſs themſelves, are taken into the houſe. The boys that are qualified, are put out and maintained at the univerſity; the reſt are put out to trades; and the girls, after they can read, ſpin, knit, &c. are ſent to ſervice. The building is decent, but not very coſtly, and borders on one of the canals. There is a large ſumptuous hoſpital for receiving poor travellers that fall ſick, and another for the relief of maimed, antient, and decayed ſeamen; where alſo care is taken of the widows, as well as children, of thoſe who loſe their lives in the ſervice of the public. In that called the Oldeſt Hoſpital, one hundred and fourteen poor, old, blind, and dumb people, are maintained. There is St. Job's for thoſe poor that have the French diſeaſe; and a Peſt-houſe for thoſe that have the plague, or other infectious diſtempers; to which even people of the beſt rank come for cure, but pay for it to the houſe. There are many leſſer hoſpitals, beſides theſe, for poor widowers, widows, orphans, &c. and great numbers of free-ſchools; beſides two workhouſes, or houſes of correction, where they manufacture rugs, and coarſe kerſeys, with which thoſe confined there are cloathed, and where they alſo ſpin. In one of them, thoſe who have not performed their taſk are hoiſted up in a baſket over the table in the common hall, while the reſt are at dinner, that they may be tantalized with the ſight and ſmell of what they cannot taſte. Here are alſo ſocieties for making good loſſes and damage by fire. The houſes here are ſaid to be about thirty thouſand.

The churches are antient, large, and handſome fabrics, but open thoroughfares all day long, and in ſome there are bookſellers ſhops. Here are ſix lofty ſteeples, ſome of them covered with copper, which make a grand appearance, though the frames are only of timber. The great ſpire of St. Peter's is the higheſt in the city; that of St. Nicholas is ſupported by large gilt globes; St. Michael's ſteeple is four hundred feet high; St. Catharine's has a ſtately front, with abundance of ſtatues in niches; and the ſteeple is formed of ſundry lanterns, diminiſhing gradually to the laſt, which ſupports a ſpire, like St. Bride's in Fleet-ſtreet, but much taller. Round the middle of its ſteeple is a crown richly gilt. Its pulpit is of white marble, curiouſly carved, and adorned with figures, and other ornaments of gold; and its organ, reckoned one of the beſt in Europe, has ſix thouſand pipes. That called the Thum, or Dome, was the cathedral while the town remained an archbiſhopric, and was built about 830. The ſpire, and tower that ſupports it, are near three hundred and ſixty feet high. There ſtill belong a dean and chapter to it, though ſecularized, from whoſe court there lies no appeal but to the imperial chamber at Wetzlaer. Many of the counts of Schawenburg and Holſtein are buried here, whoſe names are writ in a fair catalogue, with their other benefactors, and hung up in the body of the church.

This

This cathedral, with the chapter, and a large number of houſes belonging to it, are under the immediate protection of his Britannic majeſty, as biſhop of Bremen, and independent of the city juriſdiction. There are five other very large churches here, and eight leſſer churches or chapels of eaſe. There is a Schola Illuſtris, or univerſity, here, well endowed, and furniſhed with ſix able profeſſors, of whom were lately the learned Fabricius, and M. Hubner the geographer.

The ſenate-houſe and town-hall is an antient, large, and noble ſtructure, adorned with the ſtatues of emperors, and the Nine Worthies; and a building is lately added for their new bank. Their exchange is fine, but inferior to ours in London; it is oppoſite to the ſenate-houſe. One part of the ſquare is planted with large trees, and the other covered with a hall, where the elders, or council of commerce, meet: at the other end of it is the public crane. On the ſtreet before the town-houſe the lawyers have a ſort of exchange, as the public miniſters have at an eminent toyſhop in the ſame neighbourhood. The emperor, and ſeveral princes of Germany, have their own poſt-houſes here, managed by perſons of their own appointment; but the poſt-houſe for England and Holland is the only one that can properly be ſaid to belong to the public. The Britiſh reſident and company have a ſtately hall here, built by themſelves; and the reſident has a power of judging ſuits and differences that ariſe among his countrymen. There is an opera or play-houſe here, chiefly for the entertainment of the reſidents, and other foreign gentry, of whom here are ſome from moſt trading kingdoms in Europe.

This city, which is almoſt of a circular form, and five or ſix miles in compaſs, is naturally ſtrong, and a great part of it lying upon iſlands. The walls and fortifications that lie open to view, are covered with graſs, and planted with rows of trees ſo high, than none of the houſes are to be ſeen without that ſide of the walls which is next to Altena. It has ſix gates, and three entrances by water, viz. two from the Elbe, and one from the Alſter. It is divided into the Old and New city by a canal, and ſurrounded by a fine high wall, with twenty-three bulwarks, beſides other out-works and fortifications, in the modern way, and a very deep ditch: there is alſo a noble line, or out-work, with other works, from the largeſt baſon of the Alſter to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town: and on the other ſide of that baſon, about the midway betwixt that and the Elbe, below the town, there is a very fine fortification, called the Star Sconce, ſo ſtrong, that the king of Denmark, with all his army, could not take it in 1686, after ſix weeks ſiege. In the New Town, towards Altena, there are large ſtreets of poor houſes, which the Jews chiefly inhabit.

The North and South Elbe, into which two channels that river is ſeparated, two or three miles above this city, having, with ſome ſmaller ones, formed divers beautiful iſlands towards Harburg, that belong to his Britannic majeſty, re-unite in one channel, about ſix miles below the city. Towards the eaſt it is waſhed by the little river Bille, and towards the north by another little river called the Alſter, which forms a very large baſon juſt without the town, and another, though not ſo large as that, yet of at leaſt one thouſand feet ſquare, within the walls of it; after which, it drives the public mills, and, paſſing by ſeveral ſluices and canals through the whole city, falls into the Elbe. Here are eighty-four bridges, thirty-eight water-mills (beſides ſix wind-mills), and ſix ſluices; and it has likewiſe ſix large markets. As the tide here flows in canals through moſt of the chief ſtreets, and runs four leagues above the city, that is, twenty-two from the mouth of the river, the town is frequently damaged by ſpring-tides, and many houſes and families have been ruined by tempeſts, that, eſpecially with a north-weſt wind, drives the ſea up into their channels; of which there were two melancholy inſtances in 1651, and 1719. Though the harbour is ſo commodious, and the river ſo deep, that large merchant ſhips come up to the walls, yet thoſe of an extraordinary ſize anchor at the New Mills, four miles below the town, where they unload in ſmaller veſſels. The ſtreets are generally crooked, but pretty wide, and outſtrip all Germany for high and ſtately houſes, moſt of them built of brick. The uſual way of reckoning here is, by what they call ſtivers and lubs, forty-eight of which make a dollar, or four ſhillings and ſix-pence. It is the cuſtom, that when a citizen dies, he muſt leave the tenth of his eſtate to the city; and foreigners, not naturalized, muſt pay a certain ſum annually, for liberty to trade.

Hamburg has a diſtrict belonging to its juriſdiction for twelve miles round, which abounds with excellent paſtures, intermixed with ſeveral conſiderable villages, and noblemens ſeats. It comprizes the bailiwicks of Rutzenbuttle (of which more hereafter), Bilwerder, Ochſenwerder, and Eppendorf. The four cantons of Alte-game, New game, Kirchwerder, and Roſlacke, are enjoyed by the Hamburghers, in common with the city of Lubeck: as is alſo a caſtle, with a little town and bailiwick called Bergedorf, of which they have been in poſſeſſion about four hundred years; and they put in a bailiff alternately, and garriſon the caſtle alternately, with an equal number of ſoldiers.

The merchants of this city are affable and civil, but too nice in ceremony and punctilio, and too tedious and fulſome in their compliments. They are ſaid to be very frugal in their own families, but altogether as liberal when they treat ſtrangers. They mightily affect gardens at the city gates, much in the taſte of thoſe of Holland. Coaches are ſo numerous here, though not very neceſſary, nor convenient, becauſe of the crookedneſs of moſt of the ſtreets, and the narrowneſs of many, that there is hardly a merchant or conſiderable ſhopkeeper without one: and it is obſerved, that here are ten times the number of hackney coaches now, that there was an hundred years ago. The common carts here are only a long pulley, like what our vintners uſe, laid upon an axletree between two wheels, and drawn, not by horſes but men, of whom a dozen, or more, are ſometimes linked to thoſe machines, with ſlings acroſs their ſhoulders, drawing a fat of yarn or linen of two tons weight.

The graduates in law are very numerous here, though hardly a tenth part of them can be employed in the ſenate, or at the bar. The poorer ſort of them, that cannot make a figure there, are conſtant walkers at funeral proceſſions, for which they have a fee; as have, likewiſe, ſuch of the ſenators, principal elders, divines, and regular phyſicians, as therein aſſiſt. For the encouragement of ingenuity in mechanics, every artificer who can perform a piece of work beyond the ſkill of his brother artiſts, is made free of his company; a benefit not otherwiſe to be obtained but by ſervitude, or by marrying a freeman's widow, or daughter, or elſe at a very great expence. By the care of the magiſtracy, as well as of an inferior ſort of beadles, who have a reward for what beggars they pick up, and carry to the houſe of correction, there are few or none to be ſeen in the ſtreets; though this is aſcribed, in great meaſure, to the manufacture of knit ſtockings erected here, which is ſufficient to employ all their poor, were they more numerous than they are. There are pariſh-officers employed to carry wool to be carded and ſpun, and worſted to be knit by the poor at their own habitations; from whence they alſo fetch their work every Saturday, and pay them what they have earned. The ladies here are generally attended to church, not by a footman, but by a ſervant maid with a book, hanging by a ſilver-chain on one arm, and, if it be cold weather, with a braſs ſtove on the other.

The hangman's houſe is the common priſon of this place for malefactors. After ſentence is pronounced on them, which is always on Friday (as the execution is on the Monday following), they are carried, not to a dungeon, but to a handſome upper room, where they are allowed a good bed, with all reaſonable comforts ſuiting their condition, and conſtantly attended by ſome clergyman that has a living in the city, a duty which they are all obliged to perform by rotation. As, by their laws, no criminal is puniſhable here without pleading guilty; they have five degrees of torture to extort ſuch confeſſion, which are applied one after another, in proportion to the ſtrength of the evidence in ſupport of the accuſation. The interlocutory ſentence for this torture is only general, but the degree of it is locked up in the breaſt of the judges, who are always preſent, with a clerk, to write down the confeſſion, at a table with a curtain drawn round it; ſo that they can hear and ſpeak to the tortured criminal, without being eye-witneſſes of the cruelty; and can mitigate or extend it, according to the ſtrength or other circumſtances of the ſufferer.

There is a famous walk in this city, that runs by the great baſon of the Alſter, from the play-houſe to the heart of the city: It is called the Maiden's Walk, is one thouſand feet long, and above twenty broad, railed in and bordered on each ſide by a row of large high trees. On one ſide is the water, with ſeveral ſtairs; and on the other a row of noble houſes. Here are ſeveral convents, or cloyſters, remaining in this city, which, being ſecularized, are now Lutheran; one, in particular, the tenure of whoſe foundation is continued to this day by offering a glaſs of wine

wine to every malefactor that is carried by it for execution. Both ſtrangers and natives, of the beſt faſhion, carouze at an odd kind of a tavern here, kept in a public cellar, or cave, which has a prodigious ſtock and vent of old hock, &c. brings in a conſiderable revenue to the ſtate, and is under the direction of a deputy, kept in it by a ſelect number of the magiſtrates.

To conclude our account of this famous great mart, or petty republic, Mr. Roberts ſays, in his Map of Commerce, that corn is meaſured here by the Schepel, of which eighty-three make ten quarters Engliſh; and that one hundred Hamburg ells make but forty-eight and an half in London. The cities of Hamburg and Lincoln are obſerved to be exactly in the ſame degree of latitude, but it is conſiderably colder in the winter, and hotter in the ſummer, at the former, than at the latter, for a natural reaſon, we ſuppoſe well enough known.

Hildeſheim dioceſe, which is forty miles long and thirty broad, is ſituated between the rivers Leine and Ocker, and is bounded by Halberſtadt, on the north-weſt; Lunenburg-Zell, on the north, Grubenhagen, on the ſouth; and the other parts are circumſcribed by the duchy of Brunſwic. The bailiwic of Hunderſuch lies ſeparate from it, being incloſed by the principalities of Calenburgh and Grubenhagen.

The ſoil is fertile in grain, hops, oak, aſh, flax, pulſe, beech, and birch. It is likewiſe productive of black cattle, horſes, ſheep, game, ſalt, ſtone, iron ore, &c. The ſtreams which water it ſupply great quantities of fiſh; the ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and burgeſſes, the manufactures are, iron ware, porcelane, cloth, ſtockings, &c. and the religion is Lutheraniſm.

The principal places are, 1. Hildeſheim on the Innerſte, the capital, which is fifteen miles from Hanover. It is an old faſhioned, large, irregular town. The principal buildings are, the cathedrals, ſeveral monaſteries and nunneries, many churches, the chancery, the nobility's hall, where the diets are held, the jeſuits college, the Jews ſynagogue, the Gymnaſium Andrianium, and the Latin ſchool of St. Lambert. The town was anciently one of the Hanſe, and the capital of Henry the Lion; and in the neighbourhood there are two rich abbies. The magiſtrates exerciſe civil and criminal juriſdiction, impoſe and collect duties, and apply them to public uſes, ordinances, &c. The magiſtracy and burghers are in general Lutherans.

2. Sarſtadt, a ſmall town on the Innerſte. 3. Gronau, on the Leine, gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Bekenem. 5. Elze, on the Saal. 6. Alfeld on the Leine. 7. Peina, on the Fuſe. 8. Weddingen, a commandery of the Teutonic order. 9. Knieſtedt. 10. Salt-Detfurt. 11. Mark-Olderdorf, on the Ilme. 12. Daſſel. 13. Salzliebendall. 14. Werle. 15. Lamſpringe, in the Lannue, where there is an Engliſh benedictine ſeminary.

On the ſouth ſide of the Goſe (which riſes to the ſouth-eaſt of Cellerfeld, and falls into the Ocker near the confines of Hildeſheim) ſtands the imperial city of Goſlar, which, though independent of the Brunſwic family, is uſually deſcribed in this country, becauſe it is ſurrounded with their dominions. It is a large ancient city, twenty-two miles ſouth eaſt of Hildeſheim, twenty-five ſouth of Brunſwic, twenty-ſix weſt of Halberſtadt, and forty north-weſt of Gottingen. It was built in 1201, by the emperor Henry I. who had a palace here, and alſo fortified it. Goſlar enjoys the ſame privileges as other free imperial cities, beſides an exemption from tolls in all markets of the empire, but three: in all the imperial writs, it is called, Nobile Membrum Imperii. The houſes are covered with ſlate. It is ſituated in a valley ſurrounded with mountains, in which are mines both of iron and ſilver, viz. thoſe of Steinburg, Hertz-berg, Ramelſberg, Klockenberg, &c. It has been the reſidence of the emperors, for the ſake, it is ſuppoſed, of hunting, and its treaſures under ground; and becauſe they have often aſſembled the ſtates here, it has been called a palatinate city. The inhabitants are employed either in digging the mines, or in cleanſing, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals of all ſorts, that are dug out of them.

In the year 1235, the emperor Frederic II. with conſent of the ſtates of the empire, granted to Otho I. duke of Brunſwic, the tenth of its mines. The houſe of Brunſwic has pretenſions to this city, and ſeveral of its princes have endeavoured to eſtabliſh them by force of arms, but hitherto in vain. The protectorſhip is in the hands of the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, alternately with the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle. In this city, Barthold Schwartz is ſaid to have diſcovered the art of making gunpowder. The Lutheran is the only religion tolerated here.

Schawen is a lordſhip, ſituated between the principality of Halbertſtadt, and the county of Wernigerode. It is now veſted in the duke of Brunſwic, though it formerly belonged to the abbey of Walkenreid.

Nordhauſen is an imperial city, ſituated on the Zorge, about twenty-one miles ſouth-eaſt from Goſlar. It was formerly one of the Hanſe towns, is celebrated for its curious works in alabaſter and marble, and carries on a great trade in the diſtillery branches. In the diet of the empire, it has the tenth ſeat on the Rheniſh bench of imperial cities, and the fourth among thoſe of Lower Saxony. The inhabitants and magiſtracy are Lutherans; to the latter of whom the elector of Brandenburg, in 1717, tranſferred all the rights and prerogatives to this city, in conſideration of being paid the ſum of fifty thouſand rix dollars.

Muhlhauſen, another imperial city, is ſituated on the Unſtrut, forty miles eaſt of Caſſel; it contains two Lutheran churches, with a Roman Catholic foundation for Auguſtine nuns. It poſſeſſes the ninth place in the bench of imperial cities in the diets of the empire, and the third in thoſe of Lower Saxony. It was formerly one of the Hanſe towns, and has at preſent a tolerable trade. In the fourteenth century this city purchaſed of the emperor Lewis, the office of imperial judge within the city and its precincts.

Blankenburg and Reinſtein counties are uſually conſidered together as one. They are ſo called from their towns; and lie in the eaſt part of the duchy, about twenty-four miles from ſouth to north, but narrow at both ends; and not above nine miles where broadeſt. It was much larger once, when it included the county of Wernigerode on the weſt. Theſe counties (together with Queidlinburg, Hohenſtein, Stolberg, and Schwaſtzburg, in Upper Saxony, where they are deſcribed), were formerly one province, and then called Hartzingow, i. e. the Hercynian country, having been a part of the Hercynian foreſt, now called Hartz, of which there ſtill remains great woods and parks, that abound with game. Beinſtein was claimed by the elector of Hanover as a vacant fief, but ſeized by the late elector of Brandenburg, as holding of his principality of Halberſtadt. Theſe counties are ſouth from Brunſwic, ſouth-weſt from Magdeburg, weſt from Halberſtadt, north from Thuringia, and eaſt from Hildeſheim. It is ſo cold a country, that though the ſnow lies on its mountains till Midſummer, the lands produce but little corn; but the valleys are filled with cattle. The inhabitants are ſtrong and vigorous, and many of them live to one hundred or one hundred and ten years of age.

There are iron mines in their mountains, one of which, called Brocken, or Brockſberg, the Bructerus of the Latins, is reckoned the higheſt in Germany. Betwixt Blankenburg and Elbingerode is a remarkable cave called Buman's Hole, from its diſcoverer Buman, which has a narrow entrance, but none ever found the end of it, though ſome of the miners have affirmed, they have gone as far in it as Goſlar, which is twenty miles. Large bones of ſtrange creatures have been often found in it, which the neighbouring gentry keep for rarities; and, among others, the ſkeleton of a giant. There are two great rocks near the convent of Michaelſtein, and not far from Blankenburg, which repreſent two monks in their proper habit, as nicely as if they were carved out, and therefore are called the Monks Craigs. Many caſtles are found in theſe countries on the tops of inacceſſible rocks, and ſome actually hewn out of the rocks, but they are not regarded. The moſt remarkable of them is that near Brockſberg above-mentioned, which the inhabitants ſay was built three hundred years before Chriſt by the Chauci, a branch of the Saxons, who had an idol and temple of Saturn here, which were deſtroyed by Charlemagne, who called the place Hartzburg. A ſalt ſpring being diſcovered at the bottom of this hill in the time of Julius, duke of Brunſwic, he built a ſmall town for the workmen, called Julius Hall, which is now grown rich, and large, by their trade in ſalt, copper kettles and pots, wire, &c. The people of this country are ſaid to be the dulleſt dolts in all Germany, and mere bigots to the inſtitutions and cuſtoms of their anceſtors.

This petty country was left by the late duke Anthony-Ulric, of Wolfenbuttle, to his ſecond and favourite ſon prince Lewis, to make him ſome compenſation for the right of primogeniture which he had newly introduced into his family, to that ſon's prejudice: for the Brunſwic princes had been long uſed to a partition of lands in their families, till that cuſtom, ſo pernicious to great ones, was

firſt

firſt aboliſhed by the Hanover branch. As this country neither gives its poſſeſſor the rank of a ſovereign prince, nor admittance into the college of princes at the diet of the empire; the then duke of Blankenburg, now duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, in order to procure himſelf both theſe privileges, made a treaty with the elector of Hanover, whereby the latter yielded him the vote and ſeat which he enjoyed in the diet for his duchy of Grubenhagen; and the duke engaged never to vote at the diet, but in conformity to the ſentiments of the elector; but after his deceaſe the vote and ſeſſion for Grubenhagen reverted to the elector.

The moſt noted town here, is Blankenburg, eight miles weſt of Queidlinburg, and ſouth-weſt of Halberſtadt, and forty ſouth of Wolfenbuttle, on the frontier of the principality of Anhalt. It is but a ſmall town, the houſes ill-built, and inconvenient. The duke, who has a caſtle here, has offered the inhabitants materials for building gratis, and done all in his power to inſpire them with a taſte, and the other arts, but without ſucceſs.

Ranzau, a county, is about ten miles long, and ſix broad, and has a ſoil tolerably fertile. It was formerly a bailiwic, but erected into a county of the empire by Ferdinand III. in conſequence of a ſettlement made by count Ranzau, ſtadtholder to his Daniſh majeſty, that it ſhould devolve to the royal family of Denmark, upon failure of iſſue male in his own. 2. Barmſtedt, in the Acce. And, 3. Elmſhern, on the ſame river, are the only places of any note here.

Ratzeburg principality belongs to the Strelitz family, but does not contain any place worthy of notice, except the town of Ratzeburg, where the regency, treaſury, and conſiſtory, are held, but which belongs to the duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg; and the ſmall town of Schonberg, which gives name to a bailiwic.

Schwerin principality is ſurrounded by the duchy of the ſame name, and the lordſhips of Wiſmar and Roſtock. It is twenty miles long, ſix broad, and was formerly a biſhopric, but ſecularized at the peace of Weſtphalia. The only places of any conſideration are, 1. Schelffe, a town contiguous to Schwerin. 2. Rhun, which gives name to a bailiwic. 3. Butzo. And, 4. Wahrien.

Haldon county lies along the Elbe, is eight miles in length, the ſame in breadth, and borders on the territory of Hamburg. It is very fertile, abounds in grain, fruit, cattle, and fiſh; has its own courts, eccleſiaſtical and civil, and was ceded in 1731 to the elector of Brunſwic. The inhabitants are Lutherans; the revenues amount to ten thouſand rix-dollars. Offendorff, a ſmall place on the river Meden, is the only town.

The duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg, is the fartheſt province of his Britannic majeſty's German dominions: it is watered by the Elbe, which divides it, and is bounded by Holſtein, on the weſt and north; by Lunenburg, on the ſouth; and Mecklenburg, on the eaſt. It is about eighty miles in length, its greateſt breadth is near twenty-ſix miles, and it contains about thirty thouſand inhabitants. The duchy is not very fertile in grain, but abounds in paſturage, cattle, ſheep, fiſh, flax, wood, &c. The manors, intitling to a vote and ſeat in the diets, are twenty-three in number, and the ſtates are compoſed of the nobility and burghers. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; and the clergy in general of this duchy may be propoſed as patterns for thoſe of moſt other countries, for their attention to their ſacred function, their humility, humanity, zeal, and benevolence.

The privileges of the nobility and commons are derived from an act called the Lauenburg act, which was granted by George I. king of Great Britain, and confirmed in all its articles by his ſucceſſors. The Lutheran ſuperintendent, appointed by the king of Great Britain, is obliged to viſit the ſeveral pariſhes annually. The regency is ſubordinate to that of Hanover, and a high tribunal, the members of which are appointed partly by the king, and partly by the ſtates, but an appeal lies to Zell. The duchy has a conſiſtory of its own, and the colleges meet at Ratzeburg. Here are but few manufactures, but many commodities are tranſported from here to other countries, particularly rye, cheeſe, butter, wool, timber, &c.

The principal places are, 1. Ratzeburg, twelve miles ſouth of Lubeck, ſituated on an iſland in a lake of the ſame name: it is the ſeat of a regency, conſiſtory, and chief court of juſtice. 2. Lauenburg, thirty-five miles eaſt of Hamburg, on a hill near the Elbe. 3. Schwartzenbach, which gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Mollen, ſixteen miles from Lubeck. 5. Grunau. 6. Buchen, a village where diets are held.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of the Circle of WESTPHALIA.

THE circle of Weſtphalia ſtretches along the weſt-ſide of the Weſer, from the German ocean on the north, to Heſſia on the ſouth; and between Lower Saxony on the eaſt, and the Netherlands on the weſt. The greateſt extent from ſouth to north is about two hundred miles, and one hundred and fifty from eaſt to weſt. The air, eſpecially in the north part, is very cold, and great part of the ſoil is marſhy and barren; however, it has plenty of corn and paſture; but the fruit is very ordinary, and ſerves chiefly to feed the hogs, of which this country has good ſtore of an excellent kind, ſo that the bacon they ſend abroad, is very much eſteemed. The chief rivers are the Weſer, the Ems, the Lippe, the Roer, the Aa, &c. The accommodations a traveller may meet with here, are well enough expreſſed in this diſtich, very common in Germany: thus Engliſhed;

"Who travels in Weſtphalia, is ſure to find
"Long miles, ſmall-beer, coarſe bread, and lodging
"vile."

Weſtphalia is indeed the moſt wretched part of all Germany; and a modern author, who knew it well, ſeems to conclude, that the temper of the people is in a good meaſure influenced by its climate, the generality of them being not more amiable than the country. They are good ſoldiers enough, but have not talents in common with the other Germans; for they apply themſelves much more to breeding of horſes and hogs than to the cultivation of arts and ſciences. Three parts in four of this circle are a prey to the tyranny and avarice of certain petty princes both ſpiritual and temporal, who, having a great deal of vanity, and little revenue to ſupport it, ſtudy how to rob their ſubjects rather than to right them. The Weſtphalian nobility are perpetually boaſting of their noble and antient pedigree, and they fancy themſelves rich, but are in reality ſo poor, that a traveller would be glad of ſalt beef as well as ſour beer at their tables, and a piece of tapeſtry for their furniture, of no value but for its antiquity. There are in this country almoſt as many different religions as princes, there being Jews, Roman catholics, and Proteſtants, with their various ſubdiviſions; but the major part of the latter are Calviniſts. When Charles the Great had conquered the Saxons, and planted Chriſtianity among them, he erected ſeveral biſhopricks, to which he gave lands for their ſupport. In the part we are ſpeaking of, we find three very conſiderable ones, who have ſovereign princes, and increaſed their dominions at the general partition that was made of the great dukedom of Saxony, after the proſcription of Henry the Lion; and then it was, that the biſhop of Munſter enlarged his country, and that the archbiſhop of Cologne, obtained that part of Weſtphalia which he ſtill holds, and by that tenure ſtiles himſelf duke of Weſtphalia. The elector palatine as duke of Juliers, and the king of Pruſſia as duke of Cleves, are alternately condirectors of this circle, with the biſhop of Munſter.

This circle contains the following territories; viz. 1. The biſhopric of Paderborn, which is ſurrounded with the dominions of Hanover, Heſſe, and Munſter, has the county of Lippe on the north and weſt; Heſſe-Caſſel, and Waldec, on the ſouth; and Munſter, and the duchy of Weſtphalia, on the weſt. It is forty miles from eaſt to weſt, and, in ſome places, thirty from north to ſouth. It is not very fruitful in corn, but abounds ſo much with cattle, that drovers come hither from the neighbouring countries to buy at their fairs; and they have rich ſalt ſprings, and ſome iron mines, with plenty of deer and other game. It is ſo populous, as to contain twenty-five market towns, fifty-four pariſhes, ſixteen monaſteries, and twenty gentlemens ſeats, all ſubject to the biſhop, who is a prince of the empire. The chapter is compoſed of twenty-four capitular canons, who are all obliged to ſtudy in ſome French or Italian univerſity, muſt be twenty-one years old, and prove their noble extraction by four degrees upwards. The revenue of this ſee, which is a ſuffragan of Mentz, and now enjoyed by the elector of Cologne, is thought to be about twenty-five or thirty thouſand pounds a year, and the biſhop is able to raiſe three thouſand men. The famous battle in which Quintilius Varus, with the Roman army under his command, was routed by the Germans under Arminius, and the latter thereby freed from the Roman yoke, was fought in this biſhopric.

The

The royal ſociety, in their Tranſactions, publiſhed in December 1665, gives an account of a ſpring in this territory, which loſes itſelf twice in twenty-four hours; but returns with a great noiſe, and ſuch force, as to turn three mills not far from its ſource; for which reaſon it is called Bolder Born, i. e. the Boiſterous Spring. Morery ſays, it lies in Teutberg foreſt, near Oldenburg. And in the Tranſactions of January following, there is an account of another remarkable fountain, called Meiborn, two miles from Paderborn, which is a treble ſpring; two whereof, not a foot and an half from each other, have very different qualities; the one, limpid, blueiſh, lukewarm, and containing ſal-armoniac, ochra, iron, vitriol, alum, ſulphur, nitre, and orpiment: the other, cold as ice, turbid, and whitiſh, with much the ſame contents, but ſtronger in taſte, and heavier than the other: it is ſaid to be a perfect cure for the worms: all fowls that drink it are immediately thrown into convulſions, but ſoon recovered by an infuſion of common ſalt and vinegar: the third ſpring, which is about twenty paces from the other two, is of a greeniſh colour, but very clear, taſtes both ſour and ſweet, and is ſuppoſed to be a mixture of the other two.

Paderborn, which is one of the Hanſe-towns, is a large, well-built, fortified, and populous city, twenty miles eaſt of Lippe, forty north-weſt of Caſſel, thirty-five ſouth of Minden, near fifty ſouth-eaſt of Munſter, and about ſixty ſouth-weſt from Hanover. This city was once imperial till 1604, that Theodorick, its biſhop, became both its ſpiritual and temporal ſovereign. Some of its churches are magnificent. Its cathedral is a grand fabric, inferior to few in the empire. Otho II. gave a golden crucifix to it of ſixty pounds weight, to the value of ſixty thouſand guilders, or about eight thouſand pounds ſterling. The biſhop's palace is no contemptible ſtructure; but the biſhops, when they vouchſafe to viſit this ſmall benefice, which is not very often, reſide ſeven miles off, at Nienhus, a caſtle built in 1590, by the biſhop aforeſaid. A univerſity was founded here in 1592, by the biſhop of Furſtenberg, of which the jeſuits have the direction. Though this city ſtands not far from the Lippe, which joins with the Ulme, near Nienhus, juſt now mentioned, yet it has its name from the Pader, a rivulet which has its riſe juſt under the high altar of its cathedral, and Born, i. e. a ſpring.

Charlemagne, in 777, held a general convention here of the Franks and Saxons, where a great number both of Saxons and Weſtphalians were baptized. He built a church here that was deſtroyed by the Saxons, but rebuilt in 795, by Wittekind the great duke of the Saxons, who then it is ſaid tranſlated the ſee hither from Heriſtell, five German miles off, where it had been firſt planted by Charlemagne. In 999, the cathedral, with its library, &c. and the beſt part of the city was deſtroyed by fire; and it had the like misfortune in 1058, 1133, 1165, and 1340. This city was firſt walled round by its biſhop in the beginning of the eleventh century. In 1530, the inhabitants attempted to introduce Lutheraniſm; but the biſhop executed ſixteen of the principal citizens who had embraced it, and forced the reſt to abjure it. In 1622, the biſhop of Halberſtadt, who was duke Chriſtian of Brunſwick, made a conſiderable booty here, and ſent the gold and ſilver images of the ſaints to the mint. In 1633, it was taken by William Landgrave of Heſſe, but delivered up to the emperor in 1636. In 1646, it ſurrendered to the Swedes and Heſſians, but Francis William, Biſhop of Oſnaburg, ſoon drove them out.

The other places worthy of note, are, 1. Saltzkotten, the ſeat of the land diets. 2. Lichtenau, which has the ſame privilege. 3. The borough of Neuhaus. 4. The village of Altenbecken. 5. Wunnenburgh, which takes its name from a victory obtained here by Charlemagne over the Saxons. 6. Buren, on the Alure. 7. Lippelping, ſo called from the Lippe. The popiſh inhabitants of theſe parts aſſemble once a year with a lighted taper, and, headed by their prieſts, repair to the woods and groves, to viſit images and relics placed there in little chapels, which, except upon theſe occaſions, are never opened. 8. Warberg, one of the Hanſe, is the ſecond city in rank in the biſhopric, and the ſeat of a diet: in the neighbourhood are mines of iron and lead; and a ſtrong palatable beer is brewed by the inhabitants. 9. Brakel on the Bruckt. 10. Drinkenberg, a ſeat of the land diets. 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18. Klemenberg, Kalenburg, Borchholz, Borrenrich, Wilbaſſen, Neheim, Peckelſheim, and Dryburg, have all ſeats in the land diets. 19. Beverungen, near the confluence of the Bever with the Weſer. 20. Oldenburg, on the Houta. 21. Hurſtelle, Weſer, 22. Stoppleberg, gives name to a ſeignory. 23. Swalenberg belongs to a diſtrict. 24. Lude, on the Emmer.

The biſhopric of Munſter has Embden and Oldenburg, on the north; the county of Mark, and duchy of Weſtphalia, on the ſouth; the county of Benthem, and the United Provinces, on the weſt; and the biſhoprics of Oſnaburg and Paderborn, together with the county of Ravenſberg, on the eaſt. It is one of the largeſt and moſt conſiderable biſhopries, though one of the moſt diſagreeable countries in Germany. It is about eighty miles in length, and from twenty to ſixty in breadth, and contains thirteen bailiwicks, or diſtricts; nine of which belong to the upper, or ſouth part, and four to the lower, or north part. It is in ſome places both fruitful and populous; in others, neither. Its biſhop, to whom it is ſubject, is a prince of the empire, though ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne, condirector of the circle of Weſtphalia with the elector palatine and king of Pruſſia, and able to maintain eight thouſand men, his revenues having been reckoned at ſeventy thouſand pounds. He becomes heir to ſtrangers who die here without children: an unjuſt cuſtom, unknown to any other country in the empire. He has a right to the fiſhery in the river Aa, and a pretenſion to Brockeloe in Guelderland. The inhabitants of this dioceſe are Roman catholics, though there are among them ſeveral nobility and gentry that are Proteſtants. Their chief commerce is in hogs and Weſtphalia hams. They generally affected a neutrality when their neighbours were at war; and, though there are ſeveral fortreſſes in the dioceſe, paid twelve thouſand crowns per annum for the protection of the ſtates of Holland, who uſually have great ſway in the choice of a biſhop.

Its capital, as well as that of the circle, is Munſter, on the river Aa, which falls there into the Ems: it takes its name from a monaſtery built here by Charles the Great. It ſtands on a large fruitful plain, ſixty miles weſt of the Weſer, and eaſt of the Rhine, and ſouth of Breme; one hundred and twenty north of the Maine; fifty-one eaſt from Zutphen; thirty-ſeven ſouth-weſt from Oſnaburg; ſeventy-one north of Cologne; ſeventy-eight north-weſt of Caſſel; one hundred and five eaſt of Amſterdam; one hundred and thirty-four ſouth-weſt of Hamburg; and about four hundred and fifty north-weſt of Vienna. It is a large city, and well fortified by art and nature. The houſes are generally fair and well built of free-ſtone dug from a quarry at Bamberg, or Tamberg, but eight miles off. Its cathedral is a ſtately fabric; and the dean and chapter elect the biſhop. This city will always be famous in hiſtory for three remarkable tranſactions. 1. For the peace concluded here in 1648, between the Swedes, the emperor, and empire; which put an end to the war of thirty years, occaſioned by the houſe of Auſtria's tyranny and perſecution; a treaty which eſtabliſhed the fortune of many ſovereigns, the liberties of the empire, and the free exerciſe of the proteſtant religion in it; and a treaty, on which thoſe made ſince with Germany, and the north parts, have been in a great meaſure founded. 2. For an attempt by ſome enthuſiaſts, under a taylor, in 1553, to eſtabliſh a monarchy here by the name of Anabaptiſt. This ſect, or rather faction, grew ſo powerful by the toleration of the magiſtrates, that they ſet up this taylor, who was called John of Leyden, from his birth-place, for their ſovereign; who, pretending to revelation, ſent his emiſſaries about the ſtreets, commanding all the people to repent and be baptized, on pain of damnation. They grew to ſuch a head, that at laſt the taylor, aſſuming the title of king, they ſeized the magazine and town-hall, turned out the magiſtrates, and, being by their invitation, joined by all their perſuaſion from the neighbouring countries, they alſo drove out the other inhabitants, laid the city and country under inexpreſſible calamities, and perpetrated the moſt horrid villainies. In 1534, the biſhop beſieged the town in vain; but next year being aſſiſted by the landgrave of Heſſe, and the troops of Cologne, he took it by ſurprize, together with their leader, who, after being ſent about, with two of his favourites, to ſome courts for a laughing-ſtock, was executed by the hangman, who tore off his fleſh with burning pincers, and hung his bones in a cage on the top of the higheſt ſteeple in the city. 3. For the war, and other troubles the inhabitants had with their turbulent and bloody-minded biſhop Bernard von Galen, who challenging a certain juriſdiction in temporalities, that was never enjoyed by his predeceſſors, becauſe it had been always a free imperial city, and being backed by the three ſpiritual electors, laid ſiege to the city, which the burghers defended, by help of the Dutch, till the latter

end

end of October, when it was agreed with the biſhop, that for the future it ſhould be garriſoned partly by his troops: but the biſhop quarrelling with them again before three years were at an end, and the Dutch being diſſuaded by ſeveral of the German princes from re-aſſiſting them, they were obliged, in March 1661, after an obſtinate and bloody ſiege, to ſurrender to the biſhop, who overturned the whole frame of their government; and this city has been ever ſince ſubject to its biſhop.

The city is almoſt circular, having eight gates, and a fine citadel, called the Paulus Berg, or Paul's Mount, in its neighbourhood, which was built in 1663, by the biſhop above mentioned, to awe the burghers. The river Aa falls into the Ems at the new gate. The houſes are moſt of them in the antique ſtile, and the principal in the four markets, where among other buildings, the ſenate-houſe, and the hall for the companies of artificers, are the moſt remarkable. In the ſouth-eaſt part of the city is a large place, where the fronts of the houſes reſt upon pillars, and form a handſome piazza. It has five collegiate, and ſix pariſh churches, beſides the jeſuits college, a great number of convents, and other religious houſes, moſt of them ſtately piles, and ſome of them pleaſantly ſituate in the midſt of beautiful gardens.

The other places of chief note in this biſhopric, are, 1. Berkhem and Ahlen, on the Verſe. 2. Telget, on the Ems. 3. Warendoff, on the ſame river; all of which have ſeats in the land diets. 4. Coesfeld, the largeſt town in the biſhopric, next to Munſter. 5. Coppenburg, independent of the biſhop. 6. Warne, near the Lippe, ſends deputies to the diets. 7. Bocholt, on the Aa. 8. Memmen, at the influx of the Haſe and Ems. 9. Weerdt, on the Iſſel. 10. Cloppenburg. 11. Vechla, on a river of the ſame name.

Liege, alſo a biſhopric, is bounded, on the north by Brabant; on the ſouth by Luxemburg and Champagne; on the weſt by Namur and Hanault; and on the eaſt by Limburg and Juliers. It is about ninety miles long, but very unequal in breadth. The ſoil is fruitful, the air temperate, and the bowels of the earth rich in mines. The manufactures are, beer, ſerge, leather, pit coals, lead, arms, nails, iron, marble, mineral waters, &c. The rivers are the Maeſe and Sambre.

Three bodies conſtitute the ſtates, namely, 1. The chapter of Liege. 2. The nobility of the country. 3. The deputies of the capital. The biſhop is temporal and ſpiritual lord of the country, but in the latter capacity is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne. The chapter conſiſts of ſixty perſons, who muſt prove their deſcent to be noble for four generations, from both parents, or have diplomas from ſome celebrated univerſity.

The moſt conſiderable towns are the following: 1. Liege, the antient Leodium, called Luyck by the preſent inhabitants: it is ſituated on the river Maeſe, twelve miles ſouth of Maeſtricht, thirty miles north-eaſt of Namur, and fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of Bruſſels, in fifty degrees thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude, and fifty degrees forty minutes north latitude, being about four miles in circumference; a populous and wealthy city, two branches of the river Maeſe, and other rivulets and canals, running through ſeveral of the ſtreets, and forming little iſlands.

No city in Germany can equal it in fine churches or convents: there are not leſs than one hundred churches, and a very numerous clergy belonging to the churches and monaſteries, which are ſo pleaſantly ſituated, and have ſuch endowments, that the city is ſometimes called the paradiſe of the eccleſiaſtics. Here is a univerſity of great fame, and, among other religious houſes, one of Engliſh nuns.

The citadel is capable of making a good defence; but the fortifications of the town are not very ſtrong, and are commanded by the neighbouring hills. Its biſhop, who was the elector of Cologne, put the citadel into the hands of the French, at the beginning of queen Anne's war; but the duke of Marlborough took it from them, anno 1702; and the French beſieging it again in 1705, the ſame general, on his return from Moſelle, obliged them to raiſe the ſiege.

This is pretended to be an imperial city, or ſovereign ſtate, by the magiſtrates of Liege; but they have ſuffered very ſeverely for diſputing the authority of their biſhop, who is, in fact, abſolute ſovereign of the city, as well as the biſhopric. He is choſen by the ſixty major canons, moſt of whom are of noble extraction. This biſhop is one of the moſt conſiderable eccleſiaſtical princes in Germany, having within his dioceſe fifty-two baronies, eighteen walled towns, and four hundred villages full of people, with a revenue of three hundred thouſand ducats per annum, and is able to maintain a body of eight thouſand men, without oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are chiefly Roman catholics. Their trade with Holland is the moſt conſiderable; great quantities of iron, ſtone, chalk, &c. are every day carried down thither by the Maeſe; for which they bring back in return herrings, cheeſe, butter, and all kinds of grocery.

A proverbial ſaying of the following tenor prevails here, namely: that "this city is the women's hell, the men's purgatory, and the prieſts paradiſe." And we ſhall not find this proverb fall ſhort of the truth, after being told, that the women draw their boats up the river, inſtead of horſes; they dig, ſaw, carry all kinds of heavy burdens, and are for the moſt part naked. The poor laity are without money in their pockets, and their conſciences are at the abſolute diſpoſal of their prieſts; which irkſome ſtate may juſtly be deemed a purgatory. But the prieſts have truly their paradiſe here; for the greateſt princes in Europe make intereſt to be of this chapter, becauſe the revenues and power of it exceed that of any other.

The other places are: 1. Huy, or Hugum, on the eaſt ſide of the Maeſe, and fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Liege. 2. Tongres, or Tungri, ſituated on the river Jecker, ten miles north-weſt of Liege, and ten weſt of Maeſtricht. 3. Dinant, on the Maeſe, twelve miles ſouth of Namur. 4. Bouillon, on the river Semoy, thirty miles ſouth of Dinant, and about ten from the frontiers of Champain. It is a fortified town, and, with a ſmall territory annexed to it, gives the title of the duke to the biſhop of Liege. 5. St. Tren, famous for its Benedictine abbey. 6. Viſat, a fortified town on the Maeſe. 7. Herſtal. 8. Borchlaen, gives name to a county. 9. Hoorn. 10. Tranchimon, gives name to a marquiſate. 11. Verviers, on the Weze. 12. Cuivin. 13. Thuin, on the Sombre. 14. Haſſelt, on the Damer. 15. Lobbes, a Benedictine abbey.

16. The town of Spa, or Spaw, though ſmall, is a place of ſome note: it is ſituated on the little river Weze, twenty miles diſtant from Liege towards the ſouth-eaſt, and ſeven from Linſburg towards the ſouth-weſt. The avenues to it are exceeding ſtony and difficult; and it is ſo ſurrounded by mountains, that you cannot ſee it till you approach very near to it. In travelling to Spa, either by Liege or Aix-la-Chapelle, the way lies chiefly through uncultivated deſerts, and thoſe almoſt rocky. There are mountains on every ſide, which ſucceed one another, and over which travellers have made ſome imperfect traces of a road. The rains and tempeſts, which are frequent there, even make the paſſage ſometimes dangerous, by cauſing great ſtones to roll down from the precipice. The coachmen of the country are themſelves often at a loſs, becauſe the tracks are defaced between ſeaſon and ſeaſon.

There are four ſtreets in this town, in the form of a croſs: they may contain about four hundred houſes, for the conveniency of thoſe who come to drink the waters. It was formerly but a little village, which, through the fame of its mineral waters, has been enlarged, and erected into a borough. Here are five principal wells, which go down with ſteps, like that at Tunbridge: the chief well, called Pouxhon, or Pahon, in the market-place, is the moſt reſorted to, and has a Latin inſcription upon it, which expreſſes the qualities of the waters, and may be thus tranſlated: "Sacred to health: theſe waters open obſtructions, concoct crudities, dry up exceſſive moiſture, and ſtrengthen weak parts, provided you take them properly." They draw from this ſpring that prodigious quantity of water, which is conveyed into foreign countries, and eſpecially into England and Holland, ſealed up in bottles, with the town ſeal upon them.

There is a fountain of freſh water, next to the well of Pouxhon, which has its ſpring in a meadow half a mile diſtant from the town. The bottom of it is of blue ſtone, and the top of braſs; it ſpouts its water out of the mouths of three frogs, whence it is called the toads fountain by the people.

In a wood about two miles diſtant from Spaw, towards the ſouth-weſt, is the well called Geronſterre, or Geronſtar. It is covered with a dome of blue ſtone, ſupported by four pillars of red and white marble: it affords conſiderably leſs water than the former, and yet is the moſt frequented. The three other wells, called the Saviniere, the Watroz, and the Tonnelet, or Little Tun, are not much uſed. Theſe waters have been known many ages ago, and are ſaid to have been mentioned by Pliny. The ſeaſons for drinking them are in the hot months of June, July, and Auguſt. The capuchins have a very fine monaſtery, adorned with large gardens, where all the company,

pany, who drink the waters, are allowed to walk. Several princes who have been here, have left behind them proofs of their liberality.

This place is governed by a mayor, two burgomaſters, ſeven inferior magiſtrates, and a recorder, named by the prince of Liege, and changed by him every year. The people are very good-natured, and ſpeak the ſame Walloon, or barbarous French, as at Liege. They employ themſelves in making boxes for ladies toilets, ſnuff, and other boxes, varniſhed after the manner of china-ware, which they ſell to the company as they go to and from the wells. In the hotteſt wars, this place has been always allowed a neutrality, on account of the great reſort of people for its waters.

The circumjacent territory is not very fruitful in corn, being chiefly covered with woods, mountains, and heaths; but it abounds with ſprings of mineral and ſweet waters, and in ſeveral ſorts of game; and there is plenty of trout, and other kinds of fiſh, in the little rivers which flow from the mountains.

Oſnaburg, or Oſnabrug, which is a biſhopric, is ſituated between the Weſer and the Ems, having Minden on the eaſt, Munſter on the weſt. Diepholt on the north-eaſt, and Ravenſburg on the ſouth-weſt. It is about forty-five miles long, and twenty-five broad, and produces rye, paſturage, cattle, horſes, hogs, turf, coals, and marble. The inhabitants, who are partly proteſtants, and partly Roman catholics, cure great quantities, and deal conſiderably in hams, bacon, &c.

By a treaty concluded here in 1648, this biſhopric was to be an alternative between the Roman catholics and Lutherans, and the Lutheran biſhop was always to be a younger prince of the houſe of Brunſwic Lunenburg, or, in caſe of failure thereof, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle; in conſequence of which ſtipulation, his preſent Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763, is now biſhop of Oſnaburg. But though this biſhopric is thus alternatively hereditary in this proteſtant family, it is not ſo with regard to its Roman catholic biſhops; for they are choſen out of different families by a chapter of twenty-five canons, of whoſe prebends the revenues of eighteen are enjoyed by the Romiſh eccleſiaſticks; thoſe of four by the jeſuits, for the ſupport of their college; and the other three by the Lutheran canons, who are capable of electing, but not of being elected biſhops, as the Roman catholics are. When they have a popiſh biſhop, he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne; but the proteſtant biſhop, who is a temporal prince indeed, has little to demonſtrate him an eccleſiaſtic, but the title; and it was agreed, by the treaty aforeſaid, that when there is a proteſtant biſhop, the archbiſhop of Cologne ſhould ſuſpend the exerciſe of his metropolitan juriſdiction, with regard to the proteſtants. Dr. Nicholſon obſerves, that, ſince the Reformation, introduced here in 1634, the biſhop, whether papiſt or proteſtant, has little more than the name, the Lutherans not allowing the exerciſe of epiſcopal juriſdiction, and the papiſts being not ſtrong enough to obtain it for the biſhop of their own opinion. It is obſerved by hiſtorians, that Charles the Great, who founded this ſee, and dedicated the cathedral to St. Peter, and the two martyrs Criſpin and Criſpinian, exempted its biſhop from all manner of homage and ſervice, except in an embaſſy, at the emperor's charge, to negotiate any match that ſhould be propoſed betwixt the families of the eaſtern and weſtern emperors.

The biſhop is able to raiſe two thouſand five hundred men, though he has only one hereditary officer, viz. a grand maitre, or ſteward. When there is a proteſtant biſhop, he keeps a neat little court at Oſnaburg; but when he is a Roman catholic, who is generally ſome elector, or one who holds ſeveral other great benefices in commendam, the epiſcopal revenue is carried out of the country, and ſpent abroad, as it now is, at the court of London. The diets are held at Oſnaburg. The manufactures are coarſe linen, woollen, and yarn. The revenue of this biſhopric amounts to between twenty and thirty thouſand pounds.

The principal places are: 1. Oſnaburg, the capital, which was formerly an imperial city, and one of the Hanſe, but is now ſubject to the biſhop. It has its name from a bridge over the Oſe, which divides it into Old and New Town, and is ſituated ſixty-ſeven miles weſt of Hanover, in the midſt of a fine plain. It is a neat well-built city, and adorned with ſeveral handſome public ſtructures. It is encompaſſed with walls and ditches, but commanded by a mountain within cannon-ſhot; upon which there is an abbey, or ſacred retirement rather, for men of quality. The biſhop's palace, called Peterſburg, or St. Peter's caſtle, is well fortified, and ſeparated from the town by a bridge. It is a hexagon with a court in the middle, and at each corner a turret. It was in one of the apartments in this palace that king George the firſt expired, the eleventh of June, 1727, in the arms of his brother Prince Erneſt, and, as ſome ſay, in the very room where he was born.

The papiſts have the cathedral church, and the church and monaſtery of the Dominicans in the old city, and the collegiate church of St. John in the new. The Lutherans have the great parochial church of St. Mary in the old city, and have a voice in chuſing the magiſtrates of both; and therefore the government of the city is mixed of both. Hubner ſays, here are three convents for monks, and five for nuns.

The inhabitants, who are very induſtrious, not only breed abundance of hogs and other cattle, but have a conſiderable trade in making linen; in brewing a palatable, though thick ſort of beer, called buſe; and in baking the beſt white bread in Weſtphalia. In the cathedral are ſtill ſeen ſome ornaments of Charles the Great, among which are his crown of ſilver gilt, his comb, battoon, &c. As the exerciſe of both religions is equally free, neither papiſts nor proteſtants are moleſted during the government of a biſhop of the oppoſite perſuaſion.

2. The town of Iburg ſtands about ten miles ſouth of Oſnaburg. 3. Furſtenaw gives name to a diſtrict, which contains fifteen pariſhes. 4. Weidenburg, on the Ems. 5. Melle. 6. Vorden. 7. Quackenburg, on the Oſe.

The county of Hoye, one of the elector of Hanover's domains, has Bremen on the north, Minden on the ſouth, Lunenburg on the eaſt, and Diepholt on the weſt. It formerly belonged to counts of an ancient Saxon family, to whom it was given by the emperor Lotharius; but after the death of the laſt, in 1582, it was divided between the families of Brunſwic and Heſſe. Hoye, with Nyenburg, Liebenau, and Bruckhauſen, became ſubject to the duke of Lunenburg; the forts of Seltzenaw, Ezenburg, and five more towns, to the houſe of Brunſwic; and Freudenburg and Ucht to the landgrave of Heſſe; the latter of which gave their ſhare to the counts of Bentheim; ſo that now it belongs almoſt wholly to his Britannic majeſty.

Its chief town, of the ſame name, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Weſer, twenty-five miles ſouth eaſt of Bremen, thirty-ſix north-eaſt of Minden and Diepholt, and forty north-weſt of Zell. It is a ſmall, but well-fortified town, with one of the ſtrongeſt caſtles in Weſtphalia.

2. Nyenburg, on the eaſt bank alſo of the Weſer, ten miles ſouth of Hoye, is another well-fortified town, which ſuſtained ſeveral ſieges during the wars of Germany. It was formerly the reſidence of the counts of Hoye, and its territory abounds with all ſorts of grain, fruits, paſture, and cattle. It has a caſtle on the weſt ſide of it, with broad deep ditches, and a good rampart, which commands the Weſer, and good part of the town, which has ſtrong walls with a double ditch, and other works, that almoſt ſurround it. It had a fine bridge over the Weſer, which, being ruined, is ſupplied by ferry-boats, to preſerve the commerce between the two circles of Weſtphalia and Lower Saxony, which conſiſts chiefly of corn, wool, flax, honey, wax, and cattle. It has a fine pariſh church, with all the ornaments that architecture can give it; in which are the monuments of many of the counts of Hoye, whoſe remains lie here.

3. The borough of Old Bruckhauſen. 4. Liebenau. 5. Drakenburg, on the Weſer. 6. Harpſtedt, on the Delme. 7. Baſſum, a borough belonging to the landgrave of Heſſe. 8. Kellingerode. 9. Suhlingen, the reſidence of a ſuperintendent.

Vernenburg county appertains partly to the archbiſhop of Treves, and partly to the count of Lowenſtein-Wertheim, both of whom it intitles to a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college, and alſo in the diets of the circle: it is almoſt ſurrounded by the archbiſhopric of Treves. The little town of Vernenburg is the only place in it worth notice.

The county of Steinfurt is ſurrounded by the biſhopric of Munſter. It is fifteen miles long, and ten broad, and belongs partly to the empire, and partly to the primate of Munſter; is watered by the Aa, and gives to its count a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college, and in the diets of the circle. The town of Steinfurt, which ſtands on the Aa, is the only town worth mentioning.

The duchy of Verden, which is in length twenty-two miles, and in breadth eighteen, is bounded by Hoye on the ſouth, Bremen on the north, Lunenburg on the eaſt, and the Weſer on the weſt. The inhabitants are Lutherans, and the whole belongs to the king of Great Britain,

who, on account of this duchy, has a ſeat among the princes at the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle. It is well watered, but the ſoil is poor.

The only places worthy of obſervation are: 1. Verden, on the Aller, the capital, fifty miles ſouth-weſt from Hamburg. 2. Rotenburg, on the Wumme, fifteen miles from Verden.

The abbey of Corvey is bounded by Paderborn, Brunſwic, and Swalenburg. It is a ſmall diſtrict, but is tolerably fertile, watered by the Weſer, and has a Benedictine abbey, founded by the emperor Lewis I. The abbot is a prince of the empire, having a ſeat in the college of princes, and at the diets of the circle, and the empire. It is called Corbie, or Corvey abbey, from the firſt monks having been taken from Corbie in Picardy.

The abbey of Malmedi conſtitutes a ſmall town ſituated amongſt high hills, on the little river Recht, twenty-five miles diſtant from Liege to the ſouth-eaſt, and nine from Limburg to the ſouth. They reckon here about four hundred houſes, moſt of them inhabited by leather-dreſſers or woollen-drapers. Here are ſeveral ſprings of mineral waters, which ſome phyſicians ſay are as wholeſome and as ſtrong as thoſe of Spa. The parochial church is dedicated to St. Gerçon the martyr; and here is a convent of capuchins, and another of nuns of St. Sepulchre: but it is chiefly remarkable for its abbey of Benedictine monks, under the ſame abbot with that of Stavelo. This town, though within the territory of the prince of Liege, is, nevertheleſs, reſpecting ſpiritual matters, under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Cologne.

The abbey of Stavelo (by ſome erroneouſly called Stablo) ſtands on the little river Ambleve, which ſomewhere lower falls into the Recht. It is about ſix miles diſtant from Malmedi to the eaſt, and nine from Lienburg towards the ſouth. Here are about four hundred houſes, and the inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade, though this town, being quite open, has ſuffered very much during the wars. Here is a famous abbey of Benedictine monks, founded in the year 657, at the ſame time with that of Malmedi.

The abbot of Stavelo, who is ſtiled a prince of the empire, is ſpiritual and temporal lord of this town, and of its territory, which is very large, including the town of Malmedi; and his yearly income amounts to about twelve thouſand crowns. The abbey church, which is at the ſame time parochial, is a ſtately building in the modern taſte; under it there is a crypta, or ſubterraneous church, with five altars.

Here are alſo ſome mineral ſprings, ſaid to be very wholeſome. The trade of this town conſiſts in woollen cloth and other ſtuffs, and chiefly in a great quantity of leather curried here.

The abbey of Werden was founded in 778 by St. Ludger, whoſe eſtate it was, for monks of the order of St. Benedict. The diſtrict belonging to it is ſituated in the county of Mark. The revenue is twenty thouſand rix-dollars. The only remarkable place is Werden, a little walled town upon the Roer. The king of Pruſſia claims the right of ſovereignty here.

The abbey of St. Cornelis Munſter, and its territory, are ſurrounded by thoſe of Juliers, Limburg, and Aix-la-Chapelle. The abbot has a ſeat at the diets of the empire, on the Rheniſh bench of prelates; but he ſits among the princes at thoſe of the circle.

The abbey of Eſſen, and its territory, are ſurrounded by Berg, Cleves, Werden, and the county of Mark. The abbey was founded in the year 877, by Alfred, biſhop of Hildeſheim. The king of Pruſſia is hereditary protector: the abbeſs ſtiles herſelf princeſs of the holy Roman empire; the chapter conſiſts of none but noble ladies, and the abbey has a ſeat in the diets of the empire and circle. The hereditary officers are, the marſhal, ſteward, chamberlain, and ſewer.

The only place of any conſideration in the territory is Eſſen, which is ſubject to the abbeſs as its ſovereign, but has very extenſive privileges. It contains an academy, a gymnaſium, a commandery of the Teutonic order, and ſeveral Roman catholic and proteſtant churches, has ſome trade, and a cloth manufactory.

The abbey of Thern is ſituated in the biſhopric of Leige, and county of Hoarn. It has a ſeat in the diets of the empire and circle, and a chapter which conſiſts of princeſſes and counteſſes of the order of St. Benedict. It is an imperial free ſecular foundation, erected in the year 1000.

The abbey of Herford is ſituated in Ravenſburg; gives title of princeſs and prelateſs of the holy Roman empire to its abbeſs, contains none but canoneſſes, and is a Lutheran foundation. The number of ladies is indeterminate; the abbeſs is ſuperior of the collegiate church of St. Mary, of the oppoſite mountains, and the prebends are in her gift. The canoneſſes wear a ſcarlet ribbon, with a ſilver border hanging from the right ſhoulder, having a croſs at the end with the figures of Jeſus Chriſt and the Virgin Mary, and on the left breaſt is a ſtar with the ſame figures. This abbey was erected in the eighth century, and has a ſeat at the diets of the empire and circle.

The duchy of Berg is fifty miles long, and twenty broad, and takes its name from being mountainous. It is bounded on the weſt by the Rhine; on the eaſt by Weſtphalia; on the north by the county of Mark, and on the ſouth by the electorate of Cologne. Though mountainous in many places, in ſome parts it produces corn, paſturage, fruit, vines, wood, herbs, &c. and is rich in coals, iron, &c. The manufactures are cloth, iron, and ſteel. The ſame regency and diet ſerves for this duchy and that of Juliers.

The places moſt worthy of notice in Berg, are, 1. Duſſeldorp, at the confluence of the Duſſel with the Rhine: it is twenty miles from Cologne, and fifty-ſeven from Munſter, and ſtands in the midſt of a fine fruitful plain. The Rhine runs againſt it with ſuch violence, that they have been obliged to make great works to break the current. It is large, pleaſant, well built, and defended by a citadel, which is ſeparated from it by a ſmall harbour formed by the Rhine, and conſiſts of two royal baſtions faced with brick; and in the other parts it is fortified by five baſtions, and cavaliers on them. The public buildings towards the river make a fine appearance; particularly its ſtately palace, an old gothic ſtructure, (with excellent paintings by the beſt maſters, braſs antiques, ſtatues of marble, portable cabinets, &c.) which was the elector palatine's chief reſidence during the horrid devaſtations of the palatinate by the French towards the end of the laſt century.

In the market-place, over againſt the palace, is an equeſtrian ſtatue in braſs, on a pedeſtal of grey marble, of the elector John William, in armour, with the electoral bonnet on his head. The elector's reſidence being fixed at Manheim, a regency is eſtabliſhed here; for the counties of Berg and Juliers, which bring in a million of crowns per annum for the elector, are governed by ſtates, without whoſe conſent he can lay no taxes. All religions are here tolerated; but the catholics alone are admitted to civil employments. Though the poſſeſſion be the elector's, yet the title is diſputed by thoſe of Saxony and Brandenburg. Here are three weekly markets for corn, which is imported hither from the Low Countries, and exported in great quantities to Cologne, and other parts of Germany.

The other places in this duchy are, 1. Ratingen, which has a ſeat and voice at the diets. 2. Solingen. 3. Neſſelrode. 4. Blackenberg. 5. Siegberg, on the Sieg. 6. Mulkum, near Cologne. 7. Lenneſt, which has the firſt place and voice at the diets. 8. Wipperfort, on the Wipper, has a ſeat and voice at the diets. 9. Beyenberg, gives name to a diſtrict. 10. Elverfeld. 11. Langenberg. 12. Kornberg. 13. Benſberg has a ſtrong fort and monaſtery, of the order of the Holy Croſs, which was built in 1298, and is the firſt of its kind in the empire. The caſtle or palace here was built in a foreſt on a hill, by the elector John William, and is a noble edifice. It ſtands three leagues from the Rhine, between Cologne and Duitz. It is built of a very hard ſtone; and the ornaments, particularly the pillars that ſupport the gallery in the front, are a kind of grey marble, dug out of the neighbouring quarries. The apartments are large, well decorated with the fineſt paintings; and they have a very extenſive proſpect, containing a great variety of beautiful ſcenes and delightful landſcapes, and, among others, of the city of Cologne, the Rhine, and all the flat country.

The principality of Naſſau-Sigen, or Siegen, near which is an iron mine, ſtands on the river Siega, fifteen miles from Dillemberg, and thirty north-eaſt from Naſſau, on the top of a rocky hill, defended by a ſtrong wall, and regular fortifications; and gives name to a country, of which it is the capital, as well as title to another branch of the Naſſau family. It is thought to be Ptolomy's Segodunum. Here is a caſtle, in which the elector of Cologne keeps a garriſon, as director of the circle; and not far from hence is a very good iron mine. In 1559 the prince of Naſſau-Siegen's padagogium was brought hither from Herborn; and ſoon became ſo famous, that it was frequented by ſtudents from Germany, Poland, Livonia, Denmark, &c.

to

to which an academy was added for training up youth in martial exercises.

The principality of Dillemburg stands on the river Dilla, sixteen miles west from Marpurg, and thirty two north-east from Nassau, and gives name to a county; it has a good trade in cattle, and woollen goods; and two yearly fairs, viz. the day after Passion Sunday, and the Monday after St. Margaret's-day. The castle is surrounded by the town, which is built in a semicircle to the west, north, and east; and there is a fine church, where the counts of this branch are interred. The court-yard is on the south-side of the castle, and adorned with pavilions, walks, and other embellishments. The counts of that branch, called Nassau-Dillemberg, had their seat in a fine strong castle that stands on the top of a neighbouring hill, where is a large arsenal, furnished with arms and ammunition for several thousand horse and foot; and the jaw-bone of a monstrous whale caught near Catwic, in 1598, which is a great curiosity.

The town of Beilstein, or Beilinstein, fifteen miles north-east from Nassau, twenty-seven south-east from Siegen, and twelve miles south of Herborn, gives name to a county which was the inheritance of the Hadamars, a younger branch of the family of Nassau, and was the capital of it. It is an old town among rocky hills, but has a castle, and a church worthy the observation of a traveller; it lies in the mid-way between Marpurg on the east, and Coblentz on the west.

The small town of Hadamar is capital of a territory on the confines of the electorate of Treves, which had the title of a principality before the extinction of that branch of the Nassau family: it stands on the Lahn, twenty miles north of Mentz, and has a good castle for defence.

The county of Sayn belongs respectively to the margrave of Brandenburgh Anspach, the burgrave of Kirchburg, the counts of Witgenshein Hornburg, and the elector of Treves. The two first have a voice in the college: but all together have only one voice in the diet of the empire. Lutherans, Calvinists, and Roman catholics, have equally the free exercise of their religions.

The only places worth mentioning are, 1. Altenkirchen, the capital and the seat of a regency. 2. Hachenburg. 3. Bendorf, on the Rhine, gives name to a district. 4. Freusburg, on the Sieg, defended by a fortress, as is the neighbouring town of Triedwold.

The county of Wied is divided into two parts, viz. New-Wied or Lower County, and Wied Runkel or Upper County. The only places here worth notice are, 1. New-Wied, a small but regular town, on the Rhine. 2. Runkel, on the Lahn. 3. Dierdorf.

Shauenburg county is watered by the Weser, and surrounded by Calenburg, Minden, Lippe, and Ravensberg. It produces corn, pasture, salt, alum, crystals, with gold, silver, wood, free-stone, lime-stone, pit-coal, gipsum, copper, iron, pyrites, cattle, sheep, fish, &c. It is thirty miles long, twenty broad, and the inhabitants are mostly Lutherans.

This county belongs partly to the king of Great Britain, the landgrave of Hesse, and the count of Shauenburg Lippe. The two first have a distinct voice in the diets of the circle, and a joint voice in the college of the Westphalian counts of the empire.

The principal places are, 1. Steinhude, on the Steinhuder. 2. Hagenburg. 3. Sadthagen. 4. Shauenburg, from which the county derives its name, but at present exhibits only the ruins of an old castle. 5. Visbec on the Weser. 6. Mollenbeck. 7. Buckburg, which is remarkable for having a strong castle, a beautiful church, a well-endowed orphan-house, an elegant town-school, a large Calvinist church, and an admirable fountain in the market-place. 8. Rinteln, a fortified town between the Weser and Exter: here is a regency, a consistory, superintendency, and some trade is carried on by means of the Weser. 9. Oldendorf, on the Weser, between Hamelen and Rinteln. 10. Soltorf. 11. Oberinkirchen, famous for a noble foundation for Lutheran ladies. 12. Rodenberg.

Delmenhorst county, which is tolerably fertile, is surrounded by the Weser, Oldenburg, Diepholt, and Widhausen. The only place of any consideration in it is Delmenhorst, from which it takes its name. The town is situated on the river Delme, and has a strong castle to defend it. The government is vested in the regency of Oldenberg.

The county of Oldenberg is forty miles long, thirty broad, and bounded by East Friesland, on the west; Delmenhorst, and the Weser, on the east; Jover and Jode, on the north; and Munster, on the south. It is secured by dikes against inundations, and produces pasturage, cattle, horses, turf, &c. The king of Denmark, to whom this county belongs, is intitled, in right thereof, to a seat and voice both in the Westphalian college of counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle. The administration is by a regency, subordinate judicatories, a royal consistory, and a superintendency.

The following are the most considerable places in this county, viz. Oldenberg, situated at the conflux of the Hunte and the Haare. 2. Varel, situated in a wood, called, The Bush of Varel.

The county of Bentheim is forty miles long, and fifteen broad, surrounded by Munster and the United Provinces, and abounds in wood, stone quarries, grain, pasturage, honey, venison, game, cattle, fruit, and fish. It has linen and woollen-manufactories. The count has a seat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle. The inhabitants are Lutherans, Calvinists, and Roman catholics.

The principal places are, 1. Bentheim, from which the county takes its name: it is a large borough town, thirty miles north-west from Munster. 2. Nienhus on the Dinkel. 3. Wietmarsen, which has a seat and voice at the land diets. 4. Schuttorf, on the Vechte. 5. Northhorn, surrounded by the Vechte. 6. Frenswegen, a cloyster of regular canons of the order of St. Augustine, has a seat and voice at the land diets.

The imperial city of Dortmund is a large, but ill-built place, situated thirty-four miles from Munster: it has a seat and voice at the diets of the circle, and also at those of the empire. It is populous, rich, has a communication with the Rhine, by means of the Empser, and carries on a considerable trade. This was formerly one of the Hanse towns, has four Lutheran churches, two monasteries, and one nunnery.

We shall now give a particular description of one of the most famous imperial cities in Germany, called by the French, *Aix-la-Chapelle*. It stands fifteen miles north-east of the city of Limburg, and thirteen south-west of Juliers; twenty-eight east of Maestricht, twenty-six east of Liege, twenty-eight south-west of Cologne, and about twenty north-east of the Spa. It lies in a valley surrounded with mountains and woods; yet it enjoys a very wholesome air; and the hills are covered with vines. Its Latin name, Aquis granum, is supposed to be derived from Serenius Granus, lieutenant-general of Gallia Belgica, who, having discovered the springs here, anno 53, adorned them like the Roman baths, and built a palace near them; in confirmation whereof, the natives still shew, at the end of the town-house, a piece of ancient architecture, which they call Granus's tower, and say it was a part of his palace, though the building does not look so antient. According to Charlemagne's pragmatic sanction, this Granus was brother to Nero and Agrippa; and the Chronicle of Utrecht says, he was banished hither by Nero. Attila the Hunn having plundered and destroyed this city, it lay in ruins till the time of Charlemagne; who, hunting in the neighbouring woods, his horse happened to strike his hoof into one of the springs; which the emperor observing, and finding by the ruins of several great buildings that this must have been the old Aquis, he ordered the baths to be searched out; and rebuilt, founded, and endowed the collegiate church of St. Mary, in which he employed a great quantity of marble, that he sent for from Rome and Ravenna; and was so charmed with the situation of the place, that he built a palace here, together with all that part of the city which is enclosed by the old wall; and made it the seat of his empire on this side the Alps; ordaining, that the future kings of the Romans should be crowned here with an iron crown, as at Milan with one of silver, and at Rome with one of gold; which, though observed for a while, has been long since disused.

Both the palace and town were burnt in 882, by the Normans; but the church, having so much marble, stood its ground. After the town was rebuilt, it suffered much by other fires in 1146, 1172, 1224, 1236, and particularly in 1656, when twenty churches and chapels, and five thousand houses, were burnt, but soon after rebuilt. In 1668, that famous treaty was made here between France and Spain. This town is called by the French Aix-la-Chapelle, from a chapel in the great church, where are abundance of relics: it was noted for several councils, in the time of Charlemagne, and Lewis the Pious, about the procession of the Holy Ghost, reformation of manners, the regulation of monasteries, and against such as had seized the patrimonies of the church. It suffered much during the

the civil wars of Germany, when moſt of the citizens were proteſtants; but the Marquis de Spinola took the town in 1614, and re-eſtabliſhed popery: ſo that the proteſtants have not ſince been allowed any place of worſhip here, but go to church about two miles off, in that part of Limburgh which is ſubject to the Dutch.

Succeeding emperors continued to honour this city with their preſence, and to enlarge its privileges; ſo that it was made free and imperial. They were crowned here alſo for five hundred years after Charlemagne, as is expreſsly ordained by the golden bull of Charles IV. but ever ſince Maximilian I. when thirty-ſeven emperors had been crowned here ſucceſſively, that ceremony has been performed at Francfort, which, being in the centre of the empire, is more convenient for the princes, but particularly for the ſpiritual electors, and for the elector Palatine, who may ſend for their equipages, and return them back by the navigable rivers, the Rhine, Main, &c. Nevertheleſs, the emperors, when crowned at Francfort, proteſt, it ſhall be without prejudice to the privileges of this city: for Charlemagne having himſelf been a canon of its cathedral, and ordered his ſucceſſors to be ſo; they take an oath as ſuch, when crowned; at which time the magiſtrates ſend Charlemagne's ſword, ſhoulder-belt, and the goſpel in golden letters, to the elector of Mentz; who gives ſecurity for reſtoring them to this city after the ſolemnity of the coronation.

Dr. Blondel, a phyſician here, in his deſcription of this city and its baths, printed in Latin at Maeſtricht, in 1683, tells us, it recovered its loſſes in the above-mentioned fires, by the bounty of ſeveral emperors, and the great concourſe of people to its baths. Frederic I. built the outer walls, towers, and ditches, in 1172. The circuit of the whole city is a league and an half, and the inner town three quarters. The inner wall has ten gates, and the outer eleven. The town-houſe, or ſenate-houſe, which was built in 1553, and lately repaired by the citizens, in hopes of having the Congreſs there, and not at Soiſſons, is a noble ſtructure of free ſtone, and one of the fineſt in Germany. It is adorned with the ſtatues of all the emperors ſince Charlemagne, and with curious hiſtory-paintings; particularly thoſe by Amiſſaga, highly valued; among which are, that of the reſurrection, and that of Charlemagne's giving the city their charter: the uppermoſt ſtory of it is one hall, one hundred and ſixty-two feet by ſixty; in which the emperors, who formerly received their firſt crown of iron here, as above-mentioned, uſed to entertain the electors, and other princes who aſſiſted at the coronation.

In the market-place, over-againſt the town-houſe, there is a large ſtately fountain, with four ſprings, that run, from above, into a copper ciſtern thirty feet in diameter, and weighing twelve thouſand pounds: round the edges of it there is a Latin inſcription, importing the diſcovery of the hot ſpring by Granus, as above; as well as the renewing of the baths by Charlemagne; that the cold fountain did formerly run into the baths; and that the ſenate adorned it, with this ciſtern, in 1620. From this the water runs, by ſix pipes, into a ſtone ciſtern below, and from thence it is conveyed through the city. On the top of the fountain there is a large braſs ſtatue of Charlemagne in armour, richly gilt, with his face towards Germany. As the city lies in a valley ſurrounded with mountains and woods, there are twenty other public fountains of good clear water, beſides many private ones. Here are ten hot mineral fountains, and ſome cold ones, without St. James's gate, beſides ſeveral in the adjacent fields; and the ſtreams that run through the town keep it very clean, and drive ſeveral mills. Here are thirty parochial or collegiate churches, beſides the cathedral, a large old-faſhioned gothic pile, which was conſecrated by Pope Leo. III. in preſence of the emperor Charlemagne, and three hundred and ſixty-five biſhops. The ſteeple at the weſt end is adorned with ſeveral pyramids, and on the top there is a large globe and croſs. From this tower, which is much higher than the body of the church, runs a gallery, ſupported by a long arch, to a cupola near the middle of the fabric: the inſide is beautified with a vaſt number of pillars of marble and braſs, gilt ſtatues, braſs doors, and partitions, and a great deal of moſaic work.

Over the place where Charlemagne was firſt interred hangs a large crown of ſilver and braſs gilt, adorned with ſixteen ſmall towers, ſurrounded with forty-eight ſtatues a foot high; and thirty-two leſſer ſtatues, all of ſilver; among which are commonly placed forty-eight candleſticks, and at certain grand feſtivals no leſs than four hundred and fifty tapers: this crown was the gift of the emperor Frederic I. who, removing Charlemagne's body, interred it, in a ſilver coffin, under the altar of the choir, and covered it with the white marble tomb-ſtone it had before, with the buſt of Proſerpina upon it, ſuppoſed to have been taken from the tomb of Julius Cæſar. Out of this tomb were taken a great many rarities and reliques, which the ſaid emperor had got from Aaron king of Perſia, the patriarchs of Jeruſalem, Conſtantinople, &c. Here is alſo the monument of the emperor Otho I. in black marble.

At the jubilee, once in ſeven years, the four chief reliques ſhewn to the pilgrims here, are 1. What they call the gown, or ſhift, ſaid to be worn by the Virgin Mary, at the birth of our Saviour, made of a ſort of flax that ſeems to be neither linen nor callico; but as it is only expoſed from the top of a high tower, it is not eaſy to determine what ſort of apparel it is. 2. A coarſe linen cloth, pretended to be girt about our Saviour on the croſs. 3. A piece of the cord he was bound with. 4. Some of the blood, as they ſay, of the protomartyr St. Stephen, richly inchaſed in gold and precious ſtones, on which the emperors are ſworn at the inauguration. Here is the picture of the Virgin Mary, with our Saviour in her arms, embоſſed on a jaſper, about two inches broad, found in the emperor Charlemagne's tomb, and pretended to be the work of St. Luke; alſo a manuſcript copy of the goſpels, in a cover of ſilver gilt, found in the ſame tomb; and Charlemagne's ſword, put on by his ſucceſſors at their coronation, and uſed in the dubbing of knights, and conferring other honours. At the eaſt end of the cathedral our Saviour is repreſented ſitting in majeſty, with a long robe, on a throne; round which are the four animals repreſented in Ezekiel's viſion: over his head is a circle of golden ſtars, and underneath it a ſymbol of the croſs which appeared to Conſtantine when he defeated Maxentius. Here is alſo a repreſentation of the twenty four elders, mentioned in the Revelation, riſing from their ſeats, laying aſide their crowns, and falling down before the throne. The windows are curiouſly gilt, and the pavement is of chequered marble. An immenſe treaſure is amaſſed here, conſiſting of veſſels of gold, and ſilver gilt, copes embroidered with pearls, and other rich veſtments. Over the chief altar there is a cheſt of ſilver and gold, of antique workmanſhip, and curiouſly engraved, in which are kept the four reliques above-mentioned. At the entrance of the choir there is a pulpit covered with plates of gold and ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones, (eſpecially a very large agate) the gift of the emperor Henry II. The altar of the choir is covered with plates of gold alſo, repreſenting our Saviour's paſſion, which, it is ſaid, was found in Charlemagne's ſepulchre. In the upper part of the church over againſt the prince's altar, between two pillars, is a throne, or chair, of white marble, ſuppoſed to have been placed there by the emperor Charlemagne, in which the emperors uſed to ſit when conſecrated, and receive the firſt obeiſance of the electors and the chapter of the cathedral, in quality of king of the Romans. The protectors of this city are, the emperor, as Duke of Brabant; and the elector Palatine, as duke of Juliers; and the latter names the mayor, or conſul, who is for life, and is aſſiſted in the government by two burgomaſters, or joint conſuls, fourteen aldermen, who are alſo for life, and act as judges, and one hundred and twenty common council, that are elected, as are likewiſe the burgomaſters, by fifteen trading companies of the burghers; and continue two years in their office.

There are three baths within the inner walls of the Old Town, viz. the emperor's, the little bath, and St. Quirinus's. Charlemagne was ſo much delighted in the firſt, that he often invited his ſons and his nobles to bathe and ſwim there with him; for it was the cuſtom anciently to bathe there, an hundred, perhaps, together; but it is now divided into five bathing-rooms. The little bath joins to it; and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. They are impregnated with nitre and ſulphur; and ſometimes cakes of brimſtone and ſalt-petre, of a conſiderable thickneſs, are taken out of them. They are unpleaſant to taſte at firſt, and ſmell like a rotten egg. Near theſe baths there is a fountain of warm water, much reſorted to in ſummer mornings, and drank for chronical diſeaſes; thoſe in the New Town, which are, the roſe bath, the poor's bath, and St. Corneille's, are not ſo hot and clear as the former, and their ſmell is ſomewhat offenſive. Near the hot ſprings lie many cold ones, by which their heat might be tempered; and, with a little charge, they might be made the moſt delightful baths in the world.

Dr. Blondel ſays, that bathing in theſe waters is good

againſt all nervous diſorders; ſuch as convulſions, palſies, numbneſs, trembiings, ſciatica, gout, ſwellings, diſtempers of the bowels, vertigoes, tingling of the ears, nephritic diſtempers, moiſt and cold affections of the womb, barrenneſs, abortion, ſcabs, and dregs of mercury. Though they are propereſt for bathing, they are alſo drank, in ſeveral caſes, with ſucceſs, againſt hot diſtempers of the liver, ſpleen, reins, and bowels, obſtructions of the meſentery, pancreas, &c. They cure the yellow jaundice, and its effects, a cachexy and dropſy. They are good againſt inveterate and ſtubborn fevers, tertian and quartan agues, and bleeding at the noſe. They cure the ſcurvy, gout, rheumatiſm, and other diſtempers proceeding from too much ſerum in the blood. They kill worms, dry over-moiſt parts, and help conception. They purge the urinary veſſels of all impurities, cure ſtranguries and ſtoppages, diſſolve and expel the ſtone and gravel. They are excellent againſt aſthmas, and the moſt inverate cholics, ſchirrous ſwellings, ſcrophulous diſtempers, and diarrhœas, ulcers of the gums and teeth, and various other diſorders. From theſe virtues may be ſeen the agreement between the waters of this place, and thoſe of the Engliſh baths.

The charming village of Borcet, or Porcet, is ſituated about a furlong from the ſouth gate: its name was derived from the wild hogs that formerly abounded in the neighbouring woods. Here are alſo many hot ſprings on both ſides of a ſmall cool rivulet, which runs through the town: they are conveyed by pipes and conduits into fourteen houſes, in which are formed twenty-eight baths; ſome of which are much hotter than thoſe in the town, and muſt be cooled eighteen hours before they can be uſed. Their water is clear and pleaſant, without any diſagreeable ſmell. They are, for the moſt part, five or ſix yards ſquare. There is one quite open to the air, called the Poor man's bath, which has a ſpring ſo hot, that the people ſcald pigs, and boil eggs with it; but it is obſerved, that they only harden the yolks, and not the whites. Theſe baths are not ſo ſtrong as thoſe in the city, and, by conſequence, the better for weak people; and thoſe of all ages and conditions bathe in them for their diverſion, without any danger. They are good againſt the ſame diſtempers as the others, and particularly againſt defluxions of the head and breaſt, moiſt and ſqueamiſh ſtomachs, dropſies, ſoft ſwellings, &c. and may be drank as well as thoſe of the city; but the latter are more ſolutive, and thoſe of the village more ſtrengthening. The fountains are, in both places, ſo plentiful, that they are capable of filling, ſeveral times in a day, above fifty baths, of ſixty or ſeventy tons each; and moſt of them, except thoſe for the poor, are ſo contrived, that the old water is drawn off by ſubterraneous conduits, and the baths cleanſed from all impurities. The firſt ſeaſon for theſe baths is about the eighteenth of May, the ſecond about the eighteenth of Auguſt, and continues each time ſix weeks. It is computed, that from the baths in the city, and in this village, there flow ſix thouſand tons of water per day, which carry as many pounds weight of ſalt.

Borcet is a well-built village, has four handſome churches, and a nunnery of Bernardines, whoſe abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire; but there lies an appeal from her court to the chief magiſtrates of the city. The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and paſturage; the woods there furniſh them with materials for fire and building, as the quarries do for ſtone. The territories of the city are large, and contain near two hundred villages, incloſed on all ſides with mountains. They have rich coal mines here, beſides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ſulphur, and lapis calaminaris, and are well ſupplied with neceſſaries by the Rhine and Maeſe.

The circle of Weſtphalia, beſides the places already deſcribed, contains the following leſs conſiderable counties, ſeigniories, &c. namely,

Spiegelberg county, which is held by the prince of Orange of the elector of Hanover; hence the civil and eccleſiaſtical judicatories are ſubordinate to thoſe of Brunſwic Lunenburg, and the elector has a ſeat in the college, and at the diets. The only place in this county, worthy of obſervation, is Spiegelberg, an ancient caſtle in a mountain, in the vicinity of which there is a caſtle to which pilgrimages are made, and an hoſpital for old women.

Rettberg county is furrounded by Ravenſberg, Lippe, Paderborn, and Oſnaburg; its length is ſeventeen miles, its breadth ſix. Its only town, called Rittberg, is ſituated on the Ems. The county enjoys a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle.

Holzapfel county belongs to the prince of Anhalt-Bernburg Hoym. The ſeigniories of Wittem, Eyſs, and Schlenachen, belong to the count of Platterburgh, and both intitle their proprietors to a ſeat in the diets of the circle, and the college of the empire.

The ſeigniories of Gehmen, Gimborn, and Neuſtadt, Wickerhad, Mylendock, Richtenſtein, Kerpen, Lommerſum, Schleinden, and the counties of Blankenheim, Geroiſtein, and Hallermund, all intitle their reſpective proprietors to a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle. But thoſe privileges are not allowed to the lords of the ſeigniories of Dyck, Sconau, Richold, Merchemic, Jever, Koriphauſen, Dreyſz, and Wybre.

Anhalt ſeigniory belongs to the prince of Salem, who, on that account, enjoys a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle; as does the count Metteruic for the ſeigniories of Bielſtein and Wrurienburg.

Diepholt county lies ſouth of Delmenhorſt, is twelve miles long, five broad, and contains a lake called Dummerſee, which abounds with fiſh and wild ducks. The only town, Diepholt, ſituated on the Hunte, is a borough. The ſoil of this country is ſterile; the inhabitants trade in black cattle, and coarſe linen and woollen, which they manufacture: they profeſs the Lutheran religion.

The town of Pyrmont lies on the borders of Hanover, near Lugde, thirty-eight miles ſouth-weſt of Hanover, and twenty eaſt of Lemgow. It is the capital of a county, with a very ſtrong fort, formerly ſubject to its own lords, and now belongs to the prince of Waldec. There is a great reſort of German and other nobility hither to drink the waters, which are preferred even to thoſe of Spa, and exported abroad from Bremen, whither they are carried by the Weſer. In the neighbourhood are one or two ſalt pits; and the king's iron and ſilver mines are not far off. This town is particularly famous for its mineral waters.

Gronsfeld is a ſmall diſtrict, erected into a county by the emperor Rodolph II. and intitles its count to a ſeat in the college, and in the diets of the circle; as does the county of Reckum, which is ſeparated from the county of Limburg by the Maeſe.

SECT. IV.

Treating of the Circle of the UPPER RHINE; giving an Account of the various Places therein contained, with the Trade, Manufactures, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THE Upper Rhine is bounded by the Lower, which almoſt interſects it, and by Weſtphalia, Franconia, Suabia, Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Alſace, and Lorrain. It was antiently much larger than it is at preſent, as a great portion has been diſmembered from it by France. The diets are held at Frankfort, the archives are kept at Worms, and it preſents two aſſeſſors to the chambers of Wetzler.

The firſt diviſion of this circle, we ſhall deſcribe, is the biſhopric of Worms. It is about twelve miles in length, and is eight in breadth where broadeſt, is interſected by the Rhine, and ſurrounded by the Lower Palatinate. In general, it is barren, mountainous, and woody, though ſome few parts are fruitful both in corn and wine. The chapter chuſes the biſhop, whoſe revenue does not exceed two thouſand five hundred pounds, and who, in ſpirituals, is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz. The proteſtants here are miſerably oppreſſed.

The capital city, Worms, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, at the diſtance of twenty-ſix miles ſouth of Frankfort on the Maine: while the imperial chamber was kept here, it was one of the moſt conſiderable cities in the whole empire. It is celebrated for the great diet held here in 1521, to which Luther came according to his ſummons, though his friends would fain have diſſuaded him, by putting him in mind of John Huſs, who was burnt by a decree of the council of Conſtance, notwithſtanding the paſſport granted him by the emperor Sigiſmond: but Luther, far from being terrified, ſaid, That though he was ſure to be engaged with as many devils as there were tiles upon the houſes of Worms, he was reſolved to go. He came hither accordingly; made ſuch a bold anſwer and defence of his doctrine, that he was proſcribed, and obliged to abſcond; during which time he wrote that called his Works from the Deſart. Miſſon, who was here in 1687, ſays, the Lutherans had only one church for their uſe, and had their worſhip by turns with the papiſts in that of the Dominicans; but the papiſts had all the reſt of the churches; and that the Calviniſts had one at Newhauſel, half a league out of the city, where the Lutherans ſometimes ſcrupled not to have their children baptized, contrary to the cuſtom of Frankfort. The town had no other fortifications but a

double wall, was as large as Frankfort, but ſo ill-peopled, and ſo poor, that he ſaw a houſe ſold for one thouſand crowns, which had formerly yielded as much yearly. It was often taken and retaken during the civil wars in Germany; but ſuffered moſt by the French, who in 1689, laid in aſhes in a few hours what had been the work of ages. They left ſo much as to contain a garriſon of three hundred men; who in 1692, being attacked by the landgrave of Heſſe, intrenched themſelves in a church, where they were all forced, and put to the ſword. In 1698, the popiſh clergy, who had not been allowed to make proceſſions, except on the day after Eaſter, nor to carry the hoſt in public, would needs carry it in proceſſion through the ſtreets on Chriſtmas day: The magiſtrates ſent a notary to forbid it; but the prieſt at the head of the proceſſion ſtruck him over the head with a cenſer that he carried in his hand. Moſt of the burghers, being proteſtants, ran to aſſiſt the notary, but a great number of popiſh peaſants, brought in for the purpoſe, fired upon them, which ſo incenſed the proteſtants, that they drove the proceſſion back to the church from whence it came, and wounded ſeveral of the papiſts, particularly the inſolent prieſt. The papiſts complained of this as a breach of the treaty of Ryſwic betwixt France and the empire, which reſtored Worms, and its dependencies, to the biſhop. The proteſtants pleaded the treaty of Weſtphalia in their own defence. Some of the principal authors of the tumult were ſeized, and a Palatine regiment quartered in the city to prevent diſturbances: at the ſame time the elector incloſed it with a wall. The city is ſubject to the biſhop, but under the protection of the elector palatine.

The papiſts, who are very numerous here, have the cathedral; but the magiſtrates, and moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans. There is ſo much vacant ground in the town, as, being planted with vines, yields annually one thouſand five hundred fodders of wine, each containing two hundred and fifty Engliſh gallons; which wine is ſo much eſteemed, that the magiſtrates make preſents of it, with ſome fiſh, to princes and other travellers of quality: Martiniere ſays, the preſent of the fiſh is to denote their right of fiſhery on the Rhine. The churches of St. Paul and St. John, are very antient: the latter is built of vaſt ſquare ſtones, in an irregular manner, with narrow windows and galleries round the outſide juſt under the roof, and the walls are above twelve feet thick; ſo that it ſeems to have been deſigned for a fort rather than a church.

The cathedral is a long, high, and ſtrong ſtructure, with a tower at each of the four corners: the ornaments are gothic, and over one of the gates there is an hieroglyphic, being a figure of the ſize of an aſs with four heads, viz. thoſe of a man, an ox, an eagle, and a lion; the two firſt are looking upwards, and the other two downwards: it is ſuppoſed to be a repreſentation of the four beaſts in Ezekiel's viſion; or, as ſome think, of the hieroglyphics of the four evangeliſts: a woman ſits on its back; which they ſay too, repreſents the goſpel. At the entrance of St. Martin's church, over a moveable altar, there is a ſtrange picture, well worth a traveller's view: it is about five feet ſquare, and at one corner of the top has a repreſentation of God the Father ſpeaking to the Virgin on her knees in the middle of the picture, holding an infant repreſenting our Saviour, by the feet, with his head in the hopper of a mill, which the twelve apoſtles turn by the help of a wheel, and of the four-headed beaſt above-mentioned; and the pope is drawn upon his knees hard by, receiving the hoſts which fall from the mill, into a golden cup; one of which he preſents to a cardinal, who gives it to a biſhop, the biſhop to a prieſt, and the prieſt to a layman.

In this city are two public halls; the magiſtrates aſſemble in one of them twice a week for matters of ſtate, and in the other for the adminiſtration of juſtice. It was in the former that Luther, above-mentioned, being heated with the debate, and the fire that was near him, called for a glaſs of wine; which being brought, he was ſo eager in his diſcourſe, that he forgot to drink it, and ſoon after it broke to pieces on the bench without any body's touching, or being near it; whence the Lutherans concluded, that there was poiſon mixed with the wine: whereupon they broke the bench, and ſtill keep the pieces as a memorial of his deliverance. A fine church was built here for the Lutherans not many years ago, in which the hiſtory of that great man was very well painted.

The mint here is a noble ſtructure, with a ſpacious portico, where a vaſt number of bones and horns hang between the arches; the former of which, they ſay, are thoſe of giants that lived among the antient Vangiones; and the latter, the horns of oxen that drew the ſtones which built the cathedral. The outſide of the houſe is adorned with many pictures, and particularly ſome of thoſe giants in armour. Miſſon ſays, he ſaw a ſmall piece of parchment in a frame here, in twelve ſorts of hands, written in divers miniatures, and ſeveral draughts curiouſly done with a pen, by the feet, as the inſcription ſays, of one Thomas Shoevener, who was born without arms.

This city, ſince it was laid in aſhes by the French in 1693, retains little more than the ſhadow of its former beauty. The richeſt traders, conſidering how much both they and their anceſtors had ſuffered by reaſon of their lying ſo open to France, retired to Frankfort and Holland; ſo that its chief ſupport now is from the biſhop and chapter; the firſt of whom, however, being always a pluraliſt, and often an eccleſiaſtic elector, very ſeldom reſides here. The late biſhop, who was alſo elector of Mentz, built a new epiſcopal palace adjoining to the cathedral. The citizens, as are indeed thoſe of moſt other imperial towns, are very complaiſant to ſtrangers. There is a ſenate, or ſupreme council here, compoſed of twenty-five members, whereof thirteen are for life.

There is the fineſt country in the world from this city to Oppenheim and Frankendale. The fine ſpacious plain in which it ſtands, abounds with corn, vineyards, and fruit-trees. A wine is produced here which is called Lieben-Frauen-Milch, i. e. our Lady's milk. The Rhine is about three or four hundred paces from the town; but it is ſaid formerly ran cloſe by its walls. Which way ſoever one approaches the town, the four towers of the cathedral are ſeen; which are all built of red free-ſtone.

The other places of moſt note, in this biſhopric, are, 1. Leiningen, a town on a mountain, the citadel of which was deſtroyed by the French. 2. Stein, which, though the only fortreſs on the river Weſchnitz, gives name to a bailiwic. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Newhauſen, Turbeim, Rheim, Hockheim, and Dirmſtein, are all boroughs, with proteſtant churches; in which, however, the Roman catholics are allowed to perform religious worſhip.

The biſhopric of Spire is interſected by the Rhine: the other parts of it are ſurrounded by the territories of the elector palatine, and the margrave of Baden Durlach. Some parts are mountainous and woody, and others level; it produces great quantities of corn, almonds, vines, and cheſnuts; extends thirty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The biſhop, though ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mentz as a prince of the empire, has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle and of the college.

Spire, an imperial city, is ſituated on a delightful plain, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, twelve miles ſouth-weſt from Heidelburgh. It was erected before the time of our Saviour, and the ſee was founded in the fourth century. The magiſtrates, and many of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; but the Roman catholics have many churches, convents, &c. It has a ſeat, and votes in the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle, paying an aſſeſſment to the empire, and the chamber of Wetzlar. The French deſtroyed this city in the year 1689, and murdered indiſcriminately men, women, and children, deſtroyed ſeveral valuable marble monuments of emperors and empreſſes, and even ranſacked the graves, and ſcattered about the bones of illuſtrious dead. Previous to this devaſtation, it was the ſeat of the imperial chamber; ſince that time it has been built with additional beauty, but the imperial chamber has been removed.

At the diet held here in 1529, the word "Proteſtant" took its riſe, ſince which time perſons of the reformed religion have been diſtinguiſhed by that appellation. It is ſingular, that the biſhop is not permitted to reſide in this city; and when he is choſen, before he is ſuffered to enter it, he muſt redreſs all complaints; and then ſitting on horſeback between the two outermoſt gates, with one hand on his left breaſt, he muſt give it his benediction: he then makes his public entry, and the citizens pay him homage. The fortifications of this city are but very indifferent. It is under the protection of the elector palatine.

The town of Philipſburg, which is eight miles to the ſouth of Spire, was at firſt but inconſiderable: it was afterwards encompaſſed by a wall, and at length erected into a city in 1443. It is conveniently ſituated for commanding the adjacent country, and was therefore fortified with ſeven royal baſtions by Philip, biſhop of Spire, (who was alſo biſhop of Tiers) in 1629, before the civil wars in Germany, and called by his own name. The elector palatine Frederic Vunder, whoſe ſovereignty it was, ſuſpicious of the biſhop's deſigns in fortifying this place during a peace, ordered him to deſiſt; but he refuſed, alledging, that

that he had the emperor's placart for his warrant. Upon this the elector raised troops, and demolished the fortifications; for which the emperor summoned him and his confederates before the chamber of Spire, and designed to proceed against them with the utmost severity, which was one of the causes of the civil wars in Germany. It has suffered seven memorable sieges in the space of an hundred years. Spinola, the Spanish general, repaired the fortifications in 1633, and made it almost impregnable. It was taken the year after by the Swedes, who gave it to Lewis XIII. and was retaken by the Imperialists in 1635. It was taken from them in 1644 by the French under the prince of Condé, who joined the German protestants. The French kept it till 1676, by virtue of the treaty of Munster; and Louis XIV. in 1666, added to the fortifications, so that they extended to the Rhine, which lies a quarter of a league from the town; and put over the great gate an insolent Latin inscription, characteristical of the pride and ambition of that despotic monarch.

The Imperialists retook this place in 1676: and the emperor ordered the said Latin inscription to be erased, and another put up in its stead: and whereas the arrogant inscription placed by the French, ended with the words, "What he (Louis XIV.) shuts, no man opens; and what he opens, no man shuts;" that placed in its room by the emperor Leopold closed with, "What the French shut, the Germans open."

Being thus regained by the Germans, after a siege of four months, it was granted to them by the peace of Nimeguen. In 1688, the French took it again; but it was restored to the empire by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, with the fortifications on the right side, but those on the left were demolished. It was again taken by the French in 1734, after a long and bloody siege, in which the famous duke of Berwick (natural son of king James II.) was killed by a cannon ball, betwixt his two grandsons, as he went to take a view of the trenches; but at the peace that followed in the beginning of 1736, it was restored.

The castle in which the bishop of Spire resides, is a noble pile, founded in 1513, in a plain surrounded with marshes, by George count palatine of the Rhine, and bishop of Spire, and repaired in 1570 by bishop Marquard de Hatstein: the bishop has some sort of jurisdiction in it; but the empire has the right of garrisoning it.

The other places of note are: 1. Bruxhall, or Bruschal, a large open town in this bishopric, on the river Saltza, nine miles south-east of Philipsburg, and twelve north-east of Durlach. 2. Altrip, or Alta Ripa, in the same diocese. 3, 4, 5. Eidesheim, Weibstadt, and Rottenburg, are small towns; the first is situated on the Hart.

Weissenburg is at present a rich provostship, but was originally an abbey of Benedictines, situated in the antient imperial city of Weissenburg, in the Lower Alsace; but in 1546 it was converted into a temporal provostship, and annexed to the bishopric of Spire, on which account the bishop has a seat and voice in the diets.

With respect to the bishopric of Strasburg, or Stratsburg, in Alsace, which is under the dominion of France; so that, in respect to that part of his diocese, the bishop is subject to France; but on account of his bailiwic on the other side of the Rhine, he retains the title and state of a prince of the German empire, and has accordingly a seat and voice in the diets of the empire, and of this circle; but he is subject to the archbishop of Mentz in spirituals.

Basil is an extensive bishopric, but the situation is in different dominions, as part of it lies in Switzerland, and part in this circle. It is bounded by Neufchatel, Bern, Sundgau, Mompelgard, Burgundy, and Solothrun. The bishop, whose cathedral stands in the city of Basil, is a prince of the empire, having, as such, a seat and vote in the diet of the empire, and of the circle; he is likewise an ally of the Swiss. The inhabitants are partly of the Roman catholic, and partly of the Protestant persuasion, and the states consist of the clergy and nobility, with the towns and bailiwics.

The only places in the bishop's dominions, which belong to this circle, are: 1. Schelingen, a market-town on the Rhine. 2. Lauffen, a little town on the Birsa. 3. Arlesheim, on the same river, is the residence of a chapter. 4. Bellelay. 5. Seehof. 6. St. Ursitz, on the Daux, which contains a provostship. 7. Desperg, on the Birsa. 8. Bumtrut, on the Allen.

Fulda territory, lies south of Hesse, and north of Hanau, Keineck, &c. is about twenty-five miles in length, and twelve in breadth. This abbey belongs to the circle of the Upper Rhine, and is divided into thirteen small bailiwics. Some reckon it a part of Hesse, others of Wetteravia; and some again make it independent, because its abbot, who is elected by friars who must be all gentlemen by fifteen descent, is lord of the town and country, and primate of all the abbots in Germany and Gaul, is a prince of the empire, sits at the foot of the emperor's throne in all general diets, and depends immediately on the pope, to whom he pays four hundred florins, or forty pounds, on his installation. As the country borders on several protestant states, as Saxe-Gotha, &c. as well as Hesse-Cassel, there are several gentlemen here of that religion. The abbot is moreover perpetual chancellor to the empress, and puts the crown upon her head at the coronation. The revenue of this country is betwixt twenty and thirty thousand a year. The abbot has all the four great officers, with rich equipages and livery, a company of horse-guards, and a regiment of foot-guards well-cloathed and mounted, to attend him; and is able to raise four or five thousand men. His chapter consists of eight provosts, and maintains a magnificent houshold.

The capital town, Fulda, stands on a river of the same name. It is contiguous to the abbey, which is of the Benedictine order, and one of the noblest in all Europe: it was founded anno 741, by St. Boniface, and endowed with great privileges by several emperors. The great church, dedicated to that saint, is a stately free-stone pile of antient architecture. The monks have three manuscripts; one of the New Testament complete, the Four Evangelists distinct, and a Treatise on the Trinity, all said to be written by St. Boniface, in a character much different from any now in use. It is an open town, but dirty, and not very well built. The palace is a stately pile also of free-stone, with apartments richly furnished, and, together with the abbey, may be reckoned among the noblest buildings in Germany. An accurate writer observes, that he met with very hard drinkers, terrible bad roads, and dismal lodging in this country.

The small but neat city of Hirchfeld, on the same river, is situated twenty miles north from Fulda, and thirty south-east of Cassel: it is noted for another abbey, of as noble a structure as any in the empire, being built upon an arch supported by sixteen pillars, of one entire stone each. It was founded by Pepin, endowed by Charles the Great, and one of its first abbots was Alcuinus, or Albinus, his preceptor, who lies buried in it. Since 1606, when its last abbot died, the revenues have been kept by a branch of the family of Hesse, as administrator, and it was secularized by the treaty of Munster. Its district lies on the east side of Hesse, towards Thuringia; it has the title of a principality, is about twelve miles long, and the same in breadth.

The mastership of St. John consists only of the town of Hesterheim, and a few villages belonging to the order of St. John. The grand master is a prince of the empire, and has a seat and vote among the princes in the diets of the empire and circle. Heiretham, where the grand master resides, is a market town.

The abbey of Prum is situated in the forest of Ardennes, and was founded in the eighth century by Pepin, king of the Franks, and was, in 1570, incorporated with the archbishopric of Triers: hence the archbishops became its administrators, and, as such, have a seat and voice in the diets. Prum, from which the abbey takes its name, is a town of little note.

Swinnern duchy was long possessed by a collateral branch of the palatine family; but that failing, it devolved to the elector, who, on that account, sits and votes in the college of princes, and, joined with the bishop of Worms, are summoning princes for the circle.

Swinnern, the principal town, which takes its appellation from a river of the same name, is thirty miles west of Mentz, and has several churches. The duchy contains, besides Swinnern, the following little towns, namely, Laubach, Sobernheim, Argenthal, Monzingen, and Horrein.

Lauteren, a little duchy, reverted, in the last century, to the electoral house, which is thereby entitled to a seat and voice in the diets; as did the bailiwics of Lauteren and Veldenz, bestowing, at the same time, similar privileges. Lauteren is situated on the Glan, and Veldenz on the Moselle.

Frankfort on the Maine is an imperial and free city: it was antiently called Francofordia, that is, "The Ford of the Franks;" for the Franks used to cross the river here, in order to make their incursions on the Saxons, on which account the latter at length built this city, to restrain their ravages. Its present name distinguishes it from Frankfort on the Oder. It is eighteen miles east of Mentz, and twenty from the Rhine. It is spacious, populous, and opulent, one of the Hanse-towns, and the seat of the Imperial

perial diet. The river interſects and divides it into two parts, which have a communication by means of an elegant ſtone bridge, conſiſting of fourteen arches, with a tower at each end, four hundred paces aſunder; but the whole is under the juriſdiction of the ſame magiſtrates. The river is about half as broad as the Thames at London. The town is ſurrounded by walls, encompaſſed with deep ditches of running water, and fortified with eleven baſtions, ſuitable counterſcarps, outworks, &c. The Maine, Rhine, &c. render its ſituation admirable for trade, particularly for bringing great quantities of corn and wine from Franconia and the Palatinate. It has two annual fairs, one beginning fifteen days before Eaſter, the other on the fifteenth of September, frequented by merchants with all ſorts of commodities, particularly books from moſt parts of Europe, of which they diſtribute printed catalogues; ſo that there is greater choice here than in any town in Chriſtendom, during their mart, which laſts three weeks; but at other times the bookſellers have no buſineſs hardly at all. There are three marts every year, and the names of the foreign merchants are writ over the arch before the doors of their ſhops, which, when the marts are ended, are ſhut up. Moſt of the ſtreets are large, except two or three, which are full of merchants ſhops. The houſes are built ſome of red marble, others of timber plaiſtered, and painted or covered with ſlates. On the north ſide of the city there is a ſpacious horſe-fair or market, where a vaſt number of good horſes are ſold to the French king, and the neigbbouring princes, particularly the former, who buys ſome thouſands in a year to remount his cavalry. The Jews are the chief jockeys.

The city is round, and has no ſuburbs, but is much larger, richer, and more populous than Mentz. The chief ſtructures are, 1. St. Bartholomew's cathedral, which, though too dark a pile within, is a ſtately venerable piece of architecture, built by Pepin, father to Charlemagne. In a long narrow chapel of this church, called the Conclave, they uſed to chuſe the emperor: it has a very mean altar and benches for ſo celebrated a place; and the other chapel here, in which he is crowned, being a cloiſter of iron faſtened to the baluſtrades of the choir, looks like a great bird-cage, having no ornament but an ordinary crucifix of braſs. M. Blainville takes notice of a curioſity here of another ſort, viz. the tomb and white marble ſtatue (ſtanding in a niche of black marble) of John Charles, biſhop of Worms, who, the inſcription ſays, was deſcended of the barons of Frankenſtein, who mount up their genealogy from father to ſon for more than 900 years backwards of uninterrupted nobility. They ſay that this church was greatly enriched by Charlemagne, but that the emperor Lewis of Bavaria took away the greateſt part of its revenues, becauſe its chapter had ſided with the pope againſt him. 2. The town-houſe, where the emperor and electors uſually meet in council after the election is over; but beſides the throne, it has only ſome benches covered with green cloth, and ſome pictures. The great hall where the imperial feaſt is kept on the coronation-day, is not very regular though large: the floor is covered with black and yellow cloth, the livery of the houſe of Auſtria. On the ceiling is painted the ſtory of Ganymede carried away by Jupiter's eagle, and of a raven tearing out the eyes of a perſon who had falſely accuſed another of murder. Before the houſe is a great ſquare, where, at this ſolemnity, an ox is roaſted, ſtuffed with veniſon, wildfowl, and ſucking pigs; and thither one of the electors comes in perſon for a ſlice of beef, which he carries to the emperor, and after he has dined on it, it is abandoned to the populace. Another of the electors carries him a glaſs of wine, which on that occaſion runs from a fountain in the middle of the ſquare. A third carries him a meaſure of oats from thence: and in this ſquare, after the coronation, another diſtributes the medals, &c. ſtruck upon the occaſion. Here is a veſtry, where the electors were ſhut up during the election; and count Papenheim, marſhal of the empire, ſtood before the door with his ſword drawn, to prevent the princes from coming out till it was over. 3. Braunfeld, which was formerly the emperor's palace, and now the manſion-houſe of the Teutonic knights, where debtors have a ſanctuary for fourteen days after which they may be taken up. 4. The port or harbour. 5. The citadel or fortreſs of Saxenhauſen. There are ſeveral noble fountains in the city, particularly three in the great market-place; and there are divers mineral ſprings and baths belonging to the city, in which the women uſed to bathe when going to be married, and a month after child-birth.

The principal magiſtrates of this city are, a pretor, twelve burgomaſters, fourteen aldermen, one of which is always a burgomaſter, and forty-two common-council. The ſenate, which chuſes two burgomaſters annually out of their own number, is divided into three benches: the firſt is that of the Eſchevins: the ſecond is of the Literati, or learned, out of which the firſt bench is ſupplied in caſe of a vacancy: and the third is of tradeſmen, who never riſe higher. The grand bailiff, who is always preſident of the council, is choſe out of the aldermen, and his office is for life as well as the aldermen. Beſides theſe, there are ſyndics, whoſe power is not very great.

La Forelt ſays the magiſtrates are choſe from among the nobility, but named by all the corporations of tradeſmen, except the taylors, becauſe one of them was chief in the revolt hereafter mentioned againſt the magiſtrates. The government here is quieter than in moſt of the imperial towns: and their liberties, which they boaſt of holding from Charlemagne, ſeem better confirmed to them.

The Lutheran religion is profeſſed by the magiſtrates, and moſt of the inhabitants, who have five churches, in one of which is a good deal of painting and ſculpture, an altar of black marble, a marble pulpit, and reading deſk; the figure of Chriſt, with a globe and crucifix, both of alabaſter, &c. The altar piece is a repreſentation of our Saviour's paſſion in the garden; and the cieling and the fronts of the galleries are painted with ſcripture hiſtories. The Roman catholics are permitted to perform their religious duties in the cathedral, and have ſeveral chapels, and two convents, but they are not ſuffered to make public proceſſions. The Calviniſts have two churches about a league from the city, one for German, and the other for French refugees; but the ordinances of baptiſm and marriage muſt be performed in the Lutheran churches. In the council held here in 794, three hundred biſhops aſſiſted againſt the Neſtorian herely.

This city was one of the firſt that had ſpirit enough to demand the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion; which being refuſed by their magiſtrates in 1522, they depoſed them, and choſe another ſet; and in 1530 the Augſburg confeſſion was eſtabliſhed here. It was beſieged twice in 1552, by Maurice, elector of Saxony; and by Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, who took it; but it ſoon recovered its liberty, and has flouriſhed ever ſince. On the wall of the great bridge to Saxenhauſen is an indifferent, though much celebrated picture, repreſenting a dead infant beſmeared with blood, and an inſcription beneath, denoting, that on Palm Sunday, 1475, a child two years and a half old, called Simon, was murdered by the Jews. Under the child a Jew is exhibited in a black cloak, with a ruff, aſtride a hog with his face towards the tail, which he holds in his hand inſtead of a bridle. A monſtrous large devil follows, and ſpits in his face; and a mob of women and little devils ſurround him, inſulting both him and his companion, whom another devil carries on his ſhoulders. The populace firmly believe this ſtory, yet it is well known to the learned and more ſenſible part of the inhabitants of Frankfort, to be an abſolute forgery, invented merely to prejudice the people againſt the Jews. Theſe people have a ſynagogue here, but the walls are as black and ſmoky as thoſe of a kitchen; and they are confined all night to their particular quarter, which is in a ſtreet about a mile in length, but very narrow and dirty, with a gate at each end of it, that are ſhut every evening, and the keys carried to the magiſtrates. Their houſes are generally of timber plaiſtered, and four, five, or ſix ſtories high, but as naſty as a hog-ſtye; yet in this little quarter it is ſaid there are three or four thouſand ſouls. Their chief trade is buying and ſelling old ware, hawking toys at the inns, &c. and changing ſuch money as is not current here: but they are not ſuffered to trade either on Saturday or Sunday, the Jewiſh and Chriſtian ſabbath.

The Jews at Frankfort are obliged, under ſevere penalties, to fetch water, when any fire breaks out in the city, be it ever ſo diſtant from their quarter: in recompence, the magiſtracy permit them to chuſe twelve judges out of their own body, to decide their own differences, who are called bawmeeſters; and they who will not ſubmit to their deciſions, are allowed to appeal to the Lutheran tribunals. They are obliged to wear a piece of yellow cloth; that they may be known from the other inhabitants, though their habit is very diſtinguiſhing; for the men generally wear coarſe threadbare cloaks, flat brimmed hats, old greaſy ruffles, and thick pointed beards. The women wear over their cloaths thick cloaks of black crape, bound about their necks by claſps of gilt copper, and round their ſhoulders a ſparkling border of tinſel, a foot in breadth; their head-dreſs is only a coarſe wrapper, ending at their

forehead in two large horns, about four fingers broad, one of which is covered with black gauze, and the other with a bit of lawn dyed blue. The Jewiſh girls are diſtinguiſhed from the married women by their head-dreſs, which is nothing but a piece of red taffeta, bordered with a gold gauze, with which their hair is gathered and tied. A great number of the Jeweſſes here wear ear-rings, which repreſent the ſigns of their houſes and ſhops, be they cat, dog, or any other animal. Their hot and cold baths are near the ſynagogue: the former are in two little rooms, where there are cauldrons to heat the water; the cold are in a ſubterraneous place, thirty feet deep, ſurrounded by an iron rail, where the women peep over, to ſee that ſhe who bathes plunges over head and ears into the water, according to their old law, which ordains, that every hair be purified. There is a place with ovens for baking victuals on their ſabbath-day, to which each family carries their pot, or pan, on the eve, and it is carried home next day, when the ſervice is over. Their timber houſes being ſo cloſe, and apt to catch fire, their quarter has been twice burnt down; becauſe, it ſeems, for fear of being robbed, they refuſed the help they might have had to ſave their houſes.

There are pine-trees planted by the doors at ſeveral houſes in Frankfort, denoting they are taverns, and cyphers painted on the door-poſts, marking the different prices of the wines in the cellars. Saxen-hauſen, formerly belonged to the elector of Mentz, but was bartered a little above one hundred years ago, for the town of Hochſt, which depended on Frankfort. One of the city council muſt reſide at Saxen-hauſen, ſince this change took place.

Two of the three originals of the famous golden bull are preſerved at Prague and Nuremberg, the third is kept in an apartment of the town-houſe of Frankfort, but is never ſhewn to ſtrangers, except in preſence of two of the council, and the ſecretary. It is a little manuſcript, in quarto, conſiſting of forty-two leaves of parchment, with a gold ſeal of three inches diameter, weighing twenty ducats, appended to it by a cord of yellow ſilk. It is written in Latin and Gothic characters, without diphthongs, and kept in a black box, together with two written copies of a tranſlation of it into the German language. This bull, which they likewiſe call the Caroline law, contains the rules and ceremonies to be obſerved in the choice of the emperor, ſettles the power and authority of all ranks of the nobility, and ſo binds the emperor and the princes to one another, by oath, that neither may with impunity inſtigate or attempt any thing to the detriment or danger of the common-wealth, the country, the empire, or its neighbours; and, amongſt other conditions for which the author of it is eſpecially commended, it decrees, That whoſoever hereafter had a view to the imperial dignity, ſhould be well acquainted with the languages, particularly the Latin, Italian, French, Tuſcan, and German; that, when he was emperor, he might be able, without an interpreter, to anſwer his ſubjects in the ſeveral languages.

We cannot omit here the character given of this famous city, by baron Pollnitz. He ſays, there are few places, upon the whole, more diſagreeable, and few towns in Germany, where the common people are more unpoliſhed; and that the burghers are not to be matched for affectedneſs. As moſt of the electors and princes of the empire have their agents here, to whom they give the title of reſidents; they are, for the greateſt part, merchants of this city, who ſolicit the title, in order to be exempt from the authority of the ſenate, and from the payment of the cuſtoms, and to qualify themſelves to place over their doors the arms of the princes to whom they ſend the Newspaper.

During the government of the empire by the French, the princes were all obliged to appear in perſon, unleſs they were excuſed by the emperor and electors; but now moſt of them ſend their deputies to ſave charges, which makes their proceedings much ſlower, becauſe their deputies are often obliged to ſend for their inſtructions. To ſuch abbots and biſhops who are not deputies, the emperor does not write, but only to their directors, that they may give them notice: though, ſince Maximilian's time, many of the princes have forborne to ſend deputies, yet they are as much obliged to ſubmit to the reſolves of the diet as if they did. Sometimes, in caſes of great importance, the emperor not only ſends letters, but embaſſadors, to require their preſence; and, in urgent affairs, thoſe who do not ſend, make their embaſſadors plenipotentiaries. All the princes bear their own charges, or that of their deputies.

When they arrive, they give notice to the hereditary marſhal of the empire, under the elector of Saxony, who aſſigns them lodgings, according to their quality. If the emperor be preſent, they beg audience of him, ſhew him their ſummons, thank him for calling the diet, and promiſe concurrence for the good of the empire. If he be not there, the princes ſend gentlemen to notify their arrival to the director of Mentz; but if they be deputies, they ſend their ſecretaries with their full powers, as do alſo the deputies of the towns. When they are all come, the marſhal of the empire acquaints them when or where the emperor, or his commiſſary, is to tell them what he has to propoſe. There is no upper and lower houſe, but all aſſembled in one room: if the emperor be there, he goes in his robes to the throne, which he aſcends by three ſteps. The electors ſit on a bench, which they aſcend by two ſteps, and the princes on other benches, not raiſed ſo high. If the emperor be preſent, the firſt thing they do, is, to attend him to church, where prayers are put up for a bleſſing on their conſultations: when they are returned, the elector of Treves, in the name of the ſtates, thanks the emperor for calling a diet; and the ſecretary of the empire, receiving the propoſals from the vice-chancellor, reads them: after this, the colleges retire to their ſeveral apartments, and, when they have conſidered them, agree upon a day for meeting and imparting their thoughts to one another, which, when paſſed into a reſolve, they ſend to the emperor; and, if approved by him, it becomes a law or conſtitution of the empire.

The princes are divided into benches, called the ſpiritual and the ſecular. The archduke of Auſtria, and the duke of Burgundy, though ſecular princes, ſat formerly on the eccleſiaſtical bench, becauſe they were princes of extraordinary eminence, and the maſter of the Teutonic order does the ſame. The Lutheran princes were formerly excluded from the diet, till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, they were allowed a place by themſelves, between the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular princes. All the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular members have not equal votes; for ſuch of both as have princely dignities, are allowed ſingle votes, but thoſe who have not, give their votes by companies, as the deputies of the towns of the bench of the Rhine, or of Swabia. The counts of Franconia and Swabia, which include thoſe of Saxony, are alſo allowed two benches, and two votes: the deputies of the imperial towns make up the third rank of members. The deputies of the city where the diet is held, ſit at a table by themſelves, and take an account of the voices of the other delegates, which are brought to them and regiſtered by the two regiſters of Ulm and Spire, the former repreſenting the cities in the circle of the Rhine, and the latter thoſe of Swabia. The votes in this moſt auguſt aſſembly are ſaid not to exceed two hundred and fifty in the whole.

The throne on which the emperor ſits, is covered with cloth of gold, and the chairs and benches of the other princes and ſtates with cloth of ſilver, velvet, ſattin, ſilk, &c. according to their rank and quality. The elector of Treves ſits at the foot of the throne, as director of the electoral college. The electors of Cologne, Bohemia, Palatine, and Brandenburg, ſit on the right; thoſe of Mentz, Saxony, Bavaria, and Hamar, on the left: the eccleſiaſtical princes ſit under the electors on the right, and the ſecular princes under the electors on the left. The deputies of the towns, and of the bench of the Rhine, ſit under the eccleſiaſtical, and the deputies of the towns, and of the bench of Swabia, ſit under the ſecular princes. The deputies of Lubec and Oſnaburg ſit at the croſs bench, before the elector of Treves; and the marſhal of the empire ſits at a table, in the middle of the hall, before the croſs bench. The directoral table, with the officers attending it, is on one ſide, before the ſecular princes: thoſe princes only have a right to ſit in the college of princes, and to have a deliberative and deciſive voice, who contribute to the ſupport of the empire, according to the matricula. The directors of this college are, the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, and the archduke of Auſtria, who preſide by turns, as freſh matters come upon the tapis. The votes of the ſecular and eccleſiaſtical bench, which are taken alternately, are gathered by the marſhal; after which, the archbiſhop of Saltzburg and the archduke draw the reſult, and report it to the diet. Such princes as poſſeſs ſeveral dominions, have a vote for each. The magiſtrates of the city where the diet is held are directors of the colleges of the towns. The abbeſſes who are princeſſes, ſend deputies to repreſent them.

The point of precedency among the electors has, indeed, been long ſince ſettled by the golden bull, but the other princes, and the repreſentatives of the cities, have

not agreed on the matter to this day: insomuch that it occasions perpetual quarrels, and the diet would sometimes break up in confusion, if some of them did not, for peace sake, yield to the rest; entering a protest only, that such an instance should not be made a precedent. One fourth of a session is said to be generally spent in disputes on this subject; a second, in drinking-matches; a third, in disputes with the emperor about their privileges; and scarce a fourth upon the business proposed to them from the throne; the emperor alone having the power of proposing what is to be debated among them.

Another assembly of the empire, is called the assembly of deputations; where the deputies chosen for that purpose, determine things that have been referred to them by a diet; or when the elector of Mentz, in the emperor's name, summons the deputies, at the request of the directors or captains of one or more circles, to take orders about their affairs, or to appease controversies which they are not able to decide themselves.

The lordship of Britzenheim, on the banks of the Nahe, belongs to the elector of Cologne, who, in consequence of possessing it, enjoys a seat and voice at the diet of the circle; and the counts of Wartemburg, for the little county of the same name, have a seat and vote in the diets of the Upper Rhine, and in those of the empire. The lordship of Ollbruc belongs to the Waldbott-Bassenheim family; that of Dochstul belongs to the family of Oettingen-Baldern, and gives the proprietor a seat and voice in the diet of the circle.

The rich and imperial city of Friedburg, is situated fifteen miles south from Wetzlar, and twelve north from Frankfort. It is seated at the foot of a ridge of hills called De Hohe, and enjoys large privileges granted by the emperor Frederic II. The mart now held at Frankfort was kept here till the year 1340, when it was removed thither at the desire of the merchants; and, in lieu of it, this city hath four annual fairs; one of which is held on the first Sunday after Trinity, in remembrance of the dedication of their church on that day, which brought pedlars thither with goods, but at length grew to a substantial trade. This town has suffered much by terrible fires, particularly in 1383, when nine hundred houses were burnt; and in 1447, when seven hundred more had the same fate. This last is said to have been owing to a quarrel between two of the townsmen, one of whom set fire to the other's house, to be revenged on him. This was such a loss to the citizens, that they were forced to sell or mortgage the villages in their territory, to defray the expence of re-building their houses. This town is noted for the depth of its cellars, there being, in some houses, two or three one under another. Some of the emperors formerly resided here certain months in the year.

The imperial city of Wetzlar, or Westlar, stands on the borders of the county of Solons, ten miles below Giessen, eighteen miles south-west from Marpurg, and thirteen north from Frankfort. This is an old town, on the confluence of the rivers Lahan and Dillen: there is nothing in it worth notice, except the great church: it is, however, at present the seat of the imperial chamber, which was removed thither from Spire in the year 1689, by reason that city was taken and destroyed by the French. The provostship of the town belongs to the prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, to do justice in his name.

The duchy of Deux-Ponts is bounded by Lorrain and the county of Saarbruc, on the west; by Alsace, on the south; and every-where else by the other parts of the palatinate of the Rhine. It is about forty miles in length, and from eight to twenty-five in breadth, and gave title to its dukes, a branch of the palatinate family, one of whom was Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; but it became extinct in 1732, in the person of Gustavus Leopold: since that time this duchy has been in sequestration; the landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, and the abbot of Fulda, both Roman catholics, being administrators. The elector palatine, as duke of Newburg, claimed this succession; as does also the prince of Birckenfeldt, who is a protestant, and next claimant to the electoral dignity after the house of Sultzbach. The duchy, which is supposed to have been an antient fief of the bishopric of Mentz, is divided into five bailiwics; one of which, called Bischweiler, lies in Lower Alsace, where there are other lands belonging to the family.

This is a mountainous, barren country, but has some fertile vallies. It has two small rivers that join near its capital city, from whence it has its name, and run south to the Saare. Calvinism was generally professed in this duchy, till the Swedes became possessed of it, and then Lutheranism began to flourish, the king of Swedes giving some of the best livings and preferments to the Lutheran clergy, which created great animosities between the two dominions: but the late king of Sweden dying without issue, and the duchy devolving on, or at least being claimed by, a popish family, the protestant subjects, fearing lest the papists should make an advantage of their quarrels, thought fit to unite.

The principal place in this duchy is the city of Deux-Ponts, called, in the German, Zweybruggen, and in the Latin, Bipontium, from its two bridges over the small rivers Blise and Schwalb, whereon it stands, is thirty-one miles north-west from Landau, and thirty-five south-east from Triers. It is a small, but neat town, and was once defended by a good castle, since demolished. It suffered much during the civil wars in Germany; and also in those between France and the empire, when it was taken by the French in 1677, but, by the treaty of Ryswic, restored to the king of Sweden.

Hesse-Landgravate lies on the north side of the river Maine: the whole country is bounded on the north by Westphalia; on the west by the duchy of Berg and electorate of Triers; on the south by the electorate of Mentz and Franconia; and on the east by the duchy of Weimar and Thuringen. Its utmost extent from north to south is about one hundred miles, and the same from east to west. The air is cold, but healthful; the water wholesome, and the soil fruitful, producing much corn, and, towards the banks of the Rhine and Lahn, grapes. Here are also large forests, with store of deer, and other game; and mountains, in which are some mines of copper and lead.

The family or house of Hesse, which is one of the most antient in Germany, is divided into two principal branches, viz. Cassel and Darmstadt. The former comprizes Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Rhinfels: the latter, Hesse-Darmstadt and Hesse-Hombourg; though Martiniere says, that Hesse-Rhinfels, as well as Hesse-Hombourg, are branches of Hesse-Darmstadt.

The sovereign princes of this house have very extensive rights and prerogatives: they have three votes at the diet of the empire. They belong to the circle of the Upper Rhine, but Hesse-Cassel has a voice among the counts of the bench of Westphalia for the county of Schaumburg. Causes not exceeding one thousand florins, are determined by the courts of the country without appeal. These princes have several privileges in common, such as the right of protection and imperial prefecture of the city of Wetzlar, which is at present exercised by Darmstadt alone. The princes of Hesse-Cassel are not of age till they are twenty-five, but those of Darmstadt are so at eighteen.

The landgrave of Hesse-Cassel possesses, 1. Lower Hesse, in which are the county of Pless, Cassel, and Zigenheim. 2. Marpurg, in Upper Hesse and Frankenburg. 3. The principality of Hirschfeld, a secularised abbey on the Fulde. 4. The lower county of Catzenellebogen. 5. The county of Schaumburg, except Buckeburg, which belongs to the county of Lippe. 6. Smalcald, in the county of Henneberg. 7. The bailiwics of Rottenberg and Saxen-hagen. To these Martiniere adds the bailiwics of Ucht and Freadenburg.

The landgrave of Hesse-Damstadt, who is little inferior to the former, either in dominion or wealth, having a revenue of near one hundred thousand pounds a year, possesses, 1. The greatest part of the Upper Landgraviate, in which there are Giessen, Butzbach, Aendorf, Battenberg, Berg, &c. 2. The county of Nidda, which consists of several bailiwics. 3. The lordship of Itter. 4. The upper county of Catzenellebogen, in which lies Darmstadt city; the land of Epstein, Braubach in lower Catzenellebogen, and Kirnbach in Swabia. The succession also of the county of Hanau was in 1736, upon the death of its count, awarded to the prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, as next heir, on condition of his paying twenty thousand pounds, by way of compensation to the house of Cassel. The king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, ought to have had his share in the succession; but his majesty gave up his rights, by a treaty, to the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel.

To the branch of Rhinfels belong, 1. The greatest part of the lower county of Catzenellebogen, viz. Rhinfeld, St. Goar, Fort Catz, Schwalbach and Gevernhausen; the bailiwics of Riechenberg, Florenstein, and Brau. 2. Rottemburg, and its district, Wanfried, Eschwega, and Sontra in Lower Hesse.

To the branch of Hombourg belong, 1. Hombourg, and its territory. 2. Bingheim. 3. Wevelinghen and Helimstadt, with its dependencies. The prince of Hom-

bourg

bourg has, moreover, an appenage of about one thouſand pounds a year from Heſſe-Caſſel, and two thouſand from Darmſtadt.

The two branches of Caſſel and Hombourg are Calviniſts; that of Darmſtadt, Lutheran; and that of Rhinfelds profeſſes the Roman catholic religion, which is, however, not tolerated in the dominions of the other three princes, except in the ſmall principality of Hirſhfeld. Theſe countries are adorned with ſeveral univerſities and academies. The ſituation of the country betwixt Upper and Lower Saxony, and the neighbourhood of Weſtphalia, occaſions the language of the people to be a mixture of High and Low Dutch. The laws moſt in force here are the Roman or civil law, to which they join municipal laws of their own. The people are numerous and warlike, being raiſed and diſciplined by the younger ſons of the family, who are made lieutenants and captains of ſeveral diſtricts, and receive pay of the regent. In the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel's military ſervice are a general, two lieutenant-generals, a major-general, a colonel of the artillery, two commiſſaries general of the war, and one chief pay-maſter, two troops of life-guards, one of white, and the other of black horſes, three other regiments of horſe, three of dragoons, and five of foot, one of which is guards, beſides the militia, which is commanded by a lieutenant-general. The landgrave has a privy council, or court, for the game and foreſts; a chancery, or ſecretary's office, a treaſury and conſiſtory, for eccleſiaſtical affairs; and another court, called the French commiſſion, relating particularly to the French in his dominions. All the privy counſellors are members of the conſiſtory, to whom are added a ſuperintendent, a metropolitan, one of the court preachers, and a ſyndic. Dr. Nicholſon has an obſervation, that the power and ſplendor of the family of Heſſe was conſiderably advanced by the Receſſus Imperii in 1654, which eſtabliſhed the right of primogeniture in it, and prevents their dwindling into petty princes, which has been the fate of many families in Germany, by dividing the ſovereignty among the ſeveral branches.

The landgravate of Heſſe contains the following places, of which the principal is, 1. Caſſel, the capital city of the Lower Heſſe, is ſituated in a rich pleaſant plain on the river Fulda, near the confines of the duchy of Brunſwic, forty miles ſouth-eaſt from Paderborn, and ninety-eight north-eaſt from Mentz. It is a place of good trade for wool and other merchandize; and to the weſt it is fortified with walls, ditches, and a ſtrong citadel. It is the ſeat of the landgrave, whoſe palace ſtands without the town, ſurrounded by bulwarks, with apartments contrived in the very ramparts, to lodge his family during a ſiege, out of the reach of bombs. The palace is of free-ſtone, very fine both within and without, and adorned with curious gardens and fountains. Here is a gymnaſium, or academy, which has been much eclipſed by the univerſity of Marpurg. In this place is a great arſenal of free-ſtone, with arms for twenty-five thouſand men; and in the room under it are two hundred cannon, ſome ſixty-four pounders. From the palace there is a proſpect not to be matched in the empire, except from that of Cleves, it being of no leſs than ſixty towns, the leaſt of which contain three hundred houſes. The ſtreets of this city are ſpacious, and full of ſhops; and here are ſeveral fine markets, with good proviſions of all ſorts. The landgrave has a library well furniſhed with books and curioſities.

In the great church are the monuments of the landgraves, in braſs, copper, and marble, of very good workmanſhip. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, is capable of containing four thouſand people. There are four other churches, which have two miniſters each; except the ſoldiers church, which has but one. Here is a church likewiſe in the palace, for the worſhip of the court. There is a fine ſtone bridge over the river that divides the city into two parts, of which that called the New Town is very well built, with uniform houſes, and the ſtreets are pretty even and ſpacious. Here is alſo an exceeding fine aqueduct, made by the landgrave who founded the bridge.

The other places moſt worthy of obſervation, are, 2. Kirchbain, on the Wohra, which gives name to a bailiwic. 3. Rauſchenburgh, does the ſame. 4. Wetter. 5, 6. Roſenthal and Gernunden give name to bailiwics. 7. Frankenaw, in the bailiwic of Heſſenſtein. 8. Louiſendorf, in the bailiwic of Geiſmar, inhabited chiefly by French refugees. 9. Hania, on the Werra, contains one of the four hoſpitals of Heſſe, in which four hundred poor and ſick are carefully attended and maintained, out of the revenues of the Ciſtertian convent. The governors of both theſe hoſpitals are nobles, which the two princes of Heſſe alternately nominate.

10. The town of Rodemburg, on the river Fulda, is pleaſantly ſeated thirty miles ſouth-eaſt from Caſſel, and has a collegiate church, with a dean and twenty canons, nobly endowed. This place ſtands in a valley between two hills in Upper Heſſe, and gives title to a branch of the Heſſian family. It is divided into the Old and New Towns: in the old, there is a caſtle, which was demoliſhed in the year 1212, by the Imperialiſts, but rebuilt by William IV. landgrave of Heſſe, who, in 1574, adorned it with a fine garden, and a church, built throughout with white marble, dug out of a quarry at Moriſen, a village on the ſame river, juſt below the town.

11. Ziegenhein, on the river Schwalm, is in the lower landgravate, thirty miles ſouth from Caſſel. It is a ſmall, but neat city, and gives name to a county, of which it is the capital, and was united, by Lewis the Pacific, the landgrave, to his demain, in 1543. The ſucceſſion to this eſtate was formerly diſputed by the counts de Hohenloe, but their claim being referred to the diet at Worms, it was adjudged in favor of the landgraves of Heſſe, who have ever ſince enjoyed it.

12. Nineteen miles ſouth of Caſſel, is Hombourg, a town with a caſtle in the Upper Heſſe, which ſtands at the eaſt end of the foreſt and mountain of Hohe, pretty near to Frankfort, and is the reſidence of the branch of the family, from thence called Heſſe-Hombourg, which has for its appenage the bailiwic of which this is the chief town.

13. Geyſmer, the capital of a bailiwic in Lower Heſſe, ſtands twelve miles north from Caſſel.

14. The walled town of Eſchwege, twenty-four miles from Caſſel, was built by Charles the Great, deſtroyed by the Huns, and rebuilt with great ſplendor, by Henry II. It ſtands on the bank of the river Werra, by which wood and coals, the principal commodities of theſe parts, are conveyed down to the Weſer, and from thence to the neighbouring countries. It is ſituated in the Lower Heſſe, near the confines of Thuringia.

15. The town of Smalcald ſtands on a rivulet of the ſame name, on the eaſt ſide of the river Werra, and extends between the duchy of Weimar and that of Saxe-Naumburg, but is disjoined from the reſt of the lands of the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. The town is fifty miles ſouth-eaſt from Caſſel, and has a good trade for iron ware, many mines of the neighbourhood furniſhing the inhabitants with plenty of that metal, which they work, and ſend to foreign parts. They alſo make and temper ſteel, from whence a village near it is called Stahlberg. This place was famous for the aſſemblies of the proteſtant princes in 1730, 1731, 1735, and 1737, to make a league for the defence of the Augſburg confeſſion againſt the emperor Charles I. and the popiſh princes of Germany, which league grew ſo powerful, that they forced the emperor to a treaty held in 1757 at Paſſaw, in conſequence of which, ſeveral parts of the empire embraced the Lutheran religion.

16. The town of Marpurg ſtands in a pleaſant country on the river Lahn, forty-eight miles from Franckfort, and near forty-four ſouth-weſt from Caſſel. It is now the chief town in the Upper Heſſe, and the ſeat of the ſupreme court of judicature, to which appeals are brought from Caſſel and Darmſtadt. It has a ſtrong caſtle on a hill, and is otherwiſe well-fortified. The great church is a ſtately building, and has many noble monuments. The univerſity here, founded in 1526, is one of the moſt conſiderable in Germany: the profeſſors are Calviniſts. The town is large, and well-built, with ſpacious ſtreets. It has a very large ſquare, adorned with a town-houſe of curious architecture. The caſtle is ſeparated from the town by the river. In the other part is a ſtately, ſpacious building, the houſe of the commander of the Teutonic knights. The palace of the landgrave ſtands on a riſing ground, from whence there is a view over large plains and vallies, watered with rivulets; beſides hills and vineyards, of which, from the free-ſtone bridge over the river, there is alſo a fine proſpect.

17. The ſmall town of Lichtenau, and the antient caſtle of Spangenburg, give name to bailiwics. 13. Connefeld is a village, with a fine white alabaſter rock near it. 20, 21. Melſungen and Friedwald contain two princely ſeats. 22. Vach, on the Werra, gives name to a bailiwic. 23, 24. Waldkappel and Allendorf give name to bailiwics. 25. Grebenſtein, on the Eſſe, gives name to a bailiwic. 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32. Immehauſen, Hermerſhauſen, Trendelberg, Sabbaburg, Karls Haven, Hof-Gieſmar, and

and Wolfhagen, all give names to bailiwics. 33. Liebenau, near Paderborn. 34. Felfburg, gives name to a bailiwic. 35. Gudenfburg, alfo gives name to a bailiwic, which is remarkably fertile, and contains, 36. Nidenftein, a very antient town; and, 37. Merxhaufen, one of the four high hofpitals of Heffe. 38. Hornberg, on the Effe, gives name to a bailiwic, which contains, 39. Wabern, a village. 40. Borken gives name to a bailiwic. 41. Treyfa, on the Schwalm. 42. Newkirchen, gives name to a bailiwic. 43. Treffurt, a town on the Werra, belongs jointly to Mentz, Saxony, and Heffe. 44. Wanfried, at the conflux of the Werra and Frieda. 45. Sontra gives name to a bailiwic. 46. Wigenhaufen is in the bailiwic of Lugwigftein. 47. Pleffais, a ruinated caftle, gives name to a lordfhip.

48. The large town of Frankenburg, or Frankenaw, on the river Eder, is twenty-five miles north from Marpurg. It ftands fifteen miles fouth-eaft of Waldec, in the weftermoft bounds of the landgravate of Upper Heffe, towards Weftphalia. In 1590, fome mines of filver and copper were difcovered here, but they turned to little account. 49. Sachfenburg is about fix miles weft of Frankenburg; here are the ruins of an old fort, built by the ancient Saxons.

50. The town of Aldsfeld, one of the moft antient in Heffe, is nineteen miles eaft from Marpurg. The townhoufe is a handfome building, and over the doors is a monument in remembrance of the fire, with a Latin infcription, denoting, "that when things are irrecoverably loft, it is the beft way to forget them." This was the firft town in Heffe that embraced the Reformation by Luther.

51. On the river Lahn ftands the good town of Gieffen, in Upper Heffe; it is eleven miles fouth from Marpurg, and thirty-eight north from Franckfort. It is defended by a ftrong wall, and regular fortifications, and hath a well furnifhed arfenal. Its trade is dreffing and felling of cloth. The royalty of the town is, according to fome authors, divided betwixt the landgraves of Caffel and Darmftadt. It has four gates, and as many fpacious ftreets, with a fquare or market-place in the centre. The compafs of its ditch is about an hour's walk. It has but one great church, dedicated to St. Pancras, which ftands in the middle of the town, with a high fteeple, and a fine ring of bells. The governor refides in the caftle, at the eaft end of it. It is governed by a council and a magiftrate, befides the officers of the landgrave. It has a fair between Eafter and Afcenfion-day, which lafts a week. Round the neighbourhood are feveral caftles, as Solms, Koningfburg, Fetzburg, Gleiber, &c.

52. The town of St. Goar, capital of the lower county, is fituated on the weft fide of the Rhine. 53. Goerfhaufen is a fmall town on the eaft fide of the Rhine, oppofite to St. Goar. 54. Rechenburg. 55. Granan is one of the four called the high hofpitals of Heffe. 56. Langenfchwalbac, in the bailiwic of Hohenftein; where is likewife, Harlfthalerlead, a celebrated medicinal bath. 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, Allendorf, Homberg, Romrod, Ubrickftein, Grimberg, Kirdorf, Grubenau, and Schotten, give name to bailiwics. 65. Lauterbach. 66, Nidda, on a river fo called, gives name to a county. 67, 68, 69, 70. Sturnfels, Bingenheim, Lifburg, and Butzbach, all give names to bailiwics, though the three firft are only caftles. 71. Upper Rofbach, gives name to a bailiwic. On the fifth of November, 1757, the king of Pruffia obtained a great victory here over the French army. 72. Philipfec. 73. Koningfberg gives name to a bailiwic. 74. Bredencap. 75. Battenberg, on the Eder, gives name to a bailiwic, which contains, 76. Hatzfeld, on the fame river. 77. Thal-Itter. 78. Freyftadt, on the Rhine, erected in the year 1745. 79. Great Gerace. 80. Jogerfburg, gives name to a bailiwic. 81. Hofheim, one of the four high hofpitals of Heffe, is fituated in the bailiwic of Domberg. 82. Reinheins, watered by the Gernfprenz. 83. Great Umftadt, on the Odenwalde, gives name to a diftrict. 84. Epftein, gives name to a lordfhip. 85. Zwingenburg, on the Berge-Straffze, gives name to a bailiwic. 86, Braubach, on the Rhine, gives name to a bailiwic. 87. Ems. 88. Old Catzenellenbogen gives name to the county, and alfo to the village and parifh.

89. The town of Darmftadt is fituated on a river of the fame name, at the diftance of twelve miles fouth from Franckfort on the Maine; it is inclofed by palliſadoes, and defended by a ftrong caftle, which is the landgrave's palace; and, for better fecurity of the country, there are two forts, one on the Rhine, named Markburg, or Marienburg; and the other on the Maine, called Ruffelheim. The palace is a princely ftructure, and has a fpacious garden, abounding with all forts of fruits, and yielding annually great quantities of rich wines. The landgrave has befides, two fine pleafure-houfes two miles from hence, Kranchftein and Sensfeld. This town is not large, but makes a goodly appearance, moft houfes being free-ftone, and very high. Though well-fortified, it has feveral times been furprized and taken; and the French ruined the fortifications. In this town the Germans firft gave over tilts on account that, in 1403, the Franconians, and Heffians, having challenged one another to this exercife, feveral of the Franconian nobility, and nine of the Heffians, were killed on the fpot.

It is a flat, even country, with a gravelly foil, which produces excellent pulfe, and is interfperfed with woods, through which are cut noble roads. The deer come fometimes clofe to the palliſadoes of the town, there being no province in Germany more proper for hunting, nor in Europe where there are more deer; the great plenty of which is very troublefome to the poor peafants, who are abroad day and night to watch their fields, the prince being fo jealous of the game, as to reckon it as bad as murder for any one to kill a deer.

The county of Sponheim is fituated between the Rhine and the Mofelle. It was antiently divided into Hither and Farther, the former of which is now commonly called the county of Sponheim, and the other that of Starkenburg. Three-fifths of the Hither county belong to the elector palatine, and the remaining two-fifths to the prince of Baden-Baden.

The principal places in this county are, 1. Kreutznach, or Creutznach, the capital: it is a well-built town, divided by the river Nahe into the Old and New Towns. The firft emperors of the Franks had a palace here, in which they fometimes refided. 2. Spanheim. 3. Kirchberg, gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Naumberg, alfo gives name to a bailiwic.

One half of the Farther county belongs to the duke of Deux-ponts Birkenfeld, and the other to the prince of Baden-Baden.

The moft conſiderable places are, 1. Starkenburg, a caftle on the Mofelle. 2. Trarbach, or Tranerbach, a fmall town on the Mofelle. 3. Horftein, which gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Birkenfeld, a fmall town.

Solm, a principality and county, is fituated between Lorrain and Lower Alface; and, to diftinguifh it from the county of the fame name in the duchy of Luxemburg, it is called the Upper County, and the other the Lower. The princes of Solm are now divided into two branches, viz. Hoogftraat, or Solm-Zufalm; and Luetz-Loes, or Solm-Kirburg; each of which votes alternately at the diets, and poffeffes an equal fhare of the eftates belonging to the former counts.

Naffau principality lies moftly in the Wetterau. The length of it is computed at about fifty miles, and the breadth thereof about thirty. Though it is in general woody and mountainous, there are fome fine paftures and corn-lands in it, befides excellent baths and mineral waters, and feveral mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals. The principality is divided into feveral counties belonging to the different branches of the family, which is one of the moft antient and illuftrious in Europe, having produced, befides many other great heroes, Adolphus, emperor of Germany, and king William III. of Great Britain. The elder line, or that of Walram, conſiſts, at preſent, of the branches of Naffau Saarbruc-Uſingen, Naffau-Saarbruc-Saarbruc, and Naffau-Weilburg. The repreſentative of the laft of theſe married the late prince of Orange's only ſiſter. The other line, or that of Otho, which conſiſted formerly of the feveral branches of Naffau-Siegen, which was popiſh, Naffau-Dillenburgh, Dietz, and Hadamar, is now reduced to that of Naffau-Dietz, the repreſentative of which, William V. prince of Orange, enjoys all the territories that belonged to the other branches, and on account of them has feveral votes in the diet of the empire, and thoſe of this circle, and Weſtphalia. All the branches pay a particular and chamber-taxation; but thoſe of the elder line have no ſeat, or votes, in the college of the princes of the empire, being only members of that of the Imperial Wetterau courts. Moſt of the princes and inhabitants are Calviniſts.

The chief places in this principality are, 1. Dietz, the capital of another county, belonging to another branch of the Naffau family, of which the prince of Orange is the head, is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Lahn, nine miles eaſt from Naffau, and nineteen ſouth-eaſt from Coblentz: it is walled, and has two fine caſtles, or towers, ſtanding

upon two hills in the town. It has a bridge over the river, which communicates with Fregen-Dietz. It had a collegiate church, ſubject to the elector of Treves; but ſince the Reformation, the revenues have been applied to the univerſity of Herborn. The country in which this town lies is about fourteen miles long, and ten broad; it is ſtony and hilly, has plenty of veniſon and ſheep; but in the vallies there is corn and wine enough for the inhabitants. It is ſituated between the lower county of Catzenellebogen, the lordſhips of Idſtein and Wiſhaden, and the archbiſhopric of Treves. 2. Kirberg, belonging jointly to Naſſau-Dietz and Uſingen, is a walled town, which gives name to a bailiwic. 3. Weilmunſter, on the Weilbach, gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Lahnberg, which with its bailiwic, is held in common by Naſſau Weilburg and Naſſau-Dietz. 5. Mehſenberg, with its bailiwic, belongs to Naſſau-Weilburg. 6. Kleeburg, gives name to a bailiwic, which belongs to Naſſau-Weilburg and Heſſe-Darmſtadt: to the latter alſo belongs the large country town of Reilchelſheim, in the county of Weilburg, and other eſtates. 7. Kircheim Poland, with its bailiwic, belongs to Naſſau-Weilburg, 8. Gelheim: 9. Hanſtetten; 10. Idſtein: 11. Burg; 12. New-Saarwerden; 13. Uſingen; 14. Bleidenſtalt; and, 15. Schwalbach, are all inconſiderable towns; but, 16. Wiſhbaden is a handſome, populous town, ſituated on the Rhine, and noted for its warm baths. 17. Bibarich, is a village on the Rhine.

18. Weilburg, a handſome town on the river Lahn, which gives name to a country, and title to the prince thereof, who has a fine palace and gardens in the town. Over the river is a ſtone bridge, and in the neighbourhood of the town is a large menagerie, and a pleaſure houſe. 19. Naſſau, a ſmall town on the Lahn, near which formerly ſtood Naſſau-berg, a very antient caſtle, which was the original ſeat of the family. Part of the bailiwic, named from the town, belongs to Naſſau Dietz, another to Naſſau-Weilburg, and another to Naſſau-Uſingen; and of that of Camberg adjoining Naſſau-Dietz, and the elector of Triers, are joint proprietors. 20. Schierſtein. 21. Lahn on the Schutter, gives name to a lordſhip. 22. Otiweilar. 23. Saarbruc, on the Saar. 24. Homberg, on the Weſgau, gives name to a bailiwic.

The county of Waldec is bounded, on the ſouth, by Heſſe; on the north, by the dioceſe of Paderborn; on the eaſt, by the Heſſe, and the bailiwic of Fritzlar, in the electorate of Mentz; and, on the weſt, by the duchy of Weſtphalia. Its length is computed at about twenty-four miles, and its breadth at twenty. It yields iron, lead, copper, marble, ſlate, mineral ſprings, and abounds in grain, wood, and cattle. Gold is ſometimes found in the river Eder. The inhabitants in general are Lutherans. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobility and towns. There are ſome woollen manufactories, beſides thoſe of iron and paper, in the county. The title of the family of Waldec runs thus: "Waldec, prince of the ſacred Roman empire, count of Pyrmont and Rappolſtein, lord of Hohenec and Gerolſec, &c." The females, however, are only counteſſes. The prince has not yet obtained a ſeat and voice among the princes, in the diet of the empire, but in that of the circle he has. To the empire, his quota for Waldec is four horſe and eighteen foot, or one hundred and twenty florins monthly, in lieu of them, and to the chamber of Wetzlar ſixty-ſeven rix-dollars, and ſeventy-four kruitzers. The county is a fief of Heſſe-Caſſel, the ſucceſſion to which was firſt ſettled on the eldeſt ſon and his iſſue, in the year 1697. Here are the uſual courts and colleges, for the government of the county, and the adminiſtration of juſtice. The revenue of the county is ſaid to amount to above one hundred thouſand rix-dollars per annum, and the prince generally maintains five companies of foot.

The chief places are, 1. Corbach, the capital of the county, divided into the Old and New Town, which contains a gymnaſium and two churches. 2. Lower Weldungen, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Old Weldungen, a ſmall town with a caſtle, called Frederickſtein. There are ſome mineral ſprings in its neighbourhood. 3. Mengeringhauſen; 4. Sachſenhauſen; 5. Rhoden; 6. Sachſenberg; 7. Landau; 8. Freienhagen; 9. Waldec; 10. Zuſchen; 11. Furſtenberg; which are all ſmall towns. 12. Arolſen, near the river Aars. 13. Adorf, a village in the bailiwic of Eiſenberg. 14. Kleinern, a village in the bailiwic of Waldec.

The county of Hanau-Munzenberg is forty miles in length, but its greateſt breadth is not above twelve. It is fertile in corn, wood, wine, fruit, and produces likewiſe ſalt, cobalt, ſilver, and copper. The rivers are, the Maine, Kinzeg, and Nidda. The eſtabliſhed religion is Calviniſm, but Lutherans and Roman catholics are tolerated. It is a populous country, and flouriſhes in manufactures and commerce.

The chief places are, 1. Hanau, its capital, which gives name to it, ſituated on the river Kinzeg, which divides it into the Old and New Towns, both of which are fortified. The New Town is regular and handſome: it was built at firſt by Flemiſh and French refugees, who had great privileges granted to them. The caſtle, in which the counts uſed to reſide, and which ſtands in the Old Town, is fortified, and has a fine flower-garden, with commodious apartments, but makes no great appearance. A canal runs from the town to the Maine, on which river, near the town, is Philipſrue, i. e. Philip's Repoſe, a pretty country-houſe, built by one of the counts of the name of Philip. The magiſtracy of the New Town, and the diſpoſal of all officers in it, belong to the French and Dutch congregations. Here is an univerſity, with ſeveral manufactories, particularly that of roll-tobacco, and a very conſiderable traffic. The Jews are tolerated here, and dwell in a particular quarter.

The other palaces are, 2. Hockſtadt, in the bailiwic of Bucherthal. 3. Windeckon, on the river Nieder. 4. Bergen, which gives name to a bailiwic, in which are alſo the two ſmall towns of Biſchofsheim and Seckbach. 5. Rodheim, which gives name to a bailiwic, in which is alſo the ſmall town of Nanheim. 7. Ortenburg, on the Nidda, which gives name to a bailiwic. 8. Steinau gives name to a bailiwic, and alſo contains Schuchtern on the river Kinzeg. 9, 10, 11, 12. Lothaupen, Hafzlau, Schwarſenfels, and Bibenhauſen, give names to bailiwics. 13. Bieber. 14. Aſſenheim, at the conflux of the Nidda and Wetter. 15. Reinac. 16. Glenhauſen, on the Kinzeg, ſixteen miles north-eaſt from Hanau. 17. Munzenburg, on the Wetter.

With reſpect to the family or houſe of Solms, it may be obſerved, that it is divided into a great many branches, of which thoſe of Solms-Laubach-Sonnewald, and Solms-Laubach-Baruth, with their collateral branches, have their eſtates in Luſatia, and the electorate of Saxony. The matricular aſſeſſment of thoſe of this circle is two hundred and fifty-two florins, and to the chamber of Wetzlar, about two hundred and thirty rix-dollars. In the diet of the empire, and the college of the imperial counts of the Wetterau, they have four votes, and the like number in the diets of this circle. The lines of Braunfels and Hohen-Solms are Calviniſts, that of Sonnenwald catholic, and all the reſt Lutheran.

The chief places worth mentioning, in the territory of Solms-Braunfels, are, 1. Braunfels, a town ſituated on a high-hill; near it is a palace, ſtrongly fortified in the antient manner, and giving name to a bailiwic, which, with the town and caſtle, belong to the Braunfels branch, and contains, beſides other places, Leun, or Lein, a ſmall town on the Lahn; Altenburg, a præmonſtratenſian convent for ladies, near which the higheſt court in the county is held in the open air, unleſs in ſtormy weather; and Burg-Solms, a village. This bailiwic abounds in grain and cattle, and has ſeveral iron-mines and woods in it. 2. Greifinſtein, which gives name to a bailiwic. 3. Hungen, on the Horloff, in that part of the lordſhip of Munzenburg which belongs to this family. In the ſame part of this lordſhip ſtands alſo Arenſburgh, a rich abbey of Bernardines, ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz, the revenue of which is ſaid to amount to thirty thouſand florins. 4, 5, 6. Wolfeſheim, Gambac, and Hohen-Solms, all give names to bailiwics, and the latter contains a palace. 7. Utphe, on the Horloff, gives name to a bailiwic. 8, 9. Lech and Laubach, on the Wetter, do the ſame. Excellent fuller's earth is found in great abundance in the neighbourhood of the latter.

The chief places in the territory of Solms-Rodolheim, are, 1. Rodolheim, on the Nidda, which gives name to a bailiwic. 2. Aſſenheim, ſituated at the conflux of the Nidda and Wetter, and gives name to a bailiwic.

The county of Upper Iſenburg is ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Lower Iſenburg on the Lower Rhine. It was made a county in 1442, having been only a lordſhip before. It contains wood, corn, and wine, is well watered, and belongs partly to the houſe of Iſenburg, on account of its portion of this county, has a ſeat in the diets of this circle, and alſo among the Wetterau counts.

The principal places are, 1. Briſtein. 2. Wennings. 3. Langen-Diebach, and Offenbach, on the Maine; all of which belong to the prince of Iſenburg-Birſtein. 4.

Haynzur-Dreyeichen. 5. New Iſenburg, belonging to the above-mentioned prince. 6. Budingen, which, though a ſmall town, is the capital of the whole country. It gives name to a diſtrict, which, with two others, belongs to the count of Iſenberg-Budingen, who has a palace in the town: there is a park for deer, with ſome vineyards and ſalt works in its neighbourhood. 7. Meerholz, on the river Kinzeg, gives name to a diſtrict. 8. Wachterſbach, gives name to a diſtrict, which, with the town and two other diſtricts, belong to the counts of Iſenburg-Wachterſbach.

The county of Konigſtein lies in the Wetterau, along a ridge of mountains called the Hohe. The elector of Mentz at preſent poſſeſſes nearly the whole of the county, a ſmall part only being held by the counts of Stolberg, who, however, claim the whole; accordingly a proceſs was preferred to the aulic council about the title to it. In the mean time both theſe princes vote, on account of it, in the diet of the Upper Rhine, and both are members of the college of the imperial Wetterau counts. Mentz pays eighty florins of the matricular aſſeſſment for Konigſtein, and Stolberg twenty.

The only places in this county, worth notice, are, 1. Soden, a free imperial village. 2. Geudern. 3. Ranſtall. 4. Ordenburg. 5. Konigſtein. 6. Upper-Urſel. 7. Vilbel, which gives name to a diſtrict.

The territories of the Wild, Wald, of Rau-Graves, were ſo denominated from their rough and woody appearance; which, as well as thoſe of the Rhine-Graves, lie diſperſed about the Rhine, between Baſil and Bonn. In the twelfth century, the territories of the former devolved to the latter, from whom are ſprung the counts of Salm, thoſe of Grumbach, the Rhine-Graves of Stein, and Wild-Graves of Daun and Kirburg. The Wild and Rhine-Grave lands are moſtly fiefs. Each reigning houſe ſits and votes in the diets of this circle, and in thoſe of the empire, in the college of the imperial counts of the Wetterau, paying each a matricular aſſeſſment, and alſo to the chamber at Wetzlar.

The principal places in the territory of the counts of Grumbach, are, 1. Grumbach, which gives name to a lordſhip and bailiwic, near the river Glan, and affording amethyſts, cornelians, agate, mochas, &c. 2. Tronehen, on the Tron, gives name to a lordſhip which contains Talfang, a market-town, and fourteen little villages beſides.

The Rhin-Graves of Stein contain only Rhingrafenſtein and Wildenburg, the large village of Worſtall and Grehweiler.

In the Wild-Gravate of Daun, there is an elegant ſeat, called Daun, on a hill near the Swinnern; Puttlingen, which gives name to a lordſhip; Kirn, a town on the Nahe; and Diemringen, a market-town, from which a bailiwic receives its name.

The town of Leinengen, or Linage, the capital of its country, ſtands eight miles ſouth-weſt of Worms, and north-weſt from Spire. This county, which borders upon Frankendale, is ſhared upon four branches of the family, who take their name of diſtinction from the ſeveral parts of it in their poſſeſſion. The county of Linege, properly ſo called, is a fief of the biſhop of Mentz, and therefore it was united to France in 1681, but by the treaty of Ryſwic thoſe counts were re-eſtabliſhed in their antient ſtate, and they are therein expreſsly ſtyled the counts of Leiningen. The principal places in it are, New Leiningen, Turcheim, Grunſtadt, and Lantheim. The other branches of theſe counts, who are all Lutherans, are in poſſeſſion of Hartenburg, in the middle of the palatinate, not far from Worms; Weſterbourg, in Wetteravia; Dachſbourg, in the Weſtreich, in Alſace; and Broich caſtle on the Rhine, near Duiſbourg.

Falkenſtein county belongs entirely to the emperor, but contains only Winweiler, which gives name to a bailiwic, and Falkenſtein, a ſmall town defended only by a caſtle.

Reipoltzkirchen lordſhip belongs to the count of Hilleſheim, which intitles him to a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle; the lordſhip of Kirchingen alſo admits the count of Wied-Runkiel to the ſame privilege.

The county of Whitgenſtein, which is about eighteen miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, is environed by the territories of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, Naſſau-Dillenburg, and the duchy of Weſtphalia. It produces little grain, but good paſture, and plenty of wood, with mines of ſilver, copper, and iron, and is watered by the rivers Lahn and Eder. The counts, who are of the ſame family as thoſe of Sayn, are divided into the two branches of Sayn-Witgenſtein, and Sayn-Witgenſtein of Berleburg. The county intitles both branches to a vote in the college of the Wetterau counts, both at the diet of the empire, and thoſe of this circle. The revenue of the county of Witgenſtein, including that of the lordſhip of Homburg, which lies between the duchy of Berg and county of Mark, and belongs to the counts of Witgenſtein, is computed at fifty thouſand rix-dollars.

The only places in this county, deſerving notice are, 1. Witgenſtein, near which ſtands Laaſphe, a ſmall town of the Lahn. 2. Berleburg, a ſmall town on the little river Berlen *.

SECT. V.

Containing a Deſcription of the Circle of the LOWER RHINE, its ſeveral Diviſions, Towns, Rivers, Produce of the reſpective Countries, Trade, Manufactures, &c.

THIS diviſion of Middle Germany is bounded, on the eaſt, by Franconia, and the lower part of the circle of the Upper Rhine; on the weſt, by the upper part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, Lorrain, and Luxemburg; on the north, by Weſtphalia; and, on the ſouth, by that of Swabia. Excluſive of the palatinate, this circle contains the three archbiſhoprics and electorate of Mentz, Triers or Treves, and Cologne. The diets are held at Frankfort on the Maine; and the elector of Mentz is the ſummoning prince and director of it. It is one of thoſe called the anterior circles; and it has generally equalled the Upper Rhine in its contribution to the empire.

Mentz, which is both an archbiſhopric and an electorate, lies on the banks of the river Maine, between the electorate of Triers, on the weſt; the palatinate on the ſouth; Franconia on the eaſt; and the Wetterau on the north. It is about ſixty miles in length, and fifty in breadth. Be-

* Here we beg leave to make our moſt grateful acknowledgments to our very *numerous Subſcribers*, and to aſſure them, that it gives us a pleaſing ſatisfaction to find our *labours* to *inform* and *entertain* are received with ſuch *univerſal approbation* both at *home* and *abroad*; many *ſets* of the *Numbers*, as far as are *already publiſhed*, having been lately ſent for from many *Foreign Countries*; as well as from the moſt *remote parts* of *England*, *Scotland*, *Ireland*, *and our Colonies*. In *other works* of this kind, (againſt which the *Public* have *juſtly* and *loudly complained*, on account of the *badneſs of the paper*, *and wretched printing*;—on account of *their limits*, which are either *too confined*, or *purpoſely run to an extravagant length* to *impoſe* on the *purchaſer*;—and, on account of their *copper plates*, which were *originally ſhamefully coarſe*, and now *entirely worn out*,) facts reſpecting the *different nations* have been *miſrepreſented* through the *careleſſneſs* or *ignorance* of the *compilers*, ſo that perſons could, by no means, depend upon their *unconnected jumble of contradictory accounts*. On the contrary, we have, by the moſt *faithful reſearches*, and from *communications never made to any other Geographers*, repreſented the *antient* and *preſent ſtate* of the *World* at *large*; and having pledged ourſelves in our original propoſals to give the public *A New, Complete, and Univerſal Syſtem of Geography*, we reſt ſatisfied with the full perſuaſion of having *punctually* hitherto *fulfilled our engagements*. At the ſame time we can aver, that not a number has been publiſhed, but contains, either in the matter or the embelliſhments, much intereſting information, which may with ſtrict truth be ſtiled *new* and *entertaining*, and which is not to be found in any work of the like kind hitherto publiſhed, or now publiſhing, by thoſe whoſe only deſign in oppoſition, is to anſwer pecuniary and ſelf-intereſted purpoſes. Hence by much labour and aſſiduity, we have eſtabliſhed what was our chief ambition, an honeſt reputation. We have nothing to fear from the unmeaning conditions and deluding promiſes of envious competitors. Let every one examine and compare our pretenſions, and give merit, wherever found, the preference. For our parts, regardleſs of the paltry artifices of intereſted perſons, we ſhall continue to hold the ſcale of impartiality and accuracy with an equal hand. We ſhall neither leſſen our original plan of *Eighty Numbers*, the *extraordinary large ſize* of our *pages*, the *fulneſs of printing*, nor our endeavours to *inform* and *pleaſe*; *truth* ſhall ſtill guide our pen, and an unſhaken integrity influence the whole of our public conduct, with regard to the *honourable completion* of THIS REAL NEW, COMPLETE, UNIVERSAL, AND AUTHENTIC SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

ſides the Maine, it is watered by three other principal rivers, namely, the Rhine, the Jaxt, and the Lahn. It is in general, exceeding fertile, and produces great plenty of corn, cattle, wines, fruits, ſalt, flax, tobacco, and timber. It hath ſeveral kinds of manufactures, particularly thoſe of woollen and linen cloth, glaſs mirrors, and porcelane, in which, and in wine, almonds, cheſnuts, flax, and tobacco, a conſiderable trade is carried on with the places contiguous to it.

The predominant religion of the electorate is the Roman catholic, but there are ſtill many proteſtants in ſeveral places: however, as this country is under the dominion of an eccleſiaſtic of the Romiſh perſuaſion, almoſt the whole property of it belongs to prieſts, monks, and nuns, and all places and offices are poſſeſſed by the clergy.

The chapter conſiſts of forty two canons, twenty-four of whom are capitulars: the elector is choſen by them. He is not only the firſt archbiſhop, but alſo elector of Germany, in conſequence of his being arch-chancellor of the empire; and he always ſits on the right hand of the emperor in all public conventions. He is viſitor of all the courts of the empire, director of its poſts, and guardian of the archives and matricula. He crowns the emperor, nominates a vice chancellor of the empire, and holds a chancery at the imperial court: to him alſo all foreign princes and ſtates direct what propoſitions they make to the empire, as well as apply for the redreſs of grievances. In ſpirituals, he ſtands immediately under the ſee of Rome. The biſhoprics ſtill ſubject to this juriſdiction are thoſe of Worms, Spire, Straſburg, Conſtance, Augſburg, Coire, Wurtzburg, Eichſtadt, Fulda, Paderborn, and Hildeſheim.

The chief colleges, for the government of this country, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, are, the privy conference, the privy-chancery, the aulic council, and the reverſion-judicatory. Appeals lie from the inferior judicatories to the laſt of theſe.

The elector is able to maintain five or ſix thouſand men at all times; but, to ſave unneceſſary expence, ſeldom keeps above half that number of regular troops; for his income, when he is only archbiſhop of Mentz, without commendams; (which is ſeldom the caſe) will not allow of any greater ſtate or expences; and his houſhold is ſuited rather to his ſacred than his temporal character. His revenues are ſaid to amount annually to about one hundred thouſand pounds, ariſing chiefly from the tolls on the Rhine and the Maine, the tax on wine, and that paid by the Jews, the latter of which is very conſiderable.

This electorate contains the following places of note; viz. 1. Mentz, on the Rhine, near its confluence with the Maine; it is the capital of the archbiſhopric and electorate, and is ſituated fifteen miles weſt from Frankfort, twenty north from Worms, forty-eight from Heidelburg, forty-five from Spire, one hundred and eighty-ſix from Straſburg, ſixty from Triers, and ſeventy-four from Cologne. This city was made an archbiſhopric in 720, by Pepin and pope Gregory III. It is large and populous; but moſt of the ſtreets are narrow, and the common buildings very plain and irregular. The elector has ſeveral palaces in and about the city, moſt of which are adorned with beautiful and extenſive gardens. The cathedral is a lofty vaulted building, and in it are ſome fine monuments erected to the memories of deceaſed electors. The veſtments in which the electors ſay maſs are extremely rich; and the canopy under which the hoſt is carried in proceſſion, is entirely covered with pearl. The elector's chief palace is built of reddiſh marble ſtone, embelliſhed with ornaments, and is regular and magnificent, though but two ſtories high, and built after the old German manner. On the windows of this building, as well as on thoſe of the cathedral, are painted a wheel, which is a part of the elector's coat of arms. Beſides the cathedral, here are many collegiate and other churches, with ſeveral monaſteries, nunneries, and hoſpitals. Here are likewiſe, an univerſity founded in the year 1482, by the elector Diether; a bridge of boats over the Rhine; manufactories of ſtockings and ſtuffs, and two yearly fairs. But the moſt conſiderable building in this city is the charter-houſe, which, for elegance and extent, is ſaid to be one of the fineſt in Europe. It has apartments large and commodious enough to lodge a ſovereign and his retinue, and is beautifully ſituated on an eminence fronting the Rhine. The Favorita, a ſmall but elegant electoral palace, ſtands at the foot of this houſe.

There is a flouriſhing trade in Mentz, eſpecially in Rheniſh wines, of which the vineyards in this neighbourhood yield the beſt, particularly thoſe of Hockham, from whence the fineſt ſort of Rheniſh wine has obtained the name of old hock. This city claims the invention of the art of printing, which, if not invented, was certainly much improved by John Fuſt, or, as others ſay, by John Guttenberg, about the year 1450; though ſome have given account of books printed by Coſter ſo early as 1430, or 1432. This uſeful art, however, ſpread itſelf from Mentz in a ſhort time, and is ſuppoſed to have been brought into England, from Haerlem, in 1468, by Caxton.

Aſchaffenburg is the next principal place in the electorate of Mentz: it is ſituated on the conflux of the rivulet Aſchaff and the Maine. Here is a fine caſtle, in which the elector frequently reſides during the ſeaſon for hunting in the Spaſſart, together with a collegiate church, a college, and a large cloiſter. The town gives name to a bailiwic, in which are alſo Oſnäburg, a ſmall town; Dettingen, a village on the Maine, remarkable for a battle fought near it in 1743, between the Engliſh and French; and Seligenſtadt, a town ſituated on the Maine, with a Benedictine cloiſter, the abbot of which ſtiles himſelf lord of Geiſalbach, Omerſbach, and Hofſtaden.

2. On the weſt ſide of the Rhine is ſituated the pleaſant, neat, and little town of Bingen. It has a caſtle, which ſtands on a hill, and overlooks the town. It is fifteen miles weſt from Mentz, and was formerly an imperial city; but it is now ſubject to the dean and chapter of Mentz. It has a handſome ſtone bridge over the river Nahe, which runs through the town, and empties itſelf into the Rhine: a toll is levied here for whatever paſſes up or down the Rhine, which is twice as broad, at this place, as the Thames is at London.

Not far from this town is the celebrated Bingerloch, where the Rhine is confined between two high rocks, which, with the water-fall occaſioned by the river Nahe's emptying itſelf there into the Rhine, makes this paſſage very dangerous. At a ſmall diſtance from hence, in an iſland or rock on the Rhine, is the famous Mauſe-thurm, that is, the Mice or Rats tower: ſome think this tower was ſo called from the Germans giving the name of rats to the officers that were placed in it to levy the tolls.

3. The town of Fritzlar, on the river Edos, is pretty ſtrong: it contains two collegiate churches, with an Urſuline nunnery. It gives name to a territory which lies betwixt Lower Heſſe and the county of Waldec, and has the ſmall town of Naumberg in it.

4. The ſmall town of Miltenburg, on the Maine, contains a caſtle, a Franciſcan cloiſter, and gymnaſium. It gives name to a diſtrict, in which is Prodgelm, a ſmall town on the Maine. 5. Eltvil, or Elfeld, a ſmall town five miles weſt from Mentz, has a ſtrong caſtle, and is the capital of the Rheingau, a track lying along the Rhine; in which are ſeveral other ſmall towns and cloiſters. 6. Cronberg is a ſmall town ſituated on a mountain, the inhabitants of which are partly Proteſtants, and partly Roman catholics. The diſtrict which it gives name to, contains ſome fine woods, with great numbers of cheſnut and other fruit trees. This town once belonged to the landgrave of Heſſe.

The archbiſhopric and electorate of Triers, or Treves, is ſituated between Cologne, Bern, and Juliers, on the north; Lorrain and the palatinate, on the ſouth; Luxemburg, on the weſt: and Wetterau on the eaſt. It extends about eighty miles from north to ſouth, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt is about ſixty. It is watered not only by the Rhine and Moſelle, but alſo by the Saar and Kyll. On the banks of the two former the country is populous, and fruitful in corn and wine, but elſewhere mountainous and woody, yet abounding in game and acid ſprings, as alſo in metals and minerals of various kinds. The ſtates conſiſt of the prelates or abbots, with the repreſentatives of the clergy, and of certain towns. The inhabitants are all papiſts, except in ſuch places as the elector poſſeſſes in common with other princes, where there are ſome proteſtants. Under the archbiſhop are five archdeacons, and ſubordinate to thoſe, twenty provincial deans. The antient Treveri, from whom the city of Triers and the electorate take their name, were a very warlike people; their general, Ambiorix, cut off a whole Roman army. They worſhipped Mars and Apollo, till Conſtantine eſtabliſhed Chriſtianity among them; but at what time the biſhopric and archbiſhopric were created, is uncertain: the church of Treves, however, is commonly accounted the moſt antient in Germany. The chapter, which elects the archbiſhop from among themſelves, and make him ſwear to a capitulation, conſiſts of ſixteen capitulary canons, all of whom are of a noble deſcent. At every new election, the pope receives large ſums for confirmation, the pallium,

and

and for annats, or firſt-fruits. The archiepiſcopal title is, "By the grace of God, archbiſhop of Treves, of the holy Roman empire throughout Gaul, and the kingdom of Arles, arch-chancellor and elector, and alſo adminiſtrator of Prum." He is the ſecond elector in rank, and has the firſt voice at the election of an emperor. The tolls on the Moſelle and Rhine, his demeſnes, and his office of noble guardian of the minors, with the taxes he lays on his ſubjects, are ſuppoſed to bring him in about ſeventy thouſand pounds per annum.

For the government of this electorate, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, beſides the regency and reviſion court, there are two aulic judicatories, to which appeals lie from the inferior courts. There are alſo two ſpiritual high courts. The hereditary officers are the marſhal, the chamberlain, the ſewer, and cup-bearer. The regular troops maintained by the elector, beſides a militia, amount to between eleven and twelve hundred, beſides a life-guard of forty men. Among other prerogatives, he has power to baniſh excommunicated perſons out of the empire, if they do not reconcile themſelves to the church within a year, and he may take poſſeſſion of the eſtates of minors till they are of age. He has alſo a right to re-unite all the fiefs of the dioceſe, upon failure of heirs, to the domains of his church. His ſubjects may appeal to the chamber of the empire, in all cauſes above one thouſand florins.

In this electorate are the following remarkable places; viz. 1. Triers, or Treves, the capital of the archbiſhopric. This town is ſituated on the Moſelle, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge. It is ſixty miles weſt of Mentz, fifty-two ſouth of Cologne, and eighty-two north of Straſburgh; and vies with moſt in Europe for antiquity, having been a large and noted town before Auguſtus ſettled a colony in it. It was free and imperial till the year 1560, when it was ſurpriſed and ſubjected by its archbiſhop James III. The private buidings are very mean, and the city is neither well-fortified or inhabited. The cathedral is a large Gothic edifice; and in it they pretend to have our Saviour's coat and St. Peter's ſtaff, to which they aſcribe miracles. Near the cathedral is the elector's palace, which was a few years ago rebuilt, and is a tolerably handſome building. Here are three collegiate and five pariſh churches, thirteen monaſteries and nunneries, an univerſity founded in 1472, a houſe of the order of Malta, with ſome remains of the antient Roman theatre, and alſo a houſe of the Teutonic order.

There is, near Treves, a ſmall town on the Moſelle, called Pfabzel, where, in the time of the Romans, ſtood a palatium. It gives name to a diſtrict, in which is Conz, a borough on the Saar, over which is a bridge.

2. The large town of Coblentz is the next capital place to Triers in this electorate. It is ſituated near the conflux of the Moſelle and Rhine, thirty-five miles north-weſt from Mentz, forty ſouth-eaſt from Cologne, and fifty-two north-eaſt from Triers. It is well built, and ſtrongly fortified; and has a bridge of boats over the Rhine, and another of ſtone, conſiſting of fourteen arches, over the Moſelle. The Romans had a fort at this town, and the firſt kings of the Franks frequently reſided in it. Here are ſeveral collegiate and other churches, beſides monaſteries and nunneries, a gymnaſium, an archiepiſcopal ſeminary, and a caſtle.

Nearly oppoſite to Coblentz, on the other ſide of the Rhone, is Hermanſtein, or Ebſenbreitein caſtle; an impregnable fort, well defended by outworks, on the ſummit of a ſteep rocky hill, which commands the city and the two rivers. It is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt citadels in Germany; and the aſſent to it is by a winding road cut out of the rock, in the courſe of which are four handſome gates. On the outermoſt gate there is a ſtatue of braſs, about fifteen feet high, repreſenting the Virgin Mary with the infant Jeſus in her arms, and a lily in one hand: in the middle of the citadel is a ſquare, on one ſide of which is the governor's houſe; and in the other three are magazines and barracks. Among other curioſities, here is a prodigious cannon, ſaid to be the largeſt ever ſeen. It is eighteen feet and a half long, a foot and a half diameter in the bore, and three feet four inches in the breech. The ball made for it to carry weighs one hundred and eighty pounds, and its charge of powder is ninety four pounds. The inſcription on it only intimates, that it was founded in 1529, by one Simon. In another ſquare is a very fine fountain, being a large baſon of ſtone, in the centre of which ſtands a marble pillar on a braſs pedeſtal, with the elector's arms ſurrounded with four dolphins of the ſame metal. On the top of this column is a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary bruiſing the head of the ſerpent, which is alſo of braſs, about twelve feet in height. Here is a well dug out of the rock, two hundred and eighty feet deep, whoſe water is clear and exceedingly wholeſome.

At the foot of the caſtle is an electoral palace, incloſed on one ſide by the Rhine, and on the other by a rock. It is but an indifferent building, and the apartments are low, incommodious, and much expoſed to the ſun; but they are adorned with beautiful tapeſtries and paintings, and the chapel is very elegant. The garden, though ſmall, is embelliſhed with ſtatues, water-works, a charming orangery, and a bower, more than three hundred feet in length, by the ſide of the Rhine, from whence, through the openings, which are well contrived for the purpoſe, are ſeen the Rhine, the Moſelle, the city of Coblentz, the bridge acroſs the Moſelle, the charter-houſe, and a very fine country to the diſtance of three or four leagues. The way to the charter-houſe, which is a handſome building, beautifully ſituated about two miles from the caſtle, is full of chapels, in the manner of oratories, adorned with ſtatues repreſenting the principal actions of our Saviour, from his birth to his reſurrection. A church, ſaid to be twelve hundred years old, belongs to this town.

The other places in this electorate are, 1. St. Maximin, one of the oldeſt and richeſt abbies in Germany. The abbot is the firſt among the provincial ſtates here, as well as in the duchy of Luxemberg, and arch-chaplain to the reigning Roman empreſs. 2. Wexheim, a borough, in which, and the bailiwic named from it, as belonging in common to the elector of Triers, and the prince of Naſſau-Uſingen, both the Roman catholic and Proteſtant religion are tolerated. 3. Munſter-Meinfeld, which gives name to a bailiwic, which contains Carden, a very antient borough on the Moſelle. 4. Mayen, on the Nette, gives name to a bailiwic, in which alſo is Montreal, on the Elz, together with Kayſerſeſch, and the Benedictine abbey of Lock. 5. Boppard, a ſmall town and caſtle on the Rhine: it gives name to a bailiwic. 6. Engers, between Coblentz and Andernach, which gives name to our neighbouring territory. 7. Oberweſel, on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, at the foot of a hill, twenty-one miles ſouth from Coblentz, and eighteen weſt from Mentz. 8. Limburg, a thriving town on the river Lahn: it gives name to a bailiwic, in which is alſo Lower Brechen, a ſmall town; and Lower Salters, a village on the Emſbach. 9. Berncaſtle, on the Moſelle, gives name to a bailiwic, in which is a place called Noviomagum, on the Moſelle. 10. Wittlich, on the Leſer, gives name to a bailiwic, in which is a college of canons regular, where adoration is paid to a celebrated image of the Virgin, and whither many pilgrimages are made. 11. Welſchbillig, a ſmall town.

The archbiſhopric and electorate of Cologne lies on the weſtern bank of the Rhine, where it runs near one hundred miles in length, but the breadth is hardly anywhere more than ſeven or eight. It is bountled by the duchy of Cleves, on the north; and the electorate of Triers, on the ſouth; the duchy of Juliers on the weſt; and that of Berg, on the eaſt. It is a pleaſant and fruitful country, (eſpecially that part ſituated on the Rhine), and produces excellent wine, corn, and moſt of the neceſſaries of life. The archbiſhop is the ſupreme lord of it, as alſo of a pretty large country in Weſtphalia; and is richer and more powerful than either of the other two eccleſiaſtical electors. His dominions contain fifty-two towns, and about ſeventeen boroughs. He has the ſecond vote in the electoral college; and crowns the emperor, when the ceremony is performed in his own dioceſe, or thoſe of his ſuffragans. His ſee was raiſed to an archbiſhopric in the eighth century. His ſuffragans at preſent are the biſhop of Liege, Munſter, and Oſnaburg, and formerly alſo thoſe of Utrecht and Minden; but he has no authority in ſpirituals over the proteſtants of the biſhopric of Oſnaburg, even when he is himſelf biſhop thereof. The right of electing the emperor, excluſive of the other princes, devolved on him, and the other arch-officers of the empire, about the end of the thirteenth century. The revenues ariſing from the archbiſhopric amount to about one hundred and thirty thouſand pounds ſterling; but the elector is generally poſſeſſed of ſeveral other great benefices. He has his hereditary officers, his life guards, conſiſting of halberdiers and yeomen, beſides a regiment of foot guards, which make a handſome appearance.

In this electorate are the following principal cities and towns; viz. 1. Cologne, the capital, and from which the electorate is named. It is ſeated on the Rhine, in the ſame latitude as the Iſle of Wight, 20 miles ſouth-eaſt from Duſſeldorp, 16 eaſt of Juliers, 40 north from Coblentz, 60 eaſt from Maeſtricht, 68 north of Triers, 70 ſouth of

Munſter, eighty-two north-weſt of Mentz and Nimeguen, from Bruſſels and Antwerp, and one hundred and twenty from Amſterdam. This is one of the largeſt cities in Germany, and very conſiderable, on account of its buildings, number of inhabitants, and great trade in Rheniſh wine, and other commodities of Germany, which, by means of the Rhine, are brought hither, and tranſported to Holland. It is a free city, being governed by its own ſenate, which orders and judges all civil matters and cauſes; but criminal ones are judged by the elector. It is called, by ſome, Second Rome, becauſe of its ſenate, buildings, and extent; and by others the Holy City, becauſe of the many churches and religious houſes in it; here being, beſides the cathedral, which is a very magnificent, though unfiniſhed pile, ten collegiate, and nineteen parochial churches, alſo thirty-ſeven monaſteries, and great numbers of chapels and hoſpitals. The walls of the city are flanked with eighty-two towers, and encompaſſed with three deep ditches, lined with fine rows of trees; and all the churches and houſes are covered with ſlates.

The government of the city is in ſix burgomaſters, ſeven aldermen, and one hundred and fifty common-council, who hold their offices during life, only two of the burgomaſters are regents, during a year, by turns. The aldermen, (or eſchevins) are choſen by the archbiſhop, and the council by the companies of the city. There are only fifty of the council in power for a year, ſo that it returns to the ſame perſons once in three years. When a burgomaſter dies, the council are empowered to chuſe another. Moſt of the inhabitants are papiſts; but there are many proteſtants, who are the chief traders. The Lutherans have a church in this city, and the Calviniſts one on the other ſide of the Rhine, at Mulheim. Moſt of the houſes of the canons and prebends have large gardens and vineyards. In St. Gercon's church, they pretend to ſhew one thouſand heads of martyrs who ſuffered in the reign of Maximinianus. Some of the heads of the pretended virgin martyrs, moſt noted for miracles, are kept in caſes of ſilver in the church dedicated to St. Urſula, others covered with ſtuffs of gold, and ſome have caps of cloth of gold and velvet. Here is alſo a ſhrine, with a glaſs door, through which they ſhew, as they pretend, three of the thorns of our Saviour's crown; and in a niche, on one ſide of the altar, there is a baſe of alabaſter, which they pretend was one of thoſe our Saviour cauſed to be filled with water at the marriage of Cana, in order to change it into wine. The whole revenue of this church, which muſt be conſiderable (excluſive of the offerings and gifts made by pilgrims and other devotees), is ſaid to belong wholly to an abbeſs and ſix canoneſſes, who muſt be all counteſſes, to do honour to St. Urſula. In the church of the Carmelites, the only one in the city, whoſe altar is placed to the eaſt, is a pulpit, which paſſes for the fineſt in Cologne. In the Cordeliers church is the tomb of the famous John Scotus, ſurnamed the Subtle Doctor, with this epitaph on it: Scotus me genuit: Anglia me ſuſcepit; Gallia me docuit; Colonia me tenet. The aſcent to the top of the ſteeple of the cathedral is by two hundred and fifty ſteps, each a foot thick. The choir, wherein are the tombs of ſeveral archbiſhops, is ſaid to be the higheſt in Germany, and the chancel is ſupported by four rows of large pillars. The three eaſtern magi lie in a large purple ſhrine ſpotted with gold, ſet upon a pedeſtal of braſs, in the middle of a ſquare mauſoleum, faced within and without with marble and jaſper. It is opened every morning at nine o'clock, when they are ſhewn lying at full length; but this is not done except when two canons of the cathedral are preſent. Their heads are bedecked with a crown of gold on each, garniſhed with precious ſtones. Their names, which are Gaſpar, Melchior, and Balthaſar, are in purple characters upon a little grate, of the ſame metal with that before the ſhrine, which is adorned with an infinite number of large rich pearls, and precious ſtones; particularly an oriental topaz, as big as a pigeon's egg, valued at above thirty thouſand crowns. Over-againſt them are ſix large branches of ſilver, with wax candles, which burn night and day. It is ſaid the bones of theſe men were brought from Conſtantinople by Helena the mother of Conſtantine, from thence to Milan, by Eutorpius biſhop of that ſee, and afterwards to this place by Archbiſhop Rainold.

Here is a very flouriſhing univerſity, re-eſtabliſhed in 1388 by Urban VI. The town-houſe is a vaſt fabric, after the gothic manner, where are ſeveral rooms adorned with noble paintings, and others full of bows, arrows, bucklers, and all ſorts of antique arms; particularly a croſs bow of whalebone, 12 feet long, eight inches broad, and four inches thick. From the tower of this houſe there is a beautiful proſpect of the city and country: on the front of it there is the figure of a man in baſſo relievo, engaged with a lion, repreſenting one of their burgo-maſters, who, having exaſperated their clergy, they put in a lion upon him, which he ſlew on the ſpot. In the grand hall are five pictures with inſcriptions, to perpetuate the memory of the battle of Hockſtet, in which the French were defeated with great ſlaughter.

Several eccleſiaſtical councils have been held here, the firſt, anno 346, wherein Euphrates, their biſhop, was depoſed for arianiſm. Another was held by Charlemagne's order, in the eighth century: and ſeveral in the ninth, for reformation of manners, againſt inceſtuous marriages, and oppreſſion of the poor. The pope generally has a nuncio here, to take care of his intereſts with the popiſh electors. Though the elector, by his officers, adminiſters juſtice in all criminal cauſes, yet ſo jealous are the citizens of him, that they will not permit him, in perſon, to reſide above three days at a time in the city, nor come into it with a great train; for which reaſon he generally reſides at Bonne.

Cologne was made an archbiſhopric in 755, and in 1260 entered into the Hanſeatic league. As a free imperial city, it has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the empire and circle; in the former of which it has the firſt ſeat on the Rheniſh bench. It has the precedence of all the imperial cities, and is fortified in the antient manner; has upwards of twenty gates, and is guarded by the militia, which conſiſts of four companies of foot; but the ſtreets, in general, are dirty, and badly paved, and the windows compoſed of ſmall round bits of glaſs. Though this is one of the greateſt cities, yet, as a late traveller obſerves, "it is one of the moſt melancholy in Europe, there being nothing to be ſeen but prieſts, friars, and ſtudents, many of whom beg alms with a ſong, and nothing ſalutes the ear but the tolling of bells: he alſo ſays, that there are as many churches and chapels in it as days in the year; that there are very few families of quality; that the vulgar are extremely clowniſh; and that the noblemen of the chapter ſtay no longer in town than their duty obliges them."

As to Duitz, on the other ſide of the Rhine, it is in the territory of Newburg, and has no manner of dependence on the city of Cologne, but holds ſolely of the elector. It is a pitiful place, where one ſees more ſwine than men, its few ſtreets being extremely filthy, and ill paved; and the houſes built of pieces of timber intermixed with white clay. The Jews there live by fattening herds of ſwine for ſale to the Chriſtians. There are no churches in this little town, but a convent of Benedictines, and a parochial church upon the brink of the river.

2. Bonne, in latin Bonna, and Colonia Julia, is the uſual place of reſidence of the archbiſhop of Cologne, who has a magnificent palace in the caſtle. It ſtands on the weſt-ſide of the Rhine, 15 miles ſouth of Cologne, 28 north-weſt from Coblentz, 21 ſouth-eaſt from Juliers, 57 north-eaſt from Treves, and 62 north-weſt from Mentz, in a fruitful country, which produces very good wine, and the woods abound with variety of game, as does a ridge of mountains on both ſides of the Rhine from hence, as far as Bingen. It is a ſmall city, but well inhabited. The churches are ſtately, eſpecially the collegiate, dedicated to the martyrs Caſſius, Florentius, and Maluſius, whoſe bodies, with ſeveral others of the famous Theban Legion, are ſaid to be buried in it, being brought hither by St. Helena, who founded this church to their honour. The town houſe is well built, and adorned with fine paintings. This was formerly an imperial city, but is now ſubject to the elector.

3. The town of Andermach, on the Rhine, is ſituated about 20 miles ſouth-eaſt of Bonne, upon the confines of the electorate of Triers, and the duchy of Juliers. It was formerly a free and imperial city, but it is now ſubject to the elector of Cologne. After it had lain a long time in ruins, it was rebuilt in 1520. It is fortified with a wall, caſtle, and bulwarks; is the boundary betwixt this archbiſhopric and that of Treves, and has a cuſtom-houſe belonging to Cologne, but its principal trade is by lodging paſſengers. In 1702 it was taken by the prince of Heſſe Caſſel, the more to ſtraiten Bonne, which was then blocked up by the confederates. This is mentioned as one of the fortreſſes which Druſus built to awe the Germans; and it is believed that Caligula, his ſon, was born there. It is the handſomeſt and largeſt of all the towns from Bonne to Triers. It has three conſiderable monaſteries in it and ſeveral churches, the chief of which has two tower ſteeples, not unlike the towers of Notre-

Dame at Paris. Two companies of ſoldiers are kept here by the chapter of Cologne. In the bailiwic, to which the town gives name, is an abbey called St. Thomas; and Kens, or Rees, a ſmall town on the Rhine, near which is a remarkable piece of antiquity, called the Konigſtuhl. It is a large round building of freeſtone, reſting on nine pillars, the aſcent to which is by twenty-eight ſteps. In this building the electors formerly met to conſult about the choice of an emperor, and other weighty matters; and here ſome emperors have actually been elected.

The other places of leſs note are, 1. Nuys, a fortified town, near the conflux of the Rhine and Erfft. 2. Zons, on the Rhine: it gives name to a bailiwic, containing another ſmall town called Wering, or Weringan, and a Præmonſtratenſian abbey. 3. Kempen. 4. Bruel, or Bruyll. 5. Rufferſchied, which gives name to a county. 6. Ahrweder, a ſmall town on the Aar. 7. Zulpich, or Zulch, which gives name to a bailiwic entirely ſurrounded by the duchy of Juliers. 8. Konigsfeld, which gives name to a diſtrict.

The Palatinate of the Rhine is divided by the river of that name into two parts, namely the Upper and Lower Palatinate. The former lies in the circle of Bavaria, and belongs to the elector thereof, but the latter (in the circle we are now treating of) belongs to the elector Palatine. The Lower Palatinate is bounded, on the eaſt, by the county of Katzenellebogen, the archbiſhopric of Mentz, the biſhopric of Worms, and part of the territory of the Teutonic order in Franconia; on the weſt, by Ilſace, the duchy of Deux-ponts, the county of Spanheim, the duchy of Simmern, and certain diſtricts of the electorate of Mentz; on the north, by part of the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the county of Katzenellebogen; and on the ſouth, by the duchy of Wirtemberg, and the biſhopric of Spire. It contains forty-one towns, beſides ſeveral boroughs, and its greateſt extent is about eighty miles.

The air is healthful, and the ſoil fruitful in corn, wine, tobacco, and all ſorts of pulſe and fruits, particularly walnuts, cheſnuts, and almonds. This country alſo breeds abundance of cattle, and is well watered by the Neckar, the Nahe, and the Rhine. In the laſt of theſe, near Germerſheim and Sebz, is found gold, the excluſive right of ſearching for which, is farmed out by the elector.

The ſtate of religion hath varied greatly here ſince the reformation, Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm having been uppermoſt by turns, till the electorate devolved to the popiſh branches of the family, when popery, with all its ſuperſtition and mummery, was eſtabliſhed anew; ſo that the Proteſtant religion is now on a very precarious footing in the Palatinate, though moſt of the natives are ſtill of that perſuaſion: but the two ſects of Proteſtants, namely, the Lutherans and Calviniſts, have greatly contributed to their own ruin, by their mutual jealouſies and animoſity, being no leſs rancorous againſt one another, than againſt their common adverſaries the Papiſts. The Lutherans reckon themſelves fifty thouſand ſtrong, and are poſſeſſed of about eighty-five churches; but not one half of their preachers and ſchoolmaſters have a competent maintenance. The number of Calviniſt clergy here is eſtimated at five hundred, and of the Roman catholics at four. Beſides ſchools and jeſuits colleges in this country, there is one univerſity, namely, that of Heidelberg. Their chief trade conſiſts in wine.

Authors are divided about the origin of the name of Palatines, or Pfalzgraves, as the Germans call them; but it ſeems moſt likely to be derived from the palatia, or palaces, which the old Frankiſh and German kings, and Roman emperors, were poſſeſſed of in different parts of the country, and over which they appointed ſupreme ſtewards, or judges, who were called Palatines, or Pfalgraves. The countries where theſe Palatines kept their courts were, from them, called Palatinates, which name came at laſt to be appropriated, by way of eminence, to this country, as being the moſt conſiderable of them. The antient electoral line failing in 1685, the electorate devolved to Philip William, duke of Neuberg, and upon the death of his ſecond ſon, Charles Philip, to the prince of Sultzbach. This elector has the title of arch-treaſurer of the empire, as well as the elector of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, and is the fifth in rank among the ſecular electors. He is alſo one of the vicars of the empire, alternately with the elector of Bavaria, and enjoys many other prerogatives. In his own dominions he diſpoſes of all vacant benefices, but allows the eccleſiaſtical council, compoſed of two clergymen and two laymen, to preſent two candidates, of which he chuſes one. He is alſo maſter of all the tythes in his dominions; but he either grants them to the clergy, or ſalaries in lieu of them, out of the revenues of the church. His title is, "Pfalzgrave of the Rhine; arch-treaſurer and elector of the holy Roman empire; duke of Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves, and Berg; prince of Mors; marquis of Bergen-op-Zoom; count of Veldens; Spanheim, the Mark, and Ravenſberg, and lord of Ravenſtein." In this country is an order of knighthood called St. Hubert, the badge of which is a quadrangular croſs pendant to a red ribbon, with a ſtar on the breaſt.

The military eſtabliſhment conſiſts of ſeveral regiments of horſe and foot, beſides the horſe and Swiſs life-guards. All the different courts and councils, uſual in other countries for the different departments of government, are alſo to be found here. The whole of the elector's revenue, ariſing from the Palatinate, the duchies of Berg and Juliers, the ſeigniory of Ravenſtein, and the duchies of Neuburg and Sultzbach, hath been eſtimated at about 300,000l. per annum.

In this palatinate are the following remarkable towns and places: 1. Heidelberg, the capital: it is ſituated 10 miles from Manheim, 12 from Spire, 38 from Frankfort, and 25 from Mentz. This city ſtands near the river Neckar, in a good air, and encompaſſed on all ſides, except to the weſt, with hills covered with vines. It takes its name from Heidel, which ſignifies a myrtle; and Berg, a mountain; there being, or having been, plenty of thoſe trees on the mountains in the neighbourhood. It is an antient city, and has been frequently beſieged and taken, plundered and deſtroyed. Though it is at preſent ſmall, yet it is neat, and well built. The electoral palace is an antique building, but ſtands on a hill and commands a fine proſpect. As to the famous library here, many books and manuſcripts were taken from it in 1622 (when general Tilly made himſelf maſter of the town), and ſent to Rome, Vienna, and Munich. The profeſſors of the univerſity here are partly Calviniſts, and partly Roman catholics. The Calviniſts have alſo a gymnaſium. Of the churches, ſome belong to the Calviniſts, ſome to the Lutherans, and ſome to the Roman catholics. Twelve poor ſtudents are provided with lodging and board, in a college called the Sapience, which belongs to the Calviniſts.

There is a high mountain oppoſite to Heidelburg, on which the Romans had a caſtle, and which, by ſome, is thought to be the Mons Pyrus, mentioned by Aminianus Marcellinus. It is now called the Holy Mountain, from a cloiſter erected in it in 1023, to which frequent pilgrimages are made. The famous tun here, which ſtood in a cellar under one of the towers of the electoral palace, and contained ſix hundred hogſheads of wine, was deſtroyed by the French in 1688; but the elector Charles Lewis, cauſed a much more conſiderable one to be made in its ſtead.

2. Manheim, where the elector uſually reſides, is ſituated eight miles weſt of Heidelburg, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine. It is one of the fineſt towns in Germany, and ſtrongly fortified; but it labours under two capital diſadvantages, namely, the want of good water and wholeſome air. The electorate palace is one of the moſt magnificent in Europe, and contains a grand collection of paintings, brought hither from Duſſeldorp, beſides antiquities and curioſities, among which is the crown of the unhappy Frederic V. king of Bohemia. The three religions tolerated in the empire have churches in this city. Here alſo is a Jewiſh ſynagogue, with a Capuchin and Carmelite cloiſter. Some manufactories are eſtabliſhed here, and a conſiderable trade, chiefly by Jews, is carried on in this town.

3. The town of Bacharach, is ſituated on the Rhine; here is a ſtone oppoſite to it, on the ſame river, ſhaped like an altar, and called by the inhabitants the altar-ſtone, upon which, it is thought, victims were frequently offered to Bacchus, the neighbouring country yielding Muſcadel wine. The town contains a cloiſter, and on a mountain near it ſtands the caſtle of Staleck. The inhabitants here, as in all the other towns of the palatinate, are a medley of Catholics, Lutherans, and Proteſtants. 4. Oppenheim ſtands on a hill near the Rhine, and was once an imperial free city. 5. Ingelheim, a borough on the Selz. 6. Frankenthal, a conſiderable town. 7. Alzey, a ſmall town on the river Selz. 8. Neuſtadt, on the Hart, gives name to a bailiwic, which contains ſeveral ſmall towns. 9. Germerſheim, on the Rhine, alſo gives name to a bailiwic, containing a commandery of the order of St. John, together with ſeveral ſmall towns on the above river. 10. Moſbach gives name to a bailiwic, in which

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are ſeveral towns, particularly Sinzheim, where there is a large cloiſter belonging to the Franciſcans. 11. Ladenberg, on the Neckar, ſixteen miles from Heidelberg. 12. Weinheim, ſituated in the fineſt part of Bergſtraz. 13. Bretten, noted for being the birth-place of Philip Melanchthon: it gives name to a bailiwic, which contains the three ſmall towns of Eppingan, Weingarten, and Heidelſkein.

The city of Erfurt is large and well-fortified, but not very populous, and the buildings are moſtly old-faſhioned. It ſtands ſixteen miles weſt of Weymar, ſixty of Leipzig, ſixty-ſeven north of Bamberg, and ſeventy ſouth of Halberſtadt; is reckoned the capital of Thuringia, and was made a biſhopric by St. Boniface, in the eighth century. Both the city and its territory, which is of conſiderable extent, are ſubject to the electorate of Mentz; but the inhabitants of both, or at leaſt the greateſt part of them, are proteſtants, and intitled, by expreſs ſtipulations, to the free exerciſe and enjoyment of their religion: the civil and criminal court too conſiſts of an equal number of Roman catholic and Lutheran aſſeſſors: and the members of the town council are partly catholics, and partly proteſtants, the laſt having likewiſe a conſiſtory of their own perſuaſion. The garriſon conſiſts of two battalions of imperial and electoral troops.

There is, in this city, a bell called Suſanna, which is ſaid to be the biggeſt in Germany, weighing above twelve tons. Here are alſo two citadels, with a great many churches; ſome collegiate, ſome Roman catholic, and ſome Lutheran; together with a rich Benedictine monaſtery, ſeven cloiſters, of which one is the Scottiſh, a Lutheran gymnaſium: an univerſity of five colleges, the profeſſors of which are partly Lutherans, and partly Roman catholics; the imperial academy of natural curioſities; a riding academy; a botanic garden; an aſtronomical obſervatory; an anatomical theatre; ſeveral good libraries, and an academy of the uſeful ſciences. Several diets of the empire have been held here. In 1664 the city was beſieged and taken by the elector of Mentz, with the help of the French and Lorrain troops. But by ſtipulations with the elector and princes of Saxony, who were protectors of the city, its privileges were in a great meaſure ſecured to it. The territory belonging to the city contains two ſmall towns, and ſeventy-three villages, among which are five called the kitchen villages, as being obliged to perform certain ſervices and liveries to the archbiſhop's kitchen. The country is pleaſant, and fruitful both in corn and wine.

That part of Germany, called Eichsfeld, on the Lower Rhine, is ſurrounded by Heſſe, Thuringia, and the principalities of Grubenhagen and Calenburg. It extends about thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Eichsfeld; the former mountainous, but healthy and populous; the latter, though not enjoying, perhaps, ſo pure an air, is more level, warm, and fruitful, abounding in corn, cattle, flax and tobacco. Great quantities of linen and ſerge are made in the Upper; in which the rivers Leine, Lutter, Unſtrut, Wipper, and Rume, have their ſource. The Thuringian language is ſpoken in the Upper, but in the Lower, the Saxon. In both are four cities, three boroughs and one hundred and fifty villages. The diets, which conſiſt of the repreſentatives of the abbies, nunneries, and certain towns, with the nobility, are held, if the weather will permit, in the open air, at a place called Jagebanks-Warte; if not, in the council-houſe of Heiligenſtadt. At the latter place are held the ſupreme temporal courts, and there alſo reſides the lieutenant, or adminiſtrator; but the ſeat of the archiepiſcopal commiſſary, which has the ſpiritual juriſdiction over the whole Eichsfeld, is at Duderſtadt. Here are a few proteſtants; but the prevailing religion is the Roman catholic. With regard to eccleſiaſtical matters, the county is divided into ten provincial deaneries, and eighty-one pariſhes, in which are two collegiate foundations, two abbies, and ſix nunneries. The right of patronage in ſome places belongs to the archbiſhop; in others, to the cloiſters and foundations, and in others to the nobility.

The two following are the only places of note in this part of the country, viz. 1. Heiligenſtadt, on the river Leine, in the upper diſtrict. 2. Duderſtadt, a town on the Hahle, in the lower diſtrict, containing an Urſuline nunnery, the ſuperior of which is ſtiled Worthy Mother, and is changed every three years.

The duchy of Weſtphalia, which is about forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth, is bounded, on the eaſt, by the biſhopric of Paderborn, and the territories of Waldec and Heſſe; on the north, by the biſhopric of Munſter, and the county of Lippe; and, on the ſouth, by the counties of Witgenſtein and Naſſau, and the duchy of Berg. The lower diviſion of it is tolerably fertile in corn and cattle, and in ſome parts of it are ſalt ſprings. The higher part produces iron ore, calamy, lead, copper, gold and ſilver, fine woods, corn, cattle, game and fiſh. There are twenty-eight towns in this duchy, beſides boroughs and cloiſters. The provincial diets are held at Arenſberg. It is governed at preſent by a bailiff, under the archbiſhop, and is divided into the Hellwege, the Haarſtrank, and the Surland, or otherwiſe into the Ruden, the Werl, the Bilſtein, and the Brilon quarters. The rivers, that either paſs through the duchy, or along its borders, are, the Rahr, the Lenna, the Bigga, the Dimel, and the Lippe. In the year 1180, the emperor Frederick made a donation of this duchy to the archbiſhopric of Cologne, which was confirmed by ſucceeding emperors; and in 1368 the late duke of Arenſberg ceded to it alſo the county of Arenſberg.

The Ruden quarter, beſides the town which gave name to it, ſituated on the river Mon, contains, 1. Geſeke. 2. Warſten, on the rivulet Weeſter. 3. Kaldenhart. And alſo a capuchin monaſtery and nunnery.

The Werl quarter, beſides Arenſberg, the capital of a county, and a handſome town, ſituated on the Rhur, or Roer, forty-ſeven miles north-eaſt from Cologne, contains the towns of Werl and Beelike, the firſt containing a capuchin cloiſter, and the other a Benedictine provoſtſhip, together with the ſmall towns of Baloe, Menden, Nehelm, Allentrop, Grevenſtein, and Herzberg. In this quarter are alſo a mineral ſpring, a commandery of the Teutonic order, with a ſtud and hunting ſeat of the elector, with ſeveral abbies, nunneries, and caſtles.

The Belſtein quarter contains the ſmall towns of Attendorn, Olpe, Drolſhagen, and Fredeburg, with ſeveral caſtles and cloiſters.

There are nine ſmall towns in the Brilon quarter, with ſeveral cloiſters and caſtles.

The county of Recklinghauſen is bounded by the biſhopric of Munſter, the duchy of Cleves, and the county of Mark, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, and extending about twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, and ten from north to ſouth. It belongs to the ſee of Cologne, and is governed by a lieutenant.

This county contains only one place that merits any deſcription; namely, Recklinghauſen, a ſmall town, giving name to the county, and containing a ſtrong caſtle, with a nunnery, the abbeſs whereof hath power of puniſhing capitally. She alone is obliged to make a vow of chaſtity; for the nuns may marry, after having been a number of years in the houſe.

The circle of Lower Iſenburg lies near that of Wied, in the circle of Weſtphalia. The greater part of it is poſſeſſed by the elector of Triers, who has a ſeat and voice on account of it at the diets of this circle. The reſt of it belongs to the counts of Wied-Runkel, and the barons of Walderdorf. The only place worthy of notice is the ſmall town of Herſbach, which is in that part of the county belonging to the elector.

On the Rhine, between the duchy of Juliers and the archbiſhopric of Cologne, is the burgraviate of Reinec. This little diſtrict had formerly burgraves of its own; but now belongs to the counts of Zinzendorf, of the Erneſt-Brunn line, who, on account of it, have a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle. The only place in it is the inconſiderable town of Reinec, from whence it has its name.

The ſmall principality of Aremberg is ſurrounded by the archbiſhopric of Cologne, the duchy of Juliers, and the county of Blankenheim. The dukes of Aremberg and Arſchot are a branch of the houſe of Ligne. Till 1576 they were only counts, but were then made princes of the empire, and, in 1644, dukes. They have a ſeat and voice both at the diets of the empire and circle, in the colleges of princes. They take their title from Aremberg, the capital of the principality, which is a ſmall town, and has a caſtle in it.

Though the princes of the Thurn, or Tour and Taxis, have no immediate eſtate in this circle, yet they have a ſeat and voice in its diets, as alſo in thoſe of the empire. The firſt they obtained in conſequence of advancing to the circle in the year 1724, by way of purchaſe, eighty-thouſand rix-dollars; and the other in conſequence of an imperial decree, founded upon their having had the office of poſtmaſter of the empire erected in their favour into a free meſne eſtate. They took their ſeat in 1754, for the firſt time, among the princes in the diets of the empire.

The knights of the Teutonic order are poſſeſſed of the bailiwic of Coblenz, in this circle, ſo named from that town, which intitles them to a ſeat and voice among the

prelates of the empire: and alſo in the diets of the circle. There are ſeven commanderies, or commendams, belonging to this bailiwic, which has its ſeat at Cologne.

SECT VI.

Compriſing a particular Account of the Circle of FRANCONIA, with a Deſcription of its Boundaries, Cities, Towns, Countries, &c. with their Inhabitants, their Trade and Manufactures, and Produce of the different Diſtricts contained therein.

THIS circle is bounded by thoſe of the Upper and Lower Rhine, Bavaria, Swabia, Bohemia, and Upper Saxony. The inhabitants are a mixture of Roman catholics, Lutherans, and Calviniſts. The diets are held at Nuremberg; the archives are kept at Bamberg, the biſhop of which latter place, together with the margraves of Brandenburg, Bareith, and Anſpach, are ſummoning princes for the circle, but the biſhop is ſole director.

The imperial city of Nuremberg, which is ſituated thirty-five miles to the ſouth of Bamberg, was made imperial by the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa. It is reckoned one of the largeſt, fineſt, and richeſt cities in the empire; and, in ſhort, the glory of Germany; and, conſidering its great diſtance from the ſea, it is the wonder of Europe for its trade, and number of people. It is, in every reſpect, ſuperior to Vienna, and in general ſurpaſſes all other cities in Germany, except Berlin, in the ſtatelineſs of its buildings; but exceeds that, as it does all the others, in the wealth, ingenuity, and induſtry of its inhabitants. It is eight miles round, defended with large ditches faced with ſtone, and high triple ſtone walls, with three hundred and ſixty-five towers on them, of which an hundred and eighty-three are of free-ſtone, mounted with three hundred cannon. Here are five hundred and fifty ſtreets and alleys, and moſt of the houſes, being uniform, are of free-ſtone, ſix or ſeven ſtories high, painted on the outſide, and adorned at the top with gilded balls. The ſtreets are large, and very commodious, open, and well paved, and, next to thoſe of Hanau, the neateſt in Germany; but they are not very ſtrait, and many of them lie up and down hill. Here are ten market-places regularly built, thirteen public baths, twelve conduits, and an hundred and eighteen wells. Their chief fountain is adorned with many braſs ſtatues, one of Neptune on the top, three yards and an half high, and above twenty-two hundred weight; and others of nymphs and ſea-horſes, larger than the life. It is ſaid this fountain will throw out two hundred hogſheads in an hour, and coſt near three thouſand five hundred crowns. The river Pegnitz is let in by twelve large arches under the walls; and, after running through the middle of the city, is let out by twelve other arches. It forms ſeveral pleaſant iſlands, wherein are moſt agreeable walks and meadows, where they whiten linen; and ſupplies the ditches and town with water; and upon the ſtream there is a great number of mills for tanners and braziers, as well as for corn, paper, iron, and making ſword-blades, knives, and other iron wares. There are ſixty mills within the walls, many of them for grinding corn. There are ſeven wooden and eleven ſtone bridges over this river, whereof one, which has one arch only, of ninety-ſeven feet from one baſe to the other, like the Rialto at Venice, though not ſo high or ſo long, is reckoned a wonder in architecture. At one end of it there is a large fleſh-market, built of hewn ſtone, on whoſe gate the butchers have placed a vaſt ox of ſtone, lying on his belly, with gilded horns and hoofs. The inhabitants are about ſixty thouſand. Here are but two pariſh churches, properly ſo called. The firſt is as ſtately as any one of its kind in the empire, viz. that built, as they ſay, in 740, by St. Sebald, a Daniſh prince of the blood royal, by whom this country was converted. It is a large gothic pile, and has ſeven gates, a bell weighing an hundred and fifty-ſix quintals, and a braſs monument erected to his memory, weighing about an hundred and fifty-ſeven quintals, with noble antique figures. The ſextons have a rare collection of relicks, which they ſhew only to travellers of quality. The ſecond is St. Laurence's church, another gothic fabric, which is chiefly frequented by the Lutheran nobility and gentry. It has eight gates, two ſteeples in the front, and is the largeſt in the city. Here the chief of the citizens have their tombs and eſcutcheons, and there is a regiſter of all that have been buried here for five hundred years, ſpecifying the time and manner of their death. Beſides theſe, there are the churches of the Virgin Mary, St. Giles, the Holy Ghoſt, and the hoſpital of St. James, in which are the monuments of many princes and counts of the empire. Near St. Laurence's church are three fountains, one of them an octagon baſon, with a large braſs pillar in the middle, from whoſe chapiters project ſix muzzles of lions, ſpurting water out of each by a twiſted pipe. On the cornice are the ſix cardinal virtues, ſpurting water from their breaſts. On this pillar ſtands a leſs one fluted, on which are ſix infants, every one of them leaning on an eſcutcheon, bearing the arms of the empire, thoſe of Nuremberg, &c. and they all have trumpets, out of which jets plenty of water, as it does likewiſe from the breaſts of a fine ſtatue of juſtice on the top of this ſecond pillar, and from a large oſtrich which ſupports her. The whole is of braſs, incloſed by an iron grate carved and gilt.

The emperor reſides in the caſtle, which is well-fortified, and ſtands on a high hill, or rock, from whence there is a fair proſpect of the city. It is built after the old Roman faſhion: ſome ſay by Druſus, others by Nero: It has many curious pictures; within the firſt gate is a ſmall antique chapel, which they ſay was formerly a chapel dedicated to Credo and Hirmenſul; two divinities worſhipped by the antient Germans, whoſe ſtone ſtatues are againſt the wall on the outſide: Here is a well in the rock ſaid to be one thouſand ſix hundred feet deep, and the chain of the buckets three hundred weight. The cieling is ſupported by four Corinthian pillars, each forty-five feet high: in the emperor's apartment there is the picture of the homage paid by the magiſtrates to the emperor Matthias in 1612. This caſtle has four towers, two of which look to the eaſt and north, and the two others towards the town.

Their ſtadt-houſe, is a ſtately beautiful fabric, of hewn ſtone, one hundred paces in breadth, much larger than that of Augſbourg, and as well adorned within. It has three great porticos, with marble pillars; the front is very fine, having a noble portal, in the middle of it, adorned with ſeveral ſtatues. There are two other very grand gates to it, at equal diſtances one from another, which are no leſs ſplendidly ornamented. There is a long gallery here, on the cieling of which a famous tournament, that was held here above three hundred years ago, is repreſented in relievo. The council-chamber, dining-room, and other apartments, are well painted and gilt, filled with the arms of all nations, and adorned with curious pictures, medals, excellent works, both antique and modern, idols, ſhells, plants, minerals, and other natural productions. The council-chamber is ſmall, and not ſuitable to the dignity and power of the ſenate: the floor of the ſenate-houſe is paved with gilt ſtones, intermixed with others, of different colours; ſo that it exceeds that of Amſterdam: and in one of the chambers is a large picture that quite covers one ſide of the wall, repreſenting the entertainment which the emperor Ferdinand III. gave in the grand hall here, to the plenipotentiaries, at the treaty of Munſter's being ratified, who are painted as big as the life. Here are the pictures alſo of all the princes, and moſt other great perſons in Germany, who have been entertained here. The deputies of the circle of Franconia meet every day here; thoſe of the biſhop of Bamberg, and the marquis of Brandenbourg-Bareith, preſide at it: but the deputies of the eccleſiaſtical princes have the right hand: theſe deputies are, in all, eighteen, and attended by nine ſecretaries, who ſit at another table to write their reſolutions. Within this chamber, over the door, is a picture of three brothers, princes of Saxony, viz. John George, Frederic, and John Chriſtian, who ſupported Luther in his reformation. The ſecond of theſe holds the imperial crown, which he would not accept of. The tapeſtry of this chamber contains the hiſtory of Nebuchadnezzar, king of Perſia.

In the arſenal are arms for one thouſand men, and it is one of the fineſt, and beſt furniſhed, in Germany. Mr. Miſſon ſays, he ſaw three hundred pieces of braſs cannon in it. Here are good ramparts, and a numerous garriſon. The city has ſix gates, each defended by a large tower, which look toward as many different roads. The public library, compoſed, at the beginning of the reformation, of all the books belonging to the convents of this city, and its neighbourhood, conſiſts of four galleries, and twenty-ſix thouſand volumes; particularly a Greek manuſcript of the goſpel, and ſome of St. Paul's epiſtles, above one thouſand years old, with the prayers and hymns formerly uſed in the Greek church, and the characters very different from thoſe now in uſe. Here are, a letter, of Luther's handwriting, to the magiſtrates of this city: a pocket-book of John Frederic, elector of Saxony; being ſcraps of ſermons he heard him preach: and the figure of Moſes, which, though not a foot high, has the whole Pentateuch writ upon

upon it. In the public cellar, which is a quarter of a mile long, are, generally, twenty thouſand middle-ſized tuns, full of wine.

Among many other privileges, this city has the cuſtody of moſt of the imperial ornaments made uſe of at the emperor's coronation: As, 1. Charlemagne's crown, ſaid to weigh fourteen pounds, about which there is a mitre, enriched with a vaſt number of diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and pearls; and on the front, a croſs of diamonds, of great value. 2. His dalmatic robe, or mantle, embroidered with large pearls. 3. The golden apple, or globe. 4. His ſword. 5. His golden ſceptre. 6. The imperial cloak, embroidered with eagles, and bordered with large emeralds, diamonds, ſapphires, and cryſolites. 7. Buſkins, covered with plates of gold. 8. The gloves, embroidered with curious ſtones. They are kept in the church of the hoſpital, and were all brought from Prague by the emperor Sigiſmund, by reaſon of the troubles that were in Bohemia in his time. Here is alſo a large cheſt, ſuſpended in the air by iron chains faſtened to the ceiling, in which, they ſay, are a vaſt many ſacred relicks, but they are never ſhewn, except to ſovereign princes, and their attendants.

The council is compoſed of forty-two perſons, whereof twenty are taken out of the ancient patrician families, and the reſt from among the burghers; ſo that there are thirteen eſcheVins, or aldermen; as many counſellors, or common-councilmen; eight other ſenators, who are all patricians; and eight other counſellors, elected out of the corporations of trades and crafts, who are, conſequently, plebeians; but theſe acquieſce ſo implicitly in the deciſion of the patricians, that they may be ſaid to have no vote. There are two burgomaſters, one choſen out of the eſchevins, the other out of the council, who have the ſuperiority, the one of the military, the other of the civil government, and are changed every month.

Levying of troops, taxes, and other matters of great moment, are referred to a ſelect committee of ſeven, named the Septemvirate, who call three or four civilians, for advice; and they have ſalaries for their attendance on ſuch occaſions: but no lawyers are allowed any vote, or ſhare in the adminiſtration. In extraordinary caſes there is a great council of 400, choſen out of all the callings and trades in the city; and they annually chuſe the members of the other courts. The magiſtrates never allow mechanics to meet publickly, except at worſhip, weddings, and funerals, for fear of tumults; and the ſenators are, in general, ſo very circumſpect, that, "As prudent as a Nuremberg ſenator," is become a common proverb in the country.

As the freedom of the city is not allowed to papiſts, there being but few here; theſe are obliged to worſhip in a chapel, or ſmall church, in the houſe of the Teutonic order. The Calviniſts were formerly obliged to go a league out of town to a church, in the marquiſate of Anſpach; and the Lutheran miniſters, in the town, baptized their children: but the late king of Pruſſia, whom the Nurembergers feared much more than they loved, having demanded that they ſhould be allowed a place of worſhip nearer to the city, they now meet two or three muſquet-ſhot without the gates, in a long hall, which holds about five hundred perſons. The Jews, who live in a village without the city, where they have a ſynagogue, are not allowed to lodge here, nor to come into it, without paying a florin for every hour they ſtay, as at Cologne, and that on the ſame pretext; namely, a deſign to poiſon the wells and fountains. The religion, as well as quality, of every perſon here, may be known by their habit; which regulation was made by the magiſtrates, both of this city, and Augſburg, to reſtrain the luxury of the meaner ſort in clothes, and to detect rioters, who are but too common in all free cities.

There are in this city a great number of curious workmen, in metal of all ſorts, ivory, wood, &c. and artificial commodities are very cheap. They are particularly famous for clock-work. Monconys ſays, there was a coach made here for the king of Denmark, with ſprings, ſo as to go forward or backward, or turn about, and travel a league on ſtones, without horſes, and only managed by two boys within; and that the ſame workman made, for the dauphin of France, a repreſentation of a ſquadron of horſe, engaged with a battalion of foot, both of them marching, and firing, by ſpring-work. The Nuremberg braſs, which is made chiefly out of the Tirol copper, is ſaid to be the moſt ductile, the brighteſt, and the leaſt ſubject to flaws, of any in Europe.

Weiſſenburgh, a little imperial city, is twenty-eight miles ſouth of Nuremberg, and ſituated on the Norgau. The territory belonging to it is very ſmall, and contains but one inconſiderable village. The city has a ſeat and voice both in the diets of the circle and of the empire.

Schweinfurt, another ſmall imperial city, ſtands on the Maine, and has a good bridge and gymnaſium: the inhabitants are proteſtants. The territory is ſmall, but celebrated for its excellent wine.

Windſheim, alſo an imperial city, ſtands on the Aiſch, twenty-ſeven miles from Nuremberg, and is very ancient. The territory is ſmall, and the inhabitants are Lutherans. The city has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the empire, and circle.

Rothenberg, an imperial city, is ſituated near the Tauber. It has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle and empire, a conſiderable territory, and contains ſeveral churches, a gymnaſium, Teutonic houſe, &c. The inhabitants are Lutherans.

Seinſheim, Reichelſberg, and Wieſentheid ſeigniories, entitle their lords to a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle, but thoſe privileges are not enjoyed by the ſeigniories of Welzheim and Hanſen.

Limburg and Spickfeld, which are combined ſeigniories, entitle the proprietors to two voices at the diet of the empire; and in the college of the counts of Franconia.

Erbach county is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the Maine, being twenty-ſeven miles long, and twenty broad; is tolerably fertile, and inhabited by Lutherans. The eſtates of all who die unmarried, in this county, after the age of twenty-five, are forfeited. It gives a ſeat and voice in the college of Franconian counts, and at the diets of the empire and circle, and contains Erbach, a ſmall town on the Mumling, with a caſtle; and Michelſtadt, the ſeat of a regency and ſuperintendency.

The county of Wertheim lies on both ſides the Maine, between the archbiſhopric of Mentz and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, a part of it terminating alſo on the county of Erbach. It abounds in corn, wine, paſturage, wild fowl, and veniſon. The inhabitants are moſtly proteſtants. A part of the county came by marriage to the family of Lowenſtein, who derive their pedigree from that of the elector Palatine, and are divided into the two branches of Lowenſtein-Wertheim-Virnenburg, and Lowenſtein-Wertheim-Rochefert, the former of which are proteſtants and counts; the latter Roman catholics and princes, or princely counts. They take the title of Lowenſtein from the county of that name, under the juriſdiction of the duke of Wirtemberg, of which they are proprietors, beſides other ſeigniories in the empire, Bohemia, and the Netherlands. The reſt of this county, not poſſeſſed by the counts of Lowenſtein, belongs to the biſhop of Wurtzburg, and the counts of Caſtell. The counts of Lowenſtein have two voices in the Franconian college of counts of the empire, and have alſo a ſeat and voice among the counts in the diets of the circle.

The moſt conſiderable places in this county are, 1. Wertheim, which gives name to it, and is its capital, lying at the confluence of the Maine and Tauber. Here each of the above-mentioned branches of the Lowenſtein family have a palace. The inhabitants are partly proteſtants, and partly papiſts; but the magiſtracy is wholly proteſtant. 2. The county of Reinec, which gives its poſſeſſor a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle, and in the college of Franconian counts; but contains only Reinec, a ſmall town, with a caſtle. 3. Bremberg, a ſtrong caſtle on a mountain, giving name to a ſeigniory, which had antiently lords of its own. 4. Little Heubac, on the Maine, which gives name to a bailiwic, and contains a caſtle: it is ſituated on the Maine, and is a market town.

The county of Caſtell lies between that of Schwartzenberg, and the biſhropric of Wurtzburg, and weſt from Bamberg. It is about twenty-ſeven miles long, and eight where broadeſt, and belongs to its counts, divided into the two principal lines of Remlingen and Rudenhauſen, deſcended from the antient dukes of Franconia. The county is, for the moſt part, a fief of Wurtzburg, to which the counts are here hereditary cup-bearers. They have two voices in the college of the imperial counts of Franconia, both at the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle. The oldeſt of the reigning counts is always adminiſtrator of the feudal ſeigniories of the whole houſe, and cup-bearer to the biſhop of Wurtzburg.

The places in the county, worth mentioning, are, 1. Caſtell, a village, containing a fine palace, in which one of the collateral lines of the principal Remlingen line reſides, and gives name to a bailiwic belonging to the ſame line. 2. Rudenhauſen, a village which gives title to the other capital line, and contains a place belonging to them. 3. Remlingen,

3. Remlingen, a market-town, which gives title to one of the principal lines.

The biſhopric of Bamberg is bounded, on the north, by the principality of Coburg, and the Voightland; on the ſouth, by the principality of Brandenburgh Bareith, the territory of Nuremberg, and the principality of Schwartzenberg; on the weſt, by the biſhopric of Wurtzburg; and, on the eaſt, by the territory of Nuremberg and Brandenburgh-Bareith. The length of it is about ſixty miles, and the breadth forty. The ſoil is very fertile in corn, wine, ſaffron, and liquorice, yielding alſo in ſome places, laurel, fig, lemon, and orange trees, with woods of foreſt trees, and ſome metals. The country abounds likewiſe in cattle, and is well watered by the Maine, and ſeveral other brooks that fall into it. The inhabitants are all zealous Roman catholics. Here are no ſtates.

Before the year 1006, this county was called the county of Babenberg, and had counts of its own; but was then allotted for a biſhopric by the Emperor Henry II. which pope Benedict VIII. exempted from all archiepiſcopal juriſdiction. The biſhop's privileges and prerogatives are very great. He is the only one in Germany who has the privilege of wearing a cardinal's hat, together with the pallium, the laſt of which, however, coſts him four thouſand pounds, and there lies no appeal from his deciſions, in ſecular matters, to the courts of the empire. The king of Bohemia is his cup-bearer, the elector-palatine his ſteward, the elector of Saxony his grand-marſhal, and the elector of Brandenburg his great chamberlain. Theſe, or their proxies, if ſummoned, muſt attend, and do the duties of their offices on the day of his inſtallation. He is able to bring into the field four thouſand men. The revenue ariſing from his biſhopric, beſides his bailiwics in Carinthia, amounts to above fifty thouſand pounds. The chapter, by whom the biſhop is elected, conſiſts of twenty capitular canons, and fifteen domicelli, all of noble birth. All his eſtates, excepting thoſe in Carinthia, are held immediately of the empire. At the diet thereof, he has the fourth place, on the ſpiritual bench in the college of princes, and is a ſummoning prince and director of this circle, as we before obſerved. His matricular aſſeſſment, at preſent, is only four hundred and thirty-ſeven florins; and to the chamber of Wetzlar five hundred and ſeventy-four rix-dollars each term. Here are all the uſual courts, councils, and offices for the different departments of government, as war, foreign affairs, the finances, &c.

The two following are the chief places in this biſhopric, viz. 1. Bamberg, which gives name to it, and is its capital, pleaſantly ſituated near the river Rednitz, about thirty-four miles north of Nuremberg, and in the centre of Germany. It is ſurrounded with walls and a ditch, and is, in general, well built and populous. Here are two epiſcopal palaces, or caſtles, one called Peterſburg, and the other Gayerſworth, an univerſity founded in 1648; ſeveral monaſteries, nunneries, and churches, beſides the cathedral of St. George, in which is the monument of Henry II. who founded the biſhopric, and his conſort, Cunigunda, with a treaſure of jewels and relics. Several diets, both of the empire and circle, have been held here. Not far from the town ſtands the biſhop's ſummer-palace, called Marquardſburgh. Among other curioſities in the treaſury of the church of St. George is a folio manuſcript of the four goſpels in latin, upon fine vellum, in a neat Roman character, with ſome gothic letters interſperſed, and the moſt beautiful miniatures that are to be ſeen; the binding is wood, covered with curious ſculptures in ivory, of our Saviour's paſſion, and bordered with a gold edging, on which are the heads of our Lord and his Apoſtles, as are thoſe of the four evangeliſts at the four corners: the whole is enamelled, and the intervals between the figures are garniſhed with pearls and precious ſtones. There is another latin manuſcript in folio of the four goſpels, with a commentary by St. Jerom, and fine miniatures, but not comparable to the former: and there is a third in Gothic letters, the corners of which are alſo enriched with pearls and precious ſtones, much in the ſame manner with the firſt, with a ſquare of ivory in the middle, repreſenting St. John baptizing our Saviour. The ſaid emperor alſo gave a fine large ſhrine of gold for relicks, which is alſo ſet with precious ſtones. In ſhort, it would take up, by far, too much room in this work, to mention the vaſt number of antependiums of altars which are extremely rich; the candleſticks, luſtres, lamps, cenſers of gold and ſilver, and other rich articles of this treaſury.

Here is a church for the Jeſuits; the front of it is adorned with the ſtatues of ſeveral ſaints in niches; but the inſide is very indifferent. The Dominicans have another, with an altar, at which they give out, that above two thouſand maſſes are ſaid every year. The Auguſtine friars have a monaſtery dedicated to St. Stephen; and the Benedictines an abbey dedicated to St. Michael, and ſtanding on an eminence of the ſame name: one of its abbots, who was a great botaniſt, cauſed the church to be painted, within and without, with all ſorts of the known plants and ſimples. A council was held at this city in 1011, to put an end to the differences among the German biſhops; and in the time of Henry IV. its biſhop Otho converted the Pomeranians to Chriſtianity. An univerſity was founded here in 1653, by Melchior Otto, one of its biſhops. There are ſeveral public fountains in the town, but no fortifications more than its wall; ſo that in time of war the biſhop reſides, and has commonly a very ſtrong garriſon, at Forcheim, or Forchaim.

Forcheim, ten miles ſouth-eaſt from Bamberg, the Lacoritum of the antients, which is ſtrongly and regularly fortified, having walls of free-ſtone on the confluence of the Wiſent, and the Rednitz: yet the duke Bernard of Weymar, the Swediſh general, took it in 1633, at the firſt onſet. The buildings are generally old, and out of repair. Baudrand gives it the Latin name of Forchænum. Munſter pretends it to be more antient than Bamberg, and that the old kings of Bavaria held diets and aſſemblies here; and there is a popular tradition here, that it was the country of Pontius Pilate. The pariſh church of St. Martin was made collegiate in 1354.

Bamberg has a very agreeable neighbourhood, but as one comes to it from Nuremberg, through a foreſt of fir-trees, there is an avenue to it for a quarter of a league in length, formed of wheels and gibbets, on which are expoſed the bodies of malefactors, by which this road has been infeſted from all quarters; for this biſhopric being contiguous to ſeven or eight different ſtates, the city lies in the greateſt road of all Germany. There is a good number of nobility ſettled here, who drink as hard as they do at Fulda and Wurtzburg; ſo that it looks as if drinking was an inſeparable function of the eccleſiaſtical courts in this part of the world. This city had formerly a wall; but the inhabitants, for their rudeneſs to the biſhop in 1435, were condemned at the council of Baſil to raze the walls, and never to rebuild them. In 1609, the popiſh boors here attempted to plunder the Jews of this city, and the neighbouring proteſtants; but were ſoon ſuppreſſed, and their leaders puniſhed for the outrages they had committed.

The biſhopric of Wurtzburg extends eighty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth: is well watered, and fertile in corn, fruit, herbs, wine, plants, paſtures, &c. The eſtabliſhed religion is the Roman catholic, yet there are a few much oppreſſed and perſecuted proteſtants in the county. Chriſtianity was firſt introduced here by St. Kilian, a Scotchman, about the end of the ſeventh century; and St. Burchard, the firſt biſhop, was appointed and conſecrated by St. Boniface, who is alſo ſaid to have been a Scotchman, and was the chief apoſtle of the Germans, and firſt archbiſhop of Mentz. to which ſee the biſhop of Wurtzburg is ſuffragan. The biſhop's title runs thus: "Prince of the holy Roman empire, biſhop of Wurtzburg, and duke of eaſt Frankenland." His revenue is ſaid to amount to ſixty thouſand pounds a year, with which he maintains a conſiderable body of troops, even in time of peace, with a ſplendid court and houſhold, horſe and foot-guards, &c. being abſolute in temporals, and living in all the ſtate of a ſovereign temporal prince; but in ſpirituals an appeal lies againſt him to his metropolitan, or the pope's nuncio. The biſhop has the honour of the pall and croſs, with a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle. His chapter conſiſts of twenty-two capitular canons, and thirty who are domiciled, who muſt all be of noble birth, and each has an income of three thouſand German crowns per annum.

The town of Wurtzburg, from whence the biſhopric derives its name, and is its capital, ſignifies a town of herbs, a great variety of which is found about it. It ſtands in the very centre of Franconia, on the banks of the Maine, forty miles weſt of Bamberg, and is well fortified. There is alſo a ſtrong fort near the town, containing an epiſcopal palace, magazine, and a church; but the palace, in which the biſhop uſually reſides, ſtands in the town, and is a noble ſtructure, the firſt ſtone of which was laid in the year 1720. The cathedral, together with a ſeminary, are dedicated to St. Kilian, the patron of Wurtzburg and Franconia. As this city is under the dominion of an eccleſiaſtical prince, the reader need not be told that it contains a great number of churches, monaſteries, nunneries, and other

other religious foundations. Here alſo is an univerſity, founded in 1403, a houſe of the Teutonic order, and another of the order of St. John, a foundery for cannon and bells, a handſome college, and ſeveral hoſpitals. In the biſhop's cellar are ſaid to be more than ſixty tuns of curious workmanſhip, full of excellent old wine. At the entrance of the bridge, over the Maine, is a triumphal arch of hewn ſtone. One of the abbies, which is large and magnificent, belongs to Scots Benedictines. The cathedral, an antient gothic ſtructure, is richly adorned within, with ſtatues, altars, pillars, &c. of marble and ſilver, finely executed, beſides paintings, ſculptures, gilding, and veſſels of gold and ſilver. Almoſt every thing in the church is carved and gilt: the pulpit, the organs, the benches for the canons, and the altars. Moſt of the ſtatues are alſo gilt. Several diets have been held in this city, which, like moſt others, has experienced many calamities, and a great variety of fortune. In the caſtle is a fine train of artillery, with all the implements neceſſary for gunners, and vaſt quantities of muſket-balls, bombs, bullets, and flints, beſides a year's proviſion for ſix thouſand men at arms, and forty thouſand horſe and foot. The great hoſpital of St. Julian here, is one of the richeſt and moſt magnificent in Europe, having a greater eſtate and income than the biſhop himſelf.

With reſpect to the principalities of the Margraves of Brandenburg, the ſoil of them is tolerably fertile, and the mountains abound with copper, lead, ſulphur, marble, fine clay, gold, ſilver, iron, vitriol, antimony, cryſtal, terra ſigillata, &c. The country contains many woods, is well watered, and abounds with fiſh. The manufactures conſiſt of ſtockings, porcelane, woollen cloth, hats, white cotton wares, &c. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm, but Calviniſts and Roman catholics are tolerated.

The principal places are, 1. Bareith, the capital, which contains a magnificent palace erected ſubſequent to the year 1753, two Lutheran and one Calviniſt church, a mint, a Roman catholic chapel, &c. The ſeat of the high colleges is here; and in the neighbourhood, in a wood, is a neat houſe, called the Hermitage. 2. St. Goergenam-ſee, a town on a lake, contains a noble palace, fine gardens, a porcelane and marble manufactory, &c. 3. Streitburg, gives name to a bailiwic. 4. Hof, on the Saal. 5. Neila. 6. Winſiedel, on the Roſzlau.

The town of Cullembach is twenty-five miles eaſt from Bamberg. It ſtands on the Maine, not far from Lichtelberg, nor from the ſource of the Red Maine, one of the rivulets that form the Maine: ſome take this to be the very centre of Germany. In 1430 it was plundered by the Huſſites: in 1553, upon the approach of the inhabitants of Nuremberg, with the princes their allies, the citizens, finding they were not able to ſuſtain a ſiege, ſet fire to the town, and retired, with their beſt effects, to the neighbouring caſtle of Blaſſenbourg, or Plaſſenberg: their enemies, however, advanced to the town, extinguiſhed the flames as faſt as they could, made a great booty, and took the caſtle alſo, in 1554, after a long ſiege, and demoliſhed it; but the Nurembergers were afterwards obliged to rebuild it, and it is very well fortified. The antient records of the family of Brandenburg, conſiſting of title deeds, imperial diplomas, acts, and other important and fundamental pieces, are kept here.

7. Neuſtadt, on the Aiſch, is one of the head towns of the principality, containing a margravial palace, and giving name to a bailiwic. 8. Weiſſenſtadt, on the Eger. 9. Lechtenberg, a market-town, which gives name to a bailiwic. 10. Golderonach, a ſmall town on the river Croanach. 11. Erland, one of the ſix head towns, as they are called, of the principality, ſituated at the conflux of the Rednitz with the Schwabach, and diſtinguiſhed into the Old and New. The latter which is alſo called Chriſtian-Ertang, having been begun by the margrave Chriſtian-Erneſt, in 1686, is one of the fineſt towns in Germany. It lies cloſe to Old Irland, being almoſt environed with a wall of free-ſtone, and containing a margravial palace, with a fine garden, an univerſity, and ſeveral churches. Some manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of hats and ſtockings, are alſo carried on here.

The biſhopric of Eichſtett is bounded by the Upper Palatinate, Upper Bavaria, the Duchy of Neuburg, the county of Papenheim, and the principality of Anſpach. It is a fruitful country, about 40 miles in length; but the breadth is ſmall in proportion, and very unequal. The biſhop is a prince of the empire, but ſuffragan of Mentz, and has a revenue of between nine and ten thouſand pounds. The chapter conſiſts of fourteen capitulars, and fourteen domicellis, who muſt be all gentlemen by ſixteen deſcents. Here are no land eſtates, and the inhabitants are all Roman catholics. The biſhopric was founded by St. Boniface, who made his ſiſter's ſon Wilibald, afterwards canonized by pope Benedict XIII. firſt biſhop thereof, in the year 745. Here are the uſual hereditary offices, and high colleges. The biſhop is perpetual chancellor of the univerſity of Ingelſtedt, and lord of ſeveral fiefs poſſeſſed by princes and counts.

The moſt conſiderable places in this biſhopric are, 1. Eichſtett, or Aichſtadt, i. e. the town or city of Oaks, ſo called from the large oaks that formerly grew near it. Beſides an epiſcopal palace, and cathedral dedicated to our lady, here are ſeveral cloiſters and churches, with a large college. In St. Warburg's church, is a rock or altar, as it is ſtiled, containing the breaſt-bones of the ſaint, from which, what they call its oil, but which in reality is only a vapour, for it neither burns nor ſwims upon the ſurface of the water, is ſaid to flow, and force itſelf through the ſtone twice a year. This holy oil is put up in ſmall phials for the uſe of pilgrims, and other devotees, who are aſſured of its miraculous virtues, and for that reaſon reſort hither in great numbers, to purchaſe ſome of it, and pay their devotions to the bones of the ſaint. It has a curious cathedral, to which one of their biſhops preſented a fine pyx for the uſe of the hoſt, which is of pure gold, in form of a ſun, weighs forty marks, and is adorned with three hundred and fifty diamonds, one thouſand four hundred fine pearls, two hundred and fifty rubies and ſeveral other precious ſtones, the whole being valued at ſixty thouſand guilders. In 1704, this town was taken by a French detachment. It lies in a valley, but the biſhop, reſides for the moſt part at the fortreſs of Willoboldſburg commonly called Walperſburg, which is about two miles off, upon a hill. It contains an arſenal and library, and the archives are kept here.

2. The ſmall town and citadel of Abenburg. 3. Hirchſberg, which gives name to a bailiwic, is a caſtle on a mountain.

The principality of Anſpach has Wartzburg on the weſt, Bamberg on the north and eaſt, and Swabia on the ſouth. It yields grain, fruits, wine, tobacco, iron, marble, timber, and there are in it ſome medicinal ſprings, &c.—Though ſome parts are mountainous, yet the others produce good paſture, in which abundance of cattle are to be bred and fed. The woods are well ſtored with game, and the rivers with fiſh: the chief rivers are the Rednitz, the Altmuhl, the Jaxt, the Wornetz, and the Tauber.

The yearly revenue accruing to the ſovereign of this principality, excluſive of that of Bareith, is five hundred thouſand crowns per annum. Lutheraniſm is the predominant religion; but at Schwabach the Calviniſts have the free exerciſe of theirs. There is a military academy at Anſpach. The principal manufactures of the country are tapeſtry, ſtockings, cloth, ſtuffs, gold and ſilver lace, wire, needles, porcelane, leather, and looking-glaſſes. The reigning margrave has a ſeat and voice in the college of princes, and at the diets of the empire and circle. His military eſtabliſhment is a life-guard of horſe, and one regiment of foot of ſeven companies.

The moſt conſiderable places in the principality are, 1. Anſpach, which gives name to it, and is its capital, ſtanding on the Under Retzut, and containing a palace, in which the margraves commonly reſide. Here the chief courts, councils, and offices are held. A public library is alſo here, with a collection of medals, a mint, a gymnaſium, a porcelane manufactory, barracks for ſome companies of foot, beſides two gardens, and a fine orangery and green-houſe belonging to the prince, and ſeveral churches. The town is ſurrounded with walls, and well-built. 2. Bruckberg, a beautiful pleaſure houſe belonging to the margrave, and ſtanding on an eminence. 4. Schwabach, on a river of the ſame name, is populous, and has a great trade in gold, ſilver, iron, ſteel, braſs, hard-wares, tobacco, cloths, ſtuffs, tapeſtry, lace, and ſtockings.

The Teutonic order, which we have had frequent occaſion to mention, was founded in the year 1190, in Paleſtine, and the knights were at firſt called knights of the Virgin Mary, or brothers of the Teutonic-houſe of our lady of Jeruſalem. They muſt be all Germans, and of true antient nobility. They are to bind themſelves by vows to defend the Chriſtian (i. e. Roman catholic) religion, and the Holy Land, and to protect and aſſiſt the poor, and the ſick. In 1226 and 1228, after they had been obliged to quit Paleſtine, they obtained a grant of all the lands they ſhould conquer from the Pagan Pruſſians; whereupon they ſubdued all Pruſſia, Courland, Semigallia,

gallia, and Livonia, but afterwards loſt the whole of them again.

The ſuperior of this ſpiritual order is ſtiled the grand and Teutonic maſter, adminiſtrator of the grand maſterdom in Pruſſia; maſter of the Teutonic order in Germany and Italy, and lord of Frudenthal and Eulenberg. He is a prince of the empire, and, as ſuch, has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire, and of this circle. Both Roman catholics and Proteſtants may be inveſted with the order, and the Proteſtant knights are permitted to marry. The eſtates which they are poſſeſſed of in Germany, were obtained partly by purchaſe, and partly by donation, and conſiſt of what is properly called the maſterdom of Margentheim, and twelve bailiwics. The grand maſter is choſen by the chapter, conſiſting of the counſellors and commanders, or commenders, the latter of whom are adminiſtrators and judges of the bailiwics and commenderies, but, in weighty matters, an appeal lies from them to the grand maſter, who confirms the counſellors and commenders, which are choſen by the chapter, the latter out of the former.

The county of Henneberg is about twenty-four miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. Beſides conſiderable quantities of grain, it yields alſo tobacco, medicinal and ſalt ſprings, with mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. The chief river by which it is watered is the Werra, into which ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams fall. The inhabitants are all Lutherans, except at Schenalkalden, where the Calviniſts have a church. The chief manufactures of the country are thoſe of arms, hard-ware, and fuſtians. The proprietors of it are, the electors of Saxony, the duke of Saxe-Weimar, Meinungen, Gotha, Cobourg-Saalfeld, Hilburghauſen, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. Some of theſe princes are intitled by it to voices in the diets of the empire and circle, and all of them contribute to the payment of its aſſeſſment to the empire and chamber-court.

The principal places in the county are, 1. Schleuſingen, lying on the little river Schleuz, and belonging, with its bailiwic, and ſeveral others, to the elector of Saxony. Here is a caſtle, in which the princes of Henneburg uſed ſometimes to reſide. The town is not large, but has a gymnaſium in it, belonging in common to all the dukes of Saxony, who have a ſhare in the county, and a commandery of the order of St. John. Not far from it is a medicinal ſpring, called Wilhelmſbrun. 2. Ilmenau, a ſmall town on the Ilm, belonging to Saxe-Weimar, and containing a mine office on account of the copper and ſilver mines in the neighbourhood, which were more conſiderable than at preſent. 3. Meinungen, a town ſituated on the river Werra, and giving title to a branch of the houſe of Saxe-Gotha, who have a palace in it, with a library and cabinets of medals. In this palace alſo are kept the Henneberg archives, belonging in common to the princes of Saxony. In the neighbourhood of the town tobacco is much cultivated. 4. Henneberg. 5. Salzungen a ſmall town on the Werra. 6. Romheld, a town giving name to a ſeigniory. 7. Schmalkalden, a pretty large, populous, and thriving town, which, together with ſeveral bailiwics and diſtricts, belongs to the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. A great trade is carried on here in iron and ſteel wares, there being mines of iron in the neighbourhood, and forges. This town is famous in hiſtory, on account of the meetings held in it by the Proteſtant princes concerning the reformation, and the league concluded by them in 1531.

The county of Hohenloe is about twenty miles in length, and nearly as many broad, tolerably fertile, and well-watered.

The principal places are, 1. Ochrengen, the capital, ſituated on the Ochren, containing two palaces, a gymnaſium, and ſeveral churches. 2. Barſtentein. 3. Ingelfingen, a ſmall town, which gives title to, and is the reſidence of a branch of the Neuenſtein line. 4. Kirchberg, a ſmall town on the Jaxt. 5. Sindringen, a town on the Kocher. 6. Pfedebach, a market-town. 7. Waldenburg, a ſmall village. 8. Frankenau, a market-town. 9. Schillingsfurſt, a palace on a mountain. 10. Neuenſtein, a town with a caſtle. 11. Langenburg, a town with a palace.

The county of Schwarzenburg is about ſixteen miles in length, but very narrow in proportion. The prince has a ſeat and voice in the college of princes in the diets of the empire and circle. He is poſſeſſed of other eſtates beſides thoſe in the empire, but the only places of note, in the county, are, Schwarzenberg, a caſtle on a mountain, and Mark-Praill, a ſmall town on the Maine.

SECT. VII.

Treating of the Circle of AUSTRIA; its ſeveral Circles, Duchies, Archduchies, Cities, and Towns; together with the Inhabitants, their Manufactures, Religion, &c. and the Trade, Produce of the Countries compriſed in it, &c.

THIS circle is bounded, on the north, by Moravia, Bohemia, and the circle of Bavaria; on the ſouth, by the Adriatic ſea, and the territory of Venice; on the eaſt, by Hungary; and, on the weſt, by Swiſſerland. It is the largeſt circle, and the firſt in rank. The principal part of it belongs to the illuſtrious houſe, whoſe name it bears, and who have been upwards of three hundred years in poſſeſſion of the imperial dignity. The inhabitants are in general Roman catholics.

Geographers divide the archduchy of Auſtria into Upper and Lower, the former being ſituated weſtward, and the other eaſtward. It is bounded by Bohemia, on the north, Bavaria on the weſt, Hungary on the eaſt, and Stirrow, on the ſouth. It extends near ſeventy miles from north to ſouth, on both ſides the Danube. It is, in general, level, fertile, and well-watered. The diets conſiſt of princes, biſhops, counts, abbots, barons, provoſts, knights, and town-repreſentatives, and in them they treat of contributions, taxes, military affairs, &c. The diet of Lower Auſtria is held at Vienna, and that of Upper Auſtria at Lentz. The proteſtant religion, for ſome time ſubſequent to the reformation, made a very conſiderable progreſs, but at length was proſcribed, and in a manner ſuppreſſed. The archbiſhop of Vienna is a prince of the holy Roman empire, and bears the pall and croſs. There is at Vienna a chamber of commerce and an exchange and a loan bank, which were eſtabliſhed in the year 1704.

The manufactures are, ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, cloths, ſtuffs, ſtockings, linen, looking-glaſſes, porcelane, plate, braſs, hard-wares, gun-powder, &c. Great quantities of allum, ſaffron, wine, &c. are exported, but few commodities are permitted to be imported, and thoſe which are allowed, are loaded with ſo many impoſts and duties, as to amount almoſt to a prohibition.

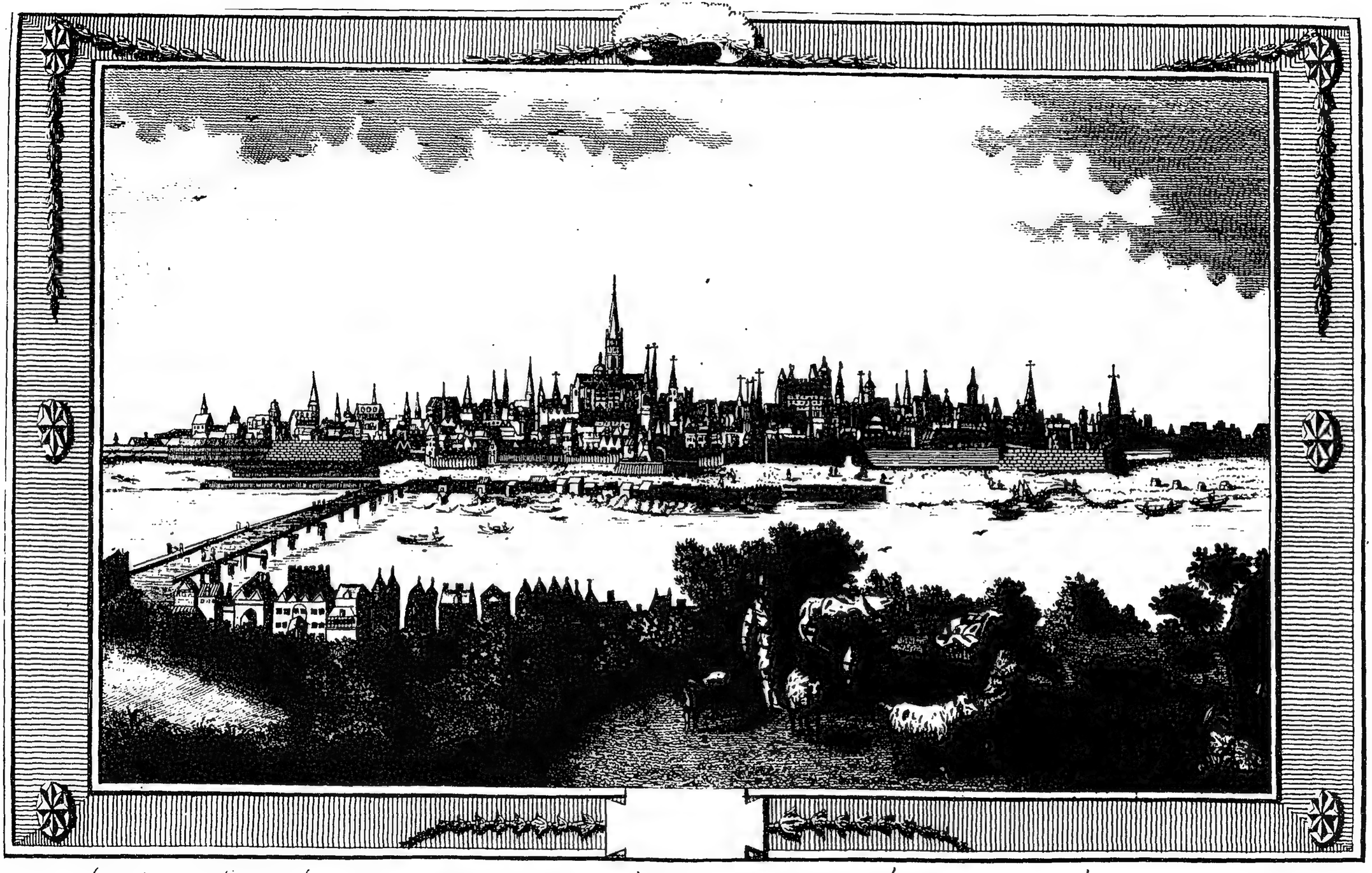
In the year 1753, Lower Auſtria was divided into four circles; two of theſe are ſituated on the ſouth, and two on the north ſide of the Danube. Thoſe to the ſouthward are called the circles below and above the foreſt of Vienna; and thoſe to the northward, the circles below and above the mountain of Manhartſberg.

We ſhall here deſcribe the principal places in Lower Auſtria; beginning with,

The city of Vienna, which is not only the capital of the circle of Lower Auſtria, but the metropolis of the whole German empire, and the reſidence of the emperor. It is ſituated in forty-eight degrees fourteen minutes north latitude, and ſixteen degrees fifty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude, at the diſtance of thirty-two miles from Preſburg, one hundred and eighty from Cracow, three hundred and ſixty from Rome, five hundred and fifty from Amſterdam, ſix hundred and twenty-five from Paris, and ſeven hundred and fifty from London, and is watered by the Danube. This city is by the Turks called Beez; by the natives, Wien; and by the Poles, Wieden. The Danube is here very wide, and forms ſeveral beautiful iſlands, which are well ſtocked with wood. This city was famous for the actions of ſeveral of the Roman emperors againſt the Marcomanni and the Quadi, particularly for the wars of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus Philoſophus, who defeated thoſe nations, and is ſaid to have died here. Whether it was afterwards deſtroyed, does not appear; for we find little or no account at all of it till 1158, when Henry I. of Auſtria is ſaid to have rebuilt it; and it was enlarged, beautified, and walled round in 1192, by the ranſom-money which the marquis of Auſtria obliged king Richard I. of England, to pay, when he took him priſoner in his return from the Holy Land (as is above hinted at Tirnſtein), becauſe he took down the Auſtrian banner at Joppa, and threw it into a houſe of office. This ranſom was one hundred and forty thouſand marks of ſilver, in Cologne weight, ſo prodigious a ſum for thoſe times, that the Engliſh were forced to ſell their church-plate to raiſe it; and the marquis likewiſe employed part of it in walling the towns of Neuſtadt, Ens, and Hainbourg.

It was made an imperial city by Frederic II. in 1236, but four years after it was made ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Æneas Sylvius, who wrote at leaſt two hundred and fifty years ago, ſays, this city abounded with palaces fit for kings, and churches which vied with thoſe of Italy:

a cha-



An Accurate Prospect of VIENNA, the Capital of Germany.

racter which it deſerves much better now, even though it has ſuſtained divers very memorable ſieges; viz. 1. By Matthias Corvin, king of Hungary, who took it in 1490, and died here in 1495. 2. By the grand ſeignior Soliman the Magnificent, in 1529, when he made twenty attacks upon it with three hundred thouſand men; but Philip, elector palatine bravely defended it, and the emperor Charles V. coming to its relief with ninety thouſand men, obliged the Turks to raiſe the ſiege on the 14th of October following. It was again attacked by the Turks in 1532, and 1543, and again in 1683, when Kara Muſtapha, grand vizir, beſieged it with one hundred thouſand men, who cannonaded it from the 24th of July to the beginning of September, and laid part of the imperial palace, as well as ſeveral other grand ſtructures, in aſhes: but count Staremberg, though reduced to great ſtreights, gallantly held it out till relieved by John Sobieſki, the king of Poland, who came up with his army; and, being joined by the imperialiſts under the late electors of Saxony and Bavaria, our late king, then Prince of Hanover, Charles late duke of Lorrain, and the brave prince Eugene, attacked the beſiegers on the 12th of September N. S. and totally routed them; ſo that they not only quitted their camp, but their cannon and baggage: and the vizir, who left his tent for the king of Poland to ſleep in, was, by the grand ſeignior's order, ſtrangled.

A treaty of peace was concluded here, April 19, 17, 25, O. S. between the emperor and Spain, after four years had been ſpent, in little but ceremony, at the congreſs of Cambray. On the 16th of March, 1731, that called the ſecond Vienna treaty of peace and alliance, was concluded here, between the emperor, and Great Britain, whereby the latter guarantied the Pragmatick Sanction, and the former conſented to the introduction of the ſix thouſand Spaniards into Italy, and ſoon after agreed to the ſame with the king of Spain himſelf, by that called the third treaty of Vienna, concluded the 22d of July following, between the emperor, Great Britain, and Spain.

The old inner wall was built with the ranſom-money of our king Richard I. beſides which, this city is well fortified, after the modern way, with large broad baſtions, faced with brick, and edged with freeſtone; viz. two towards the river, ten towards the land, and a very deep ditch, into which they can let the river, but generally keep it dry, for the ſake of their cellars. Including the ſuburbs, it is of a very large circuit; but the city itſelf is not above three miles round, and, both together, not above a quarter ſo big as London and Weſtminſter. It is very populous, and never without ſtrangers, in the habit of moſt of the European nations; here being generally not leſs than thirty ambaſſadors, and other miniſters, at a time, from foreign princes and ſtates, and from the princes and ſtates of the empire, beſides vaſt numbers of quality of the hereditary dominions, who are often at court: but no Turkiſh ambaſſador is ever permitted to lodge in this city. One of its late yearly bills of mortality was five thouſand five hundred births, and ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and odd burials, and it contains about one hundred and eighty thouſand ſouls. Some of the houſes are well-built of ſtone, ſix ſtories high, with flat roofs, after the Italian manner; but thoſe which are otherwiſe, are generally contemptible, being covered with pieces of timber, in the ſhape of tiles. The ſtreets are of a middling ſize, and many of the houſes have four cellars, one under another, with an open ſpace in the middle of each arched roof, for a communication of air; and from the lowermoſt of all there is a tube to the top, to let in the air from the ſtreets, which, however, is neither wholeſome nor agreeable; inſomuch that Vienna vel ventoſa, vel venenoſa, is an univerſal proverb; for the winds blow ſo hard here the greateſt part of the year, that it is troubleſome to walk the ſtreets. The malignity of the air, which might be more unwholſome were it not for thoſe winds, is generally aſcribed to the loads of mud and dirt in the ſtreets, owing to the neglect of the ſcavengers, who were appointed to clean them.

This city contains about one thouſand three hundred houſes, twenty-nine churches, and eight chapels: It was at firſt a biſhopric, but is now the ſee of an archbiſhop, who depends immediately on the pope. Its cathedral, dedicated to St. Stephen, founded by Henry I. of Auſtria, and finiſhed by Henry II. is a ſtately fabric, but the windows are darkened by its painted glaſs: the ſteeple and ſpire is one of the fineſt in Germany, and much ſtronger than that at Straſburg, though not ſo ſightly. It is four hundred and eighty feet high, and under the croſs on the top there were formerly the Turkiſh arms, viz. a half-moon and ſtar, ſet up by the citizens; becauſe, when Soliman the Magnificent beſieged the city, he would on no other conditions ſpare the ſteeple: and though he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and march off, yet the arms continued there till the Turks beſieged it again in 1683, after which, becauſe they fired at the ſteeple, they were taken down. This ſpire has large crockets, above a yard long, and adorned with foliage-work; and there is a moſt noble proſpect, from it, of the city, and adjacent country, and of the courſe of the Danube through moſt of Auſtria, and almoſt to Preſburg in Hungary. In the tower there hangs a caſe of wooden hammers, with which they call the people to church from Good Friday to Eaſter-day; becauſe they will not ſuffer the bells to ring out, during the time that our Saviour is ſuppoſed to have lain in the grave. At the entrance of this church, there is a ſtone placed in the wall, which they fancy to be one of thoſe wherewith St. Stephen was ſtoned to death. It looks like a pebble, and is worn very ſmooth by the ſuperſtitious people, who think they merit by touching it. In this church are many ſumptuous monuments of princes and other great perſons; but the princes of the Auſtrian family, who have been ſo long in poſſeſſion of the empire, have choſen to be buried in the chapel of the Capuchins church, without any pomp, or leaving any memory of their names or actions on their monuments.

The Aulick church, where the moſt important ceremonies are performed, is not the court church, though it is ſo near it; there's a paſſage to it from the palace by a long gallery. Here are many other noble churches, and rich convents; particularly, one for Scotchmen, in honour of their countryman St. Colman, who was reckoned the patron of Auſtria; and whoſe body, long kept here, had miraculous cures aſcribed to it; but it was afterwards carried to Alba Regalis. The church of the Auſtin friars, which is very large, has a chapel reſembling that called the Santa Caſa, or the Virgin's Houſe, at Loretto in Italy, on the top of which are many columns, ſtandards, and other trophies, taken from the Turks and Tartars. The Jeſuits have at leaſt two ſpacious colleges here; and before that which faces the piazzo there is a column of copper, in the centre of the market-place, on a pedeſtal of white ſtone, bearing the ſtatue of the Virgin Mary, with the ſerpent at her feet, and four angels round her, with inſcriptions recommending Auſtria to her patronage. St. Peter's church is much eſteemed for its antiquity, being the oldeſt in the city, and built in the ſame place where formerly ſtood the Ara Flaviana.

There is a noble univerſity in this city, founded above three hundred and fifty years ago, by the emperor Frederick II. who is ſaid to have endowed it with great revenues and privileges; and it was afterwards enlarged by Ottocar, king of Bohemia, and compleated by Albert III. of Auſtria, who divided it into four claſſes, with their peculiar rules and immunities. 1. The Auſtrian claſs, which takes in the ſtudents of Auſtria, Italy, and other provinces beyond the mountains. 2. That of the Rhine, which takes in the weſt part of the empire, France, Spain, and the Netherlands. 3. The Hungarian includes Hungary and Bohemia; and, 4. That of the Saxons takes in Saxony, the north of Germany, all the northern kings on the continent, Great Britain, Ireland, &c. The chancellor and the maſter have power of life and death over the ſtudents. In 1706, the emperor Joſeph erected an academy for painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The public library contains chiefly claſſical and civil law books. Proteſtants are now tolerated publicly to exerciſe their religion, agreeable to the late order of the emperor. The Jews were once permitted to reſide in a ſuburb, called Judenſtadt, beyond the river; but being ſuſpected of ſecretly carrying on a correſpondence with the Turks, they have ſince been entirely baniſhed from Auſtria. The Imperial palace is mean, low, dark, and badly furniſhed; though the library, which conſiſts of eight rooms, is well provided with manuſcripts and printed books; and the Muſeum contains many admirable rarities both of art and nature. The theatre is ſuperb, and the ſtables are capacious buildings of a vaſt length and expence, but no taſte, being divided into ſeven pavilions, which appear, at firſt ſight, to be ſo many different houſes; but the inner rooms are ill contrived; and the long one for horſes is ſo narrow, that they ſtand all in a row. Indeed a bad taſte has prevailed here, which is too prevalent in the buildings in general. Here are, it is true, ſome hotels, and even palaces, wherein the rules of architecture have been preſerved; but then they are overcharged with ſculpture, which is contrary to the noble ſimplicity of the antient architecture Here is, however, the beſt arſenal in the empire; where is ſhewn to ſtrangers the head of the grand vizir, who was

ſtrangled at Belgrade, after he had miſcarried in the ſiege of Vienna, as we mentioned above. The German ſoldiers, when they took Belgrade, in their war with the Turks, opened his tomb there, in hopes of treaſure, but found only the body in its ſhirt; and the governor remembering that this ſaid grand vizir, when he laid ſiege to Raab (which he was alſo obliged to raiſe), threatened that, if he maſtered the town, the head of its biſhop, then count Coblenitz, ſhould be cut off, becauſe he took the money out of the convents, to encourage the garriſon, he ſent the vizir's corpſe to the count, who gave it to this arſenal. In one of the baſtions there is a great magazine of naval ſtores, for the emperor's gallies, &c. on the Danube.

The ſeven channels, into which the Danube is here divided, contain ſeveral iſlands, which communicate together by ſeven timber bridges. The high bridge is formed by the interſection of two ſtreets by equal angles, the foundation of one being as high as the tops of the houſes; and in the other, an arch is built in the lowermoſt ſtreet, to let the uppermoſt paſs over it. Here are two remarkable columns, of which one is called the Conception of the Immaculate Virgin; and the other, St. Trinity. The latter is ſixty-ſix feet in height, formed like a pyramid, and has at the top three figures, of gilt bronze, repreſenting the Trinity. The various ſuburbs of the city almoſt embrace it like a bow, and appear like ſo many different towns, the principal being called Leopolſtadt, and abounding with handſome houſes of the nobles and gentry. Here is an iſland, named St. Peter's, which is capable of encamping a large army. The Prat, a wood in an iſland formed by the Danube, is much frequented in fair weather: in its vicinity is a walk called the emperor's garden, and the ruins of a palace which was deſtroyed by the Turks.

The emperor preſides at the cabinet-council; next to him ſits the king of the Romans; and the prime miniſter is preſident in the privy-council. Theſe have two ſecretaries, the principal of whom ſigns the emperor's letters. The council of war has two generals as preſidents, and ſeven major generals as members, with proper ſecretaries, &c. The aulic council conſiſts of an equal number of Roman catholics and Lutherans, nominated by the emperor. It is equal in power to the Imperial chamber at Wetzlar, there being no appeal from either. The court of Chancery has the buſineſs tranſacted at the Imperial court, whereof the elector of Mentz is chancellor; but the vice-chancellor preſides in his abſence, aud has an aſſiſtant, an aſſeſſor, two ſecretaries, and a referendary. The writs are either in the German or Latin tongues. 6. The council of the Finances. 7. An Imperial council, where is alſo a preſident, conſiſting of many lords and gentlemen; among whom are the governors of the Hungarian cities where the mines lie, with the chief officers for the civil affairs of Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Sileſia, &c. who ſend directions from hence to the reſpective governments of thoſe countries. Though other chief courts may exceed the Imperial in pomp, yet, for real grandeur, this outſtrips them all: moſt of the officers of ſtate and of the houſhold are princes or counts, as are alſo the captains of the horſe and foot-guards: and there are not leſs than one hundred gentlemen of the bed-chamber, with golden keys at their breaſts, who are all counts and barons; of which quality are alſo ſixty pages; yet ceremonies and the etiquette, a name by which they call antient uſages, give this court an air of conſtraint that is to be ſeen no where elſe; and though it is univerſally exclaimed againſt, it is as ſtifly obſerved, as if it was an article of religion.

They are very fond in this city, as well as at court, of the days of gala, which is the name they give to thoſe of feſtival and ceremony, when there are commonly operas and comedies. There are three claſſes of them; the court gala, which is univerſal, both for the Imperial family, and for the nobles and plebeians; at which time, eſpecially on the name-days, or birth-days of the emperor and empreſs, the court is extremely gay, and glittering with gold and diamonds. On theſe days the archducheſſes, becauſe it is the cuſtom at Vienna for ſiſters to dreſs alike, muſt be dreſt all in their hair, as well as their maids of honour; and they wear robes much like childrens veſts, with great trains. 2. The grand gala, which is kept in this city, is for the feſtival of ſome miniſter. 3. The little gala, which is when the ladies are let blood; for, as baron Pollnitz tells us, if any lady of diſtinction does but ſend for a ſurgeon to breathe a vein, it is enough to put the whole city in gala: nay, ſays he, the huſband makes a gala here for his wife, the wife for her huſband, the children for their parents, and brothers and ſiſters for one another; ſo that, to be ſure, two thirds of Vienna are always in gala. He obſerves it to be a ſingular cuſtom at this court, that the empreſs dowagers can never quit mourning; that though their officers and other domeſtics wear coloured cloaths, their apartments and coaches muſt be always hung in black; that they cannot be preſent at one play, ball, or concert; and that, by loſing their huſbands, they loſe the pleaſures of life. The emperor's pleaſure-houſes, he ſays, are no better than his palace in the city.

The caſtle of the Favorita, which is in the ſuburb of Leopolſtadt, is a great irregular gothic building, full of turnings and windings, like the ſtreet it looks into, and appears more like a great convent of capuchins, than a manſion for an emperor: the gardens are pretty large, but otherwiſe mean enough. Luxemberg, though a neat convenient box, is even much inferior to the Favorita; but the court only ſtays there a month or ſix weeks during the ſeaſon for heron-hunting. The miniſters who attend the emperor there, have houſes which, though not grand, are commodious; but any other perſon who goes hither to pay a viſit muſt return to Vienna for a bed.

The court uſed to ſpend a great part of the ſummer at the palace of New Favorita, which gives name to one of the ſuburbs; but the princes of Mansfeld have built one there which is much more magnificent. The emperor Joſeph, indeed, begun a fine houſe at Schonborn, or Schonbrun, about a league from this city, which, if finiſhed according to its plan, might have been another Verſailles; but his empreſs dowager, to whom he left it, ſuffered the works to run to decay.

The late prince Eugene's palace is very ſtately, but ſituate in a narrow ſtreet, with a very little court before it. Here is a ſpacious ſaloon, adorned with great pictures repreſenting the chief victories of that prince over the French and the Turks; and in two rooms next to this, a ſuit of rich tapeſtry, made by the famous Devos at Bruſſels. In the bedchamber beyond theſe, there is a luſtre of rock cryſtal, ſaid to have coſt four hundred thouſand florins, and rich tapeſtry, rolled up in pilaſters of green velvet, embroidered with gold, and adorned with figures of needle-work ſo fine, that they ſeem to be miniatures; and the cloſet next to it is all over gilt.

Lichtenſtein palace, which is bigger, and every whit as magnificent, is worth ſeeing, were it only for its paintings. The palaces of the ſuburbs in general, are infinitely more grand than thoſe of the city, and they have both court-yards and gardens. Prince Eugene had one here too, where he uſed to paſs the fine ſeaſon: it is a ſuperb ſtructure, with magnificent gardens, in which are a fine caſcade, an orangery, and a menagerie, ſtored with the moſt uncommon creatures that the four parts of the world can furniſh: there is a ſaloon below ſtairs, all lined with marble of ſeveral colours, the cieling of which is adorned with paintings.

This city is governed by a ſtadtholder, whoſe functions are the ſame with thoſe of the lieutenant of the police, at Paris; but he muſt always be a perſon of noble extraction, and a gentleman of the army. He has ſeldom any other title than colonel of the city, and he has a lieutenant-colonel to command in his abſence, who has the direction of the fortifications, the arſenal, and the garriſon, which never ſtirs from Vienna, and conſiſts of veteran ſoldiers, or the burghers and artificers of the city. The employments in this corps are very lucrative, but not being on the road to honour, are not much ſolicited by perſons of extraction. It is maintained at the charge of the city, and uſed to mount guard at the emperor's palace, he having no other foot-guards. It is ſaid this city abounds with coffee-houſes, where the news-readers are not leſs free with the characters of their generals and ſtateſmen, &c. than they are at London. There being no hoſpital of invalids here, the church doors are always plied with begging ſoldiers that have been diſabled in the ſervice. All round upon the city walls are barracks or huts for the garriſon, which are very well built, but not all of them occupied by the ſoldiers, ſome being tippling-houſes, and others for proſtitutes.

2. Neuſtadt contains a military academy. 3. Hamburg is in the vicinity of the antient Corneates. 4. Kloſter-Neuberg is a rich foundation for Auguſtine canons. 5. Baden is famous for its hot baths. Beſides the above, the only town in Lower Auſtria, worthy of notice, is, 6. Molk, a market town on the Danube, near which is an exempted cloiſter of Benedictines, which is the greateſt and richeſt foundation of the kind in all Auſtria. The abbot is primate of the lower eſtates of this circle, and preſident

ſident of the ſeats of prelates. In one of the cellars is kept ſome wine, called St. Colman's wine, which is between three and four hundred years of age. The abbey is dedicated to St. Colman, whoſe tomb it contains. This St. Colman was the apoſtle of Auſtria, and of the blood royal of Scotland; but his fate was ſomewhat ſingular, for in paſſing through this country in the habit of a pilgrim, he was taken up, and hanged as a ſpy.

The moſt judicious geographers divide Upper Auſtria into four quarters; namely, Hauſtruc, Traun, Michel, and Black.

In the Hauſtruc quarter, the principal places are, 1. Linz, the capital of Upper Auſtria; it is ſituated on the Danube, one hundred miles weſt of Vienna, and one hundred and ten ſouth of Prague. Here is a wooden bridge over the Danube; and on a hill in the neighbourhood is a citadel, which is ſometimes the reſidence of the emperor. The town is well-built of white free ſtone, and populous, containing ſeveral handſome churches, cloiſters, ſquares, and fountains, and is much reſorted to by the nobility, who have pleaſure houſes in the neighbourhood. It is alſo the ſeat of ſeveral courts and colleges for Upper Auſtria; carries on a conſiderable trade in gun-barrels, and linen cloth; and has handſome ſuburbs, with two great yearly fairs, at Eaſter and Bartholomew tide. There are likewiſe ſeveral plantations of hops in the neighbourhood. 2. Frankenburg, on the borders of Bavaria. 3. Efferding, a ſmall town, not far from the Danube. 4. Kainmer, a citadel in the Atterſee, which is the largeſt lake in the whole country, and abounds with exquiſite fiſh, of which it yields a new ſpecies every month. 5. Stropham, a filial commandery of the order of Malta. 6. Schaumberg, a citadel, which gives name to a county. 7. Wels, a handſome town, with a caſtle, on the river Traun. 8. Gmunden, a town on the lake of Gmund or Traun, which abounds with fiſh. 9. Focklabruc, or Voclabruc, a well-built town on the river Vokl: it enjoys the privilege of granting protection to all ſlaves: and its burghers and merchants, with their wares, are toll-free, throughout all the Auſtrian dominions.

Neuberg is a part of Auſtria: it is ſurrounded on all ſides by Bavaria, and has ſeveral citadels in it. This county was formerly an immediate county of the empire, but now belongs to the biſhop of Paſſau.

The Traun quarter contains the following remarkable places; viz. 1. Steyer, a conſiderable town, ſituated at the conflux of the two little rivers Steyer and Ens, and chiefly inhabited by ſmiths, cutlers, and other artificers, who tranſport their goods on the Danube to various places. 2. Ens is a ſtrong and well-built town, ſituated on the river of the ſame name, fifteen miles eaſt of Linz, and ſeventy weſt of Vienna. It was built in the year 990, on the ſite of Lauriacum, a Roman colony, deſtroyed by the Hunns, about the year 450, and was the ſeat of ſome Roman emperors. Ens was formerly ſubject to its own count, till the emperor Rodolph purchaſed it, and annexed it to the Auſtrian dominions. Two miles below this town, the river Ens falls into the Danube.

In Michel quarter, the only places worth mentioning are, 1. The Millac-Bad, a celebrated medicinal bath near the Danube; and, 2. Schlog, a cloiſter on the river.

In Black quarter are, 1. Grein, which contains a Franciſcan college, a Loretto chapel, mount Calvary, and an hermitage. 2. Freyſtadt, a ſtrong, well-built, royal town, on the north ſide of the Danube.

The duchy of Stiria is divided into Upper and Lower; and bounded, on the eaſt, by Hungary; on the weſt, by Saltzburg and Carinthia; on the ſouth, by Carricola; and, on the north, by Auſtria, properly ſo called. The air is unwholeſome, and the inhabitants are greatly troubled with fevers and ſwelled throats, which latter complaint is owing to the great quantity of ſnow-water which they drink. Upper Stiria is very mountainous, and exceedingly cold, but yet tolerably fertile. The mountains contain ſilver, lead, copper, and iron, and the ſummits are covered with foreſts, which ſupply wood for ſmalting thoſe metals. The beſt ſteel in Europe is found in this county.

There are twenty boroughs, near one hundred market-towns, and about five hundred citadels, in the whole duchy. The common people in general ſpeak Wendiſh, or a very harſh dialect of the German, and the better ſort are alſo maſters of Italian and French. The land-eſtates of this duchy conſiſt, as in Auſtria, of the prelates, lords, knights, and royal towns, and their aſſemblies are held at Gratz.

At Gratz is an univerſity; and, in ſome other places, gymnaſia, and ſeveral good colleges. The principal manufactures of the country are iron and ſteel works, of which there is a conſiderable exportation. Stiria continued a marquiſate, till the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa erected it into a duchy. It has been conſtantly ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, ſince Rodolph I. and to this day retains peculiar immunities. The counts Trautmanſdorf are ſupreme hereditary ſtewards; the counts of Wildenſtein, chamberlains; the counts of Staurau, marſhals; the counts of Wendiſh Gratz, maſters of the horſe, &c. Sockau, a citadel, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſubject to the archbiſhop of Salzburg, whoſe vicar he is in moſt part of Stiria. The Roman catholic is the only religion allowed here.

The following are the moſt conſiderable places in this duchy; viz. 1. Gratz, or Gracz, in Latin Græcium, the metropolis of the duchy, lies on the river Mur, twenty miles from the Drave, twenty-five ſouth-eaſt from Bruc, thirty-five weſt from the borders of Hungary, forty north of Cilley, fifty eaſt of Judenburg, and ſeventy-four ſouth of Vienna; is a neat well-built city, in a pleaſant fruitful country: it is defended by a wall, ramparts, and caſtle, on a rocky hill, and other fortifications, that render it almoſt impregnable. The caſtle is on a high hill that commands a neighbouring country, where is the archduke's palace, which is finely furniſhed, and has a good library and muſeum. The Jeſuits have a college here well endowed, which has the privilege of conferring degrees; ſo that it is reckoned among the univerſities of Germany, and is well filled with ſtudents. This town is the reſidence of the governor of Stiria, as it was formerly of the archdukes of Auſtria, particularly Ferdinand II. afterwards emperor, who called themſelves by its name: its ſuburbs, which are large, are watered by a rivulet of its own name, and its territory is very populous.

2. Cilli, or Zilli, formerly the capital of an independent country, which the emperor Frederic III. took poſſeſſion of in 1457, when the laſt count was killed, after which it was incorporated with Stiria. In this county ſtands the high mountain Bacher or Pacher, rich in all ſorts of ores, as the mineral waters that iſſue from it evidently ſhew. The inhabitants of the county are all Sclavonians, otherwiſe called Wends. The town is very antient, and appears to have been a place of great conſideration. 2. Eiſenartz, a conſiderable town in Upper Stiria, ſituated forty miles north-weſt of Gratz, and famous for mines and iron-forges, from whence it has its name. 3. Marburgh, celebrated for its Roman monuments, is twenty-four miles ſouth of Gratz and Pettau, thirty miles ſouth-eaſt from the ſame place, and is remarkable for its manufactures. 4. Eggenberg, which gives name to a ſeigniory. 5. Raſkeſburg, or Rakelſburg, ſituated on the river Muehr, and is one of the ſtrongeſt and beſt towns in Stiria. 6. Luetonberg, a market-town. 7. Gunnawitz, a market-town. 8. Studenitz.

In Upper Stiria are alſo the following places; viz. 1. Judenburg, the capital, ſituated on the banks of the Muehr, in a plain ſurrounded with high mountains, continually covered with ſnow, fifty miles weſt of Gratz, and ninety ſouth of Vienna. 2. Leuben, a neat pleaſant town, twenty-five miles north-eaſt of Judenburg, and upon the ſame river. 3. Bruck, on the Muehr, eighty-three miles north-weſt of Gratz.

The duchy of Carinthia, antiently called Carnia, is bounded, on the eaſt, by Stiria; on the weſt, by Tirol, or Tyrol; on the north, by Stiria and the archbiſhopric of Salzburg; and, on the ſouth, by the territories of Venice and Carniola. The air is cold, the ſoil barren; the rivers, brooks, &c. abound with fiſh; and the mountains yield many minerals.

The principal places are, 1. Clagenfurt, the capital of the whole duchy, ſtanding one hundred and forty miles ſouth-weſt of Vienna, being antiently called Claudia, and the ſeat of the dukes. It is well built and fortified, and contains ſeveral churches and convents, with a large college, a gymnaſium, and a provincial houſe, in which the ſtates aſſemble. Here is alſo an equeſtrian ſtatue of the emperor Theobald, and two pillars of marble, conſecrated, the one to the Holy Trinity, and the other to the Virgin. The Lutheran religion was ſuppreſſed here in the year 1600. Between this town and St. Veit are ſome remains of an antient town, ſuppoſed to be Tiburnia, where Roman coins, and other antiquities, have been found. 2. Villach, twelve miles weſt of the latter, near the Drave, over which there is a bridge. It is a populous town, and a great thoroughfare

The duchy of Carniola, by the Germans called Krain, has

has the gulf of Venice to the weſt, Sclavonia and Croatia to the eaſt. Carinthia and Stiria to the north, and the Adriatic ſea to the ſouth. It is one hundred and ten miles long, fifty broad, rather cold, but at this time tolerably fertile. The lower claſs of people ſpeak the Sclavonian or Wendiſh language, the better ſort German, but both with a very indifferent dialect. The peaſants are a very hardy ſet of people; going bareſoot in the midſt of winter, never covering their breaſts from the inclemency of the weather, and ſleeping on a hard bench, without bed or bolſter. In the Upper and Lower Krain the people wear long beards; and ſuch as live by exporting the commodities of the country on packhorſes are called Samers, or, more properly, Saumers.

The ſtates of Carniola conſiſt of the clergy, the nobility, knights, and royal towns. Chriſtianity was firſt planted in this country about the middle of the eighth century, and, in the ſixteenth, Lutheraniſm made a conſiderable progreſs in it; but, excepting the Walachians or Uſkokes, who are of the Greek church, and ſtyle themſelves Staraverzi, i. e. old believers, all the inhabitants at preſent are Roman catholics. In the whole duchy are three biſhoprics, four commanderies, and one hundred and thirty-four pariſhes; but to the biſhopric of Leybach belong alſo many pariſhes in Stiria and Carinthia.

The principal commodities exported from hence are iron, ſteel, quickſilver, white and red wine, oil of olives, cattle, ſheep, cheeſe, linen, and a kind of woollen ſtuff called Mahalan, Spaniſh leather, honey, walnuts, and timber, together with all manner of wood-work, as boxes, diſhes, trenchers, ſpoons, ſieves, &c.

Carniola was long a marquiſate or margravate; but in the year 1231 was erected into a duchy. On the extinction of the margraves, the inhabitants made choice of Frederic II. duke of Auſtria and Styria for their ſovereign. The arms of Carniola are an eagle crowned, on whoſe breaſt and expanded wings is to be ſeen a diced creſcent. The counts of Thurn are ſupreme hereditary ſtewards in Carniola and the Wendiſh Mark; the houſe of Averſberg, chamberlains and marſhals; the prince of Lamberg, maſter of the horſe; the count of Cobenzel, cup-bearer; the baron of Eck, ſtaff-bearer; count Sauer of Ankenſtin, carver; and the count of Lanihieri, falconer. The principal officers for the government of the country, are the land-captain, or governor in chief, burgrave of Laubach, land-lieutenant, and land-vicar.

There are ſeveral immaterial ſubdiviſions, ſuch as Upper, Lower, Middle, Inner, &c. but the principal places are, 1. Laubach, the capital of this duchy, and in the centre between the upper and lower parts. It ſtands on a ſmall river of the ſame name, which falls into the Save ten miles below it; and is twenty miles eaſt of Biſhopflack, and one hundred and forty-four ſouth-weſt of Vienna. The air here is not reckoned wholeſome, yet it is a populous well-built city, which the emperor Frederic III. made the ſee of a biſhop, formerly under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Aquileia, but now dependent on the pope. It has a cathedral, and a large caſtle; but it is commanded by an hill, and the town is not very ſtrong, eſpecially towards the river: however, it held out a ſiege in 1440, till the emperor Frederic III. came to its relief. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria have the right of appointing the prelates and the chapter here, which only conſiſts of ſix canons, of whom, indeed, the biſhop nominates one. Here are ſeveral convents for both ſexes, and the river is noted for breeding the largeſt cray fiſh in Europe. The ſtates of the duchy meet in a fine houſe here, and the prince of Averſburg has alſo a palace.

2. The town of Zirknitz, or Czirnitz, contains about three hundred houſes, but is particularly remarkable for its famous lake, called the Czirnitzer lake, or ſea, which is ſixteen miles long, and eight broad, encompaſſed with mountains and forells at ſome diſtance, and on the eaſt ſide with a foreſt of pear trees. The water ſinks under ground every year in June, through many large holes in the bottom, leaving it quite dry till September, when it returns ſpouting out of thoſe holes with ſuch violence, that it ſoon riſes to the height of a pike, and covers all the ground again, making that a ſea which was before fields of corn, paſture, and hunting: for after the retreat of the water, the people ſow corn there, which ripens for the ſickle before September; and the graſs grows here ſo thick, that it affords paſture for the cattle and deer that are turned into it from the neighbouring hills and foreſts, which are taken off before the ſpring riſes again. The fiſh that abound here are carp, eels, tench, &c. which none muſt catch without licence from the prince of Eckenburg, who is lord of the manor till the water retires, and then the peaſants catch great numbers by laying their nets over the holes.

3. The town of St. Viet is ſituated on a bay of the Adriatic, has a ſtrong caſtle, is otherwiſe well-fortified, and poſſeſſes a good trade on account of its excellent harbour, by which large quantities of goods are exported and imported. The neighbouring territories yield abundance of wine, fruits, particularly figs, &c. The governor of the town is ſtiled captain, and reſides in the caſtle; and on the oppoſite ſide of the river there is a chapel dedicated to St. Mary of Loretto. This town was formerly incorporated with the duchy of Carniola, and bore a ſhare in its taxes, but at preſent it is neither reckoned a part of its territory, nor is it ſubject to its impoſts. The neighbouring gulf abounds with fiſh, among which is a ſpecies called gatta, the ſkin of which, forming a kind of ſhagreen, is uſed for the caſes of watches, caſkets, teleſcopes, &c.

4. Crainburg, or Krainbourg, on the banks of the Save, over which it has a bridge, is ſeven miles north of Biſhopflack, twenty north-weſt of Laubach, and twenty-ſix ſouth-eaſt of Clagenfurt. It ſtands on the top of a hill, and is fortified with a ſtrong caſtle. It has three churches, and, in its ſuburbs, a monaſtery of Capuchins. 5. Ratſmondorf, in this neighbourhood, on the north ſide of the Save, has in it many Roman antiquities, and gives title to a Roman family in Stiria. 6. Lack, or Biſhopflack, on a ſmall river, ten miles ſouth of Crainburg, and thirty from Venice, is a city which was plundered and burnt in 1451, but is handſomely rebuilt and fortified, and is ſubject to the biſhop of Freyſing, to whom the emperor Henry III. gave it; and the governor of it is his lieutenant. Its diſtrict is ten German leagues round, and contains two hundred villages.

A diviſion of Iſtria belongs to Auſtria, and is very fertile. It is divided into the county of Metterberg, and lordſhip of Caſtua. The only places worthy of notice are, 1. Metterberg, which gives name to the county, and is its capital. It is without walls or ramparts, but has a caſtle to defend it. 2. Antiguana, a large but dull town. 3. Caſtua, which gives name to the lordſhip, and is ſituated on the Adriatic. 4. Bercketz, a ſmall town, with an harbour on the Adriatic.

The town of Laas ſtands near the Czirnitzer lake: it has a caſtle on the river Boick, that runs into it twenty miles ſouth-eaſt from Zirchnitz, and is noted for a breed of well-ſhaped horſes, though not near ſo good for ſervice as thoſe bred in Karſtia. The town of Upper Laubach is ſixteen miles weſt from the other already deſcribed, and on the ſame river, but near the ſource of it; is conſiderable for being a mart for Italian goods, which are ſent into all parts of Germany, being brought hither in great quantities over the mountains from Gortz.

Windiſchmark is in the ſouth-eaſt corner of this duchy. Some reckon it a Sclavonian province, and ſubject to the emperor, and not as part of Carniola, to which it adjoins. It is about fifty-five miles in length, and thirty where broadeſt; but it was formerly much larger. Though it is a mountainous, barren country, eſpecially towards the ſouth, it produces corn, and excellent wine. Its inhabitants are thought to be a branch of the Venedi. Their religion is the Roman catholic; and their language a mixture of the Sclavonic and German.

1. The town of Metling, or Motling, capital of the Windiſchmark, ſtands in a pleaſant, fruitful country, on the river Culp, and the frontier of Croatia, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Rudolphſworth, and thirty-five ſouth-eaſt of Cilley. The chief trade of its inhabitants is fattening ſwine in two neighbouring woods of cheſnuts and oaks. In the year 1431 this town was ſurprized by the Turks, and moſt of the inhabitants maſſacred; and in 1578 it was again ſtormed and plundered by thoſe infidels. Here is a houſe of the Teutonic order. This town lies full in the road from Laubach to Croatia. The wood through which it leads is rough and ſtrong, but the reſt of the country is pleaſant and fruitful.

2. The town of Rudolphſworth, Rudelſwerd, or Neuſtadt, ſtands on the river Gurck, a little below Seiſenbourg, twelve miles north-weſt of Metling, and twenty-two ſouth-eaſt of Cilley. It is a well-fortified town, and famous for the beſt wine in thoſe parts. About 1435 it was beſieged by Albert of Auſtria, and Ulric count of Cilley; but the troops of the emperor Sigiſmond obliged them to raiſe the ſiege; and he granted the town great privileges for its brave oppoſition. It has an abbey, a convent of Recolletti, and hot baths, at four miles diſtance, much frequented by foreigners. The town is commonly called Neuſtadt, and the abbey Rudolphſworth.

3. The

3. The ancient town of Gortz, or Goritz, is ſituated on the river Liſonzo, in Goritia, a ſmall county in Friuli, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, twenty miles north of Aquileia, and fifty-eight north-eaſt of Venice. It is a large town in the middle of a wood, and by ſome thought to have been the ancient Noricia, or Noreia, near which Dieterick, king of the Goths above-mentioned, defeated Odoacer, king of the Heruli. The old or upper town was taken in 1507 by the Venetians, who fortified it; but the emperor Maximilian I. regained it two years after: they again attempted to ſurpriſe it in 1616, but without ſucceſs. The Sclavonian tongue, which is ſpoken in theſe provinces, reaches no farther weſt than this town, where the common people ſpeak a corrupt Latin, which is more like French than Italian; but in the courts of judicature they ſpeak High Dutch, as do alſo the gentry.

This town is tolerably ſtrong, and is the reſidence of the governor, and others of quality. The inhabitants pretend it is a diſtinct province, and that their anceſtors were a colony of Germans brought hither from Swabia; however, it is looked on as a part of Carniola. The river on which the town ſtands, falls into the gulf of Venice. The lower part of it is quite open, and has a college, a convent of Franciſcans, another of capuchins, and ſome very fine houſes. The town-houſe, where the ſtates of the country meet, is not large, but well-built. In the Upper Town, which is called the Fortreſs, there is a good guard. Appeals are made from the counts here to the regency of Auſtria. The road from hence to Laubach is very ſtony. The county or diſtrict of Goritia, of which this town is the capital, is bounded, on the north, by Upper Carniola; on the eaſt, by Lower Carniola; and the Alps ſeparate it from Friuli. It is thirty-five miles long, and fifteen broad, and has fine vineyards. This town now belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, though it had formerly its particular counts, the branch of which being extinct, the emperor Frederic IV. took poſſeſſion of it in 1473.

4. Eight miles north-eaſt of Neuſtadt, is Landſtraſſe, a ſtrong little town, almoſt encompaſſed by the Greek. It has juriſdiction over the neighbouring hills and vallies, formerly a wilderneſs for ſeveral leagues, but of late ages well-inhabited, and the vallies improved into meadows and paſturage, by a company of Walachians who ſettled here by the name of Uſſocken, who are of the Greek church, pay the emperor no tribute, but own him for ſovereign, and, upon occaſion, furniſh him with men in proportion to their numbers. 5. Reifnitz is a noted town on the borders of Carniola, near the Zernicker ſee, being the chief of a barony of the ſame name belonging to the family of Trigler, and the place where the imperial trained bands of this country muſter. The Turks burnt moſt of it down in 1480. 6. Seiſſenberg is a market-town of note on the banks of the Gurck, which ſupplies it with plenty of fiſh, particularly the beſt cray-fiſh in the country. It is ſubject to the county of Averſperg.

Karſtia, though a province, is reckoned a part of the province of Carniola; it formerly belonged to Friuli, betwixt which and Iſtria it lies. It is a peninſula, almoſt encompaſſed with the rivers Alben and Lizonzo, about thirty-five miles long, and twenty broad, and remarkable for a breed of good horſes, which are bought up by moſt of the Italian nobility. It was diſmembered from Friuli in 1500, and is divided into Upper and Lower.

The famous river Timavus, mentioned by Virgil in the firſt Æneid, is in this province. It is thought to riſe in the Alps; is called at firſt Recca; and, after running under ground for about forty miles, is called Timavus, as ſoon as it breaks out again, and falls by twelve ſmall channels into the gulph of Trieſte.

Trieſte, the chief town of this province, ſtands on the Adriatic ſea, at the bottom of a bay, to which it gives name, fourteen miles north of Cabo d'Iſtria, twenty-four miles ſouth-eaſt of Aquileia, and thirty-ſeven of Goritz, and ſixty-three from venice. It was a Roman colony, and built from the ruins of the antient Tergeſtum of the Carnians, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen on a neighbouring mountain. It is a ſmall, but ſtrong and populous place, with a large harbour, the only one the houſe of Auſtria has in this country; is a biſhop's ſee under the patriarch of Aquileia, and is defended by two caſtles. The Venetians ſeized it in the beginning of the thirteenth century, by reaſon of the piracy of the inhabitants; but Maximilian I. took it from the Venetians, A. D. 1507, and his ſucceſſors have been in poſſeſſion of it ever ſince. Great quantities of ſalt are made here and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine, that the

Germans call Reinfal, which the Venetians buy cheap, and ſell dear, for exportation, to the Germans. There is a fine town-houſe in the middle of a large ſquare made by the inhabitants, near the port, where are two beautiful ſtone pillars; one with the image of the Virgin Mary upon it, and the other with that of the emperor. There is a cathedral here, a poor old building; but the Jeſuits have a college and church, which are very good. The town is pretty well built, and neither rich nor poor; for the neighbourhood of Venice does not let it want any thing. The rocks run into the ſea here in the form of moles, which break the waves, and make it ſafe, even for ſhips of burden, when in port; but it is only frequented by ſmall veſſels, juſt to croſs over to Venice; though the late emperor Charles VI. who had no other ſea-port in all his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Raſtadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spaniſh Netherlands, into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ſhips and merchants of all nations to come to it; deſigning to make it the centre of the Auſtrian commerce in theſe parts of the world; but the merchants of Trieſte not having a ſtock, the Venetians themſelves came among them, and carried on that very trade for them, by which they were ſo ſanguine at one time, as to think of ſupplanting even Veniſe itſelf: for from this port the Venetian merchants ſtruck into a new commerce, by the river Save, to Belgrade, and from thence to Sinope in the Black ſea; and likewiſe to Conſtantinople: and the moſt that it appears the Germans have yet done here, is, to ſend ſome ſhips among the Archipelago iſlands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton-yarn, fruits, and ſome ſilk, grogram-yarn, camels hair, and ſuch goods.

The great misfortune which the Auſtrians laboured under for carrying on the extenſive trade propoſed from this port, was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either for their produce or manufactures; the chief they could export, of any value, being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Stiria, and the adjacent countries; which, indeed, is of great ſervice to the Venetians, becauſe they have no iron works near them. The laſt-mentioned people have alſo a navigation through Stiria by the river Murtz, the Danube, and ſo to Vienna; and they have the like in Carniola, by the great river Save, which runs into Croatia and Hungary. The Venetians receive, by theſe countries, a great quantity of large black cattle, which are bought lean, or not above half fed, from Croatia, and then brought down to the ſalt-marſhes of Venice, and fed there till they are fat. Some alſo are bought at the ſeveral fairs on the frontiers of Carinthia; and they are the beſt beef that is to found in any part of the world, when paſtured in the rich lands of Lombardy.

Between Carniola and the county of Gortz, is ſituated the Idrian bottom. The name is derived from Idria, a royal market-town, which is immediately ſubject to the Auſtrian aulic-chamber at Gratz, and lies in a deep valley, amidſt high mountains, on the ſmall river Idria. This town is defended by a caſtle, and celebrated for its quick-ſilver mines. The common ſort of quickſilver is extracted from the ore by means of fire; but the virgin quickſilver is found in numerous ſmall drops, that trickle through the veins of the mountains. Malefactors are condemned to work during life in theſe mines, as this kind of labour is the moſt unwholeſome imaginable.

The two following letters, written by the learned Mr. Everard to a friend, relative to theſe mines, will afford a ſatisfactory account of them. In the firſt he thus expreſſes himſelf:

"The pleaſure I take in writing to you wherever I am, and whatever doing, contributes to diſpel my preſent uneaſineſs; an uneaſineſs cauſed at once by the diſagreeable aſpect of every thing around me, and the more diſagreeable circumſtances of the count Alberti, with whom you were once acquainted. You remember him one of the gayeſt, the moſt agreeable perſons at the court of Vienna, at once the example of the men, and the favourite of the fair ſex. I have often heard you repeat his name with eſteem as one of the few that did honour to the preſent age, as poſſeſſed of generoſity and pity in the higheſt degree, as one who made no other uſe of fortune but to relieve the diſtreſſes of mankind. That gentleman, Sir, I wiſh I could ſay is now no more; yet, too unhappily for him, he exiſts, but in a ſituation more terrible than the moſt gloomy imagination can conceive.

"After having paſſed through ſeveral parts of the Alps, and viſited Germany, I thought I could not return home without viſiting the quickſilver mines at Idria, and ſeeing thoſe dreadful ſubterraneous caverns, where thouſands are

 condemned

condemned to reſide, ſhut out from all hopes of ever ſeeing the cheerful light of the ſun, and obliged to toil out a miſerable life under the whips of imperious taſk-maſters. Imagine to yourſelf a hole in the ſide of a mountain, about five yards over, down this you are let, in a kind of bucket, more than one hundred fathom, the proſpect growing ſtill more gloomy, yet ſtill widening as you deſcend. At length, after ſwinging in terrible ſuſpence for ſome time in this precarious ſituation, you then reach the bottom, and tread on the ground, which, by its hollowed ſound under your feet, and the reverberations of the echo, ſeems thundering at every ſtep you take. In this gloomy and frightful ſolitude, you are enlightened by the feeble gleam of lamps, here and there diſperſed, ſo as that the wretched inhabitants of theſe manſions can go from one place to another without a guide; and yet let me aſſure you, that though they by cuſtom could ſee objects very diſtinctly by theſe lights, I could ſcarce diſcern for ſome time any thing, not even the perſon who came with me to ſhew me theſe diſmal ſcenes.

"Though I ſuppoſe, from this deſcription, you have but a diſagreeable idea of the place, yet let me aſſure you that it is a palace, if we compare the habitation with the inhabitants: ſuch wretches my eyes never yet beheld. The blackneſs of their viſages only ſerves to cover an horrid paleneſs, cauſed by the noxious qualities of the mineral they are employed in procuring. As they in general conſiſt of maleſactors condemned for life to this taſk, they are fed at the public expence; but they ſeldom conſume much proviſion, as they loſe their appetites in a ſhort time, and being affected with a total contraction of all the joints of the body, commonly expire in about two years.

"I walked for ſome time in this horrid manſion after my guide, pondering on the ſtrange tyranny and avarice of mankind, when I was accoſted by a voice behind me, calling me by my name, and enquiring after my health with the moſt cordial affection. I turned, and ſaw a creature all black and hideous, who approached me, and with a piteous accent demanding, "Ah, Everard, do you not know me?" Good God! what was my ſurpriſe, when through the veil of this wretchedneſs, I diſcovered the features of my dear and old friend Alberti! I flew to him with affection; and, after a tear of condolence, aſked how he came there. To this he replied, that having fought a duel with an officer of the Auſtrian infantry, againſt the emperor's command, and having left him for dead, he was obliged to fly into the foreſts of Iſtria, where he was firſt taken, and afterwards ſheltered by ſome banditti, who had long infeſted that quarter. With theſe he lived nine months, till, by a cloſe inveſtiture of the place, in which they were concealed, and after a very obſtinate reſiſtance, in which the greater part of them were killed, he was taken and carried to Vienna, in order to be broken alive upon the wheel. Arriving, however, at the capital, he was quickly known, and ſeveral of the aſſociates of his accuſation and danger, witneſſing his innocence, his puniſhment of the rack was changed into that of perpetual baniſhment and labour in the mines of Idria;—a ſentence which muſt appear a thouſand times worſe than death, to any one who has viſited theſe dreary abodes.

"While the unfortunate Alberti was relating this narrative, a young woman came up to him, who at once I ſaw to be born for better fortune; the dreadful ſituation of this place was not able to deſtroy her beauty; and even in this ſcene of wretchedneſs ſhe ſeemed to have charms. This lady was, in fact, daughter to one of the firſt families in Germany; and having tried every means to procure her lover's pardon without effect, was at length reſolved to ſhare thoſe miſeries ſhe could not relieve. With him ſhe accordingly deſcended into theſe manſions, from whence few of the living return; thus deſpiſing the ſplendor of opulence, ſhe gave proofs of her own inviolable conſtancy, and was contented to live with him, renouncing at once all the comforts and gaieties of life."

The ſame gentleman, in his ſecond letter, gives ſome particulars of a more pleaſing nature relative to theſe two perſons: "My laſt to you, ſays he, was expreſſive, and perhaps too much ſo, of the gloomy ſituation of my mind. I own, the deplorable ſituation of the worthy man deſcribed in it was enough to add double ſeverity to the hideous manſion. At preſent, however, I have the happineſs of informing you, that I was a ſpectator of the moſt affecting ſcenes I ever yet beheld. Nine days after I had written my laſt, a perſon came poſt from Vienna, to the little village near the mouth of the great ſhaft: he was ſoon after followed by a ſecond, and he by a third. The firſt enquiry was after the unfortunate count; and I, happening to overhear the demand, gave them the beſt intelligence. Two of theſe were the brother and couſin of the lady, the third was an intimate friend and fellow ſoldier of the count's. They came with his pardon, which had been procured by the general, with whom the duel had been fought, and who was perfectly cured of his wounds. I led him, with all the expedition of joy, down to this doleful manſion, preſented to him his friends, and informed him of the happy change of his circumſtances.

"It would be impoſſible to deſcribe the joy that brightened on Alberti's grief-worn countenance; nor were the young lady's emotions leſs vivid at ſeeing her friends, and hearing of her huſband's liberty. Some hours were employed in mending the appearance of this faithful couple; nor could I, without a tear, behold him taking leave of the former wretched companions of his toil. To one he left his mattock, to another his working cloaths, to a third his houſhold utenſils, ſuch as were neceſſary for him in that ſituation.

"We ſoon emerged from the mine, where the count once again reviſited the light of the ſun, that he had totally deſpaired of ever ſeeing again. A poſt-chaiſe and four were ready the next morning to take them to Vienna, where, I am ſince informed by a letter from himſelf, they are returned. The emperor again has taken him into favour, his fortune and rank are reſtored; and he and his fair partner, having once known what it was to be miſerable, have now the pleaſing ſatisfaction of enjoying happineſs, with a double reliſh." But to proceed:

Tirol is partly a level, and partly a mountainous country; the places of the former are fertile, and thoſe of the latter covered with wood, abounding with game, and rich in mines. The men are robuſt, the women fair; and both, in their characters, have a mixture of the German and Italian. A particular kind of ſalutation is uſed here: When a perſon comes into the houſe, he ſays, "Hail, Jeſus Chriſt!" The anſwer is, "May Chriſt be praiſed, and the holy Virgin his mother." Then the maſter of the houſe takes the viſitor by the hand. This ſalutation is fixed up in print at all the doors, with an advertiſement tacked to it, importing that pope Clement XI. granted one hundred days indulgence and a plenary abſolution, to thoſe who ſhould pronounce the ſalutation and anſwer. The emperor has forts and citadels ſo advantageouſly ſituated on rocks and mountains all over the country, that they command all the vallies, avenues, and paſſes that lead into it. The inhabitants, however, to keep them in good humour, are more gently treated, and not ſo high taxed, as thoſe of the other hereditary countries.

The ſtates are much the ſame in this country as in the other Auſtrian territories, except that the peaſants here ſend deputies to the diets. Tirol came to the houſe of Auſtria in the year 1363, when Margaret, counteſs thereof, bequeathed it to her uncles the dukes of Auſtria. The arms of Tirol are an eagle gules, in a field argent. The counts of Trap are hereditary ſtewards; the lords of Gloſs, chamberlains; the princes of Trautſon, marſhals; the counts of Wolkenſtein, maſters of the horſe and carvers; the houſe of Spau, cup-bearers; the counts of Kunigl, ſewers and rangers; the counts of Brandis, keepers of the jewels; the houſe of Welſperg, purveyors and ſtaff-bearers; and the counts of Coalto, falconers. Beſides the governor, here are three ſovereign colleges, which ſit at the Inſpruc: theſe are ſubordinate to the court at Vienna.

The city of Inſpruc, on the Inn, the capital of the country, is ſituated two hundred and twenty-five miles weſt of Vienna; and is ſmall, but elegant; the ſuburbs are large, and the whole is pleaſant. It contains ſeveral handſome churches, convents, market-places, fountains, and palaces; is the reſidence of the governor, and ſeat of the colleges. The caſtle is large, but not regular; convenient, but not beautiful. It is adorned with many fine paintings, a cabinet of curioſities, groves, gardens, and walks that lead from it to five different churches. Adjoining to it is a wooden palace, whither the court uſed to retire when an earthquake happened, to which the city is frequently ſubject, by being ſhut up among ſo many mountains. The fortifications are not extraordinary; but about a mile off is the ſtrong caſtle of Amras, or Ambras, which commands the town.

In the Franciſcan church is a noble monument erected by Ferdinand I. to his grandfather Maximilian; and a chapel, called the Silver Chapel, becauſe there is an image of the Virgin of ſolid ſilver, as big as the life, in the middle of the altar, together with many other images of ſaints all of the ſame metal. In this city, Chriſtina, queen

queen of Sweden, firſt abjured the Proteſtant religion in 1655; and in 1719 the princeſs Sobieſki was detained here by the emperor's orders, when ſhe was going to Italy to be married to the Pretender: however, as ſhe ſoon after made her eſcape, the nuptials were celebrated.

The other places, moſt worthy of notice, in this county, are, 1. Hall, which ſtands a league north-eaſt of Inſpruc, on the Inn, and is reckoned the ſecond city in Tirol; it is famous for its ſalt-works, there being in this neighbourhood, a ſalt mine, out of which large blocks of ſalt are dug, and thrown out into pits filled with freſh water, from whence the ſalt, when melted, is conveyed by wooden troughs to Hall, and there boiled in huge pans or ciſterns. A great number of peaſants are continually employed in felling fir trees in the woods, with which the double range of mountains along the Inn are covered. Theſe being rolled down from the mountains into the river, are conveyed by it to Inſpruc and Hall. The mint, ſalt works, mines, &c. in this place, render it very flouriſhing. 2. Kuffſtein and Rattenburg are both fortified towns on the Inn. 3. Kitzbichel is the capital of a ſeigniory; and Schwartz, a conſiderable market-town. 4. Meran was once the capital of the county, and gave title and ſeat to its dukes, but is now only a ſmall city on the river Erſch, and the borders of Trent, thirty miles ſouth of Inſpruc: having ſuffered much by a flood in 1419, which drowned four hundred people. 5. Tirol, from whence this country has its denomination, is a little market-town, and has a fair antient caſtle, five miles north-weſt of Meran. 6. Pludentz. 7. Montfort. 8. Feldkirk. 9. Ems, and 10. Sonneberg, are towns that give name to five counties in the weſt part of the Tiroleſe, near the Rhine, and between twelve and twenty miles ſouth of the lake of Conſtance.

11. About a mile and a half eaſt of the city is the pleaſant and ſtrong caſtle of Ombra, or Amras: the name was derived from the deſign of it, which was a ſhady ſummer-houſe. It is pleaſantly ſituated at the end of a fine park, overlooking the river Inn; but would hardly be viſited by travellers, were it not for its curioſities, the apartments having little more left than the bare walls, though they were ſumptuouſly fitted up formerly for the archdukes of Auſtria, who uſed to ſpend their ſummers here, as they did their winters at Inſpruc. It is adorned with ſuch a number of ſtatues, and ſuch an infinite quantity of medals, &c. that in 1601 a large book was printed, with an account of them. It would be tedious to enumerate the immenſe treaſure here in gold and precious ſtones, the ſeveral princes ranged on horſeback in all their rich old tilting accoutrements, and a thouſand other remarkable things; but we cannot omit the armour of Charles IX. king of France, and the ſtatue of Francis I. on horſeback, in plaiſter-work, exactly repreſenting him in his armour, and his horſe in his trappings, juſt as he was taken at the battle of Pavia. Here is likewiſe the armour of ſeveral emperors, kings, and princes; with the picture of each prince, drawn to the life, juſt by it. In ſhort, here are abundance of ſpoils and trophies taken in ſome of the moſt important victories obtained by the houſe of Auſtria for three or four hundred years paſt; particularly the effigies of two Turkiſh baſhas on horſeback, with the coſtly habits and harneſſes in which they were taken, embelliſhed with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones.

One very extraordinary rarity among the collection of curioſities, is the trunk of an oak incloſing the entire body of a deer, which the philoſophers ſuppoſed to have periſhed in the ſnow; and that, being brought down, upon a thaw, by a torrent from the neighbouring hills, and covered with mud, it was there firſt incloſed by the roots, which, as the tree grew, forced it by degrees up into the trunk. Noah's rainbow is ſo admirably painted on one of the cielings, that the great duke of Tuſcany offered one hundred thouſand crowns for it. Here is alſo a good library, and a gallery full of buſts. Theſe apartments are ſhewn to ſtrangers by the chatellan, or keeper of the caſtle, who is generally ſome invalid, and comes from Inſpruc for that purpoſe, and expects a ſuitable reward for his trouble: he is always attended with a ſtrong guard.

Not far from the town, on the ſouth ſide, is the famous monaſtery of Wiltheim, where the monks pretend to have the body of their founder Hayman, a gigantic prince, twelve feet and a half high, who, they ſay, killed a monſtrous dragon, which threw down as much of his monaſtery by night as his men built by day; there is a pillar before its gates with an inſcription, importing, that the road from Italy towards Augſburg, lay acroſs the field where this monaſtery ſtands; and that in the time of the emperor Septimius Severus it was repaired for near one hundred miles together.

Conſtance, formerly an imperial city, is ſituated on a celebrated lake of the ſame name; but in the year 1749 Ferdinand I. annexed it to the territories of the houſe of Auſtria. This city is well fortified, is the ſee of a biſhop, and has been the ſeat of ſeveral diets. The famous aſſembly, known by the name of the council of Conſtance, was held here by order of the emperor Sigiſmund, at the time the empire was diſtracted by religious diſputes, and by the feuds raiſed by three popes, all then living, viz. one ſet up by Italy, another by France, and a third by Spain. But this council depoſed them all, and elected Martin V. in their ſtead; it likewiſe condemned the doctrines of Wickliff, John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague, ordering the ſepulchre of the firſt to be deſpoiled, and the two latter to be burnt alive. This council continued ſitting four years, during which time above one hundred thouſand foreigners reſided in and near Conſtance. The chief tribunal is held at Altorf, a neighbouring market-town. A conſiderable trade is carried on here by means of the lake, and the Rhine, which runs from it.

The county of Kirchbergs belongs to the noble family of Fuggers; but the landgravate of Nellenberg and the county of Hohenberg, together with the margravate of Burgau, between the Danube and Lech, with the city of the ſame name, all belong to the houſe of Auſtria; who alſo, in 1367, obtained Briſgaw by purchaſe, which contains the following places; viz.

1. The town of Friburg on the Treiſam, which was formerly very ſtrong, and had ſtood many ſieges; but its fortifications were demoliſhed by the French in 1745. It is large, populous, and wealthy, having a univerſity, and ſeveral cloiſters. The tower of the great church is ſo high, ſo curiouſly carved and conſtructed, that there is nothing of that kind in Germany to be compared to it, except that of Straſburg. The lapidaries here are famous for poliſhing the grenates, jaſpers, and other precious ſtones, that are found in Lorrain and the neighbouring countries. 2. Briſack, or Old Briſack, to diſtinguiſh it from the New, which was built and ſtrongly fortified by the French on the other ſide of the Rhine, in Alſace. Old Briſack was reckoned very ſtrong until 1741, when its fortifications were razed by order of the queen of Hungary. 3. Neuburg, on the Rhine, formerly an imperial town, but in the fourteenth century fell under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria. 4. Zahringen, a deſolate caſtle near Friburg, from which the antient dukes of Zahringen took their title. 5. The abbey of St. Blaſe, whoſe abbot, in 1747, was made a prince of the empire. He is alſo hereditary arch-aulic-chaplain of the houſe of Auſtria in the anterior Auſtrian countries, but ſubject to the biſhop of Conſtance in ſpirituals.

Rheinfelden, Seckingen, Laufenburg, and Waldſhut, are the four foreſt towns. The firſt is the capital of a county, and was once a free imperial city, but was mortgaged in 1410, to the dukes of Auſtria, by the emperor Lewis of Bavaria: hard by is the village of Kaiſars-Augſt, on the Rhine, where anciently ſtood the Auguſta Rauracorum. The ſecond is a ſmall town, and held in fee of its abbeſs. The third is the capital of an antient county, well fortified, and ſeated on both ſides the Rhine. It is held as a fief of the foundation of Seckingen, and came to the houſe of Auſtria in 1409, when the line of the counts of Habſburg and Laufenburg became extinct. The fourth is a ſmall, but ſtrong town, being, as its German name imports, a key to the Black Foreſt. Several privileges were granted to it by Albert, count of Habſburg, who in 1249 built and fortified it.

Ortenau, a land vogty, belongs partly to the immediate imperial knighthood of the circuit of the Ortenau, and partly to the houſe of Auſtria.

Brikſen-biſhopric is forty-five miles long, thirty broad, and, though ſituated among the Alps, is fruitful. The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and the chapter conſiſts of eighteen canons, of which nine are noble. The capital, of the ſame name, is only a poſt-ſtage from the territories of Venice. It contains an epiſcopal palace, a caſtle, two convents, a cathedral, two other churches, ſeveral ſquares, many handſome houſes painted on the outſide, &c. Mount Brinner, in the neighbourhood, is cultivated to the very top, where there is a chapel, tavern, and poſt-houſe.

The biſhopric of Trent lies among the Alps, South from Tirol, north and weſt from the dominions of Venice, and eaſt from thoſe of the Griſons. It is near ſixty miles from

from east to west, and forty, where broadest, from south to north. Some geographers make it a part of Italy, but the bishop of Trent, having been a prince of the empire since Ferdinand II. the Germans reckon it in the circle of Austria. The river Adige runs through it from north to south, receiving several smaller rivers that rise in the mountains on each side of it. Its soil produces a good pale red wine, oil, fruit, and pasture, but not much corn. The antient inhabitants were the Tridentini of Pliny. The common languages of the present are the German and Italian. Though the house of Austria were the temporal sovereigns and owners of the country, yet they provided handsomely for the bishop, who has about forty thousand crowns revenue, not only from the city of Trent, but Riva, Bolzano, Roveredo, &c. He is suffragan to the archbishop of Saltzbourg; but, before the treaty of Munster, he was suffragan to the patriarch of Aquileia, whose bishop, Hermagoras, was the founder of the see, A. D. 50. When the bishop dies, the emperor sends a governor who presides till another be chosen by the chapter, which is composed of eighteen canons, who always chuse the bishop out of their body. This diocese was much enlarged by the emperor Conrade II. and confirmed by his successors, who made the count of Tirol protector of the bishop, and obliged him, in case of an invasion, to assist him. Several princes, both of Germany and Italy, pay homage to him for part of the estates which they hold of this see; particularly, the duke of Mantua: and the emperors, as counts of Tirol, pay him quit-rents; as do many earls and barons.

The city of Trent, in Latin Tridentum, its capital, stands on the river Adige, thirty miles west of the confines of the Valteline, thirty north of Verona, forty-three south-west of Brixen, sixty-five south of Inspruc, sixty-five west of Venice, two hundred and fifty-five south-west of Vienna, and two hundred and fifty-five north-west of Rome. It is encompassed with steep unpassable hills, except from Tirol on the north, and Verona on the south. The sun-beams darted from the flinty rocks, that almost surround it, make the heat as intolerable in the summer, as the cold reflected from them is in the winter; but in the spring and autumn the air is temperate. The town, which is not large, being not above a mile in compass, but pretty populous, is defended by an old castle, has many stately palaces, and several beautiful churches, and religious houses, and streets that are broad and well paved. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Vigil, is a fine piece of gothic architecture, but darkish, with marble pillars, extraordinary high and thick; and there is a chapel, in which nothing is to be seen but sculptures and marble, said to have cost one hundred thousand crowns. The church of St. Mary Major is noted for the famous council of Trent from the 4th of January 1545, till 1563, the representation of which is finely painted on the walls. The town of Reif or Reva, on the lake De Garda, is famous for the excellent oranges and lemons which grow in the neighbourhood, for a celebrated image of the Virgin, and for a considerable trade carried on there.

Chur, or Coire, is a bishopric, and governed by a bishop, who styles himself a prince of the empire; he is under the archbishop of Mentz; and though he is himself a Roman catholic, yet most of the inhabitants of the lands, subject to his temporal jurisdiction, are protestants. His chapter consists of twenty-four canons, of whom some are nobles. Both he and they reside on an eminence near the town of Chur, called Hoff, where is a spacious and well-built castle. He has the right of coinage, and is possessed of several fine estates and fiefs, not only among the Grisons, but in some foreign countries, as Tirol and Alsace. Before the Reformation, he had also some jurisdiction over the city of Coire. Its episcopal or spiritual jurisdiction, extends partly into the hereditary countries of the house of Austria, and partly into Switzerland. The see is very antient; and its power, both temporal and spiritual, before the Reformation, was very great.

There are two bailiwics of the Teutonic order in the circle of Austria, on account of which it is reckoned a state thereof, namely, one on the Elsck and the Gebirge in Tirol, and another in the archduchy of Austria.

Trasp, a little seigniory belonging to the prince of Dietrichstein, lies on the borders of Tirol, in the valley of Engedein. The emperor Leopold made a present of it, together with the supreme jurisdiction, to prince Ferdinand Joseph of Dietrichstein, who, in 1688, obtained a seat and voice in the college of princes, at the diets of the empire, on that account.

SECT. VIII.

Containing a Description of the Circle of BAVARIA, with the several Districts thereto belonging; comprehending the Archbishopric of Saltzburg, the Electorate of Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, &c. their Towns, Inhabitants, Manufactures, Produce, &c.

THE circle of Bavaria is bounded by those of Austria, Swabia, Franconia, and the kingdom of Bohemia. It receives its name from the duchy of Bavaria, which constitutes the greatest part of it, is one hundred and ninety miles long, and one hundred and fifteen where widest. The air is wholesome, the country mountainous, and the principal rivers are the Danube, Lech, Inn, Iser, Amber, and Saltz. The diets are usually held at Ratisbon; and the elector of Bavaria, and the bishop of Saltzburg, are joint summoning princes. The elector of Bavaria is likewise hereditary commander of the circular forces. The inhabitants are of various religious persuasions.

The archbishopric of Saltzburg is near one hundred miles in length, and sixty in breadth. It is in general mountainous, but many places contain fine pastures, where excellent cattle and horses are bred. The Romish is the established religion, and the oppressions of the Protestants have been such, that they have continually emigrated from hence; in particular, in 1732 above thirty thousand quitted the place, and dispersed themselves into other parts of Europe, or to the British American colonies. This country abounds in salt, copper, silver, lead, iron, lapis calaminaris, marble, mineral waters, &c. The lands belong to the clergy, as here are not any nobles; but the peasants are in general trained to arms.

This prelate, who is one of the richest archbishops in Germany, is a prince of the empire, perpetual legate to the see of Rome in Germany ever since 1073, and primate of Germany by the Treaty of Munster in 1648. He sits in the diet on the first bench next to the electors, and in the college of princes, he and the archduke of Austria preside by turns: he is also condirector of this circle with the elector of Bavaria. When the emperor writes to him, he gives him the title of Your Friendship, whereas the other prelates have only the title of Your Devotion, or Your Piety: he has, moreover, the first voice in the diet of any of the ecclesiastical princes, after the electors. His spiritual prerogatives are very great. There lies no appeal from this archbishop to the nuncios at Vienna, Lucerne, and Cologn, as there does from the other bishop of the empire. He moreover nominates to the canonicates vacant in the months of the pope, in which months the pope has right of nomination, by virtue of the German Concordat: he may, as well as the archbishop of Cologn, dress in the habit of a cardinal. He has the disposal of the four bishopprics of Gurck, Chiemsee, Lavant, Seggau, or Seccau; only the nomination to the bishopric of Gurck is alternately between this prelate and the archduke of Austria. His suffragans are the bishops of Ratisbon, Freysingen, Passaw, and Brixen. His revenue amounts to near eighty thousand pounds. The very salt which is carried into Bavaria and Swabia, brings him in thirty thousand crowns per annum: he has better than six thousand pounds a year for his private purse; and, for officiating at three solemn services, he is paid near two thousand pounds for each; but, as he is absolute, he is master of all the revenues of the country, and by no means accountable to any body for what he lays out: besides, he commonly holds the deanry in commendam, which brings him in an additional sum of two thousand pounds. He is able to raise eight thousand men; and, under the archiepiscopal mitre, he bears in his arms the sword on the right, the crosier on the left, denoting both the temporal and spiritual power.

His chapter is composed of twenty-four canons, who must be all noble by eight descents, and are only obliged to four months residence in the year. They admit of no princes to be members, that they may have a plea for refusing those of Bavaria; of whose power they are jealous, though they are obliged to them for most of their wealth. These canons have no vote nor revenue till they have been ordained priests: they have each a house, and some of them palaces: though they do not sing in the choir of the cathedral, they lose a perquisite if they are not at present: and, though they have eight months vacation in the year, to go where they list, yet they are so strictly tied down to one year's constant residence in the city, that if they happen to lie abroad but one night, they must begin the term de *novo*. Both the provost and dean have the crosier and

and mitre; as have alſo the provoſt and dean of Paſſaw. At his coming to this ſee, he muſt pay one hundred thouſand crowns to Rome for the pall; but the country generally raiſes it for him, beſides making him a free gift of the like ſum at the ſame time. The officers of this prince are a ſteward, a great chamberlain, grand marſhal, maſter of the horſe, great huntſman, captain of the guards, maſter-cook, pay-maſter, twenty-four chamberlains, ſixteen ſervants called truchſſes, gentlemen ſervers, or taſters, ſixteen pages, fifteen uſhers of the cabinet, eleven uſhers of the chamber, forty-two valets de chambre, twenty-eight footmen, eighteen cooks, coachmen, and grooms, to look after ſeven hundred and fifty horſes. Beſides theſe, there are the four great hereditary officers of the archbiſhopric, viz. the grand marſhal, cup-bearer, maſter of the pantry, and great chamberlain. He alſo confers the order of St. Rupert (whoſe knights wear a medal with that ſaint's effigies, and the red croſs of the order on the reverſe) which was inſtituted in 1702, by the archbiſhop John Erneſt, who has thereto annexed ſix commanderies, or prebends, of a conſiderable revenue. He has two pleaſure-houſes, viz. Gleiſheim, and Heilbron, or Hellenbron, which are both magnificent and beautiful ſtructures; and the latter eſpecially, not above a mile from the city of Saltzburg, is worth viſiting on account of its fine waters and caſcades, rich ſtatues, &c. and the various proſpects, both of the city and country, from two fine ſummer-houſes at the farther end of its gardens.

The town of Saltzburg, capital of the archbiſhopric, takes its name from the river Salza, on which it is ſituated, and over which it has a bridge. It is well-fortified, and the reſidence of the archbiſhop. The caſtle here is very ſtrong, and as ſtrongly garriſoned, and well ſupplied with proviſions and warlike ſtores. The archbiſhop's palace is magnificent, and in the area before it is a fountain, eſteemed the largeſt and grandeſt in Germany. The ſtables are very lofty, and the number of the horſes uſually kept by the archbiſhop is ſaid to be upwards of two hundred. The city, of which one part ſtands on a ſteep rock, is well-built, but the ſtreets are narrow, and badly paved. Beſides the above-mentioned, there are two other ſtately palaces belonging to the archbiſhop, one of which is called the Neubau, and the other Mirabella. The latter of theſe has a very beautiful garden; and the number of trees in the orangery is ſo great, that Mr. Keyſler tells us, twenty thouſand oranges have been gathered from them in one year. The river Salza runs cloſe by the walls of this garden. There are a great many other fine ſtructures in the city, public and private, ſuch as palaces, monaſteries, hoſpitals, and churches. The univerſity was founded in 1620, and committed to the care of the Benedictines. Beſides it, there are two colleges, in which young gentlemen are educated. In the cathedral dedicated to St. Rupert, the apoſtle of Bavaria, and a Scotchman by birth, all the altars are of marble of different kinds, and one of the organs has above three thouſand two hundred pipes.

2. The town of Hallein ſtands in a valley croſſed by three rivers, formed by torrents from the mountains, which bring down a vaſt deal of floating wood that is ſtopped here by the piles, which either croſs or ſhut up the rivers: this wood they lay up in ſtore for the ſalt-works. Its ſalt is carried in great quantities through Bavaria and a corner of Tirol, into Switzerland, where it is paid for in French money, which is one reaſon that there is ſcarce any coin current in Bavaria but that of France. Here is a great high mountain on the weſt ſide of the town, the earth of which being mixed with a ſort of alum, or ſalt petre, they throw it into large trenches, which they fill with freſh water, and let it ſtand three or four weeks, till the earthy part is ſunk to the bottom; then they let it out, and boil the ſaline part in iron pans three feet deep, and ten or twelve in diameter; and when the water is evaporated from the ſalt which it leaves at the bottom, they take it up, and put it to dry and harden in ſome deal caſes, without any head or bottom. This mountain is pierced in a thouſand places, like that of Potoſi in Peru: therefore they who go out of curioſity to ſee the works in it, have need of very good guides, for fear of being loſt in the great variety of tracks, or cruſhed by the fall of the earth. Here is no ſeeing theſe works without a great deal of ceremony.

Before people enter the mountain, they generally repair to a church on the top of it, to perform their devotions: this done, they take a hearty breakfaſt at a public houſe near the church; and being accommodated with ſome bottles of roſa ſolis, they are accoutred with a ſurtout of coarſe linen cloth, with leathers over their right arm and back, the better to enable them to make their way through the timber-work; and they put great bonnets on their heads, to keep out the cold, ſo that but little of the face is ſeen. Being thus fitted out, every man enters with a lighted candle or torch in his left hand. A great number of guides and others go before and behind the ſpectators, leſt they ſhould be frightened in the diſmal caverns. The candles ſometimes go out by reaſon of the prodigious rapidity with which they deſcend from one beam to another; but if none ſhould happen to be left burning to light the reſt, the guides quickly ſtrike fire, and rekindle them. After having viſited all the ſubterranean curioſities, which takes up five or ſix hours, they give money to the guides, and then go to the town to dine and make merry. Several German authors affirm, that anno 1563, in one of the ſalt pits, ſix thouſand three hundred feet deep, there was found, in the midſt of a hard rock of ſalt, a human body, with its limbs, hair, and cloaths, uncorrupted, which, by its antique dreſs, ſeemed to have lain there ſome ages. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there are forges, where they melt the copper which is dug out of the mines of this archbiſhopric. Boats are continually going up and down the river, with the ſalt made here, for Saltzburg; from whence it is carried to other parts.

3. At a ſmall diſtance from Saltzburg ſtands Helbrun, which is a grand ſeat of the archbiſhop's, and is adorned with fine gardens, wherein is a menagerie. 4. Kleſheim is another archiepiſcopal palace. 5. Gaſtien is a market-town, chiefly noted for its gold, ſilver, and lead-mines, and for a warm bath. 6. Muldorf is a town on the Inn.

The electorate of Bavaria is about one hundred miles in length, and ſixty in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by Auſtria, the biſhopric of Saltzburg, and the biſhopric of Paſſaw; on the weſt, by the biſhopric of Augſburg, the marquiſate of Burgau, and the duchy of Newburg; on the ſouth, by the biſhopric of Brixen, and the county of Tirol; on the north, by Bohemia, and the Upper Palatinate. Thoſe parts near the Alps are mountainous, cold, and barren, but produce wood, game, wild fowl, cattle, ſalt, mineral waters, ſilver, lead, iron, copper, &c. The parts that are ſituated towards the Danube are much more level and fertile, yielding grain, fruits, paſturage, &c. The many rivers which water this country, and the various lakes which it contains, abundantly ſupply the inhabitants with fiſh. The manufactures are ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, clocks and watches, coarſe cloth, velvet, tapeſtry, ſtockings, &c. The only religion tolerated, is the Roman catholic: the convents are numerous, and the clergy rich, but the peaſants are miſerably poor.

A committee of the ſtates, conſiſting of prelates, nobles, and knights, aſſemble at Munich whenever emergencies require. The elector has five hereditary officers, viz. a maſter of the houſhold, a ſteward, marſhal, cup-bearer, and huntſman. His title is, "By the grace of God, duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, as alſo of the Upper Palatinate; palſgrave of the Rhine, arch ſteward of the Holy Roman empire, elector and landgrave of Leuchtenberg, &c. The order of St. George was revived in 1729 by the elector Albert, the enſign of which is a croſs enamelled with blue, and worn pendant to a broad ſky-blue ribbon, with a black and white border. The elector has the fifth ſeat in the electoral college, and ſeveral votes at the diets both of the empire and circle, and in the colleges of the princes and counts. His ordinary revenues, ariſing chiefly from the monopoly of corn, ſalt, beer, and tobacco, tolls, mines, and contributions, amount to between ſix and ſeven hundred thouſand pounds per annum. With reſpect to his military eſtabliſhment, he maintains, in time of peace, about twelve thouſand regulars, excluſive of ten thouſand militia, the expence of which, it is ſaid, does not amount to quite nine hundred thouſand imperial gilders. His court, for magnificence and ſplendor, is exceeded by none in Germany. During an interregnum, he is vicar of the empire, alternately with the elector Palatine, in all places belonging to the vicariate of the count palatine of the Rhine.

Bavaria is divided into Upper and Lower. The principal places in the former are: 1. Munich, the capital of all Bavaria, and the reſidence of the elector: it is ſituated on the Iſer, at the diſtance of two hundred and fourteen miles to the weſt of Vienna. It is one of the moſt populous and pleaſant cities of Germany, and contains above forty thouſand inhabitants. It was originally erected on a ſpot of ground belonging to a convent, and had from thence the name of Munchen, which ſignifies Monks town, and which ſince has been corrupted into the word Munich.

The elector's palace is a moſt magnificent ſtructure. It was built by Maximilian, the elector, at ſuch expence, that all Germany was ſurpriſed to think where he found the money; yet, if we may credit Martiniere, he ſaid, that if he was ſure of living ten years longer, he would pull it down, and build one ſtill more ſuperior. But the inſide is far more beautiful than the outſide, the architecture of which is not very regular, becauſe built at ſeveral times. The Marquis Palavicino, who has given a full deſcription of it, ſays it contains eleven courts, twenty great halls, nineteen galleries, two thouſand ſix hundred large croſs windows, ſix chapels, ſixteen great kitchens, twelve large cellars, forty vaſt apartments, all on a floor, in which are three hundred great rooms richly painted, paved, ceiled, furniſhed, &c. and there is hardly a cornice, niche, or gate, but has a buſt or relievos of marble; which are alſo the ornaments of almoſt every chimney piece. The moſt remarkable are, 1. The long gallery, adorned with pictures of one hundred illuſtrious perſons, by the greateſt maſters; and another gallery, the ceiling of which repreſents the principal towns, rivers, and caſtles, of Bavaria. In the former are the effigies and names of thirty-ſix princes, the predeceſſors of the two laſt electors. 2. The Antiquarium, or Statuarium, containing a vaſt number of old and new pieces, in marble, ſtone, wood, &c. 3. The great hall, called the emperor's, a beautiful apartment, one hundred and eighteen feet long, and fifty-two broad, which Guſtavus Adolphus ſaid he was ſorry he could not get tranſported to Stockholm. The ſtaircaſe leading to it is, from the bottom to the top, marble and gold. This noble room is adorned with curious pictures of ſacred hiſtory on one ſide and profane on the other, with a Latin diſtich under each: beyond this, there is a fine hall, where the electors give audience to the foreign miniſters: here are eight great compartments, ſhewing the different manner in which foreign princes give audience to embaſſadors, beſides other pictures, accompanied with hieroglyphics, &c. 4. The hall filled with antiquities, brought from Rome, exceeds all the reſt, here being three hundred and fifty-four buſts, of jaſper, porphyry, braſs, and marble, repreſenting Grecian captains, Roman emperors, generals, &c. beſides numbers of idols, and veſſels of the Pagans; valuable for workmanſhip as well as antiquity. 5. The library, wherein, beſides a vaſt collection of printed books, in moſt languages, antient and modern, there are a great many valuable MSS. particularly a Latin Treatiſe in folio, in an old ſquare character, pretended to be written by pope Clement I. to St. James the apoſtle; and the New Teſtament, in the Indian, Armenian, and Wendiſh tongues. 6. A chamber of rarities, containing, beſides the figures of Parnaſſus and the nine Muſes, with landſcapes, &c. in coral, and the Pagan deities, a neat perſpective globe, in the circumference of which there is the whole hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion, which, being inverted, ſhews the elevation of the ſerpent in the wilderneſs on one ſide, and our Saviour's crucifixion on the other. Here are flowers and plants caſt in gold, ſeveral drawers full of antient and modern coins and medals, and a remarkable picture of Chriſtopher Freſchammer, ſo notorious an aſſaſſin, that he is ſaid to have committed three hundred and forty-five murders with his own hand, and to have been an accomplice, or privy to four hundred more, committed by others. A little chapel belonging to the electreſs's apartment, where ſcarce any thing is to be ſeen but gold and ſilver, pearl and gems. The very organs are of ſilver in relievo, and the cabinets of rock cryſtal, worked in figures. The furniture, in ſhort, of the whole palace, is rich beyond imagination; and, beſides the tapeſtry in uſe, there is ſaid to be as much in the wardrobe as is worth above a million of crowns.

In the treaſury there are whole ſervices of gold, and many other coſtly veſſels; vaſt numbers of pearls, diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones; rare pictures, curious works, medals, &c. and, among the reſt, a cherry-ſtone with one hundred and forty heads, diſtinctly engraved upon it; and a boat of palmtree wood petrified. There is a vaſt quantity of marble in this palace, which is artificial, but ſo well hardened and poliſhed, that it looks like natural: and there is ſuch a prodigious number of aloe-trees in the elector's gardens, that it is thought all Europe cannot ſhew the like. Beſides grottoes and other fine water-works, here is a noble fountain, repreſenting Perſeus with Meduſa's head in his hand, and the water guſhing out of her head and neck in ſmall ſtreams, as blood out of the veins of a body newly beheaded. M. Pollnitz ſays, that the front of this palace has the air of a convent; the rather, becauſe of the Virgin Mary's image over its great gate; and that the late elector, the emperor Charles VII. embelliſhed the palace with a new apartment, more magnificent than the emperor's, though not ſo big, and adorned it with noble pictures, antique buſts, and vaſes, placed upon tables of very great value: and there is a ſecret paſſage from the palace, through little galleries, to all the churches and convents in the city. In the beginning of the year 1730, this new apartment was burnt down by a fire which broke out in the night time, ſo that ſcarce any of the fine furniture was ſaved; and the elector and electreſs had like to have been burnt in their bed.

The neareſt church to this palace is that of the Theatines, which, together with their monaſtery, was built by the wife of Ferdinand-Mary, elector. The friars, who are twenty-ſeven, muſt be all men of quality: they dare not aſk alms, though they may receive them; and when they have ſuffered extreme want, at any time, for three days together, they are allowed to ring a bell as a token of their diſtreſs: but the electors are ſo good, that they ſeldom let them want. Round one half of the garden there is a grand piazza, adorned with pictures, repreſenting the ſeveral hiſtories of the princes of the Bavarian family; which pictures, it is ſaid, were the model for the hangings in the elector's wardrobe. At the end of this piazza there is a very fine houſe, the lower part of which is an orangery, and the upper part a ſummer-houſe; where, in that ſeaſon, the elector has a drawing-room: near this there is a kind of menagerie, in which lions, and other wild beaſts, are kept. This piazza leads to one of the fineſt riding-houſes that is to be ſeen: it is three hundred and ſixty-ſix feet long, and ſeventy-ſix broad; has eighty great windows, and all round within there runs a fine corridor, or gallery for the ſpectators, when there are carouſals, or tournaments. Here is a grand box for the elector, which is richly carved, and big enough for all the electoral family. Here is alſo a magnificent opera-room, and a ſtage ſuitable to it, and ſuperb decorations to each. Upon feſtival-days, or others, when there is an opera here, it is remarked, as a very unaccountable cuſtom, that juſt as they begin to play the overture, a luſtre of extraordinary grandeur and ſtructure comes down unexpectedly through the ceiling, from the top of the ſtage; and it is drawn up again when the firſt act is over.

There are a great many other fine buildings, both public and private, in this city, particularly the riding-houſe, town-houſe, opera-room, a fine college, the large edifice for tournaments, the churches, convents, fountains, &c. Its manufactures are thoſe of ſilk, velvet, woollen cloths, and tapeſtry; and it has two annual fairs, at which great quantities of ſilk, wine, &c. are ſold. The ſtreets are broad and regular, and moſt of the houſes are well-built, and painted on the outſide. The market-place is extremely beautiful. Mr. Keyſler ſays, "The ſervant maids at the great inns here, on holidays, wear a ſilver chain round their necks, conſiſting of three rows; and their breaſts are likewiſe laced with two other chains of the ſame metal." He further obſerves, that "it was a general cuſtom to place a green garland, on a bundle of ſtraw, before every houſe containing the corpſe of an unmarried perſon." Not far from Munich are four other palaces, with fine gardens, belonging to the elector, viz. thoſe of Sleiſheim, Nymphenburg, Dachau, and Staremberg. The firſt and laſt of theſe, which are at the greateſt diſtance, are about three leagues from the capital.

2. Forty-five miles from Munich ſtands Ingolſtadt, a fortified town on the Danube: it contains ſeveral convents and churches, a college, an excellent arſenal, and an univerſity which boaſts of having produced the learned Bellarmine, who was a ſtrenuous advocate for the papacy. This univerſity is accommodated with an admirable library, and a cabinet of curioſities. The caſtle where the governor reſides is exceeding ſtrong. Over the Danube there is an elegant bridge; and in the great church there is an image of the Holy Virgin, which coſt fifty thouſand crowns. 3. Rain is a well-fortified ſmall town, where the celebrated count Tilly received his mortal wound. 4. Starenberg, on Lake Wumſee, is a hunting-ſeat of the elector. 5. Reichenhall, on the Sala, is famous for an excellent ſalt-ſpring, ſome of the waters of which are conveyed above twelve miles over mountains to Traunſtein, and ſome are boiled on the ſpot.

5. The town of Donawert, which is ſmall and ill-built, has its name from the Danube, on the north ſide of which it ſtands, near the conflux of the Wernitz, within ten Engliſh miles north-eaſt of Hochſtet. Being near the road from Augſburg, it is pretty much frequented by travellers; and all that go up and down the Danube are obliged to land

land here, and pay a ſmall toll, which brings the town a great deal of money; as does alſo the paſſage of their bridge over that river (where it receives the Wernitz) becauſe of the many great towns in its neighbourhood. It is a ſtrong place, which, revolting from the duke of Bavaria in 1420, was made imperial by the emperor Sigiſmond, and ſo continued till 1607, when it was put under the ban by the emperor Rodolph II. for embracing the proteſtant religion, and afterwards obliged to ſubmit to the duke of Bavaria, who inveſted it with twelve thouſand ſoldiers, took it by a capitulation, but, contrary to it, diſarmed the citizens, and put the Jeſuits in poſſeſſion of the chief proteſtant church. The Swedes took it twice in the civil wars of Germany, and by the Munſter treaty it was reinſtated in its privileges, to the great joy of the Proteſtant princes and ſtates, though it was reſtored to Bavaria, by the treaty of Munſter, in 1648. It recovered its liberty by the proſcription of its elector Maximilian, when he took part with France, but it was reſtored to him again by the treaty of Raſtadt. The river Wernitz, which falls into the Danube here, after receiving the Eger, riſes near a town of the ſame name in Franconia. 6. Schellemberg, a quarter of a league on the north eaſt ſide of Donawert, is a fortified mountain, which ſerves it inſtead of a caſtle. It is famous for the defeat of the French and Bavarians in 1704, when the confederates, chiefly Engliſh and Scotch ſoldiers, forced the trenches, and next day made themſelves maſters of Donawert, Here is a very fine proſpect, from hence, of ſeveral hamlets and villages, and a fine country on both ſides of the Danube; as likewiſe of the towns of Donawert, Hochſtet, Newburg, and Ingolſtadt.

Landſhut, on the river Iſer, in Lower Bavaria, is twenty miles north-eaſt of Freiſingen, and thirty-three north-eaſt of Munich: it is well-fortified, and had the name, which ſignifies the bulwark of the country, from Otho of Bavaria, who, when Ratiſbon threw off its yoke, and was made a free imperial city, built a palace here, which his ſon enlarged, and about the year 1204 added a caſtle to it. It ſtands in the richeſt and moſt pleaſant part of all Bavaria, and is the ſeat of the elector's deputy, or lieutenant of Lower Bavaria, who has a court here, and ſeveral officers for the government of the country, which conſiſts of ſix bailiwics, thirty-two market-towns, fourteen monaſteries, and ſeventy-four noblemen's ſeats, with their dependencies. The town is in general well-built, being formerly much frequented by the nobility, who attended the court, and now by the elector's officers above-mentioned. Here is a bridge over the Iſer; and a ſuburb on the other ſide called Saldental. The new buildings in the duke's palace are a neat piece of architecture in the Italian taſte. The principal church, St. Martin's, has a tower which is reckoned the higheſt in the empire, it having a proſpect, as Baudrand ſays, of almoſt all Bavaria; and therefore he ſays it is called Landſhut, or the Hat of the country.

The other towns of moſt note in this electorate are, 1. Erding, on the Sempt. 2. Dingelfing and Landau, on the Iſer. 3. Vilſhofen, at the conflux of the Danube and Vils. 4. Hals, a market-town, that gives name to a county. 5. Stadthamhof, which is exactly oppoſite to Ratiſbon, on the other ſide of the Danube, both places having a communication by means of a bridge. 6. Abach, a market-town on the Danube. 7. Deckendorf. 8. Straubing. 9. Cham, which gives name to a bailiwic. 10. Kilhewin, a town on the iſland, formed by the Altmuhl and Danube.

The Upper Palatinate is ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from the Lower, belonging to the elector Palatine, to whom this alſo belonged till about the year 1620, when the elector, aſſuming the title of the king of Bohemia, in oppoſition to the emporor, it was transferred to the duke of Bavaria, Maximilian I. with the title of elector: both which were confirmed to his family by the treaty of Munſter; but on condition that, in caſe of failure thereof, they ſhould revert to the Palatine branch. It is bounded by a part of Franconia and Swabia, on the weſt; Saxony, on the north; part of Bohemia and Auſtria, on the eaſt; and the Danube, on the ſouth, excepting a ſmall part of it, which lies on the other ſide of that river; being about ſixty miles in length, and forty in breadth, but interſected by the territory of Sulzbach, and the diſtrict of Vilſec, belonging to Bamberg. Though it is not unfruitful in grain, its chief riches ariſe from its mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. Since this country came to the houſe of Bavaria, the diets have been diſcontinued.

The places of moſt note are, 1 Amberg, the capital, ſtanding on the river Vils, twenty-eight miles north of Ratiſbon. It is the reſidence of the governor and regency, contains an electoral palace, with a college, and is well fortified. 2. Treſwitz, on the Preimb. 3. Waldſalſen, an abbey of Ciſtertian monks.

Treyſingen biſhopric is ſurrounded by the circle of Bavaria, and its biſhop is a prince of the empire. The principal town is Treyſing on the Iſer. Burgkraim and Weſdenfals are two caſtles; and Iſmaring is a village, which contains an elegant palace, &c. The ſeigniory of Ehrenfels belongs to the elector palatine, who, on its account, has a ſeat and voice among the counts of the empire and circle; but the elector of Bavaria poſſeſſes the ſame privileges for each of the three Proteſtant ſeigniories of Sulzburg, Pyrbaum, Breilenec, and the Roman catholic ſeigniory of Hohen-Waldec. The county of Sternſtein belongs to the Lobkowitz family; the little Proteſtant county and town of Ortenberg jointly belong to their own counts; the county of Haog belongs to the elector; and the provoſt of Berchtologaden is a prince of the empire.

Paſſaw, which is a biſhopric, ſtands on both ſides of the Danube, where it receives the Inn on the one ſide, and the Iltz on the other; it is but ten miles from the borders of Auſtria, and one hundred and thirty-four weſt of Vienna. The rivers above-mentioned divide it into three parts; viz. Paſſaw, on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, and the weſt ſide of the Inn; Iltzſtadt on the north ſide of the Danube, and the banks of the Iltz; and Inſtat on the eaſt ſide of the Inn, and the ſouth ſide of the Danube.

Theodoric III. duke of Bavaria, founded this biſhopric in 634; and its dioceſe extends twenty miles on the north ſide of the Danube, bordering on Auſtria and Bohemia. It was commonly given to the younger ſon of Auſtria, before the late vaſt aggrandizement of that houſe, and yielded fifteen thouſand pounds a year before the erection of the biſhopric of Vienna. The chapter conſiſts of twenty-four canons, who are all gentlemen. In 1729 the pope made the biſhop independent of the metropolis of Saltzburg, and allowed him the pall, to indemnify him in ſome ſort for the loſs of ſixty-nine pariſhes, two abbies, a provoſtſhip, and a priory, which were diſmembered from his dioceſe on the creation of the new archbiſhopric of Vienna.

The city belonging to this biſhopric is noted for many meetings and conſultations of the German princes, and particularly for the treaty made in it in 1552, for quieting the troubles of Germany, in the contention between the emperor Charles V. and the Proteſtant princes; whereby the Lutherans, who were only tolerated before, were now eſtabliſhed in the free exerciſe of their religion. This is a rich, populous, and trading city, naturally ſtrong, being fenced on all ſides with rocks and rivers; and ſo pent in by a mountain, that it runs in a narrow ſlip at the bottom of it, from eaſt to weſt, about a mile in length. It is an imperial, free city, but under the protection of its archbiſhop, who is a prince of the empire. The private buildings here are of wood, for which reaſon it ſuffered much by a fire in 1661: but it has been rebuilt in the Italian taſte; and the churches are fair and ſtately, eſpecially the cathedral, which is full of fine tombs and other monuments, and dedicated to St. Stephen. The biſhop's palace, and the chapter-court near it, and the caſtle on St. Gregory's hill, near that part of this town called Iltzſtadt, are handſome buildings; the other part, called Inſtat, is ſuppoſed to have been the Boiodurum of the antients; and the buildings, indeed, have more the air of antiquity than thoſe of Paſſaw. Beſides the cathedral, here are three other churches, a monaſtery, and a handſome college: there is without the town another church and monaſtery.

The caſtle above mentioned was erected in 1219: the hill it ſtands on is an angle formed by the meeting of the Danube with the Iltz, which latter ſeparates the hill from Iltzſtadt: there is another fort at the bottom of the hill, and they both belong to the biſhop. The duke of Bavaria took it in 1704, but ſoon ſurrendered it to the Imperialiſts; and in 1741 it was ſurpriſed by the late elector. People dreſs here ſo well, that we are told the meaneſt of the women wear gowns of black velvet, and ſcarlet petticoats with gold lace: and that ſome of them have pearl necklaces of five or ſix rows, and gold chains with diamond rings and ear pendants. Dr. Brown ſays, this is reckoned one of the ten principal cities on the Danube; and that the river Iltz produces pearls, which belong to the emperor and the elector of Bavaria, each of whom has an officer here to take care of his intereſts.

The elector of Bavaria is proprietor of the landgravate of Leuchtenberg, and, on account of it, has a ſeat and

voice in the diets of the empire and circle. Leuchtenberg, which is a market-town, and gives name to a bailiwic, has a caſtle at the conflux of the Preimb and Nab.

The principalities of Neuburg and Sulzbach lie chiefly in the Upper Palatinate. The former princes thereof were branches of the Palatine family. Philip William became elector of the Neuburg branch; but both his ſons dying without iſſue, the other branch ſucceeded to the Palatinate, the duchy of Neuburg, and electoral dignity. Each has a regency of its own, and the inhabitants of both are a mixture of Roman catholics and Lutherans.

The principal places in the duchy of Neuburg are, 1. Neuburg, which gives name to, and is the capital of the principality: it ſtands on the Danube, forty miles north of Munich, and weſt of Ratiſbon. It is well-built and fortified, contains an electoral palace, with a college, and is the ſeat of the regency. 2. Hockſtadt, a ſmall town on the Danube, near which, at the village of Blenheim, the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene obtained a ſignal victory over the French and Bavarians; which famous battle Mr. Addiſon has deſcribed in elegant verſe.

Ratiſbon, which is a biſhopric, contains one thouſand three hundred and eighty-three pariſhes; the chapter conſiſts of twenty-four canons; and the biſhop, though ſuffragan to Saltzburg, is a prince of the empire.

Sixty miles to the north of Munich, is the imperial city of Ratiſbon: it is large, populous, and well-fortified. The magiſtracy and burghers are Lutherans; but the greateſt part of the inhabitants are catholics, and have many churches and convents belonging to them. The abbot of St. Emerau, here, and the abbeſſes of Upper and Lower Munſter, have ſeats and votes in the diets of the empire and circle, and are aſſeſſed in the matriculas. In the firſt of theſe abbies are two curious manuſcripts of the goſpel, written in the eighth and ninth centuries. In the ſame abbey, Apollonius, ſo diſtinguiſhed for his ſkill in the Greek tongue, was educated. The abbot is exempted from the juriſdiction of the biſhop, and ſtands immediately under the pope. In the female foundations, the lady-abbeſſes are elected by the two chapters of ladies, which muſt be all of noble birth, by ſixteen generations: and though the abbeſſes make vows of celibacy, &c. the other ladies may marry.

Beſides the abbies mentioned above, here is, among other religious houſes, a cloiſter for Scotſmen of the Roman catholic religion. The city carries on a great trade, exporting by the Danube, Nab, and Regen, large quantities of corn, ſalt, wood, and all ſorts of proviſions. Over the firſt of theſe rivers is a bridge of fifteen arches. The diets of the empire have been held in the council houſe of this city, almoſt without interruption, ſince the year 1662. There are two iſlands in the Danube, near this city, called Oberworth and Underworth, i. e. Upper and Lower iſland, which are inhabited by millers, boatmen, and fiſhermen.

His ſerene highneſs Maximilian-Joſeph, late elector of Bavaria, died at Munich, of the ſmall-pox, on the thirtieth of December, 1777.

SECT. IX.

Compriſing a particular Deſcription of the Circle of SWABIA, its Biſhopries, Duchies, and other Diſtricts, with the ſeveral Cities, Towns, and Places therein; alſo an Account of the Produce of the Country, the Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, Religion, Cuſtoms, &c.

THIS circle is bounded by Swiſſerland and Tirol, to the ſouth; by the Palatinate and Franconia, to the north; by Bavaria, to the eaſt; and by Alſace, to the weſt. It is ſeparated from the two laſt, by the rivers Rhine and Lech; and by the great lake of Conſtance, from Swiſſerland. It was once called Allemannia, which is now the name of all Germany. The Germans call it Schwaben, and the French Souabe; it had the Latin name Suevia, from ſome tribes of the Suevi, the beſt warriors in Germany, that came from the north parts of it; and the greateſt part of Germany was called Swabia by the Romans, becauſe the Suevi were the moſt conſiderable people they knew, and extended their dominions fartheſt in that country; but it was afterwards appropriated to the Hermanduri, the moſt conſiderable branch of them, who inhabited that now called Swabia, where they eſtabliſhed a powerful ſtate in length of time, which contained all the country betwixt the Rhine, the Alps, and the Elbe.

The preſent inhabitants of this country retain the courage of their anceſtors the Suevi, and are capable of all the fatigues of war; but both ſexes are charged, not only by ſtrangers, but by their own authors, with being much addicted to venery. Many of them are rather uncivil, hate all foreigners, and are as ſuperſtitious as the Italians; for though the religion which they profeſs in general is Lutheran, yet here are Calviniſts, Papiſts, and Jews, a diverſity of religions being almoſt unavoidable under ſuch a diverſity of ſovereigns.

In this country, particularly in the duchy of Wirtemberg, the executioner, or hangman, inſtead of being deemed infamous, eats, drinks, and traffics with every body, and is company for the beſt; and ſo far is the man from being abhorred for it, that every freſh execution gives him a title of honour; and when he has completed a certain number, he is dignified with the degree of doctor of phyſic. At the ſame time we muſt obſerve, that very profeſſion which was reckoned the moſt noble, the moſt antient, and the moſt innocent, the paſtoral life, ſo celebrated by the ancients, and the moſt ingenious of the European moderns, is not only deſpiſed, but abhorred by the Swabians; the meaneſt peaſants excluding ſhepherds from their company.

Swabia is one hundred and thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt: and one hundred and ten from north to ſouth. Its air is healthy, and the ſoil generally fruitful; for though ſome parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of ſilver, copper, and other metals; and the foreſts much pine and fir-timber, beſides great ſtore of game, and good breeds of horſes, black cattle, and ſheep: and the other parts of the country yield great ſtore of corn, wine, and flax. Its chief rivers are, the Danube and the Neckar, the former of which riſes in the principality of Furſtemberg, and the latter not far from it; but great part of it is alſo watered by the Rhine. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making of linen cloth, of which they vend great quantities in other nations.

The government of this country was formerly veſted in the dukes; but the emperor, Henry IV. conferred it on his ſon-in-law Frederic of Hohenſtauſen, in whoſe family it continued till its extinction in 1268. After this period, the ſtewards appointed by the emperor, their deputies, &c. became ſubjects of different parts of it, at various times, and under various pretences. The ſummoning princes are, the biſhop of Conſtance, and the duke of Wurtemberg: the latter being, however, ſole director, the diets are held twice a year at Ulm, and the ſtates are divided into five benches, viz. 1. Eccleſiaſtical princes and abbots; 2. Temporal princes and abbots; 3. Prelates; 4. Counts and barons; 5. Free Imperial cities. The religion is mixed; and on that account are nominated two aſſeſſors of the Imperial chamber, the one a Lutheran, the other a Roman catholic. The principal rivers are the Danube, Neckar, and the Rhine. In this circle are contained the following countries and ſtates:

We ſhall firſt deſcribe the biſhopric of Augſburg, one part of which, lying towards Tirol, is mountainous and barren; but the parts on the banks of the Lech are fertile in corn and paſture. The biſhop himſelf is a prince of the empire, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mentz.

The principal place in this biſhopric, is the imperial city of Augſburg, peopled by a colony planted here by Auguſtus Cæſar, and ſituated near the conflux of the Lech and Wertach, in a pleaſant, fertile country, at the diſtance of twenty-five miles from the Danube. It is well fortified, has four large, and ſix ſmall gates. The cathedral is a magnificent pile, beſides which, there are many other elegant churches, as alſo ſeveral monaſteries and nunneries. Many of the churches belong to the Roman catholics, and ſeveral to the Lutherans; for both religions are tolerated, and have a ſhare in the government of the city. In the year 1518, Luther appeared before the diet in this city, concerning his doctrine; and about twelve years ſubſequent to this affair, Luther and Melancthon drew up and preſented their confeſſion of faith to the emperor Charles V. whence the Lutherans are ſaid to be of the Augſburg confeſſion, though their preſent creed differs widely from it.

Beſides the public buildings above-mentioned, here is the fineſt town-houſe in all Germany, a great many hoſpitals well endowed, a Lutheran gymnaſium, an academy for arts and ſciences, founded in the year 1755, and called the Imperial Franciſcan academy; two well-furniſhed armories, a houſe of correction, and a work-houſe, with ſeveral beautiful fountains and reſervoirs, from whence the city is well ſupplied with water, brought by aqueducts from the Lech to five towers, and from thence, by means of curious water-works, diſtributed through the whole city. Here are ſeveral corn, ſawing, flatting, and ſmelting-mills,

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on the aqueducts. The palaces of the counts of Fuggar are very magnificent. To theſe counts belong a great number of ſmall houſes in the ſuburbs, called the Fuggery, which are lett at very low rents to poor burghers, and others. The trade of the city, though ſtill conſiderable, is far ſhort of what it was formerly. At preſent, excluſive of the bank commerce, and the Tirol wines, with which it ſupplies almoſt all Germany, it conſiſts chiefly in gold and ſilverſmith's ware, and thoſe of tin and ivory, clocks and toys.

The government of the city is almoſt entirely in the hands of the patricians. The biſhop, however, has certain powers and prerogatives in it. The revenue of the city is very conſiderable, and its garriſon conſiſts of three hundred men. In the counſel-houſe are ſome very noble halls, which, with the other apartments, are adorned with fine pictures, ſculptures, ſtatues, gilding, &c. Among others, the moſt beautiful fountains are thoſe of Auguſtus and Hercules. Betwixt the gates of Gogging and Klenker is a very curious wicket, for admitting proper perſons in the night-time. In the cathedral are fourteen chapels, and the arms of all the countries poſſeſſed by Charles V. who here depoſited his ſword, ſtandard, ſceptre, and crown, when he bid adieu to this world, and retired to a convent. The above-mentioned wicket is ſo curious a contrivance, that certain engineers and architects, who were ſent by the magiſtrates of Nuremberg to examine it, with a view to have ſuch another made there, declared, that without pulling down the walls, and all the maſonry, it was not in the power of man to find out how it was contrived, or to make one like it in one thouſand years. In the library belonging to the gymnaſium are ſome curious books and manuſcripts. The abbot of the Benedictine abbey of St. Ulrich and Afra, in this city, has a ſeat among the prelates of the Rhine, and pays the uſual taxes to the empire. The revenue of the abbey is computed at above fifty thouſand crowns. It is ſaid to be a privileged place for debtors and criminals for three days, but no longer, without the abbot's permiſſion. In the convent of the Carmelites is a remarkable ſun-dial, being a madona, whoſe hand holds a ſceptre, marking the hours, and whoſe head is adorned with rays, ſtars, and all the ſigns of the zodiac. The public granaries of this city contain great quantities of corn. In one of the arſenals is an old battering ram of braſs, ſtill preſerved entire.

As an imperial city, Augſburg has a ſeat and vote in the diets of the empire and circle. All orders and degrees of perſons here are diſtinguiſhed by their proper dreſſes, ſome of which are very odd and uncommon: prints of them all, done on paſteboard, are ſold in the town. The hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt is a very noble one, and patients of both religions are admitted into it. The inn, called the Three Kings, is ſaid to be the moſt ſuperb in Europe. Neither Jews nor Calviniſts have a toleration for their worſhip here.

Conſtance, which is a biſhopric, takes its name from the city of Conſtance, though the biſhop himſelf reſides uſually on the other ſide of the lake at Marſburg. The chapter conſiſts of twenty canons, and four expectants; but the Proteſtant religion prevails in moſt parts of the dioceſe. The principal places are, Riechenau, a Benedictine abbey on an iſland of the ſame name, in the Zellerzee; Marſburg, a pretty town; and Ochumgen, containing an opulent abbey.

Ewangen, which is a priory on the borders of Franconia, gives its prior the title of prince of the empire, and grand marſhal to the empreſs; and there is a market-town called Gronenbach on part of the abbey lands.

The principal dominion of the circle of Swabia is the duchy of Wurtemberg, which is nearly ſquare, being upwards of ſixty miles each way. One diviſion of it is into the Unter or Under-land, the Middle-land, and the Upper-land; the laſt of which makes a part of the mountainous tract called the Alb, and Black Foreſt. It is alſo divided into the land above and below the Steig, which is the name of a ridge of mountains near Stutgard. This duchy is bounded, on the north, by Franconia and the archbiſhopric of Mentz; on the ſouth, by the principalities of Hohenzollern, Furſtenburgh, and the Danube; on the weſt, by the Black Foreſt, the marquiſate of Baden, and part of the palatinate on the Rhine; and, on the eaſt, by Oettigen, Burgau, Ulm, &c. It not only abounds in grain, of moſt ſorts, but alſo in flax, hemp, and good wine, commonly called Neckar wine; and fruit, eſpecially pears and apples; inſomuch that cyder and perry are the common drink of the peaſants, when wine happens to be dear. In this country are alſo mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; woods of fir, oak, beech, birch, and pine: ſome ſalt-ſprings; abundance of ſheep, game, and cattle; coal and turf; cobalt, ſulphur, terra ſigillata; fine clays for porcelain and earthen ware; ſeveral ſorts of marble, black amber, alabaſter, mill-ſtones, mineral ſprings, and baths. Silk is alſo cultivated in it.

This country is well watered by the Neckar, the Ens, Nagold, Vils, and Rems. The number of inhabitants amount to five hundred thouſand; that of the cities and towns to ſixty-eight thouſand; and that of the boroughs, market-towns, and villages, to about twelve hundred. On important occaſions, diets are called and held at Stutgard, conſiſting of the Lutheran prelates and abbots, and the repreſentatives of the towns. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm; and the dukes, who are now Roman catholics, have engaged not to attempt any innovations in point of religion, but to ſuffer every thing to remain on a former footing. Before the Reformation, there were about a dozen very rich convents in this country, whoſe revenues are now chiefly applied to the maintenance of churches, ſchools, and the clergy. Beſides Lutherans, here are ſome Calviniſts, Waldenſes, and Jews. The Waldenſes are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion, but the others only in private. The principal manufactures of the country are porcelain, earthen ware, linens, woollens, printed cottons, hats, ſtockings, ſilks, glaſs, paper, &c.

The dignity of duke of Wurtemberg was firſt conferred upon Eberhard I. in the year 1495, by the emperor Maximilian; and the right of primogeniture was eſtabliſhed in the family in the year 1473; the princes had formerly only the title of counts. There is a branch of this houſe ſettled in Sileſia, which, from the duchy of Oels, has the title of duke of Wurtemberg Oels. The duke's title at preſent is, "Duke of Wurtemberg and Teck, count of Mompelgard, lord of Heydenheim and Juſtingen." He is hereditary ſtandard-bearer of the empire, and grand huntſman; in alluſion to the laſt of which, the order of hunting was founded here in 1702. The enſign of that order is a gold croſs, enamelled red, appended to a broad-watered ſcarlet ribbon, paſſing from the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. On the left breaſt of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered. Their grand feſtival is on St. Hubert's day. As a prince of the empire, the duke has a ſeat and voice in the empire and imperial chamber, and is ſummoning prince and director of this circle. Cauſes are determined here in the laſt reſort, no appeal lying from the court-judicature to the aulic council, or any foreign tribunal. The revenues of the duchy are ſaid to amount to two millions of guilders per annum; and the troops, in time of peace, to four thouſand men, including the contingent of the circle, which is one thouſand eight hundred.

The duke has a great number of hunting-ſeats. So numerous are the deer and wild boars, that Mr. Keyſler ſays, above twenty thouſand head periſhed in the winters of 1731 and 1732, by the ſeverity of the weather; and no wonder that they multiply faſt, as no perſon, on pain of death, dare offer to kill or wound them, unleſs at the duke's hunting-matches; ſo that the poor peaſants, near the foreſts, are obliged, in ſummer, to keep a conſtant look out, and be continually watching their flocks and corn fields.

The town of Stutgard, the capital of the duchy, is thirty-eight miles eaſt of Baden. Some derive the name from its being antiently a ſtud for breeding horſes; and the arms of the city are a colt. It ſtands in a fruitful plain, has ſeveral fine gardens and vineyards all about it, and encompaſſed with very high hills and vallies. It has three ſuburbs, five gates, three churches, and is divided into two parts by the Neckar, over which it has a bridge. It is a pretty large city, but moſt of the houſes are low, and ill-built of wood; and the ſtreets broad and lightſome, but dirty; yet the town is very gay, it being much frequented, becauſe of its natural hot baths, which are for many diſeaſes. The duke's caſtle, or palace, is a noble, old, free-ſtone fabric, well fortified, compoſed of four piles of buildings, flanked at each angle by a tower, and adorned with elegant groves and gardens, an orangery which is ſcarce to be paralleled, curious labyrinths, grottoes, and water-works, and as ſtately a pleaſure-houſe as any in the empire: but the walls of the caſtle are waſhed by ditches, which give it the air of a priſon. There are, however, ſeveral grand rooms in it, one particularly, where the duke's gentlemen dine, and where tables are ſometimes ſpread for two or three hundred foreigners, &c. There is a bridge over its moat to the duke's gardens, and near it an aviary, with all manner of birds: in the moat there is not only plenty of fiſh, but ſwans, and other water fowl; and in that part of it which is dry, facing the gardens, harbour ſeveral deer. Near the

gardens there is a theatre well lighted, and beyond that a large court, covered with ſand, for tilting on horſeback, and running off the ring. Before the entrance to the caſtle there is a grand building alſo, which is the duke's chancery, or ſecretary's office. The duke has a tolerable collection of antiques, buſts, and bas-relievos; but the piece that moſt deſerves attention is the Jupiter Dolichenus, brought hither from Marſeilles by the celebrated antiquary Patin; it being a repreſentation of that deity in armor, ſtanding on the crupper of an ox, juſt in the ſame attitude as he is copied from the original in the antiquities of Montfaucon. Here are abundance of urns, lamps, little vaſes, and antient coins, both of ſilver and gold, with ſhells, petrifactions, foſſils, the caprices of nature, both in wood and ſtone; exotic plants, monſtrous productions, the exuviæ of animals, &c. beſides the dreſſes and weapons uſed in the moſt remote countries. The hall is deſcribed as one of the moſt ſpacious rooms to be ſeen in any palace: it is finely adorned, in freſco, with repreſentations of various huntings, in each of which pieces the duke of Wurtemburg may be diſtinguiſhed, with the princes and princeſſes of his family, in whoſe time they were performed. There is an arſenal, in which appears a ſucceſſion of the dukes of Wurtemberg on barbed horſes, richly armed, and accoutred after the faſhion of the age in which they lived, as large as the life, and the name and qualities of every one ſet forth on the oppoſite wall, which is graced alſo with ſtandards, and other trophies, gained by the dukes in their ſeveral actions; particularly the ſkin of a favourite horſe, killed under that duke, who commanded under prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, at the battle of Hochſtet: and on the ceiling of this arſenal are ſome noble repreſentations of battles, wherein ſome of the antient dukes of Wurtemberg, during the reigns of the Saxon and Swabian emperors, loſt their lives in the ſervice of their country.

About three miles from Stutgard is the city of Ludwigſbourg, which is the ſeat of a palace built by the duke of Eberhard-Lewis, at the perſuaſion of his miſtreſs, in a place remote from any river, great roads, or foreſts. It is ſo contrived, that it looks more like an orangery than the palace of a ſovereign, the apartments being too ſmall and inconvenient, as well as irregular; yet no coſt has been ſpared to adorn them with carving, gilding, and painting, though with more profuſion than judgment. The furniture alſo is rich, but as abſurd as the fabric. The beſt thing in the whole palace is the chapel, which would, by the beſt judges, be reckoned a fine noble ſtructure. The town is as irregular as the palace, and in no reſpect very agreeable; for the ſituation of it is upon uneven ground, and moſt of the houſes are of timber, and ſlightly built, they having been run up, ſeemingly with an ill-will, either out of neceſſity, or to pleaſe the then duke, who, by this change of his reſidence, almoſt ruined Stutgard. In the gardens there are ſeveral terraces, which, riſing one above another, entirely bound the proſpect of the palace, which is encompaſſed by buttreſſes that alſo cramp the apartments.

The town of Tubingen, which is the ſecond of the duchy, lies on the Neckar, and has a caſtle near it on a hill. Here is held the high court, in which all cauſes are determined in this laſt reſort. At this place alſo is an univerſity, with a noble college, the ſtudents of which muſt be all princes or counts: here are alſo a Latin ſchool and a woollen manufacture. There is a medicinal bath in the neighbourhood.

3. On the Neckar is ſituated Cranſtadt, which has in its neighbourhood, an excellent mineral, and ſeveral ſalt ſprings. Near it alſo, in a hill, are found great quantities of bones, both of great and ſmall animals. There is a cotton printing-houſe in the town; and, in a village hard by, a ſilk manufactory. Not far from hence is the antient family ſeat of Wurtemberg, which gave name to the duchy; the antient counts held their courts in the open air in its neighbourhood.

4. The little town of Urach, on the Alb, near the river Erms, contains a ducal ſeat, with a linen manufactory, and formerly gave name to a county. In the neighbourhood are mills for lead, iron, and paper; and in the diſtrict to which it gaves name, are ſome fine ſtuds of horſes, a beautiful white earth, and the Holzrutſche, which is a large iron pipe, into which the wood felled on the Alb being put, is conveyed, in an inſtant, from the top of a mountain, into the river Erms, and by that brought into the Neckar, which brings it to Berg, near Stutgard. By this means there are yearly conveyed to that town upwards of nine thouſand cords of wood.

New Ravenſburg, which is a lordſhip on the Argen, belongs to the abbey of St. Gall, in Swiſſerland, though it pays taxes to the circle. The Benedictine abbey of Ottobeuren is the richeſt in all Swabia. The Roman catholic imperial towns of Offenburg, on the river Kenzing; of Gengenbach, on the ſame river; and of Zell-Am-Hammerſbach, about four miles from the latter, are in league with each other mutually, to ſupport the privileges they enjoy in common.

We ſhall here give an account of thoſe Imperial towns which pay taxes to the empire; though the religion of the inhabitants is different; which are as follow: 1. Buchau, ſituated on the Federſee, and is of a mixed religion. 2. Bopfingen, on the Eger, Lutherans. 3. Aalen, on the Rocher, Calviniſts. 4. Buchhorn, on the lake Conſtance, Lutherans. 5. P. Fuffendorff, on the Hegau river, Roman catholics. 6. Grengen, on the Bronz, Lutherans. 7. Wimpferm, on the Neckar, mixed. 8. Leutkirch, on the Eſchach, mixed. 9. Iſni, Lutherans. 10. Wangen, on the Argen, Roman catholics. 11. Wiel, on the Wwun, mixed. 12. Kauffbeuren, on the Wertach, mixed. 13. Ravenſberg, on the Schuſs, mixed. 14. Bibenach, mixed. 15. Dinkelſbuhl, on the Wernitz, mixed. 16. Lindau, on the lake Conſtance, Lutherans. 17. Heibron, on the river Neckar, Calviniſts. 18. Heberlingen, on the lake Conſtance, Roman catholics. 19. Noidlingen, on the Eger, Lutherans. 20. Reutlingen, on the Neckar, mixed. 21. Eſslingen, on the Neckar, mixed.

Mimmingen, an imperial town, ſtands on the Aach, a ſmall river between the Iler and the Danube, twenty miles north of Kempten. The magiſtracy is Lutheran; but the inhabitants are partly Lutherans, and partly Roman catholics. Here are ſeveral religious houſes. This was an imperial city ſo early as the days of Frederick I. and now enjoys great privileges; in particular, an exemption from the juriſdiction of the tribunal of Rothweil. A good trade is alſo carried on by it with Swiſſerland, Italy, and other countries adjacent, in hops, Bavarian ſalt, grain, cotton ſtuffs and paper. Storks are ſaid to be common here, on the tops of houſes, as in Holland. In its diſtrict, which is conſiderable, are manufactories of braſs, pewter, wire, and porcelain, together with a warm bath, a chalybeate ſpring, and a free hunting-ground, in which the ſeveral neighbouring lordſhips enjoy an unlimited privilege of hunting; but the juriſdiction thereof belongs to the town of Mimmingen: the terra ſigillata is found here. The town is pretty well fortified, and almoſt as large as Ulm, but not ſo populous, or well built.

The town of Gemund, twenty-five miles eaſt of Stutgard, and thirty-two north-weſt of Ulm, ſtands on the frontiers of the county of Hohenrechberg, and is the capital of the county of Rechberg. It has its name from the conflux of a great many brooks here into the river Rems; and the neighbourhood is called Remſtahl, or the Valley of Rems. This river falls into the Neckar five miles below Stutgard. The town was of note formerly for tournaments held here by the nobility of Swabia, and was ſubject to its dukes, one of whom cauſed it to be encompaſſed with a wall. Frederick I. made it imperial in 1186, and the emperors Conrade III. and Frederick Barbaroſſa, enlarged and granted it many privileges. It is a Roman catholic town, with five churches, two chapels, and ſeveral convents; and the principal trade of it is in beads, which they ſend abroad. It was formerly governed by perſons of quality, but now the power is in the burghers. M. Villars encamped here in 1707, with the French army, and raiſed contributions far and near.

The town of Halle ſtands among ſteep rocks and mountains, on the river Kocher, in the county of Oetingen, and on the frontiers of Franconia, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Hohenlce, twenty-five from Rottenburg, twenty-eight eaſt from Hailbron, and thirty-three north-eaſt of Stutgard. It depended formerly on the dukes of Wurtemberg, but was made imperial by Charles IV. in 1360. This town, which is placed by the matricula in the circle of Franconia, has plenty of freſh water, but owes its riſe to its ſprings of ſalt, which, though not ſo white or piquant as other ſalt, is carried to Nuremberg. There is a bridge here over the river to its ſuburb. Though its antient records were loſt in a fire that happened here in 1376, yet enough were left to ſhew that its building was chiefly owing to ſome gentlemen who came to ſettle here, and erected ſeven towers, whereof ſome part is ſtill to be ſeen; particularly, one near St. Michael's church, ſince turned into a nunnery; and that the town was from hence called Sieben Burgen, i. e. Seven Forts. The magiſtracy conſiſts now of twenty-four council, and two burgomaſters; but

tho

the emperor has a preteur here, who has almoſt the whole power, and preſides in all their meetings. They are all proteſtants, as are, for the moſt part, the inhabitants. This town, being ſituated on the frontiers of ſeveral counties, is often named in hiſtory, becauſe its territory has been the theatre where the nobility uſed to decide their quarrels by duels.

Rotweil is a ſmall imperial city on the ſame river, ten miles from the head of it, as many north-eaſt from Villengen, fourteen eaſt of Briſack, nineteen ſouth-weſt from Hohenzollern, fifteen north from Furſtemburg, and twenty ſouth from Tubingen. It is the ſeat of a chamber, or court of juſtice, for the whole duchy, firſt erected anno 1147, by Conrade III. duke of Swabia, who made it a free city. It was taken by the French in 1643, when they were in alliance with the proteſtants of the empire, but reſtored at the treaty of Munſter. It was again ſeized by the French under M. Villars, in 1703, after he had paſſed the Black Foreſt, at the end of which it ſtands; but they were ſoon obliged to quit it. It is in the territory of Hegow, and the head of a county called Hohenberg, under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria: but it is in league with the Switzers, it being but five miles from Schaffhauſen, and not far from the Danube. It is fortified after the antient manner, and encompaſſed with broad deep ditches. In 1338, this town was almoſt burnt down by lightning. The neighbouring ſoil being very fruitful in wheat, the people apply much to agriculture.

The lordſhips of Eglingen, Eglof, Inſtringen, Fugger, Mindelheim; the counties of Hohen-Geroldſec, Bondorf, Hoheneimbs, Eberſtein, and Schwabeck; together with the territories of the counts of Konigſegg; the counties and lordſhips of the noble family of the Truchefs; the lordſhip of Tetnaug; the commanderies belonging to the Teutonic order; the abbeys of Peterhauſen, Marchthal, Zwifalten, Gengenbach, Heggbach, Rothminſter, Gutenzell, and Baindt, all give voices and ſeats in the diets of the empire and circle to their reſpective proprietors.

The imperial city of Ulm, which is ſuppoſed to derive its name from the grove of elms near it, is ſituated ſeventeen miles weſt of Burgaw, and eighty ſouth of Wurtzburg: it ſtands on the weſt ſide of the Danube, which here begins to be navigable, after having received the united ſtreams of the Lauter and Blaw, oppoſite to the mouth of the Iler, and forms ſeveral little iſlands before the town. This city is governed by forty-one echevins, or aldermen, moſt of which are of the nobleſſe, and the reſt tradeſmen; and they chuſe two bailiffs annually out of the former, who preſide in their council: here are four burgomaſters, who enter on their offices every year alternately: ſeven of the oldeſt members conſtitute the ſecret council, and execute the laws. All the magiſtrates, as well as moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans, the proteſtant having been the prevailing religion here ever ſince 1531. The Roman catholics have but two churches, and are excluded from the public offices, as well as their privy-council.

This is a great and very populous city, with regular fortifications, and wide deep ditches, filled by the waters of the Danube and the Blaw; but it is ſo ſituated, that it would not be able to ſuſtain a long ſiege: it has a bridge of ſtone of four arches over the Danube, the entrance of which is defended by fortifications, and there is a little ſuburb of pleaſure-houſes, and large gardens. There are in the city two ſquares, in the biggeſt of which is the town-houſe, a ſtately building, where the ſenate meets. At the end of the town there is an arſenal, from which the French carried off all the arms, &c. that were of any value, before the battle of Hochſtet. The Blaw turns mills for ſeveral occupations, here being a great number of hands employed in the manufactures of ſtuffs, linen, cotton, and fuſtians; in dreſſing leather; and in the iron and other manufactures, as well as clock-work, by which this is become one of the richeſt cities in Germany. In 1702 it was baſely ſurpriſed by the elector of Bavaria for the French, who kept it till after the battle of Hochſtet, when it ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts. It was a very neceſſary place for him to ſecure his dominions on that ſide, and to facilitate the paſſage of the French to join his army.

Here is a noble ſtructure, called the Cathedral of our Lady, which now belongs to the Lutherans: it is three hundred and ſixty-five feet in length, and is reckoned the higheſt, longeſt, and beſt built in the country; and, by ſome, the fineſt in the empire. This church has five ſtately ſpires, one of them one hundred and two feet high, and ſupported by thirty-ſix large pillars: it has a large ſquare tower, with a watch always at the top of it, to give notice to the city of any approaching danger from the country. The organ, which was completed in 1599, after a labour of thirty-ſix years, is ninety-three feet high, twenty-eight broad, has ſixteen pair of bellows, with one hundred and twenty-five pounds of lead on each, and above three thouſand pipes of pure Engliſh tin, the largeſt above forty inches round, and thirteen in diameter; yet Dr. Nicholſon thought it inferior to ours at Exeter. The tabernacle, which formerly contained the holy ſacrament, is ſaid to have coſt one hundred thouſand florins to its donor, whoſe ſtatue is repreſented kneeling againſt a pillar on the ſide of it: it is a very fine, though gothic piece of work, of a very ſingular kind of marble, and ornamented with abundance of ſtatues. They keep to this day the picture of the laſt ſupper, which was put up above the great altar before the reformation. The benches in the choir are loaded with hiſtorical paſſages of the bible in ſculpture. Beſides this the Lutherans have two other churches.

This place may boaſt of giving birth to Freinſheim, ſo much reſpected for his great learning by the whole world, and particularly by Chriſtina, queen of Sweden, that ſhe made him her librarian and hiſtoriographer. Its territory is near as large as that of Nuremberg, being ſix German leagues in length, and four in breadth; it is almoſt environed with the duchy of Wurtemberg, except on the ſouth and eaſt ſides, where it is bounded by the Danube, and is divided into forty bailiwics and lordſhips, of which that of Geiſſlengen comprehends the greateſt part of the county of Helfenſtein, which, with other counties and towns, were purchaſed by this city ſoon after it was made imperial. The garriſon lives here in little houſes ſet apart for it: in time of war it is maintained by the empire; and this city furniſhes a quota equal to that of Augſburg. There was a great Franciſcan monaſtery here, the revenues of which were appropriated, at the reformation, to a college, where they have profeſſors in all arts and ſciences.

A judicious French writer obſerves, that Ulm is ſituated in one of the moſt fertile plains in Swabia, but that it is ſcarce half as big as Augſburg, though more populous; and that it has been almoſt ruined by the frequent wars in this country, the French and Bavarians having, at the time above-mentioned, made them pay twenty-thouſand German florins entrance-money, beſides the ſums they ſqueezed out of them while they ſtaid. The houſes are, for moſt part, of timber and plaiſter, and have but an indifferent appearance. Their ſtreets are neither handſome, nor wide, and the ſquares mean and very irregular: it is reckoned near ſix miles and an half in circumference: its ditches, which are well fortified, are almoſt every where double; and on one ſide of the town the Danube runs through them with great rapidity: the other is kept full of freſh water by ſluices. A market-boat goes weekly from hence to Vienna, which likewiſe takes in paſſengers at the rate of a penny for four miles. This city was once ſo rich, that it paſſed for one of the wealthieſt in the empire; and the Germans had a proverb, that the ready caſh of Ulm, the neatneſs of Augſburg, the induſtry of Nuremberg, and the arſenal of Straſburg, where the four wonders of Germany. The archives of all the free cities of the circles of Swabia, are kept at Ulm, where their meetings are alſo held by turns with the city of Spires. Though all the county from hence to Augſburg is even, yet it is tireſome to travellers, becauſe of the payment of the cauſeways. M. Pollnitz ſays, few of the gentry live here, except the patricians, who are not more ſociable than thoſe of Nuremberg; and that the burghers, and the women in particular, go dreſſed like thoſe at Augſburg; ſo that to ſee them go to, or come from church, he thought was next kin to ſeeing a maſquerade.

The principality of Lichenſtein and princely landgravate of Kletgau, together with the imperial abbies of Schuſſenreid, Weiſſenau, Roth, Raggerburg, Kayſerſheim, Urſperg. Yrſee, Elchingen, Ochſenhauſen, and Salmanſweil, intitle their abbots or proprietors to voices and ſeats in the diets of the empire and circle.

The fine country of Baaden, or Baden, is ſituated along the eaſtern banks of the Rhine. It is divided between two princes of the ſame family, who receive titles from their reſpective capitals, the one being ſtiled the margrave of Baaden-Baſden, and the other of Baaden-Dourlach. The ſhare of the former, as lying ſouth of the other, is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Upper, and that of the latter by the name of the Lower Margravate, or Marquiſate. The right of primogenitorſhip hath been long introduced into both theſe branches.

The whole country is ſaid to be near ſixty miles long, and twenty broad, and lies between the duchy of Wurtemberg and Briſgau. It is fruitful in corn, wine, hemp, flax,

flax, and wood, abounding in particular with chefnut trees. There are alſo many quarries of marble and free-ſtone in it, large herds of ſwine, plenty of fiſh, fowl, and veniſon; and the baths and mineral ſprings are ſo common, that the chief towns of both marquiſates have their names from them. Both princes exerciſe an abſolute authority in their dominions, excepting ſo far as it is limited by the laws of the empire, and lay taxes on their ſubjects without aſſembling any ſtates.

The Upper Margravate, or that of Baaden-Baſden, is bounded by the Rhine, the Lower Margravate, the duchy of Wurtemberg, the county of Eberſtein, a conſiderable part of the county of Sponheim, two manors in the lordſhip of Graffenſtein, and one in the duchy of Luxemberg, with ſeveral baronies in Bohemia. He has a vote in the college of princes, and in the diets of the empire and circle. His annual revenue is ſaid to amount to four hundred thouſand florins. The margrave and his ſubjects are Roman catholics.

The principal places in the country are the following: 1. Raſtadt, where the princes reſide in a magnificent caſtle, in which were ſettled the preliminaries of the peace concluded at Baden betwixt the emperor and France, in 1714. The town, which is not large, and belonged formerly to the counts of Eberſtein, ſtands in a fine plain on the river Murg, which a little below falls into the Rhine. 2. Baaden, which is pleaſantly ſituated among vineyards, and contains a palace of the margrave's. 3. Steinbach, which gives name to a diſtrict. 4. Stolhoffen, five miles ſouth-weſt of Baaden; near the town is a Benedictine abbey. 5. Beinheim, in Lower Alſace, belongs, with the diſtrict, to the margrave. 6. Kehl, a village, which partly belongs to the margrave, gives name to a diſtrict.

Baden Dourlach, or Deurlach, which is the lower marquiſate of Baden, ſo called with regard to the courſe of the Rhine, is contiguous to the marquiſate of Baden, on the north-eaſt; has the duchy of Wurtemburg, on the eaſt; the Rhine, which ſeparates it from Alſace, on the weſt; and part of the Lower Palatinate, and the biſhopric of Spire, on the north: the places of note here are, Durlach, in Latin, Dorlachum, its capital, a pretty large town, two leagues eaſt from the Rhine, twenty-one miles north-eaſt from Baden, eight miles ſouth-eaſt from Philipſburg, and twenty ſouth from Heidelburg. The French write it without an h, and the Germans leave out the o. It lies on the banks of the Pfintz, or Phints, at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a ſtrong tower, with a conſtant guard. The marquis has a magnificent palace here, far exceeding that of Baden, and fit for the greateſt monarch in Europe, with a good library, and a fine collection of antient coins and medals. The ſtreets are ſtrait and fair, and the houſes ſtately and uniform: here is alſo a gymnaſium, with profeſſors of the ſeveral faculties. The town and palace ſuffered much, in the late wars, by the French, who in 1689 burnt them; ſo that the Proteſtant cantons thought fit to aſſiſt its prince, who was a Lutheran, with contributions for repairing the Proteſtant churches, which the French ruined in this country: and he himſelf gave large immunities to ſuch foreign Proteſtants as would ſettle in his capital.

The city of Carlſruhe, with a caſtle or palace, were both built by the late marquis Charles William, who gave it the name, ſignifying Charles's reſt; and, indeed, here he was quite retired and tranquil, bating the entertainments of operas, muſic, parties of hunting, &c. According to the deſcription of it by the baron de Polnitz, nothing is ſo pretty as the diſpoſition of the whole: "imagine the margrave's houſe, ſays he, to be at the entrance of a great foreſt, in the centre of a ſtar, formed by thirty-two walks, the chief of which, behind the palace, is three German leagues in length: two large wings advance from the main body of the houſe, which, deviating from each other in proportion as they lengthen, the whole together looks like a theatre. Behind the principal building there is a very high octagon tower, which commands all the walks: beyond the court, between the two wings, are the gardens and parterres, at the end of which there is a ſemicircle of houſes of an equal height, built archwiſe, between which there run five ſtreets, the middlemoſt whereof fronts the palace: at the end of the three chief ſtreets oppoſite to the palace are three churches, one belonging to the Lutherans, another to the Calviniſts, and a third to the Roman catholics; to which three prevailing religions of the empire the late margrave gave equal liberty of conſcience, when he founded the new town.

"The chief part of the town (adds the baron) lies behind the houſes that front the palace: this, properly ſpeaking, conſiſts but of one ſtreet, which is of a prodigious length: all theſe houſes, as well as the margrave's, are of timber: yet the contrivance and diſtribution of the whole, taken together, is really wonderful.

"The Pheaſant-walk, which joins to the caſtle, is the prettieſt thing in the world: it is a very large incloſure, diſpoſed in various walks, planted with fir trees, cut in ſhape of a fan: there is a great baſon in the centre, always full of wild ducks, which is encompaſſed with four pavillions, made in the form of Turkiſh tents: two of them are aviaries, and the other two ſummer-houſes, with ſofas and couches in them, after the manner of the eaſtern countries: here, M. Polnitz ſays, the late margrave uſed to divert himſelf, by playing in concerts with ſome young ladies, whom he taught muſic. He had no leſs than ſixty waiting women to attend him, though but eight waited upon one day; and theſe, when he went abroad, attended him on horſeback, dreſſed like huſſars. The generality of theſe damſels, who had all lodgings in the palace, underſtood both muſic and dancing; and not only performed operas at the theatre of the palace, but were muſicians of the chapel."

The prince of Hohenzollern's territories are thirty-four miles long, ten broad, and are tolerably fertile, being watered by the Danube, Eyach, Starzell, &c. The prince is hereditary chamberlain of the holy Roman empire. There is not any remarkable town in this place.

The prince of Theugen, the abbeſs of Lindau, and the abbeſs of Buchau, have ſeats and voices in the diets of the empire and circle.

Eaſtward of the duchy of Wurtemberg lies the county of Oettingen: it is in the north corner of the circle, and extends about eighteen miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The lords of this country are divided into three lines, viz. that of Oettingen-Spielberg, who are princes of the empire, but have no ſeat or vote in the college of princes thereof; and thoſe of Oettingen-Wallerſtein, and Oettingen-Karzenſtein-Baldern. In the diets of the empire, they belong to the college of Swabian counts; but in that of the circle, the princely line has a ſeat and vote on the bench of lay-princes, and the others on the bench of counts and barons. The ſubjects of theſe princes are partly Roman catholic, and partly Lutheran, but the princes themſelves are all Roman catholics. The only place in the country worth mentioning is Oettingen, a town on the Wernitz, whence the county takes its name, and where the prince of Oettingen-Spielberg reſides. Here is alſo a commandery of the Teutonic order, a large college, and a ſociety for the improvement of arts and ſciences. The bailiwic, to which the town gives name, with four others, belong to the ſame prince. The principal river in this country is the Wernitz.

SECT. X.

Treating of the Perſons, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the GERMANS; their Skill in the polite Arts, Manufactures, Commerce, &c.

THE people inhabiting this extenſive continent, are for the moſt part of a good ſtature and ſhape, with fair complexions, and agreeable features; but there is a remarkable difference amongſt them with reſpect to their character, temper, and manner of life; which is an evident proof of their conſiſting of ſeveral diſtinct nations. They are, however, in general, very remarkable for their honeſty and fairneſs in their dealings. Both the ancient and the preſent Germans have been long diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality. Julius Cæſar obſerves, that in his time their houſes were open to all men, who were welcome to ſuch entertainment as they found provided. That they eſteemed it a piece of injuſtice to affront a traveller, and thought it a neceſſary act of religion to protect thoſe who came under their roof. The preſent Germans have not degenerated from their anceſtors, and a ſtranger is ſure to be every where well entertained. The courage and bravery both of the ancient and preſent Germans was never diſputed. The Germans have alſo the honour of having almoſt all the kingdoms in Europe owe to German blood their crowned heads, particularly Great-Britain and Ireland, Denmark and Norway, Sweden, Poland, Ruſſia, Hungary, Pruſſia, and Bohemia.

In learning, the Germans are not inferior to any other nations; for not only their natural fondneſs for imitation, but the variety of governments, their mutual emulation, and the freedom Proteſtants enjoy of living and writing according

according to their own judgment, have procured the greateſt improvement in the ſciences. The pleaſure they take in reading is ſo great and general, eſpecially among the Proteſtants, that it is thought unbecoming, even in the female ſex, and perſons of any rank, not to be converſant in books; nor is there any place in the world where more books are written and printed, among which they have a great number of excellent works; and the genius and abilities of the German authors are at this time very juſtly admired.

With reſpect to their vices, we muſt obſerve, that though they have been cenſured for their drunkenneſs, yet they do not ſeem to be more guilty of this than their northern neighbours, or indeed than the Engliſh.

They commonly drink beer and wine, but they have the latter upon much eaſier terms than the Engliſh: they have thoſe of Hungary, France, and Italy, which lie contiguous to them, where the beſt wines are produced: beſides Moſelle, Rheniſh, and other wines of their own growth.

The uſual diet of the Germans is beef, mutton, fowls, &c. which are generally more boiled and roaſted than in England. They have alſo one diſh, which was eſteemed a delicious one by the antient Romans, as it is by them, and this is ſnails, which are dreſſed in various manners, and eaten at the tables of the quality as a great rarity. There is ſcarce a nobleman's garden that has not a place ſet apart for breeding and fattening them; and being fed for eating, they grow to an extraordinary ſize.

They not only ſleep on a feather-bed, as we do, but, inſtead of blankets, have a light feather-bed covering too, which is placed upon the upper ſheet, and is covered with a counterpane. Inſtead of the cheerful fire-ſide, which enlivens our winter evenings, they heat their rooms with ſtoves.

The gentry, in winter, take great pleaſure in riding through the ſtreets on the ſnow, on ſledges drawn by horſes richly accoutred, and adorned with bells and feathers; and, among the diverſions practiſed by the great, is hunting wild boars, bears, wolves, tigers, and other ferocious animals.

The Germans have particularly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their knowledge in the civil law, natural hiſtory, and the various branches of philoſophy. There are in Germany thirty-ſix univerſities, ſeventeen of which belong to the Proteſtants, and the ſame number to the Roman catholics; with two other mixed ones, thoſe of Erfurth and Heidelberg. They have alſo a number of academies for the ſciences, and many colleges and ſchools.

The reputation of excelling in the polite arts was formerly given to the French; but at preſent they are nearly equalled by the Germans, who excel in muſic, and boaſt the works of Teleman, Handel, Gran, Bach, and Haſſe. Some of their poets have excelled moſt of the European nations in the ſublimity of their thoughts, and the mingled ſtrength and ſweetneſs of their language. With reſpect to painting, they claim the firſt place after the Italians, and juſtly boaſt their Peter Paul Rubens, John Calker, and ſeveral others. In the thirteenth century, Barthod Schwartz diſcovered at Cologne how gunpowder might be made ſerviceable in the art of war. The firſt copper-plate engraving appeared in Germany; Albert Durer alſo etched in copper before the Italians; and the art of making mezzotintos was diſcovered by Von Sichem, an Heſſian lieutenant, in 1648, or, as others ſay, by prince Rupert: wooden cuts were alſo the invention of a German; nor can the firſt diſcovery of the art of printing be with juſtice refuſed the Germans.

They at preſent make velvets, beautiful ſilks, rich ſtuffs, and half ſilks, with a variety of woollen ſtuffs, and all manner of cloths, ribbons, lace, very large quantities of linen, fuſtian, embroidered work, fine hats, and tapeſtry; they alſo print cotton in a beautiful manner; make Spaniſh rough and ſmooth leather; and are well ſkilled in the art of dyeing. They work all ſorts of metals for ornaments, veſſels, tools, wire, &c. in the beſt manner; and Augſburg in particular is famous for its performances in ſilver. They are well-ſkilled in the working of braſs and arms. They make glaſs, and beautiful mirrors of all ſizes; fine works in lacquer, and a variety of porcelane, among which the Miſnian is ſaid to be the fineſt in the world. Nuremburg is famous for a variety of ingenious works in wood, ivory, metal, ſtone, glaſs, &c. which they export to foreign parts.

Germany enjoys every advantage for commerce; for, being ſituated in the heart of Europe, it can commodiouſly export the ſuperfluity in its home commodities and manufactures, and receive thoſe of foreign countries; beſides, it not only borders on the German ocean, the Baltic, and the gulf of Venice, but is watered by many navigable rivers.

Hamburg is the moſt important trading town in all Germany, and is chiefly indebted to navigation for its fame, as being the moſt reſorted to by the Engliſh and Dutch, of all the towns in Germany. About the middle of the thirteenth century many trading towns in Germany, as well as in other countries, lying on the German ocean and the Baltic, entered into a mutual league with each other for the promotion of trade and navigation, and were thence called Hanſe-towns. Though their trade fell to decay in the fifteenth century, and the name of the league in that time ceaſed, yet the trading towns of Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, are ſtill called Hanſe-towns, and have a league actually ſubſiſting between them, under the name of which they conclude treaties of commerce with foreign powers.

From Germany they export into the neighbouring and remote countries the following goods, viz. corn, wine, particularly the Rheniſh and Moſelle, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, ſyrup, linen, woollen ſtuffs, yarn, ribbon, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, wool, Nuremberg wares, wood of various ſorts, particularly timber fit for ſhip-building, iron plates and ſtoves, cannon, ball, bombs, granades, tin plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs wire, porcelane, earthen ware, mirrors, glaſſes, hogs briſtles, tartar, ſmalt, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printers ink, types, Brunſwic mum, beer, &c.

As to the German coins, we muſt obſerve, that the emperor, with the electors, the chief part of the princes of the empire, ſeveral prelates, abbeſſes, counts, barons, ſome of the gentry, and the imperial cities, enjoy the privilege of coining money; but with this diſtinction, that ſome are intitled to coin only ſmall money, others to coin alſo a larger ſpecies, and that either of the ſilver alone, or of gold alſo; yet many ſtates of the empire, in order to ſave expences, ſeldom make uſe of this privilege. One or two days are appointed every year in each circle, to be held by the mint-maſters for the examination of the coin, and the emperor has engaged that they ſhall be regularly held in every circle. All the money in the empire ought likewiſe to be coined of the ſame ſtandard, and to be of one weight and intrinſic value: at preſent, by virtue of a reſolution of the diet of 1737, this ſtandard ought to be that of Leipſic; but they have not been able to prevent the debaſement of the coinage, notwithſtanding this and other regulations of the empire concerning it.

They reckon by marks, ſhillings, and pfennings, in the towns of Hamburg and Lubec: one mark, which is one ſhilling and ſix-pence ſterling, makes ſixteen German ſhillings; one German ſhilling, twelve pfennings; but this pfenning is no real coin: forty-eight ſhillings, or three marks, make one rix-dollar.

The whole circle of Weſtphalia, Brunſwic, and many other places in Lower Saxony, reckon by rix-dollars, marien-groſchen; and alſo by gut-groſchen, and pfennings; one rix-dollar makes twenty-four gut-groſchen, thirty-ſix marien-groſchen, or two hundred and eighty-eight pfennings; one marien-groſche contains eight pfennings, which is equal to two mattiers.

Rix-dollars, albuſes, and hellers, are uſed at Cologne on the Rhine; where they alſo reckon in eſſes and pfennings Flemiſh: one rix-dollar current makes one imperial florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, forty-eight Brabant ſtivers, fifty-eight and a half Cleve ſtivers, ſeventy-eight albuſes, and one hundred and ſeventeen ſetmanger. It is obſervable, that the rix-dollar, which at Hamburg, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c. is worth 4s. 6d. goes for no more than 3s. 6d. in moſt parts of Germany.

In all the electoral countries of Saxony, as alſo in Leipſic, Naumburg, Berlin, Magdeburg, and Francfort on the Oder, they reckon by rix-dollars, gut-groſchen, and pfennings; that is, one rix-dollar, which is there an imaginary coin, contains one imperial florin and a half, or twenty-four gut-groſchen, and one gut-groſchen, twelve pfennings. Sixteen gut-groſchen make an imperial florin; eight groſchen, a one-third piece; and four gut-groſchen, a one ſixth-piece.

They reckon by imperial gulders, or florins, kreutzers, and pfennings, at Nuremberg, Augſburg, Vienna, Prague, &c. one imperial florin, or two-third piece makes fifteen batze, twenty imperial groſches, or two hundred and forty pfennings, or ſixty kreutzers.

Rix-dollars, ſilver groſchen, and pfennings, are uſed in

Breſlau, and all Sileſia: one rix-dollar contains thirty imperial or ſilver groſches or bohms, forty-five white groſches, ninety kreutzers, one hundred and twenty groſches, one hundred and eighty dreyers, and three hundred and ſixty pfennings.

SECT. XI.

Containing a ſuccinct Account of the antient and modern Hiſtory of the GERMANS, from the Conqueſt of their Country by the Romans to the Acceſſion of the preſent reigning Monarch.

IN the early ages of the world, the Germans were divided into many petty nations and principalities, ſome governed by kings whoſe power was limited, and others were abſolute; ſome of their princes were elective, and others hereditary; and ſome ariſtocratical and democratical governments were alſo found among them. Many of theſe ſtates and kingdoms frequently united under one head or general, both in their offenſive and defenſive wars. This was the ſtate of the Germans before they were conquered by the Romans. At that time the children went naked, and the men hung the ſkin of ſome wild beaſt upon their ſhoulders, faſtening it with a thong; and perſons of the beſt quality wore only a little woollen mantle or coat without ſleeves. Their uſual bed was the ground, a little ſtraw, or the ſkins of wolves or bears. Their food was bread, fleſh-meat, butter, and fruit, as at preſent, and their drink water, milk, and beer; for, in thoſe early ages they were ſtrangers to the uſe of wine. They were uſually very merry at their entertainments, ſitting in a ſemi-circle, with the maſter of the family in the middle, and the reſt on the right and left, according to their quality; but to theſe feaſts no women were admitted, nor a ſon, till he had attained his twentieth year.

The antient Germans expreſſed an extraordinary regard for morality, and were very ſtrict in divine worſhip, chooſing their prieſts out of the nobility, who were not intirely ignorant of moral philoſophy and phyſics, and were uſually called to councils of ſtate. Women were likewiſe admitted to the prieſtly office, and both the one and the other were treated with the moſt profound reſpect by the laity. The doctrine of tranſmigration then prevailed in Germany; they believed that departed ſouls, when they had left theſe bodies, animated other creatures; and, according as they behaved in this life, were happy or miſerable. Cluverius obſerves, that they worſhipped the ſun with ſuch devotion, that they ſeemed to acknowledge that planet as the Supreme God, and to it dedicated the firſt day of the week. They alſo worſhipped Woden, or Godan, after whom the fourth day of the week was called Wedneſday. It is ſaid that this word, Godan, becoming afterwards contracted into God, the Germans and Engliſh gave that name to the Deity. They alſo worſhipped the god Faranes, the ſame with the Daniſh Thor, the thunderer, from whom our Thurſday has its name. Tuiſco, the ſame with Mars, gave name to Tueſday; and the goddeſs Freia, or Venus, gave name to Friday.

They performed their ſacrifices, like the ancient Britons, in groves, the oak being uſually choſen for an altar; and, inſtead of a temple, they erected an arbour made of the boughs of the oak and beech. The prieſts, as well as the ſacrifice, were always crowned with wreaths of oak, or of ſome other ſacred tree. They ſacrificed not only beaſts, but men; and theſe human ſacrifices were taken from among their ſlaves or malefactors. Their belief that their ſouls ſhould animate other bodies after death, it is ſaid, made them fearleſs of danger, and upon extraordinary occaſions they made no ſcruple of diſpatching themſelves into the other world. They burnt their dead bodies, and having gathered up the bones and aſhes of the funeral pile, buried them together; and at the funerals of the great were tiltings and ſongs, ſung in memory of the heroic actions of the deceaſed perſon.

Such were the manners of the Germans before they were ſubdued by the Romans, who met with ſuch reſiſtance, that they were contented with making the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of their conqueſts; and accordingly built fortreſſes, and planted garriſons on the banks of both thoſe rivers, to prevent the incurſions of what they termed the barbarous nations; but within about a hundred years after Conſtantine the Great, the Franks, Burgundians, Alemans, and other German nations, broke through thoſe boundaries, paſſed the Rhine, and diſpoſſeſſed the Romans of all Gaul, Rhætia, and Noricum, which they ſhared among them; but the Franks, prevailing over the reſt, at length eſtabliſhed their empire over all Modern Germany, France, and Italy, under the conduct of Charlemagne, or Charles the Great.

Antiently the conquered German nations had hereditary dukes of their own, and were governed by their own laws: but Charles put an end to the former, and governed the countries by counts and royal miſſionaries. However, the antient diets were ſtill retained. In the year 800, Charles revived the dignity of the Roman emperor, and conferred it upon himſelf and family: but his ſon Lewis divided the empire among his ſons; upon which great troubles aroſe, which, in 843, were adjuſted by an accommodation; by which Lewis the German obtained all Germany as far as the Rhine, with the three towns of Spires, Worms, and Mentz; and thus Germany became an independent kingdom. In 870, Lewis reduced half of the Lotharingian kingdom under his ſubjection, and nine years afterwards the other was reduced by his ſon, Lewis the younger.

This prince, ſharing his paternal kingdom with both his brothers, Carlman became king of Bavaria; Lewis of Eaſt Franconia; and Charles the Fat of Alemannia; the laſt, ſurviving his brothers, not only inherited their kingdoms, but obtained the imperial dignity, together with all Italy and France; yet governed in ſo weak a manner, that in 887 he was depoſed by the German ſtates, who conſtituted Arnulph, Carlman's natural ſon, king of Germany. This prince beat the Normans, who had made great devaſtations in Germany: and, by the aſſiſtance of the Huns, ſubdued the Bohemians. But afterwards, by the death of his ſon Lewis the Child, his family became extinct. Germany was, at that time, an hereditary kingdom, but the power of its monarchs was limited by the diets. The ſeveral territories belonging to it were governed under the king by counts, among whom the margraves defended the borders againſt the attacks of their enemies.

At this period the German ſtates raiſed a Frankiſh lord, named Conrad, to the throne, he being deſcended from the daughter of Lewis I. Conrad was ſucceeded by his enemy Henry duke of Saxony, whom he recommended to the ſtates, on his death-bed.

In the year 1024, the male race of the Saxon kings and emperors ended; during which time, Germany continued an hereditary kingdom. The ſtates afterwards aſſembling at Trifus in the open fields, on the banks of the Rhine, elected Conrad II. for their king, who being alſo acknowledged by the ſtates of Italy, he likewiſe obtained the imperial dignity. He annexed, by means of his ſon, the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire, rendered Poland ſubject to his dominion; and the Eider was appointed the boundary of the German empire, in conſequence of a treaty with Denmark.

Three popes, who had ſet up againſt each other, were depoſed by Henry III. who appointed a fourth in their ſtead; ſince which time the vacancy of the papal chair has always been intimated to the emperor, who ſends a perſon to Rome, to deſire that a new pope may be elected to that dignity.

However, Henry IV. his ſon, was put under the ban by the pope, whereupon the ſtates depoſed him.

The next ſucceſſor was Henry V. ſon of the former; but he was obliged to renounce all pretenſions to the inveſtiture of biſhoprics, which had been claimed by his anceſtors; and in him the male line of the Frankiſh emperors became extinct.

The pope, hereupon, cauſed Lotharius, duke of Saxony, to be elected; but he was not acknowledged by all Germany for their ſovereign, till after a ten years war. After him, Conrad of Hohenſtawſen ſucceeded to the crown. The emperor Frederic I. effectually exerciſed his ſovereignty over the ſee of Rome, by virtue of his coronation at Arles, reſerving alſo his dominion over that kingdom, and obliging Poland to pay him tribute, and take an oath of allegiance: Henry VI. attempted in vain to render the crown hereditary in his family. Philip, the brother of Henry, ſucceeded him; but, refuſing to acknowledge the pope's ſupremacy, was excommunicated, and Otho, duke of Brunſwic, ſet up againſt him by the pope and the electors. The whole empire was engaged by this diſpute, in a bloody war, till Philip, being treacherouſly aſſaſſinated in his bed, Otho became poſſeſſed of the whole empire; but he had not reigned four years, before he was depoſed by the pope and the electors, who choſe Frederic, king of Sicily, in his room.

This prince, ſtiled Frederic II. whom hiſtorians extol for his learning, wiſdom, and reſolution, was five times excommunicated by three popes; but prevailed ſo far againſt pope Gregory IX. as to depoſe him from the papal chair,

chair. These continual contests between him and the popes gave rise to the two famous factions of the Guelphs and Gibellines, the former adhering to the papal see, and the latter to the emperor. Frederic, having reigned thirty-eight years, died, as some say, by poison, in Italy; after which the empire remained in great confusion for upwards of twenty years, there being no less than six competitors for the crown.

In 1273 Germany began to recover from its distracted state, when count Rodolphus of Hapsburg, was advanced to the imperial dignity, the other electors leaving the choice to the palsgrave Lewis; and from him descended the house of Austria.

At this time, count Adolphus of Nassau, was also, by virtue of a compromise, created emperor by the elector of Mentz; but he so disgusted the electors of the empire, that they made choice of Albert, the son of Rodolphus, for their sovereign, who defeated Adolphus in a pitched battle, and slew him with his own hand. Albert's coronation was confirmed by the pope; but his nephew and three assassins afterwards murdered him.

Henry, count of Lutzelburg, was created emperor on the death of Albert, in 1308: he was famed for his wisdom, temper, and courage; but was poisoned by a Franciscan friar, with the consecrated elements. The emperor no sooner perceived what was done, than he generously advised the villain to make his escape; but he, neglecting to perform it, was taken, and flayed alive for the fact.

After an interregnum of some years, Ludowic, or Lewis of Bavaria, was chosen emperor, by a majority of electors, in 1318; but Frederic, duke of Austria, son of the late emperor, was set up by a contrary faction. Frederic's forces were defeated, and Lewis remained sole emperor. After his death, Charles IV. was unanimously elected emperor, and distinguished himself by drawing up the golden bull, or those regulations for the election of an emperor, which are still observed. Charles lived to see his son Wenzel, or Wenceslaus, elected king of the Romans. This prince, who was the fourth son of Charles, succeeded to the empire, at his father's demise; but after he had reigned twenty-two years, was deposed, for his dissolute and cruel behaviour. Charles was succeeded by three other princes, whose reign were short; and at length, in 1411,

Sigismund was unanimously chosen emperor, who, in 1414, proclaimed a general council to be held at Constance, in which three popes were deposed, and a new one set up. At this council those reformers Jerom of Prague and John Huss, were condemned, and burnt, though this emperor had granted them a passport, and was engaged, in honour and conscience, for their safe return to their country; which so exasperated the Hussites of Bohemia, that they raised a formidable army, and, under the conduct of Zisca, their general, defeated his forces in fourteen battles. Frederic, duke of Austria, son-in-law to the emperor Sigismund, was chosen emperor upon the death of his father-in-law, and reigned fifty-three years. His son Maximilian was chosen king of the Romans during his father's life-time, and afterwards obtained from the pope the imperial crown: the empire was divided into ten circles during his reign.

In 1519, Charles V. surnamed the Great, son of Philip, king of Spain, and grandson to Maximilian, was elected emperor. He caused Luther's doctrine to be condemned; and in his reign the disciples of that reformer obtained the name of Protestants, from their protesting against a decree of the imperial diet in favour of the catholics. He is said to have been victorious in seventy battles: he had the pope and French king prisoners at the same time, and carried his arms into Africa, where he conquered the kingdom of Tunis. He drove the Turks from the siege of Vienna; made war on the protestant princes, and took the elector of Saxony and the prince of Hesse prisoners; but he resigned his empire to his brother Ferdinand, and retired into a convent in Spain, after he had reigned thirty-eight years.

Charles was succeeded by Ferdinand I. who distinguished himself by establishing the aulic council of the empire; he was a peaceful prince, and used to assign a part of the day to hear the complaints of his people. Maximilian II. and his son Rodolphus II. were both successively elected king of the Romans, but the latter could not be prevailed upon to allow a successor to be chosen in his life time. He was succeeded by his brother Matthias, in whose capitulation it was for the first time inserted, that the electors should, for the future, even against the will of his father, be at liberty to elect a king of the Romans.

A war of thirty years continuance broke out in the reign of Ferdinand II. who endeavoured to destroy the protestants. This bloody contest was put an end to by his son Ferdinand III. in the year 1648, by the peace of Westphalia, by which the protestants were secured in their civil and religious liberties and privileges. This emperor conferred on duke Ernest Augustus, of Brunswic Lunenburg, the ninth electoral dignity, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, king of the Romans. This last was followed by his brother Charles VI. who, in 1713, published the ordinance called the Pragmatic Sanction, to secure his hereditary dominions to his family; and died in 1740, without male heirs. In 1742, Charles VII. of Bavaria, was chosen emperor, by the suspension of the vote of Bohemia; but after an unhappy reign, in which he was continually at war, he died in 1745, and was succeeded by Francis I. grand duke of Tuscany, and duke of Lorrain, who had married the queen of Bohemia, the daughter of Charles VI. Joseph II. emperor of Germany, was crowned king of the Romans, April 3, 1764.

The empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia, dying November 29th, 1780, aged sixty-three, the present emperor of Germany became heir to her dominions. In the beginning of the year 1782, this monarch issued an edict for abolishing many of the popish convents, and has thereby also freed the nuns and friars from their vows. By abolishing the religious orders contained in the edict, his imperial majesty has obtained possession of several millions of money, which is to be appropriated for the establishment of an universal foundling hospital and workhouse for the poor. He has also granted a general toleration to the protestants in the empire, though he himself strictly adheres to the Roman catholic religion. In short, by these and many other excellent regulations made by this great prince, he not only displays the liberal sentiments with which his mind is endued, but also renders himself the object of the affections of the people he governs, while the surrounding nations view him with equal veneration and respect.

SECT. XII.

Containing an Account of the Election and Coronation of the Emperor of GERMANY; his Power and the Privileges of the States of the Empire and Diet; also of the Forces, Taxes, Courts of Justice, Laws, and Religion of the GERMANS.

THE empire of Germany is elective, and every new king of the Romans is obliged solemnly to renounce all attempts of rendering it hereditary in his family. The laws of the empire make no limitation with respect to religion, nation, state, or age. This choice is settled by the majority of the electors, and declared by the elector of Mentz, within a month after an account is received of the former emperor's death, by means of envoys and public rescripts to each elector. The ceremony of election is performed at Frankfort on the Maine; where the electors appear, either in person, or send two or three envoys who must be provided with sufficient powers. After settling the deliberations, as well relating to the capitulation of election, as to other matters proposed by the states, foreign envoys, and others, all the foreigners who do not belong to the retinue of the electors, or their envoys, are ordered to leave the town before the day of election; after which all the electors present, with the first envoys of such as are absent, march in their electoral habits in procession on horseback, the three ecclesiastical electors wearing scarlet robes, with caps lined with ermine, and the robes of the secular electors of crimson velvet lined also with ermine, each with his hereditary marshal carrying a sword in a scabbard before him; but this honour is not paid to the deputies of the absent electors.

In this manner they proceed from the council-house to St. Bartholomew's church, where alighting at the gate, they go to their respective seats in the choir, followed by several princes and counts of the empire, the several sword-bearers standing before their respective electors, with their swords drawn and laid on their shoulders. The service begins with veni creator, and the protestant electors withdraw till mass is over; after which they return, and they all solemnly take an oath before the altar, to elect the fittest person to be emperor, and then shut themselves up in the chapel of election, which is a small vaulted gallery, to which there is an entrance from the choir. When they have once more sworn to stand to a plurality of votes, these votes are collected by the elector of Mentz, according to the rank of the electors; and then the elector of Mentz is asked by the elector of Saxony for his vote. Whoever has

above

above half the voices of the college is elected, and an elector may even vote for himself.

When the election is over, the person elected, or his proxy, must immediately swear and subscribe to the capitulation of election, which being done, he receives the congratulations of the electors, and the choice is made public in the church. If the elected king of the Romans be not present in person, he must give a counter-bond that he will maintain the capitulation of election, and, before his coronation, must swear to it in person; and, till this is done, he cannot assume the government, but must leave it to the vicars of the empire. An authentic copy of the capitulation of election, subscribed by the person elected, or his envoy, and confirmed by his seal, is delivered to each of the electors; and, on the other hand, the electoral college causes to be delivered to the person elected an instrument of his election, which, when he is absent, is carried to him by a prince, with a writing of notification. Upon this he appoints a day for his coronation, which ought to be performed at Aix la Chapelle, but at present is always held in the town where the election happens to be.

Some of the jewels of the empire are kept at Aix, and the rest at Nuremburg. Most of them belonged to Charlemagne, and are solemnly delivered up at the place of coronation. Exclusive of several kinds of vestments, there are a crown and sceptre, with two rings, one imperial monde, two broad swords, one small one, a book of the gospels, and other requisites.

The temporal electors, or their ambassadors, attend the person elected from his palace to the church, in the following order; the elector palatine with the crown, the elector of Bavaria with the monde, or globe, and the elector of Brandenburg with the sceptre, march first, abreast; the elector of Saxony carries the sword, and the elector of Hanover the standard. At the door of the church he is received by the three ecclesiastical electors in their robes, who attend him to the altar; and having taken a general oath as a ruler, and also promised due veneration to the pope and the church, the archbishop who officiates, anoints his head, and between his shoulders, his neck, breast, and right arm; then being clothed in the ancient imperial robes, he is brought to another altar, and once more sworn; he is then crowned, and afterwards conducted to the throne, where the archbishop bids him receive and keep the pledge which was designed for him by providence. Te Deum is then sung, and the trumpets and other music proclaim the general joy. After which he dubs some knights, is made a canon of the collegiate church of St. Mary at Aix la Chapelle, and is then conducted on foot, in solemn procession, to the council-house to a table, at which the hereditary officers attend.

The emperors, till the reign of Charles V. suffered themselves to be crowned at Rome by the pope, and then stiled themselves Roman emperors. The emperor, immediately on his entering on the government, shews his veneration to the pope by an embassy. The style of king of Italy and Lombardy, is merely titular, if we except twenty-one fiefs of the empire, that lie in the ecclesiastical state.

The title of the emperor runs thus: "F. by the grace of "God, elected a Roman emperor, and at all times augmen-"ter of the empire of Germany." Next follow the titles of the hereditary imperial dominions. The states of the empire give the emperor the title of the most illustrious, most powerful, and most invincible Roman emperor; but the electors omit the last. The arms of the emperor and empire are a black spread eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings in a field of gold, and over the head of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. To these are annexed the arms of the several hereditary countries.

The emperor's prerogatives consist partly in his being looked upon by all other crowned heads and states in Europe as the first European potentate, and consequently has precedence given him and his ambassadors. With respect to the German empire, he is its supreme head, and as such enjoys many privileges: yet his power in the administration of the German empire is limited both by the capitulation of election, the other laws of the empire, by treaties, and by the customs of the empire. Those privileges which he has the right of exercising without the advice of the states, are called his reservata; but his greatest power does not consist in these, which are far from being repugnant to the liberties of the states of Germany.

With respect to ecclesiastical affairs, his rights consist in little more than confirming ecclesiastical elections, and sending commissaries to the elections of archbishops, bishops, and abbots, that they may be performed in due order; but the commissary is never personally present at these elections.

Respecting temporal affairs, the emperor has the right of bestowing personal dignities; as for instance, the creating of noblemen, as lords, barons, and counts, who enjoy the dignity of princes, and of knights and gentry; as also that of raising countries and territories to a higher rank; of bestowing coats of arms, as also the enlarging, improving, and altering them. He has the power of establishing universities, and enabling them to confer academical degrees; of granting a right of holding fairs and markets, and of erecting any place into a sanctuary. He has likewise the power of bestowing letters of respite, of securing a debtor against his creditor, and of conferring majority on minors. He can put children who are born out of wedlock upon the footing of such as are legitimate; can confirm the contracts and stipulations of the members of the empire; and so far remit the oaths extorted from them, that they may commence an action at law against another, on account of the very thing for which the oath was administered. But the emperor has no right, without the consent of the collective state of the empire, to put one of those states under the ban, to exclude a state of the empire from a seat and voice in its colleges, to interfere in the laws of the empire, to conclude treaties in affairs relating to the empire, to involve it in a war, to raise levies, or to conclude a peace in which the empire is concerned, to appoint taxes in it, to regulate the coinage, to build forts in the empire, or to determine disputes concerning religion.

The electors frequently chuse the successor in the administration, during the life of the emperor; and the person so chosen is stiled King of the Romans. He is elected and crowned in the very same manner as the emperor, and is actually a crowned head, though he has no kingdom; is saluted with the title of majesty, and enjoys the title of perpetual augmenter of the empire, and king of Germany. He takes precedence before all the other kings of Christendom, and bears a spread eagle with one head in his arms.

The emperor has, for his assistants in the court and chancery, the arch-officers, who are also electors, of the empire.

There are nine electors, of which three are spiritual, and the rest temporal. Of the former, is the elector of Mentz, who is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire, and director of the electoral college: this prince, besides the offices he enjoys at the coronation, as already taken notice of, has the general direction, and is not to be controuled by the emperor; he lays before that body the grievances of the separate states. Before him, or his envoys, all those of the states of the empire, as well as of foreign powers, legitimate themselves. He nominates the vice-chancellor of the empire, who must take an oath to him as well as the emperor. He has the inspection of the archives of the empire, appoints all officers for the chancery, and has supreme jurisdiction over them.

The second spiritual elector is that of Treves, who is the arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Gaul and the kingdom of Arles; but this is at present no more than a mere title. He constantly precedes the elector of Cologne, and has the first voice at the election of a king of the Romans.

The third spiritual elector is the archbishop of Cologne, who is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire, in Italy. When the emperor is crowned at Aix la Chapelle, and in the archbishopric of Cologne, he has the right of performing the coronation alone; but if it happens in a third place, that is neither in his archbishopric nor that of Mentz, he exchanges therein with the latter.

The king of Bohemia, the elector of Bavaria, the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburg, the elector Palatine, and the elector of Hanover, are the temporal electors. The former of these is arch cup-bearer of the holy Roman empire, and, as such, presents to the emperor the chalice, filled with wine and water, and hands the first liquor to the table in a silver cup, which weighs twelve marks, or about ninety six ounces English, which afterwards, together with his horse, becomes the property of his vicar. His other prerogatives are, his preceding all other temporal electors, walking in procession immediately after the emperor, followed by the empress and the electors of Mentz and Cologne; and he has the third voice in the electoral college.

The office of arch-sewer of the holy Roman empire is vested in the elector of Bavaria. At the coronation, he carries the monde before the emperor, ranks next to Bohemia, and at the imperial coronation serves up the first course,

courſe, and places four diſhes, weighing twelve marks, on the emperor's table.

The office of arch-marſhal of the holy Roman empire belongs to the elector of Saxony, who at the diets, and on other ſolemn occaſions, carries the ſword of ſtate before the emperor; and at the coronation rides into a heap of oats, and fills a meaſure with them. At the diets, he appoints quarters for the electors, or their envoys, and during the holding of the diets, has juriſdiction over all the electoral and other imperial officers.

The office of arch-chamberlain of the empire is veſted in the elector of Brandenburg, who carries the ſceptre before the emperor, and preſents him with water in a ſilver baſon, to waſh his hands in.

The office of arch-treaſurer belongs to the elector palatine, who can raiſe nobles and gentlemen to the degree of counts: he is protector of the order of St. John throughout all Germany. When the elector of Bavaria was put under the ban of the empire, and the palatine obtained the office of arch-ſewer, the elector of Brunſwic Lunenburg alſo obtained the office of arch-treaſurer. He enjoys the alternate ſucceſſion of the biſhopric of Oſnaburg, with ſome other rites and privileges; and his electoral juriſdiction extends both to the territories of Hanover and Zell.

The emperor Leopold raiſed the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover, on account of the extraordinary ſervices both he and the empire had received from it, to the electoral dignity, ſo early as the year 1692; but it was not till the year 1708 that thoſe electors obtained a ſeat and voice in the electoral college.

The princes of the empire follow next in rank after thoſe above-mentioned: they are partly ſpiritual, and partly temporal; partly old, and partly new, or firſt raiſed to that dignity ſince the reign of Ferdinand II. The ſpiritual princes are either archbiſhops, biſhops, or princely abbots; and to them likewiſe belong the Teutonic maſters, together with the maſterſhip of the order of St. John. Among the temporal princes is an archduke, and the reſt are either dukes, palſgraves, margraves, landgraves, burgraves, princes, or princely counts. In the college, or council of the princes of the empire, are three benches: on what is called the ſpiritual bench, ſit the ſpiritual princes, with the arch-duke of Auſtria, and that of Burgundy, but in ſuch a manner, that Auſtria daily exchanges the firſt place with Saltzburg; the other temporal princes ſit on the temporal bench; and the biſhops of Lubec and Oſnaburg, when the latter happens to be a Lutheran, on the croſs bench.

The emperor ſummons the diet, which conſiſts, beſides himſelf, of all the ſtates, or their envoys or plenipotentiaries: after conſulting with the electors, his imperial majeſty appoints the time and place where it ſhall meet (which muſt be in ſome part of the German dominions), in order to form ſuch reſolutions, and tranſact ſuch buſineſs as concern the whole empire. The emperor either aſſiſts at the diet in perſon, or has a principal commiſſary, who is generally an old imperial aulic counſellor, and a perſon of learning raiſed to the dignity of a baron. The ſummons for their meeting conſiſts of printed patents ſubſcribed by the emperor, and is ſent in the form of a letter to each ſtate of the empire, briefly declaring the occaſion of their aſſembling, and the moſt important matters to be laid before them.

The ſtates compoſing this aſſembly may either appear themſelves, or by their envoys, or charge another ſtate, or its envoys, with their voice. On the ſide of the ſtates, the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, has the general direction, and theſe envoys ſhew their credentials to the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, and to the principal commiſſary of the empire.

The reſpective ſtates, in their conſultations, divide into three colleges, namely, the electoral, the princely, and the college of the imperial cities; each of the two firſt, which are called the higher colleges of the empire, has a principal and by-chamber of its own; but all the three colleges meet to hear the imperial propoſals; and in the hall of correlatives, on exchanging the concluſions of both the higher colleges againſt the imperial cities.

It may not be improper to obſerve here, that the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular princes of the empire, and all prelates who have princely dignities annexed to their functions, with the maſter of the Teutonic order, have each one ſingle voice; but the reſt, who have no temporal principality, give their voices by companies, of which kind are the two benches of the Rhine and Swabia. The repreſentatives, or the deputies of the imperial cities, form the laſt and third rank of members in the diet, and are alſo divided into the Rheniſh and Swabian benches. On the firſt ſit the repreſentatives of Lubec, the free cities upon the Rhine, which amount to fifteen; and on the other the repreſentatives of the thirty-ſeven free cities in Swabia and Franconia. The repreſentatives of the city where the diet is held ſit at a table by themſelves, and take an account of the voices of the other deputies, which are regiſtered by the two regiſters of Ulm and Spire, one of them repreſenting the cities in the circle of Swabia, and the other the cities in the circle of the Rhine.

The reſolutions in each college are formed by a majority of voices; but when affairs relating to religion are diſcuſſed, or when all the catholics are of one opinion, and all the proteſtants of another, it does not turn on a majority of voices. If the three colleges be unanimous, a judgment of the empire is formed for the uſe of the emperor, or his principal commiſſary; but if only two of the colleges are unanimous, their reſolution, with the particular concluſion of the third, is delivered in to the imperial commiſſion. When the emperor approves either of the judgment of the empire, or the concluſion of two colleges, an obligatory concluſion of the empire ariſes out of it, and it is immediately put into execution.

With reſpect to taxes and other impoſts, theſe can no otherwiſe be laid on the empire in general by the emperor, than with the advice, privity, and conſent of the electors, princes, and ſtates, at the general diets. Theſe taxes are partly ordinary, and partly extraordinary: the former, which are ſtyled the chamber-terms, are what each ſtate of the empire is annually to contribute for maintaining the chamber-judicatory of the emperor and empire; and the proportion paid by each ſtate is expreſſed in the matricula of the chamber. But theſe chamber-terms are ſo ill paid, that in 1753 the empire was indebted to the chamber-judicature ſix hundred and fifty-four thouſand and thirteen rix-dollars. Indeed many complaints have been made, that the matricula is imperfect, and the ſtates rated in an unequitable proportion.

The taxes, which are of an extraordinary nature, are ſuch as are frequently granted, in caſe of neceſſity, by the ſtates, for the ſupport of the emperor or the army of the empire; for the maintenance or building of its forts; and for a war, particularly againſt the Turks. Theſe are granted according to what is called in Germany Roman months; a denomination which took its riſe from this circumſtance: in antient times the emperors, in order to receive the papal coronation, took a journey to Rome, and the German ſtates of the empire were bound to eſcort them with a certain number of horſe and foot for ſix months, at their own expence; or to pay twelve florins monthly for a horſeman, and four for a footman; which money obtained the name of Roman months, computed at fifty-eight thouſand two hundred and eighty florins value each. This foot, or ſtandard, was afterwards retained, and the rate of each ſtate, either in men or money, is ſettled in what is termed the matricula of the empire.

The conſent of the electors, princes, and ſtates, muſt be firſt obtained in an open diet, before the emperor can commence a war. But when the empire reſolves upon a was, the generality of the conſtituents, with the field-marſhal at their head, and alſo the directors and the counſellors of the military council, are to be nominated by the emperor and the whole body of the ſtates; and thoſe of an equal number of both religions, who, together with the whole army, are ſubject to the emperor and empire. The war muſt alſo be carried on agreeably to the ordinances of the empire; and the oldeſt field-marſhal, without diſtinction of religion, muſt command the army. But at preſent no directors of the military council are any longer called in, and the emperor and his aulic military council generally carry on the war.

The following calculation has been made of the forces which the ſeveral princes of the empire are able to maintain and pay, viz. the elector of Mentz can maintain ſix thouſand; the elector of Triers, ſix thouſand; the elector of Cologne, ſix thouſand; the biſhops of Munſter and Liege, and the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, eight thouſand each; the biſhop of Wurtzburg, two thouſand; the biſhop of Bamburg, five thouſand; the biſhop of Paderborn, three thouſand; the biſhop of Oſnaburg, two thouſand five hundred; the abbot of Fulda, ſix thouſand; the other biſhoprics of the empire, ſix thouſand; the abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire, eight thouſand; ſo that the total amount of the forces of the eccleſiaſtical princes, is ſeventy-four thouſand five hundred.

The forces of the ſecular princes are as follow: the emperor for Hungary, thirty thouſand; for Bohemia, Sile-

ſia, and Moravia, thirty thouſand; for Auſtria and his other dominions, thirty thouſand; the king of Pruſſia, as elector of Brandenburg, forty thouſand; the elector of Saxony, twenty-five thouſand; the elector palatine, fifteen thouſand; the duke of Wirtemberg, fifteen thouſand; the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, fifteen thouſand; the prince of Baden, ten thouſand; the elector of Hanover, thirty thouſand; the duke of Holſtein, twelve thouſand; the duke of Mecklenburg, fifteen thouſand; the princes of Anhalt, ſix thouſand; the prince of Lawenburg, ſix thouſand; the elector of Bavaria, thirty thouſand; the dukes of Saxony, ten thouſand; the princes of Naſſau, ten thouſand; the other princes and imperial towns, fifty thouſand; the whole amount of which is three hundred and ſeventy-nine thouſand; which added to ſeventy-four thouſand five hundred, the quota of the eccleſiaſtical princes, make the whole of the imperial forces to amount to four hundred and fifty-three thouſand five hundred.

Of the body of men which the empire unanimouſly agree to ſend, and promiſe to ſupply, one half ſeldom actually appear in the field, in time of war.

The chief of the courts of juſtice, is the imperial aulic council, which is held at the imperial court, and ſolely depends on the emperor, who is ſupreme head and judge, to whom in all matters of importance a judgment is exhibited by the imperial aulic council. This judicatory conſiſts of a preſident, the imperial aulic vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a number of imperial aulic counſellors, ſix of whom are always to be Lutherans; beſides theſe are two ſecretaries, and a fiſcal of the empire.

The agents of the imperial aulic council, who give in the writings, urge the reſolutions, &c. alſo belong to this claſs.

With reſpect to the imperial and chamber judicatory of the empire, which is filled by the emperor and ſtates of the empire at the ſame time, but maintained only by the latter, it is at preſent held in the imperial city of Wetzlar. This judicatory conſiſts of a chamber judge, two preſidents of the chamber judicatory, one of whom is a Roman, and the other a Lutheran; as alſo of ſeventeen aſſeſſors, eight of whom are Lutheran, and nine catholic. To this court alſo belong a general and advocate fiſcal, with thirty procurators, and a number of advocates. The chamber judicatory has alſo a chancery of its own, and a treaſury, and has the direction of the chamber-terms of payment. The other judicatories are called peculiar or lower, and to theſe belong the imperial judicatory in Upper and Lower Swabia, held in the three imperial cities of Ravenſburg, Wangen, and Iſny, and in the borough of Altdorf, together with the imperial land judicatory of the burgraviate of Nuremburg, which belongs to the margrave of Brandenburg, and is held at Anſpach, and many others, particularly the imperial aulic judicatory of Rotweil, which ſolely depends on the emperor, and is the principal of the lower judicatories.

In all courts of the empire, the civil law is generally obſerved, and to this are added ſome decrees, to which an equal regard is paid; as firſt, the golden bull, already mentioned, which has only about twenty-four leaves, and was publiſhed by Charles IV. with the approbation of moſt of the princes, counts, barons, and other ſtates of the empire, and contains all the fundamental laws relating to the election of the emperor, and the privileges of the electors: the ſeal annexed to this decree being of gold, it obtained the name of the Golden Bull, or edict, and is eſteemed irrevocable. Another conſiderable part of the municipal laws of the empire is the Capitulatio Cæſarea, which is a collection of forty or fifty articles between the electors and the emperor; who, at his coronation, ſwears to maintain the privileges of the electors, princes, and other ſubjects of the empire; that he will not alienate or diminiſh the revenues of the crown, or bring foreign troops into the empire, without the conſent of the ſtates. The third kind of laws by which the Germans are governed, are, the acts of their general diets. Theſe laws indeed relate chiefly to the great, whoſe privileges they aſcertain and ſecure; but every diſtinct ſtate is governed by its prince or ſovereign, either at his arbitrary pleaſure, or according to a ſet of laws formed by him or his anceſtors.

In treating of the ſtate of religion among the modern Germans, it may be neceſſary to obſerve, that they became acquainted with ſome principles of the Chriſtian religion towards the cloſe of the ſeventh century, by the Iriſh biſhop Kilian, Suidbert, and Ewald, who were Engliſhmen, and Rupretcht of Worms, who ſettled at Saltzburg; and in the eighth century, Winifred of England, preaching among the Thuringians, Heſſians, and Saxons, was ordained biſhop of the Germans beyond the Rhine, by the name of Bonifacius; he was afterwards made archbiſhop of Germany, when, under the ſpecious pretence of propagating the doctrines of Chriſtianity, he exerted himſelf with great zeal in promoting obedience to the church of Rome, and even employed the ſecular power againſt ſuch biſhops and prieſts as refuſed to ſubmit to the Romiſh yoke and ceremonies of worſhip. Charlemagne propagated Chriſtianity among the Saxons by fire and ſword; and the Chriſtian religion was introduced ſome time after among the Bohemians and Moravians.

About the year 1517 the Reformation began in Germany; for the archbiſhop of Mentz being unable to pay the large ſums the pope expected from him, procured leave of his holineſs to ſell his pardons and indulgencies in all the great towns of Germany. Dr. Martin Luther hearing of this, proteſted againſt the proceeding, and openly diſputed at Wittemberg and Leipſic againſt thoſe who aſſerted the power of the pope to grant pardons and indulgencies, notwithſtanding his being threatened with excommunication, and with being condemned as an heretic; but the elector of Saxony approving of his doctrines, he boldly propagated them in other parts of Germany, where the dukes of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, the marquis of Brandenburg, the landgrave of Heſſe, and the inhabitants of moſt of the Imperial cities, became his diſciples, and, in 1529, proteſted againſt the concluſion of the diet at Spire, by which all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council ſhould be obtained, were declared unlawful; and from this proteſt they received the names of Proteſtants; and from their confeſſion of faith, which the following year they ſolemnly delivered to the diet at Augſburg, they obtained the name of Adherers to the Augſburg Confeſſion.

They took no part in the council of Trent; but the year before, that is in 1537, at an aſſembly at Smalkald, they ſet forth the ſubſtance of their doctrine in certain articles, in order to deliver them to the aſſembled biſhops. Afterwards refuſing to recede from the opinions they had profeſſed, the emperor Charles V. endeavoured to reduce them by force; but after a long war, which broke out in the year 1546, he granted them a toleration at Paſſaw in 1553, which was afterwards confirmed to them at Augſburg in 1555, during the receſs of the diet of the empire. By this peace all the adherents to the Augſburg confeſſion were confirmed in their full religious liberty, till a final agreement concerning both religions ſhould be brought about, and in caſe that ſhould not be effected, for ever. To the maintaining of this important law of the empire, the emperors and popiſh powers have frequently bound themſelves by new obligations; and the former in particular have always confirmed it by oath in their capitulation of election; and the doubts that aroſe upon it were removed by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in the year 1648. By virtue of this renewed and confirmed religious peace, no other religion, but that of the Roman, Lutheran, and Reformed, is to be tolerated in the empire: yet there are ſects that adhere to neither of theſe three religions, and yet in ſome places enjoy the free exerciſe of their own.

The determination whether a perſon be a member of this or that church, belongs only to that very church; and each ſovereign, or lord, is bound to allow his own vaſſals and ſubjects who are of another religion, not only the public and private exerciſe of theirs, but every thing belonging to it, churches, ſchools, ſpiritualities, incomes, conſiſtories, &c. in the ſame manner as they ſtood on the firſt of January, 1624: but in a country where there are ſubjects who adhere to one religion, which in that year was neither publicly nor privately obſerved, it lies in the ſovereign's breaſt whether he ſhall ſuffer them in the country or not. If he enters into a ſtipulation with them, and promiſes them a toleration, it muſt be maintained, not only by him, but by his ſucceſſors; for the rights of ſuch ſubjects muſt not be infringed. But if he will grant no toleration; he muſt allow thoſe who at the time of the treaty of Weſtphalia were already ſettled in his country, five years at leaſt; and thoſe who afterward came to ſettle therein, or have made any change in their religion, at leaſt three years. However, theſe regulations have been repeatedly infringed in later times.

Proteſtant ſtates may make what regulations and changes they pleaſe within their own juriſdictions in matters relating to the churches or ſchools. Hence the external forms differ greatly in the Proteſtant countries of the empire. The ſovereign commonly decides all important affairs, ſettles and eſtabliſhes, removes, promotes, caſhiers, or otherwiſe puniſhes ſuch as ſerve either in the church or ſchools: he forms eccleſiaſtical regulations, appoints feaſts

and faſts, and erects colleges, which in his name ſuperintend the other affairs of the church. Conſiſtories are alſo generally appointed by the proteſtant ſtates, which for the moſt part conſiſt of lay and eccleſiaſtical counſellors; but in ſome places more, and in others fewer things fall under their notice. In many places alſo peculiar ſynods and a church council are held. Thoſe that ſerve the church and ſchools are either appointed by the ſovereign of the country, or the conſiſtory, the elders of the church or its members. Theſe alſo appoint inſpectors, provoſts, or ſuperintendents; and over theſe, general ſuperintendents are frequently placed.

The ſame power is poſſeſſed by the Proteſtant ſtates over their catholic ſubjects, as the catholic ſtates exerciſe over their Proteſtant ſubjects. In favour of thoſe who, in the year 1624, enjoyed the public exerciſe of their religion, it is provided, that the catholic biſhops to whoſe diſtrict they belong, ſhall retain the ſame ſpiritual juriſdiction over them as far as in that period: conſequently ſuch as were merely tolerated out of grace or favour, are alſo wholly left in this particular to the ſupreme juriſdiction of the lord of the country; but with this limitation, that he can require nothing of them which is contrary to the principles of their church. On the other hand, no cloiſter ſituated in the territory of any Proteſtant ſuperior, or lord, muſt be converted into any other order, unleſs the former order be wholly extinct; and even in that caſe, the cloiſter is to be ſupplied only with ſuch regulars as had a being as an order, prior to the religious diſſenſions. In ſhort, the Proteſtant body has mutually agreed, that whenever for the future a Lutheran lord of a country ſhall turn to the reformed church, or obtain a country whoſe inhabitants are of that communion, and vice verſa, he ſhall leave his ſubjects the free exerciſe of their religion, their whole form of church and ſchool diſcipline, and all their other privileges. But if a church ſhall of itſelf turn to that of the lord of the country, the public exerciſe of religion ſhall be permitted the people; but at their own expence, and without prejudice to the others. The religion that prevailed in the country at the concluſion of the treaty of Weſtphalia, is to be that of the conſiſtorial counſellor and ſuperintendents of divinity and philoſophy. What further remains to be ſaid on this head, our readers will find in the accounts and deſcriptions already given of the reſpective countries and provinces which compoſe this great empire.

CHAP. X.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

BOHEMIA.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Account of the Kingdom of BOHEMIA, its Boundaries and Diviſions, with a geographical Deſcription of the Country; the various Circles it contains; their Towns and Places; alſo of the Inhabitants of Bohemia Proper, their Perſons, Manners, Language, Religion, &c. the Conſtitution of Bohemia, its Manufactures, Revenues, &c.

THE name of this country is derived from the Bemi, or Bojemi, its antient inhabitants, who were the deſcendants of the Boii, or Gallic nation, that retired into the Hercynian foreſt, (which runs through this country) in order to avoid the perſecutions of the Romans. This kingdom once comprehended Luſatia, till the houſe of Auſtria granted that country to the electorate of Saxony. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by Poland; on the weſt, by the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony; on the north, by Luſatia; and, on the ſouth, by Auſtria. It is about three hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and two hundred and fifty from eaſt to weſt.

This kingdom is divided into two parts; namely, 1. The kingdom of Bohemia Proper. 2. The marquiſate of Moravia. We ſhall deſcribe theſe ſeparately, as each of them has ſomething peculiar to itſelf, either in the produce of the country, or with reſpect to its inhabitants, &c.

Bohemia Proper, is one of the beſt countries in the Auſtrian dominions: and is bounded, on the eaſt, by Moravia and Sileſia; on the weſt, by Bavaria; on the north, by Luſatia; and by Auſtria, on the ſouth. It is almoſt one hundred and ſeventy miles in length, from eaſt to weſt; and one hundred and forty in breadth, from north to ſouth. It is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains and woods, in the former of which are mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, and nitre. Here are likewiſe abundance of carbuncles, emeralds, amethyſts, jaſpers, ſapphire, cryſtals, and other precious ſtones, moſt of which are purchaſed by the Jews, who export them into foreign countries.

Though the large thick woods, with which Bohemia abounds, are ſuppoſed to render the climate very unwholſome; yet the ſoil is, in general, tolerably fertile, being well-watered with rivers, particularly the Elbe, the Moldau, the Egra, Oder, Viſtula, Teyn, and Igla. Corn and millet are produced here in great plenty; as alſo abundance of hops, ſaffron, ginger, red wines, flax, wood, and timber. They have excellent paſturage, and, beſides cattle and ſheep, breed great numbers of fine horſes, which are chiefly purchaſed for the uſe of the French. In the woods are ſeveral ſorts of wild beaſts, the moſt remarkable of which are bears, lynxes, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers, and otters; with various kinds of game.

The rivers afford ſeveral kinds of excellent fiſh; and, in ſome of them is found gold duſt. Here were formerly great numbers of ſalt pits; but the working of them not anſwering the expence, they have been ſome time neglected, and the country is ſupplied with ſalt from Miſnia and other other places. Here are mineral waters and hot baths in this country, which alſo produces terra ſigillata, or ſealed earth, Moſcovy-glaſs, ſtone or pit coal, alum, vitriolic water, and marble.

Geographers uſually divide Bohemia into twelve circles or provinces, excluſive of Prague, and the territory of Egra, or Eger. But as the city of Prague is not only the principal place in this diviſion, but alſo the capital of the whole kingdom of Bohemia, it will be neceſſary to give a particular deſcription of that celebrated city; before we take notice of the towns in the other circles.

When the Bohemians firſt ſettled in Prague, they called it Boihoheim, as being the capital of the kingdom; it was afterwards called, by the Sclavonians, Prague, which name hath been given it ever ſince. It is ſituated in fourteen degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, and fifty degrees five minutes north latitude. It ſtands one hundred and twenty miles north-eaſt of Ratiſbon, one hundred and forty-three eaſt of Nuremberg, ſeventy-four ſouth of Dreſden, one hundred and forty-ſeven north-eaſt of Munich, one hundred and fifty ſouth of Berlin, and one hundred and forty north-weſt of Vienna. The city ſtands in a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the midſt of gardens and fine fields; and is ſurrounded with magnificent palaces, belonging to the nobility and gentry. The houſes are chiefly built of ſtone; and conſiſt, for the moſt part, of three ſtories. Here are near one hundred churches and chapels, and about forty cloiſters, beſides nine ſynagogues for the Jews. The Chriſtian inhabitants are computed to be about ſeventy thouſand, and the Jews about twelve thouſand. The city is about twelve miles in circumference, and is watered by the river Moldau, which runs through the principal part of it.

The city of Prague is divided into three parts, by the name of the Old, New, and Leſſer Town. The Old Town, which is as big as the other two, has ſtreets that are

are narrow and darkſome; but is very populous, and full of fair, though old-faſhioned houſes. Here ſtands the univerſity, the only one in Bohemia, and one of the moſt famous in Europe, founded by the Emperor Charles IV. in the year 1358, where is ſtill a great number of ſtudents, though not comparable to the number in 1409, when John Huſs, the then rector, is ſaid to have had no leſs than forty-four thouſand. And when the emperor Charles V. would have retrenched their privileges, twenty-four thouſand are ſaid to have left it in one week, and ſixteen thouſand more ſoon after. Here are alſo ſeveral monaſteries and colleges, of which there is a very magnificent one belonging to the Jeſuits near the bridge; from the belfry of whoſe church there is the beſt view of the city. It was founded by the emperor Ferdinand for a hundred of that order; and it is ſaid, that in and about this city there are not leſs than two thouſand. Great numbers of Jews live in this quarter, from whence it has the name of Judenſtadt, or Jews town. Mr. Pollnitz was aſſured, when he was here about 1729, that there were no leſs than eighty thouſand. They have the trade of this city all in their own hands, deal in all ſorts of commodities, eſpecially in the precious ſtones found in the Bohemian mines, and by receiving all old-faſhioned things in payment, quite ruin the Chriſtian handicraftſmen: but on giving intimation that ſeveral of them correſponded with the enemy, and helped them in the laſt reduction of it, they have been ordered by the court of Vienna to depart both this city and kingdom by a time limited; and muſt obey it, if the interceſſion made for them, by the maritime powers of Great Britain and Holland, does not prevail. Dr. Brown ſays, the Bohemians ſtill keep models in remembrance of John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague; and it is obſerved by others, that on one of Huſs's medals there is engraven his prophecy at the ſtake, in theſe words: "Centum revolutis annis, Deo reſpondebitis et mihi." That is, "A hundred years hence ye ſhall anſwer for this to God and me;" which was reckoned to be fulfilled upon the church of Rome by Luther's Reformation.

The ſecond diviſion of this city, called the New Town, (which is the beſt built quarter of the three, with ſpacious beautiful ſtreets, and takes up more ground than the old one, by reaſon of its gardens and vineyards,) was formerly ſeparated from the old one by a wall, but now only by a ditch, into which they can let the river. Here are the ruins of the palace of their antient kings, the walls of which are ſo ſtrongly cemented, that they can ſcarce be demoliſhed by any engine. The Jeſuits have built a church and college here, much more ſtately than that in the Old Town; and over its gate there are thirteen ſtatues of men as big as the life, of a ſtone which reſembles braſs. A citadel has lately been built for defence of this part, which is well furniſhed with cannon, as are alſo the other caſtle, and the ramparts.

The Leſſer Town is on the weſt ſide of the Moldau, and is much pleaſanter and better built than the old one, to which it is joined by a bridge, one of the longeſt and moſt ſubſtantial in Europe, it having twenty-four arches, being in all one thouſand ſeven hundred feet long, and thirty-five broad, with two high gates, under two large towers at each end, and the ſtatues of ſeveral ſaints on both ſides, and a great crucifix of copper gilt, which the Jews were compelled to ſet up in this place as an atonement for ſome crime they had committed. Part of this town lies on a riſing ground, and at the top of it, called Ratſchin Hill, is Upper Prague, where moſt of the nobility have houſes, and the emperor a very magnificent palace, with a ſummer-houſe affording one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in the world. Here are ſeveral great halls, galleries, and a multitude of other apartments adorned with noble pictures; and adjoining to it is a large ſtable, where are ſixty fine led horſes, generally belonging to the burgrave of the city. Here is alſo the cathedral of St. Veit, with many antient monuments, and magnificent tombs of great perſons. This metropolitan church was burnt down by the Swedes in 1648, and is only rebuilt in part. Its magnificence and beauty conſiſts in the thickneſs of its walls and arches, and its architecture ſeems to be more Gothic than that of the Goths themſelves. The roof of this cathedral is adorned with the ſtandards taken from Frederic the elector palatine in the battle above mentioned. In this cathedral the king and queen of Bohemia are conſecrated, when the biſhop of Prague performs the unction of both; but the abbeſs of St. George, an abbey upon Ratſchin Hill, places the crown upon the head of the queen, in which function ſhe is aſſiſted by the ladies of the great officers of the crown.

Among other bodies, here are preſerved, with great veneration, thoſe of a couple of ſaints extremely dear to the Bohemians, viz. St. Wenceſlaus (the founder of this church, who was king of Bohemia) and his wife's confeſſor, St. John de Nepomucene, who, becauſe he would not diſcover her confeſſions to her jealous huſband, was, by his order, thrown from the bridge into the Moldau, where being drowned, he was canonized at Rome by pope Benedict XIII. in 1721, at the requeſt and expence of the empreſs, and of the ſtates of the kingdom. There is a vaſt concourſe of people from all parts to his ſhrine; and his tomb, which was adorned by the late empreſs with a rich canopy, is ſo loaded with precious gifts, that it bids fair, if it continues much longer, to be as rich as the lady's at Loretto: In ſhort, he is the only ſaint in vogue here, there being no church where he has not a chapel, no bridge without his effigy, and ſcarce any ſoul without his picture hanging like the badge of an order to a ſtraw-coloured ribband. The ſtatue of him in braſs, as big as the life, is erected on the bridge from whence he was caſt into the river. The great hall of the palace, where the coronation feaſt is kept, is the largeſt of the kind next to that at Weſtminſter. There is another large one for comedies, ſupported by pillars that are plaiſtered, in imitation of marble.

Count Coloredo's palace and gardens are reckoned the neateſt here, but Count Wallenſtein's the largeſt and moſt magnificent, above one hundred houſes being pulled down to make room for it: the hall is lofty and ſpacious, and the gardens large and beautiful, after the model of prince Doria's at Genoa, on one ſide of which is a fine aviary, beautified with trees; and, on the other, his large ſtables of curious architecture for thirty-ſix horſes, with a marble pillar betwixt each horſe, ſteel racks, and marble mangers; and over all, the picture of each horſe as big as the life. The town-houſe, which is a fine ſtructure in a large ſquare, has a noble clock, with many motions, like that at Lyons; and is adorned with the pictures of the emperors of Germany, and the kings of Bohemia.

In the market-place, which is one long ſtreet, where is a market, or rather fair, held every day, there is a great ſtone column, with the ſtatue of the virgin on the top, of gilt braſs, and four angels at the corners, holding four devils in chains: near it is an old ſtately fountain of curious workmanſhip, having twelve fronts: the baſon is of red marble; and in the middle there is a figure on a pedeſtal, with twelve ſigns of the Zodiac engraven round it.

The caſtle on the hill, half a mile above the town, called Ratſchin, or the White Mountain, is very ſtrong, and always provided with a good garriſon; and near it ſtands a pyramid which was ſet up in remembrance, that in 1618, the ſtates of the kingdom then aſſembled here threw the emperor's deputies out at the windows, becauſe they had deprived them of their privileges, and that though they fell from ſuch a height, they were not killed, nor indeed very much hurt. On the above-mentioned mountain ſtands alſo the archiepiſcopal palace.

The ſhops in Prague are very meanly furniſhed, and the inhabitants in general are exceedingly poor; notwithſtanding which, it is ſaid, there are few cities where the nobility and gentry are more wealthy, and live in greater ſtate. Aſſemblies are held every night in the houſes of perſons of quality; here are alſo very ſplendid balls, with an Italian opera; gaming, maſquerading, and feaſting, are alſo very common in this city.

With reſpect to their traffic, it conſiſts chiefly in luſtres and looking-glaſſes, which are made of Bohemian cryſtal, and ſo generally eſteemed, that they are exported to moſt parts of Europe. Theſe cryſtals are alſo poliſhed by the Jews, who turn them to good account, by ſetting them in rings, ear-pendants, ſhirt buttons, &c.

All public buſineſs relative to the kingdom is executed by the tribunals of the regency, who meet at the emperor's palace. The chief of theſe tribunals conſiſts of twelve ſtadtholders, who are of the emperor's privy-council, repreſent his perſon, and are moſt of them great officers of the crown, at the head of whom is the great burgrave, governor of the kingdom and cities, and the chancery of Bohemia; the firſt of theſe is immediately under the emperor.

Many antient privileges are enjoyed by the inhabitants of Prague, which were granted them by their anceſtors. Among the charters, by which theſe are held, there is a remarkable one preſerved in one of its churches, which was granted it by Alexander the Great, and it being one of the oldeſt records in Europe, we thought the tranſlation worth inſerting here, viz. "We Alexander the Great, "ſon of king Philip, founder of the Grecian empire, go-"vernor of the Perſians, Medes, &c. and of the whole "world

" world from eaſt to weſt; and from north to ſouth, ſon " of great Jupiter, by, &c. ſo called; to you the noble " ſtock of Sclavonians, and to your lineage, becauſe you " have been unto us a help, true in faith, and valiant in " war, We confirm all that tract of earth from the north " to the ſouth of Italy, from us, and our ſucceſſors, to " you, and your poſterity for ever: and if any other na- " tion be found there, let them be your ſlaves. Dated " at Alexandria the twelfth of the Goddeſs Minerva. " Witneſs Ethra and the eleven princes, whom we appoint " our ſucceſſors."

During the laſt century, it has ſuffered the greateſt cruelty which a city can poſſibly undergo in time of war, having been often beſieged and taken in that period, and ſeveral times plundered. The archduke Leopold biſhop of Paſſaw plundered the Leſſer Town, as he would have done the whole, if it had not been timely relieved by the emperor Matthias, king of Hungary. Nine years after this, it was again plundered by thoſe who were moſt concerned to preſerve it, viz. the Imperialiſts, who entered the city, and carried off an ineſtimable booty, after that famous battle of Weiſſenberg, or the White Hill, near this city, on the eighth of November, 1620, when Frederic V. elector palatine, was totally defeated by the forces of the emperor Ferdinand, under Maximilian duke of Bavaria, and thereby loſt the Bohemian crown, and his German electorate. It was no better uſed in 1631, by the elector of Saxony, after he made himſelf maſter of Bohemia; the great Walſtein, who recovered this country from the Saxons the next year, took this city by ſtorm. In 1641, the Swediſh general Coningſmark, ſurpriſed and plundered that part of it called the Leſſer Town, with only three thouſand ſoldiers, and took a vaſt booty; but the inhabitants of the Old Town, aſſiſted by the ſcholars of the univerſity, repulſed him, and eſcaped being plundered. The twenty-ſixth of November, 1741, the French and Saxons, after a very ſhort ſiege, ſtormed and took it, with two thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty men in garriſon, one hundred and twelve cannon, beſides a great quantity of ammunition and proviſion; and the next month the late elector of Bavaria was there proclaimed and crowned king of Bohemia. But in 1742, the Auſtrians having for ſome months blockaded and beſieged it, the marſhal Belleiſle (that very general who was in December, 1744, arreſted, together with the chevalier, his brother, in the electorate of Hanover, and was afterwars priſoner of war at his majeſty's caſtle of Windſor) collected all the proviſions, &c. that he could carry with him, marched out of the city the beginning of December, 1742, with ſeveral thouſand foot and horſe, to Egra; and the ſame month the reſt of the garriſon capitulated to the Auſtrian general, prince Lobkowitz, and marched out to the number of four thouſand men, leaving two thouſand ſick behind them; not long after which the queen of Hungary was here cowned queen of Bohemia. In 1744, the king of Pruſſia came before it with an army, which having with its bombs deſtroyed almoſt the Old and New Towns, and the Jews Town, the Auſtrian garriſon ſurrendered priſoners of war in ſix days after the opening of the trenches; the bombs and red-hot bullets having ſet ſo many houſes on fire in ſeveral quarters, that the citizens being to the laſt degree diſtreſſed and diſcouraged, ſo intimidated the militia, that the regular troops could not make them do their duty. But the city was ſoon again in the hands of its ſovereign the queen of Hungary; for in November, 1744, on the approach of prince Charles with the Auſtrian army, the Pruſſian garriſon evacuated the town after nailing up the cannon, breaking twenty thouſand pieces of all ſorts of arms, and throwing the powder, and other warlike ſtores, into the river Moldau. In 1757, another attempt was made on it by the king of Pruſſia, which miſcarried, that monarch being repulſed by the garriſon with great loſs.

This city ſtands in a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the midſt of gardens and fine fields, ſurrounded with palaces and pleaſure-houſes, in form of an amphitheatre. It is as well fortified with ramparts, &c. as a place of that extent can be, and commanded by ſeveral hills, which it is impoſſible to level. It is divided by the river Moldau into two parts. Æneas Sylvius compares it to Florence, though it is certainly much larger and more populous. Martiniere ſays, its ſituation is much like that of Lyons, being partly on a hill, and partly on a plain; which is, however, incloſed likewiſe by hills that are on the other ſide of the Moldau.

Egra, or Eger, receives its name from the capital, which is ſituated ninety miles weſt of Prague, and is the only place of note throughout the whole diſtrict. The city is tolerably large, and built on the declivity of a rock, at the foot of the mountains which incloſe Bohemia on the weſt, and near the river Eger, from whence both it and the territory have their names. This place is well fortified, with a double wall next the river, and in other parts with a triple one, beſides which, it hath a very ſtrong caſtle.

In 1179, Frederic I. made it an imperial city, for its fidelity to him againſt the duke of Bavaria. In conſequence of this, it has the privilege of coining money; and there lies no appeal, but to the ſovereign, from the judicial ſentences of its council.

There are ſeveral antient and elegant buildings in this city, among which are three cloiſters, with courts of judicature, hoſpitals, baths, and ſtore houſes for corn. At a ſmall diſtance from the city is an acid ſpring, whoſe waters are purgative, and remarkable for removing diſorders in the eyes, ears, and other parts of the head. Mines of gold and ſilver are alſo in its neighbourhood, but they have for ſeveral years paſt been entirely neglected.

The Eger is a very broad river; and ſo deep, as to admit veſſels of very conſiderable burden, which is of the utmoſt utility to the inhabitants of the city, as the great variety of excellent fiſh contained in it, affords them a plentiful ſupply of food.

Bohemia Proper, excluſive of Prague and the territory of Egra, contains the twelve following circles or provinces; namely, 1. Beraun-Podbrad; 2. Rakawnitz; 3. Leutmeritz; 4. Saaz; 5. Pilſen; 6. Prachin; 7. Brechin; 8. Kaurzim; 9. Tchaſlau; 10. Chrudim; 11. Konigingratz; and, 12. Bunzlaw; which we ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of.

I. The circle of Beraun-Podbrad comprehends Moldau, which was united to it in 1714, and contains one hundred and fifty ſeigniories.

The principal places and buildings in this circle, are, 1. Beraun, a royal borough on the river Meis, near which in 1744, the Pruſſians were defeated by the Auſtrians. 2. Pezebram, a royal mine-town. 3. Old Knen, a ſmall town belonging to the order of the croſs with a red ſtar. 4. The Holy Berg, a very handſome college. 5. St. John-under-the-rock, a cloiſter of Benedictines, whither the inhabitants of Prague make pilgrimages, and the abbot of which belongs to the ſtates of the country. 6. Oſtrow, a Benedictine cloiſter, in an iſland on the river Moldau. 7. Koniglſaal, or Zrabaſlaw, a royal foundation, and cloiſter of Ciſtercians, the abbot of which is alſo a member of the ſtates of the country.

II. The circle of Rakownitz comprehends that of Slan, or Slanſko, which was united to it in 1714. It contains one hundred and ſix ſeigniories, ſtates, and ſeats. It is in ſome parts mountainous and woody, and in others very fruitful, producing a great plenty of corn, and other articles.

The moſt remarkable places in this circle are: 1. Rakonitz, or Rakownitz, which gives name to the circle, but is otherwiſe very inconſiderable. 2. Doxan, a cloiſter of nuns of the order of Præmonſtratenſes, the provoſt of which is a member of the Bohemian ſtates. 3. Plaſs, a cloiſter of Ciſtercians, whoſe abbot is alſo a member of the ſtates. 4. Raudnice, a ſmall town, where there is a cloiſter of regular canons of the order of St. Auguſtine. 5. Krziwoklad, another ſmall town.

III. The circle of Leutmeritz, ſo called from its moſt diſtinguiſhed town, which is the capital of the province. It is ſituated on the Elbe, thirty-five miles north-weſt of Prague. It is a rich, well-built, and populous town, a royal borough, and biſhop's ſee, the prelate of which is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Prague. Here is a handſome college, which formerly belonged to the jeſuits, and conſiſted of eleven prieſts, four maſters, and ſeven co-adjutors. The other remarkable places in this circle are the following, viz.

1. The ſmall but pleaſant town of Toplvi, remarkable for containing ſeveral warm baths, the ſprings of which were diſcovered ſo early as the year 762. 2. Auſti, or Auſſig, a royal borough on the Elbe. 3. Dieczin, Tetzen, or Titchen, a neat town, ſituated on the Elbe, and in it is a fine citadel built on a rock. 4. Bæneſſew, Benſen, or Penſen, remarkable for the beſt paper made in it, of any other place throughout the Bohemian dominions. 5. Lippey, a ſmall town, remarkable for producing fine potters earth, cloth, and poliſhed glaſs. 6. Krupka, or Krauppen. In this town is an image of the virgin Mary, to which pilgrimages are made from various parts of the kingdom: there are tin-works in its neighbourhood, and a college that formerly belonged to the jeſuits. 7. Belin, a ſmall town, in which is a fine citadel, and a ſpring of excellent

excellent water. 8. Loworice, another ſmall town, near which a warm battle was fought between the Pruſſians and Auſtrians in 1756.

IV. The circle of Saaz is very fertile, being watered by the Moldau, which runs almoſt through the centre of it. This province is remarkable for producing great quantities of hops, and ſeveral ſorts of excellent grain.

The following are the principal places in this circle, viz. 1. Wary, or Carlſbad, that is, Charles's bath, a royal borough, celebrated for its baths and medicinal waters: theſe baths are of two ſorts, differing both in heat and ſtrength; the one being boiling hot, and the other little more than lukewarm. The ſource of them is in the middle of a river, formed by torrents from the neighbouring mountains, whoſe waters are exceeding cold, notwithſtanding which, thoſe of the mineral ſprings, eſpecially of the hotteſt, are ſeen to ſmoke in the river. Theſe waters are beneficial in the cure of various diſorders, particularly the gravel; and their virtues have been particularly deſcribed by Hoffman, and other phyſicians. The town itſelf is but a dirty place, inhabited chiefly by armourers, and other artificers in iron. 2. Elnbozen, or Loket, the capital of a territory which was annexed to this circle in the year 1714, and a royal borough. It is ſeated on a high ſteep rock, near the river Eger, ſeventy-two miles from Prague, and, being a frontier town ſtrongly fortified, it is called the Bohemian key to the German dominions. The German language is ſpoken by the inhabitants.

The other places chiefly deſerving notice, are, 3. Zotee, or Saaz, a royal borough, and the capital of the circle. 4. Launy, a royal borough, on the river Eger. 5. Kadan, ſituated alſo on the ſame river, and noted for producing excellent beer. 6. Pons, or Brux, a royal borough on the little river Bila. It is a well-built town, and contains three cloiſters, with a commandery of the knights of the order of the Croſs, with a red ſtar. 7. Chomutow, a royal borough, in which is a handſome college that formerly belonged to the Jeſuits. The neighbourhood of this town is famous for producing great quantities of allum. 8. Folkerow ſtands on the river Eger, and produces vitriol, ſulphur, and allum. 9. Dreyhaokin is a ſmall neat town, and in its neighbourhood is a mine that produces excellent copper. 10. Chlum, or Culm, is a ſmall town belonging to the order of the Holy Croſs. It is remarkable for a celebrated image of the Virgin Mary, to which pilgrimages from all parts of the circle are frequently made. 11. Joachimothal is alſo a ſmall town. In the beginning of the ſixteenth century ſeveral ſilver mines were firſt diſcovered in its neighbourhood.

V. The circle of Pilſen abounds in excellent paſturage, on which account great numbers of ſheep are bred in it, and this country produces the beſt cheeſe in the whole kingdom.

The chief places of note in this circle, are, 1. Pilſen, which gives name to the circle, and is a large, well-built town, ſituated between the rivers Miza and Radbuza, about forty-four miles ſouth-weſt of Prague. It has two large churches; and near the centre of it is a ſpacious market-place, well ſupplied with moſt kinds of proviſions. The weſt and ſouth ſides of it are defended by a bulwark and a large ditch, within which are ſtrong walls, with towers and baſtions. This city hath greatly ſuffered in the reſpective wars of Bohemia, it having been ſeveral times taken, retaken, and burnt.

There are contained, beſides, in this circle, 1. Klatta, a royal borough, well-fortified with walls and ramparts. The only remarkable building here is a handſome college, which formerly belonged to the Jeſuits. 2, 3. Domazlice, and Kokyczany, both royal boroughs, in the latter of which is a cloiſter of regular canons of the order of St. Auguſtine. 4. Nepomuck, a ſmall town, and noted only for giving birth to the ſaint of that name, who is ſo much venerated by the Bohemians.

VI. The circle of Prachin contains in it a conſiderable quantity of precious ſtones, with ſome ſilver and gold.

The principal towns are, 1. Wadnary, a royal borough, ſituated on the river Blanice. 2. Berg-Ruickenſtein, a royal mine-town, in the neighbourhood of which is found ſilver. 3, 4. Piſck and Schuttenhoſen, two royal borough-towns, both of them ſituated on the river Watawa. 5. Huſynee, a town ſituated on the river Blanice, remarkable only for giving birth to the famous John Huſs, the Reformer, who was burnt alive by the papiſts, for defending the truth. 6. Wolin, a ſmall town on the river Wolnika, belonging to the provoſt of the collegiate church at Prague. 7. Strahorrice, another ſmall town, belonging to the grand prior of the order of Malta in Bohemia, and ſituated on the river Wolnika.

VII. The circle of Bechin contains the following places, viz. 1. Budweis, a royal borough, ſituated on the river Moldau. It is a ſmall, but neat town, well-built, and ſtrongly fortified. The chief building in it is a cloiſter belonging to the order of Dominicans. All ſalt brought out of the Auſtrian dominions, muſt be firſt expoſed to ſale here, and pay toll. 2. Taber, a royal borough, pleaſantly ſituated on a mountain, forty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Prague. 3. Wittingen, a good town, having a large fortreſs, and a cloiſter of regular canons of St. Auguſtine. 4. Neuhaus, a neat town, with a beautiful citadel and a large manufactory of cloth. 5. Krumlow, or Crumau, has alſo a fine citadel, and a handſome college.

VIII. The circle of Kaurzim contains four royal boroughs, namely, Kaurzim, Kolin, Bohemian-Brod, and Golowey; but neither of them contain any thing remarkable, except Kolin, which has ſeveral pariſhes and churches. The only building, excluſive of the above, in this whole circle, is the Benedictine cloiſter of St. Procopius, ſituated on the river Saſawa, the abbot of which has a ſeat in the diet. The chief produce of this circle is timber, which is conveyed to Prague by the river Moldau.

IX. The circle of Tſchaslau contains the following places, viz. 1. Kuttenberg, a royal borough, about thirty miles ſouth-eaſt of Prague. It is noted for its ſilver mines, which yield alſo copper, and were formerly very profitable. Though this town is ſmall, yet it is well built, and has in it many handſome edifices, among which is a large college that formerly belonged to the jeſuits. 2. Czalaw, is alſo a royal borough, in the principal church of which lie the remains of John Ziſka, the famous leader of the Huſſites, who died in 1424. 3. Lodecz, a ſmall town and ſeigniory, which the empreſs queen purchaſed in 1753 of baron Kock, for two hundred and forty thouſand florins. 4. Goez-Genikow, a handſome market-town, and remarkable for having in it an image of the virgin of Loretto. 5. Chotoſuce, a ſmall town, where, in 1742, the Pruſſians obtained a complete victory over the Auſtrians.

X. The circle of Chrudim contains the towns of Chrudim, Alla-Meyta, Polieſka, Choltice, Hrochuw, Teynecz, Koſſemberg, and Pardubice. The three firſt of theſe are royal jointure-towns. Koſſemberg was formerly the property of the jeſuits, but ſince their extirpation it hath been joined with Hrochuw and Teynecz, and all thoſe now belong to the order of Præmonſtratenſes. Choltice has a handſome citadel, as has alſo Pardubice, the latter of which is remarkable for the manufacture of ſword-blades and knives.

XI. The circle of Konigingratz contains, 1. The capital town which gives name to it. This is a royal jointure-town and biſhop's ſee, ſituated forty-five miles north-eaſt of Prague, at the conflux of the rivers Elbe and Erlitz. Here is a commandery of the Teutonic order, and a fine college that formerly belonged to the Jeſuits. 2. Trautenau is another royal jointure-town, ſituated on the river Uppau. 3. Chluemec, near Braunau: at this place the emperor Lotharius was defeated, and taken priſoner by the Bohemians. 4. Kukus, on the Elbe, has a celebrated medicinal ſpring and bath.

XII. The circle of Bunſlaw has Inng-Bunſlaw for its capital, which gives name to it. The town was a baron-borough till 1595, when the inhabitants purchaſed its freedom; and in 1609 it was ranked among the royal boroughs by the emperor Rodolph. 2. Mielnick is a ſmall royal jointure-town, ſituated near the conflux of the Elbe and Moldau, and contains a caſtle and collegiate church. It is remarkable for producing red wine of a moſt excellent quality. 3. Benatky, is a ſmall town on the river Iſer, and contains a citadel. It is remarkable for having been the reſidence of Tycho Brahe, the celebrated aſtronomer. 4. Nymburg is another ſmall town, ſituated on a plain at the conflux of the Elbe and Martin. King Wenzel II. made it a royal borough, and enlarged it.

In treating of the inhabitants of Bohemia, their perſons, &c. it is neceſſary to obſerve, that they are a mixture of Sclavonians and Germans; the former of whom live in villages, and are ſlaves. The inhabitants of the towns are neither fond of arms, arts, or trade, but prefer an idle, indolent life. They are in general well-made, ſtrong, and ſubject to few diſeaſes. In their diſpoſitions they are ſubtle, but courageous, and always make a point of fulfilling their engagements. The gentry and middling ſort of people are open and agreeable in their converſation; but the peaſants are ſly and moroſe; and ſuch arrant thieves, that

that there is no truſting them. The people in general are exceedingly illiterate, notwithſtanding there are many ſeminaries of learning in different parts of the country; which is owing to the negligence of the parents, who are void of literary emulation through their natural indolence.

The Bohemian language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, but ſomewhat harſher than that of their neighbours, who ſpeak the ſame language, as the latter change the conſonants more into vowels. Moſt people of faſhion, however, through their intercourſe with the court of Vienna, ſpeak High Dutch, or German, which is alſo intermixed with the language of the common people.

The inhabitants of Bohemia are ſuppoſed to have received the Chriſtian faith ſo early as the ſixth century; but if not then, it is certain they did in the ninth, and their religion was that of the Greek church, till Boleſlaus, ſurnamed the Good, introduced Popery among them. John Huſs and Jerom of Prague were burnt by order of the council of Conſtance, in the 15th century, for endeavouring to bring about a reformation in religion.

In 1627 the Proteſtants were deprived of all their rights and privileges; and ſuch as would not ſubmit to the Roman Catholic church, were compelled to quit the country. Since the above period, Popery has been eſtabliſhed in this country. There are, however, a few Lutherans in ſome parts of it; but they are obliged to be on their guard, and to conceal themſelves as much as poſſible. The Jews have an ample toleration of their religion, and are allowed many indulgencies which are denied to the Proteſtants.

It hath always been the office of the archbiſhop of Prague, who is born legate of the holy apoſtolic ſee of Rome, to crown the kings of Bohemia. He is alſo a prince of the holy Roman empire, though he has no ſeat in the diets, primate of the kingdom, and perpetual chancellor of the univerſity of Prague: the biſhops of Leutmeritz and Konigingrotz are his ſuffragans. The government of the church and clergy is veſted in the archiepiſcopal conſiſtory, from which an appeal to the ſovereign or pope is admitted.

The kingdom of Bohemia was governed, for a conſiderable time, by dukes, and afterwards by kings, who were limited in their power, and elected by the ſtates; though they uſually kept to the family of the deceaſed monarch. After the battle of the White Mountain in 1620, the crown was made hereditary in the Auſtrian family; ſo that, from that time, the ſtates have had nothing more to do with reſpect to the right of ſucceſſion. They are indeed ſummoned every year, by command of the empreſs queen, and meet at Prague; but it is only for form's ſake. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of the towns. Here a commiſſioner from the ſovereign lays before them the neceſſity of granting ſuch ſupplies as the court demands, which uſually amount to a very great ſum; and theſe are granted without heſitation, or examination. The peaſants here are bondmen to their lords; and to the hard yoke which galls them is doubtleſs owing, in a great meaſure, both their perverſe, obſtinate diſpoſition, and their indolence; the latter of which, among other things, is evident from the wretched condition of the villages, which, though wood is to be found here in great plenty, are very mean and deſpicable.

The clergy are compoſed of the archbiſhop of Prague, ſeveral biſhops, provoſts, and abbots, beſides the inferior clergy. The nobility are divided into princes, counts, and barons; and the next degrees to theſe are the knights, burghers, huſbandmen, and peaſants. Each circle has two headmen, or captains; one out of the ſtate of lords, and one out of the ſtate of knights. The chief manufacture of Bohemia is linen, of which they export great quantities, together with corn, malt, hops, and mineral waters. They have alſo conſiderable manufactures of copper, iron, glaſs, earthen-ware, and paper, part of which they export to foreign kingdoms.

The ſtates of the kingdom of Bohemia raiſe the revenues: they aſſemble annually at Prague, to provide ſuch ſums as the ſovereign demands of them, over and above the cuſtom and duties to which they are entitled by prerogative. The revenue is ſaid to amount to near one million ſterling a year. The ſtanding militia of the Auſtrian hereditary countries is twenty-four thouſand men, towards which Bohemia furniſhes nine thouſand. Theſe ſerve to fill up the marching regiments in time of war.

Bohemia is generally conſidered as a part of Germany, but with very little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, neither doth it contribute any thing towards the forces, or revenues, or is ſubject to any of the laws of the empire.

SECT. II.

Of the Marquiſate of MORAVIA, its Extent and Boundaries, Produce of the Country, Inhabitants, and principal Towns: with a Deſcription of LUSATIA, its Situation, Diviſion, States, Towns, Inhabitants, Manufactures, &c.

MORAVIA is about one hundred and twenty miles in length, and one hundred in breadth. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by Sileſia and Hungary; on the weſt, by Bohemia Proper; and, on the ſouth, by Auſtria. A great part of it is over-run with woods and mountains, where the air is very cold, but much wholeſomer than in the low grounds, which are full of bogs and lakes. The mountains in general are barren; but the more level parts tolerably fertile, yielding corn, hemp, flax, ſaffron, paſturage, wines, fruits, and garden-ſtuff. This country alſo abounds in horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and goats. In the woods, and about the lakes, are plenty of wild fowl, game, veniſon, bears, hares, foxes, wolves, and beavers; alſo a beaſt of prey called ryſowe, about the ſize of a middling dog, having its belly and feet ſpotted, and leaps ſuddenly on its prey, from rocks or trees. Here are likewiſe produced marble, baſtard diamonds, amethyſts, alum, iron, ſulphur, ſalt petre, vitriol, but ſalt is imported: here are likewiſe mineral waters, and warm ſprings.

March and Morawa, or Morau, are the chief rivers: they abound with a great variety of fiſh, particularly trout, cray-fiſh, barbel, jack, perch, and eels.

The Moravians are in general open-hearted, not eaſy to be provoked or pacified, obedient to their maſters, and true to their promiſes; but credulous of old propheeies, and much addicted to drinking. The nobility and citizens ſpeak the German and French languages; but that of the lower claſs of the inhabitants is the Sclavonic, differing little from that of Bohemia.

The clergy, lords, knights, and burgeſſes compoſe the ſtate of this country; and the diets when ſummoned by the regency, are held at Brunn. The marquiſate is divided into ſix circles, each of which has its captain, and contributes to its ſovereign about one third of what is exacted from Bohemia. In this marquiſate there are uſually quartered ſeven regiments of foot, one of cuiraſſiers, and one of dragoons.

The Chriſtian religion was planted in this country in the ninth century, and the inhabitants continued attached to the church of Rome till the 15th, when they eſpouſed the doctrine of John Huſs, and threw off popery; but after the defeat of the elector palatine, whom they and the Bohemians had choſen king, the emperor Ferdinand II. re-eſtabliſhed popery. However, there are ſtill ſome Proteſtants in Moravia; and, among others, a ſet of reformers, called Hernhutters, or Moravian brethren, headed by one of the counts of Zinzendorff, appeared among them, who, about the year 1740, met with great encouragement in England, but have at preſent only a certain number of followers, chiefly among the lower ſort. The biſhop of Olmutz, who ſtands immediately under the pope, is at the head of the eccleſiaſtics; and the ſupreme eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction is veſted in a conſiſtory, under the biſhop.

With reſpect to the commerce of this country, which is not very conſiderable, Brunn enjoys the principal part. There are iron-works, and glaſs-houſes in ſome places; and at Iglau and Trebitz are manufactories of cloth, paper, gunpowder, &c.

The following are the principal places in this marquiſate; viz. Holomauc, or Olmutz, the capital, which is a ſmall, but neat, well-built, and populous city, ſituated on the river Morawa, eighty miles north of Vienna. It is divided into the Old and New Town, in which are ſome ſpacious, regular ſtreets, with fine houſes, all painted on the outſide, two great ſquares, a cathedral dedicated to St. Wenzel (where it is ſaid St. Cyril is interred), ſeveral hoſpitals and cloiſters of monks and nuns, an univerſity, riding academy, learned ſociety, and twenty-ſix churches. In the neighbourhood is a cloiſter of canons regular of the order of Præmonſtratenſes, whoſe abbot is mitred. Olmutz is a royal borough, and the ſee of a biſhop; and, by means of its river, carries on a conſiderable trade with Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Sileſia, and Auſtria.

2. The town of Brunn, or Brinn, is ſituated twenty-eight miles ſouth-weſt of Olmutz, fifty north of Vienna, and one hundred and thirteen ſouth-eaſt of Prague. It is well-built, fortified, and inhabited; and a place of the greateſt trade in Moravia. Here are held the courts of judicature

judicature and the diets. There are ſix cloiſters, a collegiate church, the biſhop's palace, and a large college, with an hoſpital of the knights of Malta in the ſuburbs. The citadel is called Spielburg, or Spilenberg, and ſtands on a mountain cloſe to the town. The cloiſter of Auguſtine hermits, is famous for an image of the Virgin Mary, made, as they pretend, by St. Luke, and a foundation for young ladies.

3. Iglau, or Gihlawa, is a ſtrong, well-built, populous town, and royal borough, on the river Ighlawa, ſeventy-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Prague, and near fifty weſt of Brinn. The principal buildings are, a large college and gymnaſium, with two monaſteries, one of Dominicans, and another of Franciſcans. The trade of the town is chiefly in beer, and a coarſe woollen cloth. This was the firſt place in Moravia that received the Augſburg confeſſion. Being ſituated on the borders of Bohemia, and in the high road to Hungary, it is much frequented by travellers.

4. The royal borough of Znoyms, is ſituated on the river Teya, and is in the road from Prague to Vienna, which makes it a conſiderable thoroughfare. There is a ſtrong caſtle; but the town being overlooked by a mountain within cannon-ſhot, is incapable of holding out long. Here are four cloiſters, and a large college; and in its neighbourhood are four cloiſters, and many vineyards.

5. The ſtrong royal town on the March, containing a large college and cloiſter of Franciſcans. The Ciſtercian cloiſter of Welehrad, whoſe abbot is the firſt of the regular prelates at the diet, ſtands about a mile from the town.

6. The well-built and walled town of Kromerziz, or Kremſier, is ſituated on the river March, or Morave, and belongs to the biſhop of Olmutz, whoſe large and beautiful palace here was deſtroyed by fire in 1752, together with the archives, the ſuburbs, and fifty-five burghers houſes. Here is alſo a mint, a collegiate church, and ſeveral cloiſters.

7. Proſtnitz; 8. Muglitz; 9. Zwittaway; 10. Littau; 11. Uniczow; are all walled towns. The firſt is a royal town, and has a conſiderable manufactory of ſalt-petre, glaſs, and gunpowder. The other towns in this marquiſate are too inconſiderable to merit attention.

The province of Luſatia is bounded by Brandenburg on the north, Bohemia on the ſouth, Miſnia on the weſt, and Sileſia on the eaſt. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Marquiſates; the air of the former, which is a hilly country, is more ſalubrious than that of the latter, the ſituation of which is low and fenny. The mountainous tracts are barren, the vallies fertile, and both the marquiſates produce wood, turf, wheat, rye, oats, millet, beans, peas, buck-wheat, lentils, flax, hops, tobacco, manna, wine, &c. Here are likewiſe medicinal ſprings, quarries of ſtone, earths and clays for tobacco-pipes and earthen-ware, baſtard diamonds, agates and jaſpers, allum, vitriol, &c. Cattle, veniſon, and fiſh are plentiful, and the country is well watered. Both marquiſates were antiently ſubject to the king of Bohemia, the archdukes of Auſtria, or the electors of Brandenburg; but in the year 1636 they were ceded to the elector of Saxony. The manufactures are woollen and linen ſtuffs, caps, gloves, ſtockings, ſpatter-daſhes, hats, leather, paper, iron, glaſs, gunpowder, bleached wax, &c. many of which articles the inhabitants export. The imports are ſilk, yarn, wool, ſpices, wine, corn, hops, garden-ſtuff, fruit, &c. The language of the people is very inarticulate, guttural, and barbarous; and their dreſs, both ſingular and mean. Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed here in the ſeventh century, and at preſent the Reformed is the eſtabliſhed religion.

Upper Luſatia is compoſed of the following ſtates; viz. ſtate-lords, prelates, gentry, and commonalty; and without the concurrence of theſe, nothing of importance can be tranſacted. The diets are either ordinary or extraordinary; the former meet once in three years, the latter only on particular or preſſing occaſions.

This diſtrict is ſubdivided into two great circles, called Budiſſen and Gorlitz; the firſt of which receives its name from the capital of the marquiſate. The town of Budiſſen, is the ſeat of the ſame diets, and of the chief officers and tribunals. It is ſituated on the Spree, twenty miles north-weſt from Gorlitz. It is pretty large, handſomely built, ſtrongly fortified, and well inhabited: its caſtle is ſituated on a high rock within the town walls. The Lutherans and Roman catholics perform divine ſervice in different parts of the cathedral. Here are ſeveral other churches, a council-houſe, library, orphan-houſe, ſpinning-houſe, houſe of correction, two diet-houſes, three hoſpitals, a gymnaſium, &c. A conſiderable trade is carried on in hats, ſtockings, gloves, linen, glazed leather, cloth, fuſtian, Turkey manufactures, &c.

The other towns and places are, 1. Carnenz on the Elſter, which contains eight churches, three hoſpitals, a manufactory of linen, and another of woollen cloths, and a Latin ſchool. 2. Baruth, a ſmall town, with a citadel, is ſituated ſo pleaſantly, that the meadow in which it is erected is called the Golden Au. 3. Uhyſt, a caſtle. 4. Markliſſa, a Latin ſchool. 5. Lobau, which has a mineral ſpring.

The town of Gorlitz, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, is twenty miles to the eaſt of Budiſſen. It was erected in 1139, by Boleſlaus king of Poland, but ſoon after burnt, from whence ariſes its name; for Gorlitz, in the Sclavonic tongue, implies "burnt down." It is the ſeat of juſtice for this part, and the reſidence of the governor, has ſeveral neat churches, and many ſtately houſes, built of ſtone. It is well fortified with walls, towers, and ditches; and the approach to it is difficult, becauſe it ſtands in a moraſs, on the weſt ſide of the Neiſſe, which riſes on the borders of this country, and runs through it into the Oder; its great church, formerly called St. Peter and Paul, has hardly its equal in Europe: near a ſmall church, on a mount without the city, there is a model of the holy ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, built two hundred years ago by the direction of a citizen who had been there ſeveral times. Zeyler, who ſays there is a fine college in this town, mentions ſeveral fires that have happened here, and which have been more frequent in this than any part of Germany, or indeed of Europe. The chief trade of this town is in beer, and in dreſſing and dying woollen and linen cloth.

The other principal places are, 1. Great Radmeritz, which contains a noble temporal foundation for twelve ladies. 2. Hernhutt is a ſmall place belonging to the count Zinzendorf: it was founded in 1722, by ſome Moravian brethren, and is now the chief nurſery and ſeat of that ſect called Hernhutters. 3. Muſka has a great allum-work. 4. Lauban, upon the river Queiſs, and the confines of Sileſia, four leagues eaſt of Gorlitz, which, though but little, is well fortified, and has a great linen manufactory. 5. Zittow, on the river Neiſſe, a fine city near the borders of Bohemia, eight miles ſouth of Leibau, and twenty-eight eaſt of Dreſden. Wenceſlaus, king of Bohemia, encompaſſed it with walls in 1255. It is well fortified, and the houſes are built in the neweſt ſtyle. It has a good trade in beer, a great manufactory of cloth, an hoſpital, which was once a Franciſcan monaſtery, and the ſuburbs are large and populous.

With reſpect to the land eſtates of Lower Luſatia, they are ſimilar to thoſe of the Upper. Spiritual matters belong to a conſiſtory erected in 1668; the chief officers are the preſident of the upper office, the land captain, and the land judge. The tribunals are the upper office and the land court.

The whole is divided into five little circles, viz. 1. Luckau, containing no place worth notice but the town of the ſame name, which is walled, has a Latin ſchool, a poor houſe, a houſe of correction, two hoſpitals, and ſeveral churches. 2. Guben, containing a town of the ſame name, to which belong ſix villages. In this circle are alſo the following places: Neuzell, with the appendage of thirty-ſix villages: Schiedlo, Schenkendorf, and Terſta, to which belong thirty-five villages: Pforten having the juriſdiction of twenty villages, and the town of Sorau, which has a caſtle, ſchool, hoſpital, and manufactories of yarn, linen, and woollen. 3. Kalau contains a town of the ſame name, Lubbenau Dobrilugh, and twenty villages. 4. Luben contains a town of the ſame name, the town of Friedland, and a few ſmall villages. 5. Spremberg contains a town of the ſame name, and thirty-two villages.

CHAP.

A NEW and CORRECT
MAP
of
FRANCE
Drawn from the latest
Authorities.
By T. Bowen.

ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
Bristol
Dover
Antwerp
Cologne
Scilly Is
Lizard Pt
Ushant I.
Brest
Brest Harb
Quiberon
Belleisle
Noirmotier I.
I. d'Yeu
I. d'Ree
I. d'Oleron
Pour de Cordouan
Soulac
Bourdeaux
Bayonne
Pampelune
Pyrenean Mts
Tolosa
St Jean
Roscoff
Jersey
Guernsey
Dragons Is
Bas I.
Alderney
Portland I.
Wight I.
Beachy Hd
Portsmouth
Plymouth
Falmouth
Hartland Pt
Lundy I.
Pool
Calais
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Ostend
Ghent
Brussels
Mons
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Coblentz
Rhine R.
Mosel R.
Meuse R.
Treves
Metz
Mentz
Heidelberg
Manheim
Strasbourg
Constance
Basil
Lucerne
SWITZERLAND
GERMANY
PART OF
ITALY
PART OF
PT OF SPAIN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULF OF LYONS
GULF OF GENOA
Hyeres Is
Genoa
Turin
Genova
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Arles
Avignon
Montpelier
Toulouse
Bourdeaux
Rochelle
Nantes
Angers
Tours
Orleans
Paris
Rouen
Caen
Dieppe
Abbeville
Amiens
Arras
Lens
Tournay
Lisle
Valenciennes
Maubeuge
Rheims
Verdun
Sarbruck
Thionville
Metz
Nancy
Luneville
Bruyeres
Epinal
Belfort
Besançon
Dijon
Chalons
Autun
Moulins
Clermont
Limoges
Brive
Perigueux
Tulle
Aurillac
Lyons
Vienne
Grenoble
Valence
Die
Embrun
Briançon
Gap
Digne
Sisteron
Aix
Orange
Carpentras
Tarascon
Arles
Nismes
Montpelier
Agde
Narbonne
Perpignan
Foix
Pamiers
Auch
Tarbe
Lombez
Lectoure
Agen
Montauban
Cahors
Montpezat
Rodez
Mende
Alby
Castres
Puy
Le Puy
Aurillac
Tulle
Limoges
Poitiers
Niort
Rochelle
Saintes
Rochefort
Blaye
Bourdeaux
Dax
Bayonne
St Jean
Roscoff
Brest
Morlaix
St Malo
Dinan
Caen
Lisieux
Evreux
Dieppe
Abbeville
Amiens
Peronne
St Quentin
Laon
Soissons
Rheims
Chalons
Vitry
Bar
Joinville
Langres
Chaumont
Troyes
Sens
Auxerre
Nevers
Bourges
Chartres
Dreux
Alençon
Le Mans
Laval
Mayenne
Vitre
Rennes
Fougeres
Avranches
Coutances
Cherbourg
Granville
Jersey
Guernsey
Dragons Is
Bas I.
Ushant I.
Brest Harb
Quiberon
Belleisle
Noirmotier I.
I. d'Yeu
I. d'Ree
I. d'Oleron
Pour de Cordouan
Soulac
Bourdeaux
Bayonne
Pampelune
Pyrenean Mts
Tolosa
St Jean
Roscoff
Jersey
Guernsey
Dragons Is
Bas I.
Alderney
Portland I.
Wight I.
Beachy Hd
Portsmouth
Plymouth
Falmouth
Hartland Pt
Lundy I.
Pool
Calais
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Ostend
Ghent
Brussels
Mons
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Coblentz
Rhine R.
Mosel R.
Meuse R.
Treves
Metz
Mentz
Heidelberg
Manheim
Strasbourg
Constance
Basil
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GULF OF LYONS
GULF OF GENOA
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Genoa
Turin
Genova
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Arles
Avignon
Montpelier
Toulouse
Bourdeaux
Rochelle
Nantes
Angers
Tours
Orleans
Paris
Rouen
Caen

CHAP. XI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

FRANCE.

SECT. I.

Treating of the Name, Situation, Extent, and Natural Hiſtory of the Country; alſo of the Perſons, Dreſs, Food, Manners, Cuſtoms, Religion, Arts, Manufactures, &c. of the FRENCH.

THIS extenſive and populous kingdom obtained its preſent name from the Franks, who in the fifth century paſſed out of Germany into Gaul, and made themſelves maſters of the whole country, from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire. This kingdom is bounded by the Britiſh channel, and the Netherlands, towards the north; on the eaſt by Germany, Swiſſerland, and Italy; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea, and Spain, from which it is ſeparated by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending from the forty-third to the fifty-firſt degrees of north latitude, and from the fourth degree weſt to the ſeventh degree eaſt longitude. Did not the province of Bretagne extend itſelf above an hundred miles farther into the ocean, than any other part of the kingdom, it would be nearly of a ſquare form, and the breadth and length almoſt equal, that is, about five hundred and forty miles; but allowing for the hills and valleys, with the winding of the roads, it would, in a traveller's account, be above ſix hundred miles over.

In the interior parts of the kingdom, the air is mild and wholeſome. The winters, however, in the northern provinces are cold, and laſt four or five months. Indeed the cold is in that ſeaſon generally much ſeverer there than in England; for we being ſurrounded by the ſea, are leſs ſubject to continued froſts, and are beſides better provided againſt the cold from our ſuperior advantages in being furniſhed with firing. They have, however, the advantage of clear ſettled weather, and are but little troubled with fogs, which are ſo diſagreeable in Great Britain and other countries. The ſummers in France are hotter than ours.

With reſpect to its ſituation, France has the advantage of every kingdom in Europe, the ſeas which border upon it affording the inhabitans an eaſy communication with the reſt of the world; the northern ſhores being waſhed by the Britiſh channel, the weſtern coaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and the ſouth by the Mediterranean. Hence no country can be better ſituated for the advancement of trade and navigation, than this.

The Alps towards Italy; the Pyrenees, which border on Spain; and thoſe of the Cevennes and Auvergne, are its chief mountains.

As to minerals, Languedoc is ſaid to have veins of gold and ſilver. In Alſace theſe metals have been found in the ſand of the Rhine; and the mountain of Waſgau, in that province, yields a ſilver ore, which is worked, and further diſcoveries are making after it. Plenty of iron ore is found in various parts of the kingdom, and in Alſace are mines of lead. Pit coal is principally found in Hennegau, and all parts of the kingdom make ſalt petre. Here is alſo no want of marble; for ſince Colbert's time, quarries, particularly in Languedoc, Provence, and Bourbonnois, are kept continually open. France, however, produces few gems; but has a mine of excellent turquoiſes in Languedoc.

France is extremely well watered with navigable rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. Of theſe the Loire is the largeſt. It riſes in the mountains of the Cevennes, and taking its courſe north and north-weſt, runs to Orleans; and from thence directly weſt by Tours, Angers, and Nantes, falling into the weſtern ocean forty miles below the laſt city; having received in its courſe the Allier, Cher, Indra, Creuſe, Vienna, and the Maine; and has a communication with the Seine, by means of the canals of Briare and Orleans. Its whole courſe is computed to be about five hundred miles, including all its windings. The Rhone riſes in the mountain of La Fourche, in the province of Uri in Swiſſerland, and running weſtward through the country of the Valais, paſſes through the lake of Geneva; and having viſited that city, flows ſouth-weſt to Lyons, where it joins the Soan, and then runs ſouth till it falls by three ſeveral channels into the Mediterranean. The Garonne receives its ſource in the mountains of Aure, in the county of Cominges. It becomes navigable at Muret, and after being joined by ſeveral rivers, changes its name into the Gironde; and at length diſcharges itſelf by two outlets into the Atlantic ocean. This river has a celebrated canal, by which the weſtern ocean is joined to the Mediterranean. The Seine riſes near Dijon, in Burgundy, and running to the north-weſt viſits Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and at length falls into the Britiſh channel near Havre de Grace.

France, though in general a fertile country, has nevertheleſs many barren tracts and mountains. In ſome parts it produces plenty, and in all of them a ſufficiency of the neceſſaries of life. In plentiful years it yields more corn than is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants; but a bad harveſt is generally ſucceeded by a ſcarcity, and in time of war there has been often a great dearth of grain, which is the more felt by the inhabitants of this country, as bread is their principal food.

Some of their roots differ much from ours; for here are no round turnips; theirs are long and ſmall, but well taſted, and being not ſo ſtrong as ours, are more proper for their ſoups. They have few potatoes; but plenty of Jeruſalem artichoaks. They abound in vaſt quantities of large red onions and garlick; and alſo in ſhalots, rockambole, and leeks. Theſe laſt are ſmaller than ours; but three times as long in the white part. Lettuces are the great and univerſal ſallad. In April and May the markets are ſerved with vaſt quantities of white beets. Aſparagus is here very plentiful; and they are ſo fond of ſorrel, that large fields are planted with it. They are alſo particularly fond of muſhrooms, of which they have ſeveral different ſpecies.

Great plenty of wine is produced in all the provinces of this kingdom. Among the ſeveral French wines, that of Champagne is reckoned the beſt, it being a good ſtomachic, racy, and in taſte and flavour exquiſite, with an agreeable tartneſs. That of Burgundy, the beſt of which is produced about Beaume, has a fine colour, and a pleaſant taſte. The wines of Angers and Orleans are alſo delicate, but a little heady. In Poicton is produced a white wine that reſembles Rheniſh. The neighbourhood of Bourdeaux, and the lower parts of Gaſcony, produce excellent wines. Pontac grows in Guienne. Muſcadel and Frontiniac are the delicious products of Languedoc. Between Valence and St. Valliere, along the banks of the Rhone, is produced a very agreeable, but a roughiſh red wine, that has a taſte not unlike that of bilberries; it is named Hermitage, and for its wholeſomeneſs, is much eſteemed.

Provence and Languedoc are the principal territories for the oil of olives. Theſe and other provinces produce ſaffron, and the northern parts in particular have large orchards, and make great quantities of cyder, which is there the common drink of the inhabitants. Bourdeaux exports great quantities of prunes, and capers are principally produced in the country about Toulon. Flax and hemp thrive in ſeveral parts of the kingdom; but lintſeed is procured only in the north. Moſt of the provinces abound

in wool, and ſilk is cultivated with great induſtry, eſpecially in Languedoc, Provence, Lionnois, and Dauphine; during all the time which the inhabitants attend on the ſilk worms, public prayers are offered up for their proſperity.

The horned cattle, ſheep, and hogs of France, though very numerous, are, in general, far inferior to thoſe of Great Britain. Good horſes are alſo produced here, as well as aſſes, and a great number of mules. The French wolf is the largeſt and fierceſt animal of the dog ſpecies, and partakes ſomewhat of the nature of a dog. He has a wild look, ſhining eyes, ſharp teeth, ſhort neck, and is of a blackiſh colour: he has a howling voice, an oblong blunt muzzle, ſhort ears, and a thick tail. Game and wild fowl are in the greateſt plenty, and extremely good. The Pyrenean mountains furniſh timber for ſhip-building, great quantities of which are alſo procured from Alſace, Burgundy, and Lorrain; but in the other provinces the ſcarcity of timber and wood begins to be more and more felt. Here is alſo plenty of ſea and ſpring ſalt. The people on the ſea-coaſt employ themſelves in fiſhing.

The natives of France are generally ſlender, nimble, active, and well proportioned; their hair and eyes are, for the moſt part, black; their complexions brown; and the ladies are fond of giving a bright colour to their cheeks. The people in general are merry, ſprightly, and ſeldom out of temper; they are familiar, and acquainted with a ſtranger at firſt ſight; but many are extremely vain, and moſt of them remarkably talkative. The common people are, in general, very extravagant in their dreſs, though they ſubſiſt on the moſt ſlender diet imaginable.

The French eat but little fleſh-meat, and dreſs it in a very different manner from the Engliſh: fricaſſees, ragouts, haſhes, and ſoups, diſguiſed with onions, herbs, and ſpices, are preferred before joints boiled or roaſted; and what they do boil or roaſt, has ſcarcely a drop of gravy left in it. As they are ſtrangers to the fine ſirloin and rump of beef, and other large joints which in Great Britain grace the tables of people even in middling circumſtances, they are unacquainted with the many Engliſh diſhes called by the name of puddings. The wealthy, however, ſupply this deficiency with ſweetmeats, and a number of little delicacies; but the poor mechanics, and all the labouring part of the nation, live almoſt entirely on ſoups and vegetables. The common people, in Lent, feed on a variety of ſallads, ſome of which grow wild in the fields; and on the ſeed of white kidney-beans boiled; they alſo eat white lentils, a ſort of pulſe not much known in England.

Theſe people are ſo far from being addicted to jealouſy, that it is good manners to commend the beauty of a woman, and to extol her charms even before her huſband's face. The women, too, behave, in general, without reſerve. The French are much commended for their obedience to their governors, and pride themſelves on their profound veneration for their prince; but while the people had any thing to contend for, rebellious and civil wars were as frequent in France as in any other country.

Their lands are ſo highly taxed, that ſmall eſtates will hardly afford the proprietors a ſubſiſtence, if they do not enjoy ſome poſt under the government; indeed, there is ſcarcely a conſiderable family in the kingdom, that has not ſome preferment in the church, the army, or the court.

The uſual diverſions of the French are gaming, walking, or taking the air in coaches, and attending plays and operas. With reſpect to their exerciſes, there are few French gentlemen who do not learn to dance, fence, and ride the great horſe. The nobility and gentry never apply themſelves to trade; they ſeem indeed naturally deſigned for the court or the army; and if they happen to be of a melancholy diſpoſition, here are always convents, and numerous preferments to be met with in the church. As to their military virtues, it muſt be acknowledged, that they do not want bravery, and have brought the art of war to great perfection, there being no people upon earth more capable of attacking or defending a place than they, or that are better ſkilled in the art of fortification.

The French language is formed out of that of the Gauls, Romans, and Franks, and is pretty generally underſtood throughout Europe; particularly by genteel people, whoſe education is deemed defective without it: it is not, however, ſo ſtrong, expreſſive, and energetic, as the Engliſh. The great Dryden obſerves, that the French language has all the ſwiftneſs of a greyhound; but the Engliſh all the ſtrength of a maſtiff. There are two great difficulties which an unpractiſed perſon is under here in common ſpeech; the one is, from the rapid pronunciation of the natives, which always appears to be the caſe when the language is not familiar to us, but is chiefly owing to the ſhortneſs of the words in general. There is no effectual cure for either, except frequent converſation with the French people of all claſſes upon their own ground. Some of our countrymen go armed with a dictionary, and make their French as they want it; but ſuch French is generally an aukward tranſlation of the Engliſh forms of ſpeech, not intelligible to French people. An Engliſh gentleman of this claſs was at dinner in a public company, and his buſineſs requiring him to be gone as ſoon as decency would permit, he wanted to tell the French ſervant, that "every body had done," in order that the things might be taken away: hereupon he conſults his book, and finds, that "every body" is "tout le monde," and "done" is "fini," which, with his narrow Engliſh pronunciation, was, "tout le monde eſt fini." The waiter, who happened to be a lad of humour, cried out, "miſericorde! que ferons nous? Monſieur dit que tout le monde eſt fini. ——Mercy on us! what ſhall we do? The gentleman ſays the world is at an end."

Since the repeal of the edict of Nantes in 1685, the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion in France; yet in Dauphine, Languedoc, and other provinces, there are ſuch a number of ſecret proteſtants, that they have been computed to amount to no leſs than three millions; but theſe, on account of their religious aſſemblies, at which ſometimes great numbers have been preſent, have been cruelly harraſſed and perſecuted; and in 1745 ſome proteſtant preachers were hanged, laymen were ſent to the gallies, women to the convents, and children forced away from the arms of their parents. The French proteſtants (or Hugonots, as the Romaniſts called them by way of reproach) were always perſecuted by the popiſh party, and even maſſacred in the moſt barbarous manner ſeveral times, particularly on St. Bartholomew's day in the year 1572, when in the middle of the night the famous admiral de Coligny, twenty other great men, twelve hundred gentlemen, and above one hundred thouſand proteſtants of all ſorts were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of the kingdom, without reſpect to age, ſex, or relation; though a peace had been very lately concluded with them; to confirm which, the king of Navarre, the head of the proteſtant party, was that day married to the French king's ſiſter. After the death of Henry IV. who granted to his reformed ſubjects ſeveral places, towns, and caſtles, his ſucceſſor Lewis XIII. abridged them of their privileges, took the cautionary towns from them, and even Rochelle, after a long and famous ſiege: and Lewis XIV. that deſpotic and tyrannical prince, carried the perſecution againſt them to the higheſt degree of cruelty, and permitted their enemies to vex them a thouſand different ways. They ſtript them of all their privileges and liberty; and after having in vain tried various methods to conquer their conſtancy, ſent amongſt them a vaſt number of dragoons, who practiſed the moſt horrid barbarities to force them to renounce their religion. The edict of Nantes being repealed October 1685, great numbers of them, to avoid the cruelty of their infernal perſecutors, endeavoured to take ſanctuary in foreign countries, which liberty was denied to many; however, about one hundred thouſand of them made their eſcape, moſt of them leaving their eſtates behind them. Multitudes came to ſettle in Great Britain and Ireland, and eſpecially in London, bringing with them ſeveral kinds of manufactures, which have proved very beneficial to theſe kingdoms, while it tended to impoveriſh that of their bigotted perſecutors. Theſe tranſactions are chronicled among many other ſimilar events which contributed to grace the reign of that prieſt-ridden monarch, prepoſterouſly ſtiled Lewis the Great! The proteſtants are, however, openly tolerated in Alſace by virtue of a treaty, and in many places even the Jews. Indeed the freedom of writing, which may be ſaid to have been firſt introduced into France by M. de Voltaire, and for the laſt twenty years has remarkably prevailed in that arbitrary government, has tended very much to ſoften the rage of religious bigotry; and has, in a good meaſure, delivered conſcientious Chriſtians from the ſcourge of intolerant zeal, by having made deiſm faſhionable among the licentious Free-thinkers.

The Gallican church, or the church of France, enjoys pretty conſiderable privileges; the principal of which are the following: I. In temporal, or government affairs, neither the ſovereign, nor his officers or magiſtrates, are ſubject to any church-diſcipline, inflicted either by the biſhops, or even by the pope himſelf. II. The pope has no other juriſdiction in France than what the king is pleaſed to grant him; his nuncios and legates à latere are only

conſidered

considered as envoys from the court of Rome to that of France, and cannot, in virtue of any papal mandate, interfere in affairs of juſtice, unleſs ſuch mandate has previouſly received the king's ſanction, and has been in due form regiſtered in parliament. III. The calling and holding all eccleſiaſtical aſſemblies, with the confirmation of their decrees, depends on the civil power, without requiring the knowledge and conſent of the pope IV. The king is empowered to enact laws that merely concern the eccleſiaſtical conſtitution, and to limit the exerciſe of the power of the clergy; and without the king's permiſſion and ratification, no law of the church, either by the biſhops or the pope, can ſubject any one to outward penalties or puniſhments, or even to church diſcipline. V. The pope can levy no money in France, on any pretence whatever, except the fees and impoſts allowed him by the concordat; though the king can tax the clergy without ſtanding in need of a papal mandate, a privilege which other princes muſt purchaſe by paying a quota of ſuch tax to the ſee of Rome. Not long ſince the king enjoined the clergy to pay the twentieth penny, and for that purpoſe to deliver in an inventory of their eſtates and incomes. This indeed occaſioned a great ferment, till in 1753 the clergy conſented to pay the king the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, (five hundred and twenty-five thouſand pounds ſterling) under the name of a free gift, without being exempted from the uſual free gift which they bring to the throne every five years. VI. No eccleſiaſtical foundations, nor any new order of monks and nuns, are to be introduced without warrant from the king; and the rules of ſuch order are ſubject to the cognizance and amendment of the civil power. VII. The king nominates all archbiſhops and biſhops, abbots and priors, except with reſpect to the latter, where the convent is indulged with the choice of its ſuperior. VIII. The eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction is ſo far ſubordinate to the civil power, that appeals from the ſentences of the eccleſiaſtical courts are received by the parliament.

In the whole kingdom are eighteen archbiſhops, a hundred and thirteen biſhops, twenty-two thouſand two hundred and ninety-one prieſts, ſeven hundred and ſeven abbies for men, three hundred and ſeventeen abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of other convents, together with two hundred and fifty commanderies of the order of Malta, among which are ſix grand priories, and four principal commanderies. The annual revenues of the archbiſhops and biſhops amount, in the whole, to four millions three hundred and thirty-ſeven thouſand livres (one hundred and eighty-nine thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-four pounds ſterling). The number of monks and nuns is computed, in the whole, at above a hundred and ninety thouſand, whoſe income is ſaid greatly to exceed a hundred millions of livres (four million three hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand pounds ſterling). It has been calculated that the eccleſiaſtics in France compoſe one eightieth part of the whole population of the country. The eccleſiaſtical ſtate is compoſed of eighteen provinces, each of which conſiſts of an archbiſhopric, beſides the ſubordinate biſhops.

This polite nation have always diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their ſkill in the arts and ſciences. Painting was firſt brought to great perfection among them under Francis I. when Roux and Franciſco Bologneſe introduced all the beauty of that art into France, towards the beginning of the ſixteenth century; and ſince that time this kingdom has produced ſeveral eminent maſters. In 1648 was inſtituted at Paris the royal academy of painting and ſculpture: but it is ſaid that the ingenious art of painting is now on the decline in France, and is ſucceeded by a frivolous taſte, which is far from tending to the improvement of the liberal arts. Engraving has been brought to a perfection unequalled in any other part of Europe, until of late years Great Britain has attained as great a degree of eminence in that art. France has alſo made great advances in ſtatuary. It has likewiſe been famous for its architects; and the great Colbert, in 1671, founded a royal academy of architecture, who now hold their meetings in the Louvre. The French learned the art of ſhip-building from the Engliſh. Their reputation in military architecture is well known, and they alſo excel moſt nations in gunnery and fire works. At Paris, beſides the antient univerſity and royal college, are four academies, namely, the French academy, the academy of inſcriptions and belles lettres, that of ſurgery, and the academy of ſciences, with three others for the education of young noblemen. Beſides theſe, there are eight other univerſities in France, and ſeveral academies for the ſciences, polite arts, &c.

The manufactures and productions of France are ſupported and improved with the greateſt diligence. By the advice of the above-mentioned Colbert, that enlightened and public-ſpirited miniſter, Louis XIV. erected the manufacture of the Gobelins, at Paris, which is ſo called from two brothers, Giles and John Gobelin, who under Francis I. found out the method of dying a moſt beautiful ſcarlet, which was afterwards called by their name. The houſe of the Gobelins, at Paris, is full of the works of the moſt excellent maſters in tapeſtry, fillegree, and ſculpture; and in the article of tapeſtry alone, no leſs than two hundred perſons are conſtantly employed. There are alſo conſiderable manufactories of tapeſtry in ſeveral other parts of the kingdom. The French hiſtorians inform us, that ſilk manufactories were firſt ſet up in France in the reign of Louis IX. yet in the time of Henry II. ſilk was ſo ſcarce, that the king was the firſt who had ever been ſeen to wear a pair of ſilk ſtockings, which were a part of his dreſs at the marriage of his ſiſter. The ſucceeding kings made good regulations with reſpect to the culture of ſilk, and the planting of white mulberry-trees; but it was not till the time of Louis XIV. that this was brought to any conſiderable degree of proſperity; and under his government the quantity of raw ſilk produced in the provinces of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Provence alone, annually amounted to one million eight hundred thouſand pounds weight.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes has been of the greateſt detriment to the ſilk trade, by compelling the manufacturers, as was hinted above, to fly from France, to ſeek that protection, and to enjoy that religious liberty, which they were not allowed to poſſeſs at home. Hence the art of weaving ſilk is become almoſt univerſally known, and England has been enabled to ſurpaſs, in the elegance and beauty of their patterns, the French themſelves. Within theſe laſt hundred years the French have conſiderably improved their woollen manufactures, in which they have been aſſiſted by the clandeſtine exportation of wool from Great Britain and Ireland. Hence the cloths and other woollen ſtuffs made at Abbeville, are little inferior either in fineneſs or goodneſs to the Engliſh. Several provinces abound in manufactures of linen, thread, and ſail-cloth; and at Cambray is made the fine and beautiful linen called cambray linen, or cambric; and St. Quintin excels in its lawns. The glaſs manufacture is alſo of great advantage to France. In 1688, one Abraham Thevert contrived a method for caſting better and larger plates of looking glaſs than had been before known; but very lately a manufactory has been eſtabliſhed in the north of England, which produces plate glaſs equal in dimenſions to the largeſt that are caſt in France. There is a manufactory of very handſome porcelain at Vincennes.

The French carry on a very conſiderable trade, which conſiſts of gold and ſilver brocades, gold and ſilver embroideries, ſilk ſtuffs, ſattins, ſewing ſilks, crapes, cambric, lawn, fine linen, laces, toys, and millinery goods, tapeſtries of various kinds, fine cloths, pluſh, woollen ſtuffs, ſail-cloth, looking-glaſſes, drinking-glaſſes, paper, parchment, ſope, knives, and other hardware; wines of many ſorts, vinegar, brandy, corn, hemp, flax, walnut-tree wood, pot-aſh, pitch, turpentine, oil of turpentine, linſeed oil, and oil of olives, almonds, raiſins, cheſnuts, figs, prunes, capers, nuts, honey, ſaffron, ſalt, mules, and other articles.

They find great advantages to their inland trade, from the navigable rivers: and theſe have been joined at a vaſt expence by canals, the moſt famous of which is the royal canal in Languedoc. The coaſt trade is very conſiderable; for by this the maritime provinces reciprocally ſupply each other with their own produce. The land trade is carried on with Swiſſerland, by the way of Lyons; to Germany, through Metz and Straſburg; to Holland, by the way of Liſle; and to Spain, by the way of Perpignan and Bayonne. The French ports on the channel and the weſtern ocean are frequented by all the trading nations of Europe.

The trade with England, the United Provinces, and Italy, is of great advantage to France. However, but few French ſhips are ſeen in the ports of the northern nations. Their trade on the Mediterranean with Aſia and Africa, has, for ſome years, been very conſiderable; and the far greateſt part of it is carried on by the city of Marſeilles alone. They alſo carry on a conſiderable traffic to Guiney for gold, ivory, and ſlaves for their American colonies. The Eaſt India trade is in the hands of a company at Port L'Orient, in Brittany. To all which may be now added a commerce, by treaty, with the Britiſh North American colonies, which, by having involved her in a ruinous war with Great Britain, has hitherto brought no acceſſion of

wealth to France. A peace being now concluded between the ſeveral powers at war, we ſhall, in our hiſtory of this country, give ſome account of the commercial articles of the treaty, as they reſpect her trade with America.

In France, the gold coins are the louis d'or, of one pound value; there are alſo double and half louis; and a piſtole is eight ſhillings and four-pence. With reſpect to the ſilver coin, one louis blanc is five ſhillings. The ecu, or crown, is equal to three livres; ſixty ſous, or ſeven hundred and twenty deniers, equal to our half crown.

They keep accounts in France in livres, ſous, and deniers. One livre contains twenty ſous, and one ſou twelve deniers. The French livre is of the value of ten pence halfpenny, one ſou is worth a half-penny, and conſequently the denier is the ſixth part of a farthing. The liard is a ſmall piece of copper, of the value of three deniers.

SECT. II.

Deſcribing the Situation, Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities in PROVENCE; together with an Account of the Town of AVIGNON, formerly ſubject to the Eccleſiaſtical State; and of the Province of DAUPHINE, its Cities, Towns, Rivers, Springs, &c.

IT is neceſſary to premiſe, that France is now divided into thirty-ſix generalities, or general governments; we ſhall therefore, in our ſurvey of this extenſive country, begin at the ſouth-eaſt, and, firſt of all take notice of

That diſtrict of France called Provence, ſo called from the latin Provincia, it is about one hundred and forty miles in length; and about ninety in breadth, from the iſles of Hieres to the village of Sauze. It is bounded, on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean; on the eaſt, by the Alps and the river Var, which divide it from the territories belonging to the king of Sardinia; and on the weſt is ſeparated from Languedoc by the Rhone.

It is divided into Upper and Lower Provence: Upper Provence enjoys a pretty temperate air, and has a great deal of meadow ground, well ſtocked with cattle: it alſo produces corn, apples, and pears, though but little wine. Lower Provence, on the contrary, is extremely hot; and near the ſea-coaſt would be much more ſo, were not the air refreſhed by a breeze, which uſually laſts from nine or ten in the morning till the evening. The north-weſt wind alſo cools the country, and ſometimes, particularly after rain, blows freſh. In this lower part there is not half corn enough produced for the ſubſiſtence of its inhabitants; but the ſoil being dry and ſandy, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and olives, with maſtick, cypreſs, palm, and the African cacia-trees, thrive extremely; as do alſo ſhrubs of all kinds, ſuch as brue, which reſembles box, only the leaves are longer and more pointed, bearing a red fruit, which continues on all the year round, and by a particular ſingularity, proceeds out of the middle of the leaf. The ſea-cherry-tree has a leaf like the alkermes, and its fruit reſembles a cherry. The wine in Lower Provence is thick, luſcious, and heady; but muſcadel is the ſort moſt admired.

There are ſome quarries of black agate in this province. Here is a ſmall delicious bird, called the beccafigo, that feeds only on grapes and figs; and, among the ſea fiſh, a remarkable kind called the date, ſo named from the reſemblance of its ſhape to that fruit, and is found within hollow ſtones in the road and harbour of Toulon: in order to get them out, the ſtone muſt be broke; they alſo abound along the coaſt of the marquiſate of Ancona, on the Adriatic.

There are no conſiderable rivers in this part of the country: the chief are, the Durance, the Soarge, the Largons, and the Var, the laſt divides France from Italy. The principal port is Toulon; beſides which, there are ſeveral capes, bays, and harbours.

The principal places in Lower Provence are: 1. Aix, in Latin Aquæ Sextiæ, called Aquæ pomits baths, and Sextiæ pomits, being enlarged and beautified by Sextus Calvinus. This city, which is the capital of Provence, ſtands in a valley of conſiderable extent, planted chiefly with olives, in the latitude of forty-five degrees fifty-four minutes, and in ſix degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, twenty miles to the northward of Marſeilles, and thirty-five to the ſouth-eaſt of Avignon. It is rather populous than large; the ſtreets are well paved, and the houſes handſome, and moſt of them built of free-ſtone; there is a beautiful ſpacious walk within the city called Orbitelle, conſiſting of three rows of trees a mile long, interſperſed with fountains, and on each ſide are elegant uniform buildings; this is the uſual walk of the citizens. This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who enjoys a revenue of thirty-two thouſand livres (fourteen hundred pounds ſterling) out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thouſand five hundred florins. In the cathedral is a conſecrated roſe of gold, the preſent of pope Innocent IV. to count Raymond Berenger. In this city are alſo two colleges, with an univerſity founded in 1409, an academy of the polite arts erected in 1668, a public library in the town-houſe, eighteen convents, a palace formerly the reſidence of the counts of Provence, and now of the high bailiff. Here is alſo a mint; and this city is the ſeat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, a court of taxes, and many other public offices. The nobility of Provence reſide here, eſpecially in winter; ſo that this city is ſaid to have the moſt agreeable company, next to Paris, of any place in the whole kingdom. In its ſuburbs the warm mineral ſpring, once ſo celebrated, was found a ſecond time in 1704; but its antient virtues are much decayed. The principal trade of this country conſiſts in its fine oil; ſome ſtuffs are alſo made here, and excellent wine is produced in its neighbourhood.

The city of Arles (the antient Arellas, Arelata, and Arelatum) is large and well-built, ſeated on the eaſt bank of the Rhone, in forty-three deg. thirty-two min. north lat. and in four deg. forty-five min. eaſt long. upon very uneven ground, and almoſt ſurrounded by a moraſs, which renders the air thick and unhealthful. Over the Rhone is a wooden bridge, to preſerve the communication with Languedoc. The cathedral is a vaſt Gothic ſtructure, charged with an infinite number of figures, and the high altar is adorned with a tabernacle of ſilver, an admirable piece repreſenting the martyrdom of St. Stephen, to whom the church is dedicated. The archbiſhop ſtiles himſelf prince of Montaragon, has a province of fifty-one pariſhes, and an annual revenue of thirty-three thouſand livres; (one thouſand four hundred and forty-four pounds ſterling) out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thouſand and eight florins. Beſides the cathedral it contains one collegiate and ſeven pariſh churches, with an abbey, fourteen convents, an hoſpital, and a royal academy of ſciences founded in 1688. The town-houſe is an elegant regular ſtructure, finely ſituated. It is of a ſquare form, adorned with three orders of architecture, one above another: the portico (the roof of which is ſupported by twenty columns) is magnificent, and embelliſhed with the buſts of the counts of Provence.

Several councils have been held here, the moſt antient and diſtinguiſhed of which was in 1314. This town was antiently the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, which was alſo called the kingdom of Arles, and the diſtrict belonging to this city is ſtill very extenſive.

Many Roman antiquities have been found at Arles; among which is a large obeliſk of porphyry, which was dug up here in 1675, and in 1676 ſet up again and dedicated to Louis XIV. It is of one entire ſtone, fifty-two feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe. On the top is placed an azure globe, ſtrewed with golden lilies; and a ſun, which was that prince's device; but the valuable monument above is far from being graced by its new plain pedeſtal of ſand-ſtone.

The ruins of an amphitheatre, ſuppoſed to have been built by Julius Cæſar, are alſo to be ſeen here: the building was of an oval form, one hundred and ninety-four fathoms in circumference, the longeſt diameter of the area ſeventy-one fathoms, and the ſhorteſt fifty-two. The porticoes are three ſtories high, built of free-ſtone of a prodigious ſize; each ſtory contains ſixty arches, which ſtill remain, and the walls are of a ſurpriſing thickneſs, but very much decayed. However, this fine monument of antiquity is almoſt entirely concealed by the private houſes built about it. Here is alſo the fragment of a circus, with two columns of marble of the Corinthian order; the remains of a Roman capitol erected here, and a large collection of Roman ſepulchral monuments, urns, and the like, kept in the archbiſhop's palace; an urn of a very extraordinary dimenſion, containing above twenty gallons, is found among the reſt.

There is a place called the Elyſian Fields, near the city, where the Romans uſed to bury the aſhes of their dead. Accordingly, here are ſeen an incredible number of ſtone and marble ſarcophagi, ſome ſtanding half, and ſome entirely out of the ground. The ſpot on which they ſtand

may be called a mine of antiquities. These fields afterwards became a Christian cemetery.

The Rhone divides itself, near the city, into two large branches, forming the island of Camargue, called in Latin Camaria, which, being intersected with several canals, is one of the best and most fruitful tracts in this country.

The second city in Provence, but the first in point of trade, is Marseilles, in Latin Massalia, and Massilia: it is large, rich, and the most antient place in all this province, and said to have been built five hundred years before the birth of Christ. It is seated at the foot of a rocky mountain near the sea, in forty-three degrees eighteen minutes north latitude, and in five degrees twenty-seven minutes east longitude, twenty miles to the south of Aix, and thirty to the north-west of Toulon. It is divided into the Old and New Town: the former stands on an eminence, and consists of narrow crooked streets with mean houses; but in the latter the streets are strait and broad, and adorned with handsome edifices. The Walk is a very fine street, with beautiful houses on each side, and in the middle two rows of lofty trees, which form a fine vista; and here are a great number of benches for resting-places.

Marseilles is the residence of a high bailiff, and has a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Arles, who has a diocese containing thirty-six parishes, with an annual revenue of thirty thousand livres (one thousand three hundred and thirteen pounds sterling), and he pays to Rome seven hundred florins. In this city are four parish churches, including the cathedral, which is said to have been a temple of Diana, and the most antient in France, and two collegiate ones, with two abbies, an academy of the polite arts, and an observatory. This city contains also a mint, and a large arsenal, well stored with materials for fitting out the king's gallies. The large armoury, which consists of four walks cross-wise, and is esteemed the finest in the whole kingdom, contains arms for forty thousand men. In the arsenal is a dock for building the gallies, which is roofed over, and has a communication with the harbour, which is in the form of a parallelogram, and has public and private buildings in the two long sides, and on one of the shorter. The other, which opens into the Mediterranean, is defended on each point by a fine strong fort. The entrance into the harbour has not depth of water sufficient for men of war, and is rendered difficult by a rocky cape near it.

There is a most delightful plain on the land side: there are said to be on it no less than eight hundred country seats of the citizens, with their gardens and vineyards, whither they retire from the noise of the town, which is very disagreeable from the multitude of slaves in the streets rattling their chains, some of whom have little shops and huts, where they are allowed to work at their trades, and others serve as porters.

The inhabitants make gold and silver stuffs. To Italy they export cloths, serges, honey, figs, prunes, olives, capers, fresh eels, a species of small sardines, oil, sail-cloth, brandy, cotton waistcoats, stockings, &c. and the returns are made in silk, hemp, sulphur, manna, anise, corn, and rice. To Spain, they export all kinds of linen, silk, wool, gold and silver stuffs, gold, silver, and thread lace, with several home and Levant commodities; and their trade in silk to Constantinople, Smyrna, Athens, Candia, the Archipelago, Tripoli, and Alexandria, is very considerable. Almost all the trade of France with Spain and Italy is carried on by Marseilles, which is also the centre of the commerce with the Levant. This city was visited, in 1720, by a most dreadful pestilence, which raged for near two years.

The next considerable city is that of Toulon, which is pretty large: it is situated in a bottom, almost encompassed with hills on the land-side, and on a bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a secure and commodious harbour, in the latitude of forty-three degrees five minutes, and in the sixth degree two minutes east longitude: near four hundred miles south-east of Paris. It is defended by very strong fortifications towards the land-side, and the new part of the town is very handsome. The bishop of this city is subject to the archbishop of Arles, under whom he has a diocese of twenty-five parishes, with an annual revenue of fifteen thousand livres, (six hundred and fifty-seven pounds sterling) out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is four hundred florins. Besides the cathedral, it has nine convents, a seminary, and a college, under the direction of the fathers of the oratory, and the jesuits had here a very fine house.

The old and new harbour lie contiguous, and by means of a canal you pass from one to the other, both having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour, which is surrounded with hills, and formed by nature almost circular. Its circuit is of very great extent; and at the entrance of both sides is defended by a fort with strong batteries. The new harbour, which was made by order of Lewis XIV. is also well defended by batteries, and round it stands the arsenal, where every man of war has its own particular store-house; but the guns and cordage are laid up separate. In it are also spacious work-houses for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, lock-smiths, carvers, &c. The rope-house, which is built entirely of free-stone, is six hundred and forty yards in length, with three arched walks, in which as many parties of rope-makers may work at the same time. The general magazine, which supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses for single ships, contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order. The cannon foundery is also worth the notice of a curious traveller.

The duke of Savoy, in 1707, laid siege to this city, but without success; and in 1721, it suffered greatly by the plague. The inhabitants make a kind of coarse woollen-cloth, and there is great plenty of capers in its neighbourhood.

The small town of Hieres, the antient Areæ, was formerly much more considerable than at present; it having once an harbour where pilgrims used to embark for the Holy Land. This town has a district court, and several public offices; it also contains one collegiate, with two other parish-churches, and five monasteries and nunneries. The soil is excellent, and being laid out in orchards, produces the finest fruit in France. A great deal of salt is made here, both from sea water and a large salt lake; but the air was unwholesome, until a canal was formed, which extends from the lake to the sea, whereby the inconvenience was remedied.

The islands of Hieres take their name from this town: they lie in the neighbouring sea, and, in conjunction with the continent, form a fine road. These islands are three in number. The principal, which lies nearest town, is Porqueroles, so called from the great number of wild hogs, which swim over hither from the continent, for the sake of the acorns, abundance of oaks growing here. It is four French leagues in length, one in breadth, and is defended by an old castle. The second is Portecroz, that being the name of the harbour where a fort is built. The third is called Titan or Levant, from its situation to the eastward of the former; but though it is four French leagues in length and one broad, it is uninhabited. On these islands are said to be found curious medicinal plants of all the species that grow in Greece, Egypt, Spain, and Italy.

The city of Frejus, antiently called Forum Julii, is seated on the river Argent, at the distance of a mile and a half from the sea, and thirty-six miles to the north-east of Toulon. It is a fortified place, has a court of admiralty, is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Aix, and has within his diocese eighty-eight parishes, with a yearly revenue of twenty-eight thousand livres, (one thousand two hundred and twenty-six pounds sterling) out of which he is taxed one thousand florins at the court of Rome. This city contains four convents. Among the remains of Roman antiquities, here are an amphitheatre, and an aqueduct of considerable length.

The city of Sisteron is the principal place in Upper Provence, it has a small citadel, seated at the foot of a rock on the Durance, thirty miles to the south-west of Embern, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Aix, who has sixty-four parishes, and a revenue of one thousand five hundred livres (six hundred and fifty-seven pounds sterling) per annum, and his taxation at the court of Rome is eight thousand florins. Here is a cathedral and five convents, and on the other side of the river is a pretty large suburb called La Baune, which contains one parish-church, and one convent.

Avignon, though lately taken from the pope, is nevertheless for the most part surrounded by Provence; and the natives of Avignon enjoy the privileges of those of France. This country is very delightful, and particularly abounds in corn, wine, and saffron. While subject to the pope, it paid few taxes, and only the tenth of its produce; so that the annual expence of the vice-legate, and the militia, exceeded the income arising from it to the court of Rome. Yet the French farmers-general, by means of a sum of money, obtained the monopoly of salt and tobacco in this country, though that trade was carried on in the name of the pope.

The celebrated town of Avignon, in Latin Avenis, is

ſituated on the river Rhone, about twenty miles to the north of Arles, and is ſurrounded with a wall of fine free-ſtone; but has little trade, eſpecially ſince the manufactory of printed linen, which afforded a comfortable ſubſiſtence to great numbers of the inhabitants, was ſuppreſſed in favour of the French Eaſt-India company, who purchaſed this prohibition of the pope by paying him a conſiderable ſum. The vice-legate, as governor, uſually reſided in the papal palace, which is a large ſtructure of free-ſtone, encompaſſed with moats; but is far from being a regular edifice. The arſenal is a long lofty building, but without any other fire-arms than what are juſt neceſſary to be diſcharged on public rejoicings. The upper court of the vice-legate is called the Rota, and has a right of appeal to Rome. The cathedral, which ſtands on the ſame eminence with the palace, is not very large. In two chapels, are to be ſeen the monuments of pope Benedict XII. and John XXII. and alſo the chair or throne of the antient popes, during their reſidence here. In the church of the Celeſtines are fine paintings of the pretended miracles performed by Cardinal Peter of Luxemburg, to whom the church is dedicated. In this church is alſo a ſplendid chapel, and a monument in it erected in honour of ſome ſhepherds, who are ſaid to have built the ſtone bridge here over the Rhone. In the church of the Franciſcans, is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, immortalized by the poetry and paſſion of the celebrated Petrarch. In this town were two ſocieties of jeſuits, to one of which belongs a fine college, with an univerſity founded in 1303. In this city the Jews enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. The popes reſided here from the year 1305 to 1377.

We now proceed to a deſcription of the province of Dauphine, which is bounded, on the north, by the county of Breſſe and the river Rhone; on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Piedmont by the Alps and Savoy; on the ſouth it borders on Provence; and on the weſt by the Rhone. It is nearly of a triangular form, each ſide of the triangle being about a hundred Engliſh miles in length. It is divided into Upper and Lower Dauphine.

The latter produces corn, wine, olives, ſilk, hemp, ſalt, wood, vitriol, cryſtal, iron, copper, and lead; but Upper Dauphine, and indeed, above two-thirds of the whole province, being very mountainous, are ſo barren, that great numbers of the natives ſeek for ſubſiſtence in other parts; yet theſe mountains have ſome uſeful products, and contain many curioſities. In thoſe of Ambrun and Die, are found marcaſites. The golden mountain, as it is called, yields a ſpecies of cryſtal. Several mountains are covered with larch trees, on the rind of which is gathered manna, Benjamin of a delightful fragrance, and agaric, which is uſed in phyſic and ſcarlet dyes. Theſe mountains have on them many beaſts that are not found in any other part of France, particularly the chamois, bear, and marmot, and alſo hawks, eagles, and other birds.

Several remarkable phænomena are to be ſeen in this province. The firſt is the burning ſpring, on a hill nine miles from Grenoble: it is a little brook, which iſſues from a ſoil emitting ſmoke, and even ſmall flames have been ſometimes perceived in it, which communicated heat to the water; but for theſe two centuries paſt, this rivulet has altered its courſe to the diſtance of twelve feet from that igneous ſoil, and is now as cold as common water. The ſecond wonder is the Tower without Vernon, about a league from Grenoble, it being pretended that no venomous creature will ſtay in it; but this is a notorious miſtake, it being known to ſwarm with adders and ſpiders. The third is called the innacceſſible mountain; which is a ſteep, craggy rock, ſituated on a very high mountain, about two leagues from Die: but though it is extremely difficult to climb up to the top of it, this has been frequently done. The fourth is, the caves of Saſſanage, which are two excavated ſtones, that lie in a grotto near a village of that name. The country people relate, that annually on the ſixth of January, they become full of water; and that the quantity of it, in one of theſe ſtones, foretells whether they ſhall have a good or bad winter; and the other prognoſticates whether they ſhall have a good or bad harveſt of corn. But there is a great deal of artifice uſed to ſupport the credit of theſe wonders; of which there are ſeveral others in this province, and, among the reſt, a water-fall in a grotto near the above caves, and the floating meadow in the lake Palhotiers, but this ſuppoſed meadow conſiſts moſtly of graſs and ruſhes, which the ſlime of the water cements together.

The valley of La Mothe, about five leagues from Grenoble, runs between two high mountains, and enjoys no other proſpect but that of bare and ſteep rocks. Its waters are highly eſteemed, as a certain remedy againſt all diſorders of the ſtomach, fluxes, and even lameneſs, they being much better than the water at Aix, in Savoy. The only dwellings here are wretched huts of ſtraw, ſo that the country is in every reſpect diſagreeable. The Drac, a very rapid river, proceeding from the high part of the diſtrict of Gap, is, as it were, ſqueezed in at La Mothe, between two high rocks. On its ſhore, at the foot of a very ſteep rock, is the mineral ſpring, which, if the river riſes but half a foot, is covered with its turbid water. To come at the ſpring, a perſon muſt clamber half a French league over ſteep rocks and dreadful precipices, which ſeem to threaten the paſſenger with immediate deſtruction; and therefore it is no wonder that theſe excellent waters are but little reſorted to. In this province are alſo ſeveral other mineral ſprings. The principal rivers are the Rhone, the Durance, the Iſere, and the Drome.

Here are two archbiſhoprics and five biſhoprics. The governor and lieutenant-general of the province ſit in the parliament, and take place above the chief preſident. The civil law takes place here; the inhabitants have alſo particular cuſtoms of their own, and likewiſe a parliament, which is alſo a court of taxes, with one provincial court of juſtice, ſeven prefecturates, three bailiwics, four royal juriſdictions, and as many private lordſhips.

The city or town of Grenoble, called in latin, Gratianopolis, is the capital of the province: it is pleaſantly ſituated at the foot of a mountain on the river Iſere, near the place where the river Drac diſcharges itſelf into it. Here the parliament meets. This city has alſo an intendency, a chamber of accompts, a court of taxes, a mint, and a court of the lord treaſurer of France. It is a pleaſant populous city, and, beſides other fortifications, is defended by a citadel, called the Baſtile. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Vienne, and has a revenue of twenty-eight thouſand livres, or one thouſand two hundred and twenty-five pounds ſterling, out of which he is taxed to Rome one thouſand florins.

The river Iſere divides this city into two unequal parts, the ſmalleſt of which is called La Perriere, and contains one pariſh-church, and one convent. The name of the largeſt is Bonne; this is the moſt beautiful; it being built with ſtrait, handſome ſtreets: and contains ſeveral magnificent public buildings, as, the biſhop's palace, the cathedral, the arſenal, a general hoſpital, and the palace in which are held the courts of juſtice.

The moſt celebrated of all the convents belonging to the order of Carthuſians, is the Grand Chartreuſe, ſituated on the Alps, at the diſtance of three leagues from Grenoble. There are two ways leading to it, but both are carried over ſteep rocks and precipices of a dreadful height, the terror of which is increaſed by the roaring of the river Guyer la Mort, during its precipitate courſe among them. The convent, which ſtands on an eminence, is environed with rocks and mountains covered with wood, that riſe to a much greater height. This convent forms a ſpacious oblong ſquare, walled in, and on the inſide are a few inns and ſtables. In the large hall of this convent is annually held the general chapter of the order of the Carthuſians, where the German priors take the precedence of all others; and, at their arrival, may ride into the court of the convent, which none of the reſt are permitted to do; but, like the others, muſt alight at the gate. In the hall are fine paintings, repreſenting the life of St. Bruno, and likewiſe the pictures of the generals of the order. The former are copies of the admirable paintings in the Chartreuſe at Paris. In a large gallery may be ſeen views of all the Carthuſian convents in Chriſtendom, moſt of which are executed by eminent hands. The church is not large, but very magnificent; and, among other relics, it is ſaid to contain the arm of St. Bruno, his body being interred in Calabria. The firſt ſettlement of Bruno and his diſciples was half a league from this place, and it having no particular name, was ſo called from Carthreuſe, a village ſtill in being, ſituated near it in a valley. This convent is the head of the order, and chuſes the general, who is obliged to reſide here during life. From the kitchen of this monaſtery above one hundred perſons are daily fed, and, among them, thirty monks and forty lay-brothers; and all ſtrangers are entertained here gratis. The wine-cellar conſiſts of two lanes lined with caſks of an extraordinary ſize, which being immoveable, are filled through the roof by means of leather pipes.

The town of Briançon, capital of a territory called Briançonnois, ſtands forty-five miles ſouth-eaſt of Grenoble, on

on the ſide of a ſteep rock, which has a caſtle on the top of it: the two little rivers Dure and Ance, by uniting their ſtreams, form the river Durance, near this town.

About twenty miles to the ſouth of Briançon, is Ambrun, or Embrun, the capital of the territory of Ambrunois: it ſtands on a ſteep rock, at the foot of which runs the river Durance. This place is ſtrong both by art and nature, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who ſtiles himſelf prince and count of Ambrun, and baron of Guilleſtre and Beaufort: he has alſo one half of the lordſhip and juriſdiction of the city. His annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thouſand four hundred florins. The epiſcopal palace is the fineſt building in the city, and had lately a college of jeſuits: beſides the cathedral, it contains five pariſh churches, with a capuchin convent.

The antient city of Vienne, in Latin, Vienna Allobrogum, is ſituated on the Rhone, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth of Lyons, and is the capital of a diſtrict in Lower Dauphine, called Viennois. This place is very extenſive; but the ſtreets are narrow and ill-paved. Anchors and ſword-blades are made here, with other manufactures in iron and ſteel; there are alſo paper-mills. Here is a priory, nine convents, and a ſeminary. The cathedral is a beautiful ſtructure, and in it are three chapters. The archbiſhop of this place enjoys the title of upper primate of Gaul, and his annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thouſand livres, (nine hundred and ſixty-three pounds ſterling) out of which the court of Rome receives one thouſand eight hundred and fifty-four florins.

The laſt town we ſhall mention, in this province, is Palene, in Latin Valentia, the capital of a diſtrict called Valentinois, is ſeated on the Rhone, forty-eight miles to the ſouth of Lyons, and is pretty well built: it is large, and one of the moſt ancient cities in France, it having been formerly a Roman colony. The biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Vienne, and has an annual revenue of ſixteen thouſand livres, (ſeven hundred pounds ſterling) out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thouſand three hundred and eighty-nine florins. The epiſcopal palace is a fine building: beſides the cathedral, and an univerſity, it contains one chapter, and three abbies, with ſix convents.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of the Boundaries and Situation, Extent, Produce, Towns, Mountains, Rivers of FRANCHE COMTE, ALSACE; the Duchies of LORRAIN and BAR; the MESSIN, or Government of METZ; and the Counties of VERDUN and TOULOIS; alſo an Account of the Inhabitants, their Manners, Cuſtoms, Manufactures, Trade, &c.

FRANCHE Comté, called alſo the earldom of Burgundy, is bounded, on the north, by Lorrain; on the eaſt, by the earldom of Mumplegard and Swiſſerland; and on the ſouth and weſt by the government of Burgundy and Champagne. Its extent from ſouth to north is about ninety miles, and from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt ſixty. Almoſt one-half of it is a level country, abounding in corn, wine, paſtures, hemp, &c. and the other half is mountainous, but produces ſome corn and wine, and a good breed of cattle.

Here are mines of copper, iron, lead, and ſilver. Near the village of Touillon is a ſpring that runs and ceaſes at ſtated times, and the town of Salines has profitable ſalt-ſprings and marſhes. In this diſtrict are likewiſe quarries of alabaſter and marble; and alſo near the river Doux is a large grotto, in which nature has formed pillars, and a ſurpriſing variety of figures; and near Leugne is a natural cavern of ice, which freezes in ſummer, and thaws in winter.

The Saone, Ougnon, Doux, Louve, and Dain, are the principal rivers.

This province has a parliament of its own; it is ſubject to a governor, lieutenant-general, and ſub-governor; and is divided into four large diſtricts, the principal places in which are the following; namely,

1. Beſançon, in Latin Veſontio, and Beſontium, the capital of the country, is a hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is the ſeat of an archbiſhop, a parliament, an intendency, a bailiwic, a county and a mint-court, &c. It is divided by the river Doux into the Upper or Old Town, and the Lower or New Town, and is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications: it is alſo defended by a citadel that ſtands on a ſteep rock, and is an oblong ſquare, flanked with four irregular baſtions, the ground being too uneven to admit of regular works. Until the peace of Weſtphalia it was an imperial city, but at that time was transferred to Spain: it was afterwards taken by France, and its fortifications were greatly ſtrengthened by Lewis XIV. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. John, ſtands at the foot of mount St. Stephen; and the archbiſhop, who ſtiles himſelf a prince of the empire, has three ſuffragans under him, with a revenue of thirty-ſix thouſand livres, (one thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-five pounds ſterling) out of which he pays a thouſand and twenty-three florins to the court of Rome. The city alſo contains two chapters, eight pariſh-churches, two abbies of monks, and two of nuns, twelve convents, one univerſity, three hoſpitals, and had a college of Jeſuits. The town-houſe, the governor's palace, and that of Granville, are the moſt remarkable buildings in the place; the laſt of which is furniſhed with a great variety of excellent ſtatues and pictures, and a library containing a great number of valuable books and manuſcripts. In the neighbourhood of Beſançon are the ruins of an amphitheatre, one hundred and twenty feet in diameter, and of ſome pagan temples, with a triumphal arch dedicated to Aurelian the Roman emperor.

2. Salines, in Latin Salinæ, ſo called from an excellent ſalt-ſpring, which yields the crown a great revenue, is pleaſantly ſituated on a rivulet in a valley between two mountains, twenty miles to the ſouth of Beſançon, and two hundred to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris. It is a long town, chiefly conſiſting of one ſtreet, and has four chapters, four pariſh churches, ten convents, one college, and one hoſpital. The hall, in which the inhabitants have their magazine of ſalt, and where the courts of juſtice are held, is a magnificent building. The town is defended by a wall, and near it ſtands fort Belin, which is ſeated on a hill, and on another is fort Brecon, and a caſtle. The city contains five or ſix thouſand inhabitants, and in its neighbourhood are quarries of black marble, jaſper, and beautiful alabaſter.

3. Dole is ſeated on the river Doux, eighteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Beſançon, in a diſtrict of the ſame name, which, from its beauty and fertility, is ſtiled Val d'Amour, or, the Vale of Love. Dole was formerly, while Beſançon continued a free imperial city, the capital of the country, the ſeat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, and of an univerſity. On its being taken by Lewis XIV. in 1688, he cauſed the fortifications to be demoliſhed; it was afterwards taken by the Spaniards, who fortified it again; but the French retaking it in 1674, it was a ſecond time diſmantled, and the parliament and univerſity afterwards removed to Beſançon; but the chamber of accounts ſtill remain here. It is ſtill a pretty town, the ſtreets are ſpacious, and the houſes tolerably well built. The public edifices moſt worthy of notice are the church of our Lady, the Jeſuits college, and the palace where the parliament was held. It has alſo one chapter, eleven convents of both ſexes, and an hoſpital. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to between four and five thouſand. Here are ſtill the remains of an antient aqueduct, and ſeveral other Roman antiquities.

4. Gray, in Latin Gradicum, is a pretty trading town ſeated on the Saone, about ten miles to the north-weſt of Beſançon, and was well fortified till taken by Lewis XIV. in 1668, who demoliſhed the works. It contains but one pariſh church, a collegiate church, five convents, and had a college of Jeſuits. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about four thouſand. Here they embark great quantities of corn, iron, and other merchandize, which they tranſport to Lyons.

The delightful and fertile country of Alſace is bounded, on the ſouth, by Swiſſerland and the Franche Comté; on the eaſt, by the Rhine; on the north, by the palatinate; and on the weſt, by Lorrain; extending from north to ſouth about eighty-five miles. The country in general is very pleaſant, and abounds in all kinds of grain, fruit, eſculent vegetables, flax, tobacco, and wood: its wine is very palatable, and its paſtures are alſo rich. The country between the rivers Ill, the Haardt, and the Rhine, is narrow, and but indifferently fertile; but has ſome vineyards and a few paſtures: here rye, barley, and oats, are the only grain; but that part which lies between the mountains, the Ill, and the plain of Soults, in Upper Alſace, to the diſtance of ſix miles beyond Hagenau, yields an exuberance of grain, wine, and paſtures. The mountains abound in wood, and though they produce but little corn, they feed large herds of cattle. The country from mount Saverne, and the levels from about Straſburg to the Rhine, are

are incomparably fertile and delightful, the lands being rich in all kinds of grain, tobacco, saffron, hemp, and kitchen herbs.

The Wasgau, called in French the Vosge, is the chief chain of mountains in this country. It begins in the neighbourhood of Langres, and extending at first from west to east, separates the country of Burgundy from Lorrain. After this, winding towards the north, it separates Lorrain from Alsace, and forms another curve towards the electorate of Triers. The summits and valleys of this chain, as well as the plains of Alsace, according to Busching, produce a hundred and fifty kinds of trees and shrubs, and fifteen hundred and fifty species of herbs, which all grow wild. This chain has also some excellent pastures, and the eminences, where the soil is favoured with a sunny exposure, produce very agreeable red and white wine, of which a great deal of brandy, vinegar, and tartar, is made. This chain of mountains has also for these several centuries past been famous for its mines of silver, copper, and lead; several parts also abound in iron, antimony, cobalt, sulphur, and other minerals. A great number of churches, chapels, and convents, are also built upon them.

That celebrated river, called the Rhine, which serves as a security to this country, frequently causes terrible devastations, not only in winter, but in the midst of summer, when the snow melts on the Alps. Its inundations then greatly injure the fields, by covering them with sand. The violent torrents of the Rhine, which generally happen every year, frequently alter the situation of the islands within it. It is remarkable of this river, that in its sand are found particles of gold, which the torrents in their fall wash from the Alps, and bring into it; so that it is only below Basil that the sand contains this precious mixture; which in autumn and winter, when the river is at the lowest, is drawn out with the sand, and, after passing through several waters, the gold is extracted. The particles of this metal are seldom so large as a grain of millet; the gold is indeed very fine and beautiful; but is so scarce, that the city of Strasburg, which has the privilege of gathering gold for the length of four thousand paces, scarce collects five ounces in a year. In the Rhine are also found a particular kind of pebbles, that receive a beautiful polish, and are much used in France; this river also contains many pebbles.

From the above chain of mountains issue the following rivers, which run into Lower Alsace; namely, the Leber, the Cher, the Andlau, the Ergers, and the Breusch; the three last run into the Ill: The Serr, Motter, Seltzbach, Lauter, and Queich, run into the Rhine; into which river also run the Berre and Ill, in Upper Alsace.

It is computed that there are about half a million of inhabitants in Alsace. Their common language is the German, and they are partly Lutherans, and partly Roman catholics. In Upper Alsace and Sundgau are thirty-two large and small towns; in Lower Alsace, thirty-nine; and in both are upwards of one thousand small towns and villages.

This country has been subject to several German families, and particularly to the house of Austria; but at the peace of Munster the emperor ceded to the crown of France all right to the town of Brisac, the landgravate of Upper and Lower Alsace, Sundgau, and the district of the ten united imperial cities in Alsace, with the whole sovereignty belonging to them. On the other hand, France engaged that the inhabitants should continue unmolested in the enjoyment of their freedom; and promised to be satisfied with the power which the house of Austria has enjoyed over them, and had transferred to France by that treaty. In the succeeding wars, France took the ten imperial cities in Alsace; and as, by the peace of Nimeguen, no express stipulation was made for their restitution, the king treated them as a part of his acquisitions, and directed a chamber of appeals at Brisac, to which not only those cities, but the nobility of the empire, and all others holding imperial lands in Alsace, were to bring their processes, and not to the imperial chamber of the empire. The emperor and the empire ceded to France the perpetual sovereignty of the city of Strasburg, and of all its dependencies on the left side of the Rhine, by the treaty of Ryswic, in 1697.

Strasburg, in Latin Argentoratum, is the principal place in Upper Alsace, and capital of the whole country. It is not very well fortified, but by means of a sluice in the city may be laid under water. The ramparts are extremely pleasant, and planted round with trees, and towards the Rhine it has a regular citadel. This is a royal, free, imperial city, and the seat of a mint court. It stands in forty-eight degrees thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in seven degrees forty-one minutes east longitude, near two miles distant from the Rhine, and is surrounded by the rivers Ill and Breusch, which also run through it; besides which, an arm of the Rhine is conveyed to the city, which is large and populous, containing about thirty-two thousand houses, four thousand three hundred families, and thirty thousand inhabitants. The streets are all of them narrow, except two, and are adorned with few handsome houses. The public buildings are the town-house, the episcopal palace, that of the intendant, the arsenal, and the play-house. The French hospital is a fine building, it being erected by Louis XIV. for the reception of his soldiers. In the city hospital is kept corn of a great age, and they are said to have wine that is some hundred years old.

The most antient structure in these parts is the cathedral, which being finished in the year 1449, the protestants are consequently not chargeable with the satirical sculptures which a few years ago were to be seen on the cornices and pedestals, representing monkies, asses, hogs, and other animals in monkish habits; and, amongst the rest, a monk in an indecent posture with a nun. It is supposed that these were done by order of the secular clergy, to be revenged on the monks for the ill offices they were always doing them. The steeple of the cathedral is justly reckoned one of the highest in Europe, it being five hundred and seventy-four feet in height. The clock belonging to this structure has been greatly admired; for it not only shewed the hours of the day, but the motion of the sun, moon, and stars: among other things, there was an angel which turned an hour-glass every hour, and the twelve apostles proclaimed noon by each of them striking a blow with a hammer on a bell; there was likewise a cock, which stepped out, and crowed every hour: but this curious clock has been long out of repair. Here are a triple set of missal vestments and altar furniture, six large silver chandeliers, each so heavy that it requires a strong man to carry it, and a crucifix of double the weight. These seven pieces of plate weigh, together, one thousand and sixty-six pounds eight ounces. Among the curiosities within this church are also the furniture and ornaments which Lewis XIV. presented to it, and are extremely rich and magnificent; fifty persons, it is said, were employed on them during eleven years, and they cost that prince six hundred thousand dollars: the principal of these is a splendid altar cloth.

Here are also three collegiate churches, two of which are parochial, together with four others belonging to the Romish community; but the Lutherans are in possession of St. Thomas's church, in which the illustrious count Maurice of Saxony was interred in the year 1751; yet the protestants do not perform their worship in the city, but at Wolfisheim: here are also six convents. The university and gymnasium are Lutherans; and here are also an anatomical theatre, a physic garden, a royal society founded in 1752, and particularly instituted for the natural history of Alsace.

The grand council consists of thirty members, ten of whom are noblemen, and twenty burghers. It has also an inferior council, for the determination of affairs of less importance. The city council is half Lutheran and half Roman catholics, but most of the burghers are Lutherans. The supreme magistrate here, since the city has become subject to France, is the royal prætor, who takes care of the king's rights, and that nothing be done in the college of magistrates, contrary to his majesty's pleasure. The inhabitants, however, pay nothing to the king; but all the imports levied here are expended in the support of the city. The college of magistrates consists of three chambers; to the first belong thirteen persons, who preside over matters of justice; the second is composed of fifteen persons, under whose care are the rights and privileges of the city, the hospitals, police, and finances; the other chamber is composed of twenty-one, in whom is lodged the ordinary government of the city.

There are five districts or lordships belonging to this city. The bishopric of Strasburg also comprehends a considerable tract of territory subject to the bishop, as a temporal lord. It lies scattered in Upper and Lower Alsace, and on the other side of the Rhine, where he has two districts. He stiles himself prince of the empire, and landgrave of Alsace; and though at present subject to France, yet, by virtue of the districts on the other side of the Rhine, is actually a state of the empire, and has a seat and voice in the diet: he has also many vassals under him, and among them almost all the nobility in Lower Alsace, together with a great part of those in the Upper. As a bishop, he is subordinate to the archbishop of Mentz. His revenue is said to amount annually to two hundred and fifty thou-

sand

ſand livres (ten thouſand nine hundred and thirty-eight pounds ſterling,) and it was formerly much more conſiderable.

Upon an iſland in the Rhine, twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Straſburg ſtands Fort Louis, which is a very ſtrong and handſome fortification. It was erected in the year 1686, and conſiſts of a ſpacious and regular quadrangle, with four large baſtions, and the ſame number of half-moons. Near it is a ſmall town, formed of ſtrait ſtreets, and the whole iſland is fortified in every part.

The ſmall town of Zabern is ſeated on the river Sor, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Straſburg. It was the uſual reſidence of the biſhop of Straſburg, until the inhabitants embraced the Lutheran religion; and his palace and gardens here are delightful. Here is a collegiate church, an hoſpital, and two convents; but what is particularly remarkable is the beaten broad road, carried behind the city, to the top of a high mountain, the aſcent to which is rendered ſo eaſy by ſuch a number of windings, that a perſon may either aſcend or deſcend without the leaſt difficulty.

The town of Colmar, the capital of Upper Alſace, is ſituated near the river Ill, thirty-five miles ſouth by weſt of Straſburg, and had ſtrong walls, which Lewis XIV. cauſed to be demoliſhed in the year 1673; but after the treaty of Ryſwic he encompaſſed it with new walls. The inhabitants are ſaid to enjoy all their privileges, and though moſt of them are Lutherans, have liberty of conſcience. It contains about eight hundred houſes, and ſeven thouſand one hundred and forty inhabitants.

With reſpect to the duchies of Lorrain and Bar, which come next under our conſideration; the former of theſe derives its name from Lotharius II. grandſon to the emperor Lewis I. and was formerly of much greater extent. It is at preſent bounded on the eaſt by the Lower Palatinate and Alſace, from the latter of which it is ſeparated by the Vogean mountains, on the ſouth by Franche Comte, on the weſt by Champagne, and on the north by Metz. Its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth is about a hundred miles, and from eaſt to weſt, nearly as much.

This duchy enjoys a very temperate climate, and has a fruitful ſoil, which particularly abounds in grain, though it has many woods and mountains; but in theſe are good game, and alſo excellent paſture. The country has alſo ſalt ſprings, with ſome mines of iron, copper, tin, and ſilver. In the mountains of Wiſgau are found agates, chalcedonies, and other gems. Its lakes too abound in fiſh, particularly the lake of Lindre, the profits of which are ſaid to amount to ſixteen thouſand livres per annum, (ſeven hundred pounds ſterling.)

The Maeſe, the Moſelle, and the Saar, are the chief rivers. Here are alſo the rivers Voloy, Mortaire, and Meurte, which are not ſo conſiderable.

The modern dukes have conſtantly kept on foot a particular army, which have performed ſignal ſervice. But the French have frequently had the policy to turn the power of Lorrain to their own advantage, and to the prejudice of the duke. The Lorrainers are alſo laborious; but have little trade with ſtrangers, they having no navigable rivers, and all neceſſaries within themſelves; but what little trade they have conſiſts of corn and linen. The language ſpoken here is French, except in the German diſtricts, where that language is ſpoken. The Romiſh religion prevails all over this province.

The ſtate, after the deceaſe of Lotharius II. its firſt founder, was divided among his relations, and was afterwards ſometimes poſſeſſed by the Germans, and ſometimes by the French, and continual diſputes aroſe between the emperors of Germany and the kings of France. At length, in 1733, France took poſſeſſion of this duchy; and in the preliminaries of peace in 1735 it was concluded, that not only the duchy of Bar, but likewiſe that of Lorrain, the earldom of Falkenſtein excepted, ſhould be ceded to Staniſlaus, king of Poland, and father-in-law to Lewis XV. and after his deceaſe both duchies, together with the abſolute ſovereignty of them, ſhould for ever belong to the crown of France. On the other hand, the emperor Charles VI. engaged in return to cede the great duchy of Tuſcany to his ſon-in-law Francis Stephen, the late emperor, to atone for his loſing Lorrain. This was ſettled in 1738, and the following year Staniſlaus took actual poſſeſſion of the duchies of Lorrain and Bar, and Tuſcany fell to the duke of Lorrain.

The titles of the dukes of Lorrain are theſe: S. by the grace of God, duke of Lorrain and Mercœur; king of Jeruſalem and Marchis; duke of Calabria, Bar, and Gueldres; margrave of Pont a Mouſſon and Nomeny; and count of Provence, Vaudemont, Blamont, Zutphen, Saarwerden, and Salem. From theſe titles may be ſeen not only the countries the duke actually poſſeſſes, but likewiſe their pretenſions. The eldeſt ſon, during the lifetime of his father, is ſtiled count of Vaudemont, and alſo writes himſelf, while unmarried, margrave of Pont a Mouſſon; but after his marriage he aſſumes the title of duke of Bar. The antient houſe of Lorrain, by virtue of a treaty concluded in 1736, retains all the titles, arms, and privileges, with the rank and quality of ſovereign princes, which it formerly enjoyed, yet without any claim to the countries ceded by the peace.

The moſt remarkable places in the duchy of Lorrain are the following: 1. Nancy, the capital of the duchy, and the antient reſidence of the dukes, is ſeated in a delightful plain near the river Meurte, ſeventy five miles to the weſt of Straſburg, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The former is both the ſmalleſt, and makes the meaneſt appearance, it being built with narrow ſtreets; but in it ſtands the palace, which was begun by duke Leopold Joſeph; yet only the main body is finiſhed. The ſpacious long ſquare, or wide ſtreet before, has a fine appearance.

In the palace are eighteen very exquiſite pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting the atchievements of Charles IV. duke of Lorrain. Here are alſo ſhewn the ſabres of two Burgundians, who were killed with Charles the Bold; and likewiſe that duke's helmet, lined with red velvet, and a yellow creſt on the top. This helmet uſed to be carried every year in proceſſion by the captain of the Swiſs, while two other Swiſs carried the ſabres. Near the palace is a beautiful garden upon one of the baſtions, from which there is a very fine proſpect. Adjacent to this garden ſtands the opera-houſe, which was built by Bibienia, an Italian architect, who alſo built the theatre at Vienna. This houſe is not remarkable for its ſize, but extremely well contrived, and on each ſide of it is a good tribuna, which is a great ornament to it.

In the New Town, which is larger, and contains broad and ſtrait ſtreets, are ſeveral beautiful houſes; but, according to the faſhion of this country, they are generally low. In this city are three pariſh and three collegiate churches, with two abbies, ſeventeen convents, one college, one hoſpital, an academy of ſciences, and one commandery of the knights of Malta. Among the collegiate churches is the new ſtately cathedral, which is immediately ſubject to the pope. This is a magnificent building, it being adorned with two towers and a cupola after the Italian taſte.

The chapter conſiſts of a primate and ſixteen canons. The duke nominates the primate without conſulting the canons. In the collegiate church of St. George ſtands not only the monument of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who was ſlain in 1476, but alſo the tombs of the antient dukes of Lorrain. The latter dukes are interred in the church of the Capuchins. The city was heretofore fortified, but the works of the Old Town now only remain, the reſt of the city having been diſmantled by the peace of Ryſwic.

The ſmall, but very antient town of Luneville, ſtands on the river Verouze in a low marſhy country, twelve miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Nancy. It was once a fortified town; is at preſent the capital of a provoſtſhip, and has a fine palace, in which not only the two laſt dukes of Lorrain chiefly reſided, but was the reſidence of king Staniſlaus, until the year 1755, when the right wing of the palace was entirely burnt down. The gymnaſium in this place is altered to a foundation for cadets, one half Lorrainers, and the other Poles. In this town there is alſo an abbey, with a commandery of the knights of Malta, and three convents.

At a few miles diſtance from Luneville is Beaupré, an abbey of proteſtant Benedictines, but they follow the Ciſtercian rule of St. Benedict. It is ſeated in a delightful country, and has an abbot, nine prieſts, nineteen religious, and twenty-three lay-brothers, with eighty thouſand Lorrain livres annual revenue.

Barr, or Barrois, was antiently an earldom, ſo called from the caſtle of Bar, erected in the year 964 by Frederic I. whom the emperor Otho created earl of Bar.

The principal place in this diſtrict is, the Bar-le-Duc, the capital of the country, ſeated on a riſing ground on the banks of the river Ornain, about forty miles to the weſt of Nancy. It is a handſome well-built city, and contains a ducal palace, two chapters, one pariſh-church, one priory, ſeven convents, and an hoſpital.

Metz conſiſts of the countries of Meſſin, the French Barrois, La Saare, and French Luxemberg. The principal

rivers in this government are, 1. the Maese; 2. the Moselle, which rises in one of the Wasgau mountains, and is constantly navigable from Metz, discharging itself into the Rhine. 3. The Saone, which falls into the same river. 4. The Meurte, which rises in the Wasgau chain, and runs into the Moselle. 5. The Saare, which runs into the same river, 6. The Orney or Ornain.

The country round the city of Metz, called the Messin, is but indifferently fertile, and produces little wheat. It was antiently a part of the kingdom of Austraria, of which Metz was for a long time the capital, and the usual residence of the king. When the children of Charles the Great, and Lewis the Pious, divided the dominions of that crown, the kingdom of Lorrain rose out of the remains of that of Austraria; and towards the end of the second royal line of France, Metz, Toul, and Verdun, three principal cities, shook off the yoke, and, to secure their freedom, put themselves under the protection of the emperor. The power was divided between the bishop and the magistrates; but the latter, by the assistance of the people, obtaining the superiority over the former, the bishop had no other power in the city of Metz, and the country of Messin, than a share in the election of the magistrates, and in the administration of the oath of office. The magistrates enjoyed an unlimited authority in the city and country of Messin, and the bishop in the domains of his bishopric on this side the Vis; though in certain cases appeals lay to the imperial chamber, which they acknowledged as the supreme power of the empire. Metz, Verdun, and Toul, put themselves, in 1552, under the protection of France, which kept possession of these three cities under the name of the protected district, until the three bishoprics were actually transferred to France, in 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia.

The capital town, Metz, lies between the Moselle and Seille, which here unite their streams; and is situated twenty-eight miles to the north of Nancy. The Old Town is large, but the streets are narrow; and though the houses are built in the old taste, they are handsome structures. The New Town is likewise large, and much more beautiful than the former. Besides the cathedral, this city contains three chapters, sixteen parish churches, six abbies; and as many Jews are here, these people have a synagogue. The bishop, who stiles himself prince of the Roman empire, is suffragan to the archbishop of Treves, and has a diocese of six hundred and thirteen parishes, with a revenue of one hundred and twenty thousand livres (five thousand two hundred and fifty pounds sterling), out of which he annually pays to the court of Rome six thousand florins. Among its fortifications are three citadels. Here are a parliament, an intendency, a chamber of accompts, and imposts, a mint, a county and forest court, besides other public offices.

We must distinguish the Messin from the bishopric of Metz and its district, which is a long, but irregular tract of land, the lord of which is the bishop; but he has been deprived of his temporal jurisdiction, which chiefly belongs to the duke of Lorrain, particularly the salt works, in lieu of which the bishop receives thirty thousand livres (one thousand three hundred and thirteen pounds sterling,) and four hundred bushels of salt, which is annually delivered into the bishop's magazine by order of the duke, or the French king.

The new town and fortification of Sare-Lewis, was begun on the river Sare in 1688 by Lewis XIV. and finished about four or five years after. This town, with a district belonging to it, has been ceded by the duke of Lorrain to France. It is situated about thirty-two miles to the north-east of Metz. Its streets are regular, and the fortifications form a regular hexagon. It is the seat of the county court, and contains one parish-church with two convents.

The territory of Verdun, which extends along the Maese, has only one city of the same name, but there are in it many large towns and villages.

Verdun, the capital of the country, is situated about thirty-eight miles to the north-west of Nancy; it is the see of a bishop, and has a provincial and a manor court. It consists of three parts, namely, the Upper, Lower, and New Town; and, besides its other fortifications, is defended by a fine citadel. This was formerly an imperial city, but in the year 1552 the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of France, and in 1648 fell entirely under the power of that monarchy. The bishop, before the city and district were annexed to the crown of France, was a prince of the empire, and still assumes that title, as also count of Verdun: the archbishop of Treves is his metropolitan. His diocese consists of one hundred and ninety-two parishes, his revenue is fifty thousand livres (two thousand one hundred and eighty-eight pounds sterling), and he is taxed to the court of Rome four thousand four hundred and sixty-six florins. Besides the cathedral, there are in this city one collegiate and nine parish-churches, six abbies, and a college of Jesuits.

Toulois, a small earldom, is hemmed in by Lorrain; and, together with the city of Toul, and the other bishoprics of Metz and Verdun, put itself, in 1552, under the protection of France, which in 1648 obtained entire possession of the country.

The principal town in this earldom is Toul, the see of a bishop; it is seated on the Moselle, over which is a fine stone bridge, with a regular fortification. It is situated ten miles to the west of Nancy, has a provincial and district court, and was formerly an imperial city. Its bishop was a prince of the empire, which title, together with that of Toulois, he still assumes: he is suffragan to the archbishop of Treves, and his diocese contains one thousand four hundred parishes; yet his revenue is little more than seventeen thousand livres (seven hundred and forty-four pounds sterling), and he pays two thousand five hundred florins to the court of Rome. There are in this city a fine cathedral, one collegiate and four parish-churches, three abbies, two priories, seven convents, one seminary, one commandery of the knights of Malta, and two hospitals.

SECT. IV.

Containing Descriptions of the Province of PICARDY; also of the Government of CHAMPAGNE and BRIE, BURGUNDY, and LYONNOIS; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Commerce, principal Cities, Inhabitants, &c.

THE province of Picardy is long and narrow, it being usually compared to a bent arm, and in this figure is nearly one hundred and fifty miles in length, but not above forty in breadth, and in many places not above twenty. It is bounded, on the south, by the Isle of France; on the west, by Normandy and the English channel; on the east, by Champagne; and, on the north, by Hainault, Artois, and the Straits of Calais. This is for the most part a plain country, and produces wine, fruit of all kinds, plenty of corn, and great quantities of hay: they have some pit-coal, but it is not so good as that of England: wood being scarce, most of the inhabitants burn turf instead of it.

The following are the principal rives in this province; viz. 1. The Oise, which has its source in Picardy, on the confines of Hainault, and, after receiving several rivers, becomes navigable at La Fere, and falls into the Seine at Conflans. 2. The Somme, the whole extent of which is confined to Picardy; it becomes navigable at Bray, and after receiving several small rivers, divides into twelve channels, which are afterwards united, when it falls into the British channel. 3. The Lys, which falls into the Scheld. 4. The Canche, which falls into the British channel below Estaples. 5. The Scarpe, which falls into the Scheld. 6. The Deule, which was formerly no better than a brook, but now by means of canals and sluices is become a considerable river. 7. The Lanthia, which falls into the British channel. 8. The Aa, which is made navigable at St. Omers, by means of sluices, and at last discharges itself into the channel.

This province has a flourishing trade, owing to its situation on the sea, the many navigable rivers and canals it contains, and the industry of the inhabitants, who make beautiful silk stuffs, coarse linen, woollen stuffs, lawn, and soap; they also carry on a large trade in corn and pit-coal. In the government of Calais and Boulogne are annually brought up five or six thousand colts, which being afterwards turned loose in the pastures of Normandy, are sold for Norman horses. Here are four bishoprics, two provincial courts, two governments, five courts of Admiralty, four forest manors, and four lordships. Here are also very advantageous fisheries on the coast.

This province is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Picardy, and is again subdivided into four deputy-governments, the principal places in which are the following: viz.

The town of Amiens, in latin Ambianum, the capital of Picardy, and of the earldom of Amienois; it is seated on the Somme, sixty-five miles to the south of Calais, and eighty to the north of Paris. It appears very delightful from the largeness of the streets, the beauty of the houses, and



J. H. Grimm inv.

F. M. Le Maitre sculp.

The BEGGARS asking Alms of Sterne, at MONTREUIL, in France.

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and the extent of the ſquares, in two of which ſeven fine ſtreets meet. On the ramparts are planted two rows of trees, which form a very agreeable walk. The river Somme enters the city in three different channels, through the ſame number of bridges; ſo that theſe unite again, after watering ſeveral parts of the town.

In this city is one of the fineſt and beſt embelliſhed cathedrals in all France: it is dedicated to the virgin Mary; the pillars, choir, chapels, tombs, and paintings, are particularly adorned, and more eſpecially the principal entrance, which is flanked with two lofty towers, on which are placed ſeveral ſtatues. Among other relics, they pretend to have the heart of John the Baptiſt. Here is alſo a collegiate church, a chapter of St. Nicholas, fourteen pariſh churches, ſeveral abbies, fifty-five priories, ſeven hundred and fifty reftories, one hundred and three chapels of eaſe, and forty-eight communities. The annual revenue is thirty thouſand florins, (one thouſand three hundred and thirteen pounds ſterling) out of which four thouſand nine hundred florins are paid to the court of Rome. Here are the ſeat of a preſidial court, an independent bailiwic and provoſtſhip, an office for the finances, and a mint. The inhabitants of this city and the neighbouring villages make a conſiderable quantity of black and green ſoap, and alſo carry on a manufacture of ferrets.

The town of Abbeville, or Abbot's Town, is the capital of Ponthieu, a diſtrict of Picardy, and is ſeated twenty miles to the north-weſt of Amiens, and fifty-two to the ſouth of Calais, in a very delightful plain on the Somme, which divides itſelf into ſeveral branches, and parts the city into two main diviſions, the one towards the Low Countries, and the other towards Normandy. The tide here flows up the Somme, to the height of about ſix feet, by which means, and its ſituation, it is rendered a commodious port; it being but fifteen miles from the Engliſh channel. This town, beſides the Somme, is alſo watered by the rivulets of Scardon, Sottins, and Corneille, or Tauiere.

Reſpectable as this place is at preſent, it was originally no more than a farm or manor belonging to the abbey of St. Requier, from which it had its name: it afterwards became a borough, from the concourſe of people who came and ſettled in it. It is now well fortified, and encompaſſed with walls, which are flanked with baſtions, and large deep ditches. The houſes are moſtly of timber, old and meanly built; it is likewiſe extremely dirty, for want of a good pavement; but, next to Amiens, is the moſt populous place in all Picardy.

As the town of Abbeville is conveniently ſituated for commerce, it carries on a great trade in corn, oil, hemp, flax, cordage, and ſoap. The woollen manufactory eſtabliſhed here in 1665 by Mr. Roberts, a Dutchman, has ſucceeded ſo well, that at preſent its cloths are little inferior in fineneſs and goodneſs to thoſe of England. Here are alſo made very beautiful barragons, together with mocades, a kind of carpets, dimity, pluſh, coarſe linen, ſpun wool, and fire-arms. There is in this town a collegiate church, dedicated to St. Ulfranc, which is a lofty ſtone building, fourteen pariſh-churches, fifteen convents, a commandery of the order of Malta, and a college; here are alſo a provincial court, baliage, foreſt-court, court of commerce, court of admiralty, and a ſalt work.

Montreuil, on the Couch, extends three leagues on the Britiſh channel; it contains about five thouſand inhabitants, and has a pretty briſk trade. The peaſants round this ſpot ſeem to ſuffer great poverty. We cannot determine how proper the land may be for cultivation, but it is certainly at preſent very little improved thereby, for all ſeems a deſart.—No ſooner does a carriage ſtop, than the cottages pour forth ſwarms to crave charity: young and old all join in the chorus, "Charite, pour l'amour de Dieu;" that is, "For God's ſake beſtow your charity." The celebrated Mr. Sterne, in his Sentimental Journey, tells us, That he viſited this place; and at his departure, diſplayed much generoſity in relieving a number of beggars, who, ſurrounding him, ſolicited his charity with the moſt clamorous importunity. Children are here very early taught the art of getting money without labour; and young girls of ſixteen years and upwards employ entreaties as well as ſmiles to draw a ſou from the pockets of ſtrangers.

Calais, in Latin Caletum, is ſeated in a marſhy plain on the coaſt of the Britiſh narrow ſea, called from thence the ſtreight of Calais, and in French le Pas de Talais, the paſs or paſſage, becauſe it is the paſſage into England. It is three leagues diſtant from Gravelines, and the confines of Flanders to the weſt, ſeven from Boulogne to the north, and about as many from Dover and the neareſt ſhore of England to the ſouth-weſt. It is reported, that Baldwin IV. ſurnamed the Bearded, count of Flanders, firſt built the port, and that Philip, count of Boulogne, cauſed the town to be ſurrounded with walls, which before was only a ſimple borough. However, it is at preſent a conſiderable mart, and a place of ſtrength. Its figure, including the citadel, is an oblong ſquare, the two long ſides of which are each about two hundred and twenty perches long, and the two ſhorteſt about ninety. One of the largeſt ſides is towards the ſea, and very well fortified; the other is towards the land, and is fortified with baſtions lined with ſtones, covered with half-moons, and deep ditches nine or ten perches broad, and which can be filled either with ſea-water, or with freſh water, according as it is proper. The ſhort ſide, which is oppoſite to the fort of Nieulai, is defended by being laid under water. The other ſide, which is called the attack of Gravelines, is better fortified ſtill. This whole city is encompaſſed by a good covered way. Fort Nieulai is a piece of fortification perfect in its kind; it has four baſtions, and from thence one can in leſs than four and twenty hours time lay all the country about Calais under water, and prevent a circumvallation.

The citadel of Calais is one of the greateſt ever built: it has ſtill its ancient circuit and ditches; but the Chevalier de Ville has ſurrounded it with a new incloſure fortified with three irregular baſtions: that citadel is ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it commands not only the city and port of Calais, but alſo all the adjacent country. There is only one paſſage to the town over a cauſey, commonly called the bridge of Nieulai. Ships enter into the port by a long canal, made by order of Lewis XIV. between two moles, at the head of which there are two horn-works, defended each by an half-moon, and encompaſſed with a wall, a deep ditch, and a covered way, after the manner of marſhal de Vauban. This port is very happily ſituated, but yet it has ſeveral inconveniencies; for no veſſel can enter into it without running a great danger, whether it comes along the eaſt, or along the weſt mole. There is here no road for the ſhips to ride at anchor. The canal of Calais is a work very uſeful to the inhabitants; for by that means one can go very eaſily by water from Calais to St. Omer, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Bergues, and Ypres. Notwithſtanding the convenient ſituation of Calais with regard to England and Holland, yet it is not ſo populous as might be expected, for it is reckoned to contain but five thouſand inhabitants. Here is but one pariſh church, the altar of which is all wrought marble, and its dome extremely magnificent; there are alſo four convents. A packet-boat ſails regularly twice a week from Dover to Calais, and back again.

Edward III. king of England, took Calais from the French in the year 1347, and after the Engliſh had poſſeſſed it above two hundred and ten years, the duke of Guiſe retook it in January 1558. By the treaty of Cateau-Cambreſis, it was agreed that Calais ſhould continue in the hands of the French during eight years, after which it was to be reſtored to the Engliſh: that term being expired, queen Elizabeth demanded it; but the chancellor de l'Hopital refuſed to reſtore it, under pretence that during the firſt religious war in France, which began three years after the peace of Cateau-Cambreſis, the Engliſh had ſeized Havre-de-Grace, by which means they had violated the treaty, and forfeited their right to Calais, which the French kept accordingly, though the Engliſh did not keep Havre-de-Grace, which was retaken by the French. Albert, arch-duke of Auſtria, and governor of the Low Countries, made himſelf maſter of Calais in the year 1596, and it was reſtored two years after to the French king Henry IV. by the articles of the peace at Vervins.

The next remarkable town is that of Boulogne, the antient Geſoriacum, or Giſoriacum, and ſince Bononia: it is the capital of a diſtrict called the Boulonnois, a particular government entirely independent of the governor-general of Picardy. This city ſtands upon a hill, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Town: the former is well fortified with a ſtrong citadel, and adorned with ſeveral public places and fountains; as alſo a palace, where juſtice is adminiſtered; a cathedral church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, a parochial church of St. Joſeph, an abbey of St. Vilemar, and ſome other monaſteries; a ſeminary for the education of thoſe who deſign to take orders, and a magnificent hoſpital, built by the care and at the expence of the family of Aumont. The Lower Town is not inhabited by ſo many perſons of quality as the other, but it is larger and more conſiderable for its trade; it extends along the port at the mouth of the river Liane. The harbour is very incommodious,

modious, and the road before Boulogne extremely bad, no veſſels being able to keep there, unleſs the wind blows from ſome point between the north and the ſouth-eaſt. With all other winds the ſea is exceſſively rough and boiſterous. Here ſtood formerly a watch-tower, called La Tour d'Ordre, the Tower of Order, and by the Engliſh, the Old Man, ſaid to have been built by Julius Cæſar, and repaired by the emperor Charles the Great; but being neglected, it is fallen down, and they have built in the room of it a ſmall fort for the defence of the harbour. The epiſcopal ſee, under the metropolitan of Rheims, was eſtabliſhed here by pope Paul IV. after the deſtruction of Teroüenne. The dioceſe comprehends not only the governments of Boulonnois, Calais, and Ardres, but alſo part of Artois, and has within its diſtrict two hundred and ſeventy-ſix pariſhes, and an hundred and forty-ſix chapels of eaſe. The livings ſituated in Artois pay no tenths. Lewis XI. did, in the year 1478, ſurrender this county to the Virgin Mary, declaring that, for the future, he and his ſucceſſors ſhould hold it from her immediately, as her vaſſals, paying her for homage a golden heart at their acceſſion to the crown, in conſequence of which Lewis XIV. paid twelve thouſand livres for himſelf and for his father Lewis XIII. The city of Boulogne, together with the adjacent territories, was formerly ſubject to the dominion of its own counts, of great reputation, from whom were deſcended Godfrey of Boulogne, and his brother Baldwin, kings of Jeruſalem; but it was united to the crown of France by king Philip Auguſtus, in the year 1209. Boulogne was taken by Henry VIII. king of England, in the year 1544, and afterwards reſtored for a ſum of money to the French king Henry II. by a treaty of peace in 1550. This city has a ſeneſchalſhip, compoſed of a ſeneſchal, a preſident, a lieutenant-general, a lieutenant-criminal, an aſſeſſor, three counſellors, a king's advocate, and a king's attorney, a deputy-attorney, and a recorder. There lies an appeal from the ſentence of this court to the parliament of Paris.

Champagne is bounded, on the north, by Hainault and part of the biſhopric of Liege; on the eaſt, by Luxemburg and Lorrain; on the ſouth, by Burgundy; and, on the weſt, by the iſle of France and Picardy: it being one of the moſt conſiderable provinces in the whole kingdom. This province extends from the weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, or from Lagny to Bourbon, forty-ſix leagues in length, and from ſouth to north, or from Ravieres to Rocrois, about fifty-four. It derives its name from the large plains in its centre, but its borders are full of foreſts, hills, and mountains.

This country is particularly famous for its wine, which is exported in great quantities; it alſo produces plenty of grain; and the natural commodities in which the inhabitants trade are corn, wine, iron, wood, and cattle, with hay, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, linen, &c.

The Meuſe, or Maeſe, which receives its ſource near the village of Meuſe; the Seine; the Maine, which riſes in Baſſigny; the Aube, which has its ſource on the frontiers; and the Aiſne or Aine, are its principal rivers.

Here are two archbiſhoprics and four biſhoprics. The country is governed by the parliament, the chamber of accompts, and exchequer of Paris, except the territory of Sedan, which belongs to the parliament of Metz. It has ten provincial and diſtinct courts, ſeveral foreſt-courts, two courts of mintage, and a generalite. The military government of this province is lodged in a governor, and four general-lieutenants, under whom are four hereditary ſub-governors.

The principal cities are the following, viz. 1. Troyes, the ancient Auguſtomanni, or Auguſtobona, the capital of the province, is ſeated in Lower Champagne, on the river Seine, about ſeventy miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is pretty large, but far from being ſo flouriſhing and populous as formerly. It has fourteen pariſh-churches, including the cathedral, and two collegiate churches, with four abbies, ten convents, one college, one ſeminary, and one hoſpital. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Peter, is a very noble ſtructure; its portico is in a fine taſte, but the tower on the left ſide of it has been left unfiniſhed. The city is ſurrounded with walls, but they are not kept in good repair; and formerly it had three caſtles, from which it is ſuppoſed to have obtained its preſent name; but there are now few remains of them left. The biſhop of Troyes is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Sens; his dioceſe contains three hundred and ſeventy-two pariſhes, ninety-eight chapels of eaſe, with ſeventeen abbies; his yearly revenue is fourteen thouſand livres, (ſix hundred and thirteen pounds ſterling) and his taxation at the court of Rome is two thouſand florins. This city ſtill carries on a tolerable trade, eſpecially in linen, flax, hemp, and cotton fuſtians, canvas, wax and tallow candles, needles, ſerges, tapeſtry, &c.

2. Chalons is a large city, ſeated on the Maine, in a ſmall territory called the Chalonois, ninety-five miles to the eaſt of Paris. Here are a cathedral, two chapters, eleven pariſh churches, three abbies, nine convents, and there was till lately a college of jeſuits. The biſhop, who is alſo a count and peer, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and in his dioceſe are comprehended three hundred and four pariſhes, ninety-three chapels of eaſe, with nineteen abbies. His yearly revenue is twenty-four thouſand livres, (one thouſand and fifty pounds ſterling) and his taxation at Rome three thouſand florins. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in woollen ſtuffs and ſhalloons, the latter of which took their name from this place.

3. Rheims, the ancient Durocortorum, and Civitas Remorum, the capital of a diſtrict called Rheimois, is ſituated ſixty-two miles to the north of Troyes, and eighty-five to the north-eaſt of Paris, and is one of the moſt ancient and celebrated cities in the whole kingdom. It is about four miles in circumference, and contains ſeveral fine ſquares, large ſtreets, well built houſes, and magnificent churches. Among theſe is the cathedral of our Lady, which is a fine ſtructure, though of Gothic architecture; the principal door is remarkable for its workmanſhip, and the great altar, at which the coronation of the kings of France is performed, is plated with gold. The treaſury of this cathedral muſt be very great, as every king, at his coronation, makes an offering here. The book of the goſpel upon which the king takes the coronation oath, is ſaid to be written in the Sclavonic tongue, and the cover is of gold ſet with gems.

The archbiſhop of this place is the firſt duke and peer of France, perpetual legate of the ſee of Rome, and primate of all Gallia Belgica. He alſo crowns the king; he has an annual revenue of fifty thouſand livres, (two thouſand one hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſterling) and his taxation at the court of Rome is four thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty florins. Here are, beſides the cathedral, three collegiate churches, five abbies, nine convents, a commandery belonging to the order of St. Anthony, a commandery of the knights of Malta, and, till the jeſuits were expelled, they had here a large ſeminary, and a fine college. The abbey of Benedictines of St. Remy in this city is one of the nobleſt belonging to that order in all France; and on the altar of its church is kept the holy phial, which at the baptiſm of Clovis, in 496, by biſhop Remigius, they pretend was brought from heaven by a dove, at the prayer of that ſaint, the crowd being ſo great that he was unable to get to the font with the uſual oil. This phial is of a dark, red glaſs, about the length of one's little finger, and nearly reſembles in ſhape a ſmall Hungary water bottle. It has a gold ſtopper, and is fixed in a perforated ſquare caſket, faſtened on a ſilver ſalver, it being ſeen only through a cryſtal cover placed over the caſket. The oil is ſaid to be grown dry; but in every unction of a king of France a ſmall quantity of it is taken out, and mixed with the oil prepared for the unction. Among the other public buildings, are three ſpacious hoſpitals. Here are ſeveral remarkable remains of Roman antiquities, particularly three gates of the city, which to this day bear the names of ſo many pagan deities, namely, of Mars, the Sun, and Ceres. The univerſity here was founded in the years 1547 and 1549. This city carries on a conſiderable trade in wine, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, and gingerbread.

4. The town of Sens, ſeated on the Yonne, is large, but not very populous, though well ſituated for trade: it is the Agendium of the ancients, and the capital of a diſtrict called the Senonois. This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to fifty thouſand livres, (two thouſand one hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſterling) and its taxation to the court of Rome is ſix thouſand one hundred and ſixty-ſix florins. Here are ſixteen pariſh-churches, five abbies, and nine convents. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is admired for its ſtately front, being adorned with various figures, and lofty towers, as alſo on account of its rich chapels, antient tombs, and the magnificence of the high altar, where is a table of gold enriched with precious ſtones, on which are repreſented in relievo the four evangeliſts, together with St. Stephen. Here is a provincial diſtrict and foreſt court, together with a ſalt office. Several councils have been held in this city, one of the moſt famous of which is that in the year 1140.

5. The town of Meaux, capital of a district called Brie Champonoile, is seated on the river Marne, twenty-five miles to the north-east of Paris, and contains a provincial and district court, a salt-office, &c. It has also a general lieutenant, and a particular governor. Besides the cathedral, there are in this city one chapter, five abbies, several convents, one alms-house, and an hospital. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Paris, his diocese is divided by the river Marne into two large archdeaconries, to each of which belong three rural deanries; under these are nine abbies, seven chapters, and two hundred and twenty-seven parishes. The bishop's annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thousand livres, (nine hundred and sixty-three pounds sterling) and he pays two thousand florins to the court of Rome.

The government of Burgundy, called by the French Bourgogne, derives its name from the Burgundians, who, towards the beginning of the fifth century, settled in Switzerland and Franche Comté, whence spreading themselves towards the river Soane and Rhone, they erected a kingdom of their own, which was gradually reduced by the kings of the Franks. This country extends from east to west above thirty French leagues, and from north to south about forty-five; being bounded, on the north, by Champagne; on the west, by the Borbonnois and Nivernois; on the south, by Lyonnois; and, on the east, by Franche Comté. It produces excellent wine, and is very fertile in corn and fruit.

The chief rivers in this country are the Seine; the Dehune, which runs into the Soane; the Brebince, or Bourbince, which issues out of the lake of Longpendu; also the Armançon, the Ouche, and Tille, with several springs of a mineral quality.

The states of the country, consisting of the representatives of the nobility, clergy, and commons, meet regularly every three years, by writ from the king, in order to raise the sums required of them. The district and provincial courts are subordinate to the parliament of Dijon, which was erected in 1476; except the provincial courts of Magon and Auxerre, and the district of Bar-sur Seine, which are subject to the parliament of Paris. There are four bishoprics in this government.

The city of Dijon, in Latin Divio, capital of the country and government of Burgundy, is situated in the Dijonois, about one hundred and forty miles to the south-east of Paris. It is a pretty large city; the streets are well-paved, broad, and strait; the houses are handsome, and the churches and squares beautiful. Here are seven parish-churches, four abbies, three large hospitals or alms-houses, several convents, with a chapel, in which is kept a supposed miraculous host; they have likewise an academy of sciences, and in 1723 a college of law was erected here.

This city is the residence of the governor, the parliament, an intendancy, a taillage-office, a provincial, supreme, and particular court, a salt-office, &c. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Lyons, and enjoys a revenue of eighteen thousand livres, (seven hundred and eighty-eight pounds sterling) and his taxation to the court of Rome is one thousand two hundred and thirty-three florins. The neighbouring country is fruitful, pleasant, and watered by the rivers Suson and Ouche; the first of which is but a rivulet, and, after running through the city-moat, passes through the city itself, where it falls into the Dijon. The walks before the city are a quarter of a league in length, planted with three rows of Linden-trees, and terminated by a delightful grove.

On an eminence, near three hills on the river Arux, stands Autun, the Augustodunum of the antients. It is about a mile in length, and as much in breadth; and consists of the Upper City, which is commanded by mount Cenis; and the Lower City, in which is the citadel, and where are held the provincial tribunal, a forest court, a salt-office, and several other courts. The bishop of this place is suffragan to the archbishop of Lyons, though he is president of the assembly of the states of Burgundy, and has a diocese of six hundred and eleven parishes, and fourteen abbies under him. His revenue amounts to seventeen thousand livres, (seven hundred and forty-four pounds sterling) and he pays four thousand eight hundred florins to the court of Rome. In the midst of this city is an open place called the Field of Mars; and there are still the remains of three pagan temples, one of them dedicated to Janus, and another to Diana. Here are likewise two antient gates of excellent workmanship, which some have taken for triumphal arches, with a circus, and the remains of a pyramid; which last, to all appearance, has been a tomb. In this city, besides a cathedral, are five abbies, two seminaries, two priories, one collegiate, and twelve parish-churches; here are also six convents, particularly a fine chartreuse, situated in the suburbs, in the church of which lie the last dukes of Burgundy; and two hospitals.

The city of Auxerre, called in Latin Antissidorum, is the capital of the earldom of Auxerrois, stands on a hill near the river Yonne, ninety-two miles to the south of Paris. It has a provincial and forest court, a chamber of tithes, a salt-office, &c. and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Sens; his diocese contains two hundred and thirty-eight parishes, and he has a yearly revenue of thirty-five thousand livres, (one thousand five hundred and thirty-two pounds sterling) and he is taxed to the court of Rome four thousand four hundred florins: his palace is a most noble structure. There are also, in this city, two hospitals, a collegiate and eight parish-churches, five abbies, six convents, and one commandery of the knights of Malta. A good trade is carried on here, by means of the Yonne.

The last city we shall describe, in this government, is Trevoux, the ancient Trivortium, the capital of the principality of Dombes, and of the castellany of Trevoux: it is seated on a hill by the Saone, one hundred and eighty miles to the south by west of Paris, and is the residence of a governor, a parliament, a district-court, and a mint. It has one chapter, three convents, and an hospital. It is said to have derived its name from its situation on one of the highways which Agrippa made into Gaul, and which here divides into three branches.

Trevoux, with the little principality of Dombes, belong to the Duke of Maine, and were declared by Lewis XIV. an absolute principality. Hence the prince of Dombes has the power of life and death, can confer nobility, coin money, and impose what taxes he pleases on his subjects, though he has his own parliament. His certain revenue is about one hundred and fifty thousand livres, (six thousand five hundred and sixty-three pounds sterling) and this little principality is subject to a governor-general in the name of the prince.

The government of Lyonnois is bounded on the north by Burgundy, on the east it is separated by the Soane and Rhone from Dauphine, on the south it is bounded by Vivarais and Valais, and on the west by Auvergne. It comprehends the three small provinces of Lyonnois, Beaujolois, and Forez; and produces corn, wine, and fruit, particularly an excellent kind of large chesnuts called marrons. The principal rivers are the Rhone, Soane, and Loire; besides several small ones, as the Furan, Azarque, Rhin, Lignon, &c. Here are also a mine of copper and vitriol, with several springs of mineral water.

Besides the governor and general-lieutenant, here are two sub-governors, one over Lyonnois and Beaujolois, the other over Forez. The courts of this government proceed according to the civil law, and appeals from them lie to the parliament of Paris.

Lyonnois is about twelve French leagues in length, and seven in breadth. The capital city, Lyons, in Latin Lugdunum, which is also the capital of the whole government, stands fifteen miles to the north of Vienne, in Dauphine, at the conflux of the Soane and the Rhone; the former runs through a part of the city, and has two bridges of wood, and a narrow one of stone; but the stone bridge over the Rhone is a noble structure. The city is about a fourth part as large as Paris, and is very populous; but most of the streets are narrow. The houses, which are said to amount to four thousand, are generally high and well-built, but disgraced by the ruggedness and mean appearance of their paper windows; and they are said to contain above ninety thousand people.

Here are several fine squares, in one of which is the town-house, the most elegant in Europe, which was begun in 1647, and finished in 1655. It is a large building in the form of an oblong square, and on each side of the front is a wing four hundred and twenty feet in length. In the middle of the front is a tower, with a cupola on the top, and in the angles project two large pavilions. The great gate is adorned with two columns of the Ionic order, and leads into a large hall arched over, where are to be seen the busts of Philip the Fair, Charles VIII. and Henry IV. with the pictures of all the kings of France of the name of Lewis: the roof is also finely painted. Here are likewise the consular chamber, where the provost and the four echevins, or aldermen, usually sit; the hall where the merchants hold their meetings; and in another hall are the pictures of the echevins. Before the house is a handsome square, in which is a large fountain. The cathedral of Lyons is dedicated to St. John, and the chapter consists

of gentlemen of the beſt families. They boaſt of their having formerly had ſeveral kings and princes, who were members of it; particularly in the thirteenth century, when at one time they had the ſon of an emperor, nine ſons of kings, fourteen ſons of dukes, thirty of counts, and twenty of barons. To this chapter belong not only the cathedral, but the churches of St. Stephen and the Holy Croſs.

The cathedral is a large ſtructure, and particularly famous for its clock, which, like that at Straſburg, is celebrated for the variety of its motions, moſt of which have ceaſed; for at every hour a cock at the top clapped his wings thrice, and crowed twice, after which an angel coming out of a door, ſaluted the virgin Mary, and at the ſame time the Holy Ghoſt deſcended, and an image of God the Father gave the benediction. The minute motion had an oval circle, and yet the hand always touched the circumference. Beſides the cathedral are three chapters or collegiate churches, thirteen pariſh-churches, and till lately there were two colleges of jeſuits, the largeſt of which was the moſt ſtately in all the kingdom. This ſtructure is a regular quadrangle, curiouſly painted in freſco, though ſomething defaced on the eaſt-ſide, where the winds from the mountains beat upon it. Over the front door, and over part of the church of that college is an obſervatory, one of the boldeſt pieces of architecture in Europe. Their chapel has a fine altar-piece of lapis-lazuli, and an excellent piece of painting by Blanchard. Their library is a ſpacious and handſome apartment, in which are about forty thouſand volumes; among which are ſome manuſcripts of the bible, but not very antient; but one of the moſt valuable pieces is a very antient manuſcript of Pliny's Natural Hiſtory.

There is a large ſuburb without the gate of St. Juſtus where the bare-footed Carmelites have a delightful convent, with ſpacious gardens, from which there is a fine proſpect of the city: in their church is an altar of agate and lapis-lazuli. The capuchins have alſo the pretended miracles of their ſaint painted on the walls of their cloiſter, among which is one of his paying his apothecary with prayers, inſtead of money. The nunnery of St. Peter is a fine ſtructure, and the pariſh-church of St. Niege is adorned with ſeveral fine pieces of painting by Le Brun. In one of the ſquares ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue in braſs of Lewis XIV. La Belle Cour is a ſpacious area, and near it are a mall and a delightful walk. The monument of the two lovers ſtands on the other ſide of the Soane, and ſeems to have been ſome Roman building, conſtructed with very large ſtones. The friars in Lyons are very importunate beggars, coming into the chambers of ſtrangers for charity.

Here is a fine arſenal, well ſtored with military implements; alſo three forts, but one of them only is garriſoned, and that ſerves for the priſon of the city. In this city are ſtill to be ſeen ſome remains of Roman antiquities, as baths, aqueducts, part of an amphitheatre, &c.

In this place are an archbiſhopric, an intendency, a mint, with a provincial and other courts. Its archbiſhop is primate over the archbiſhoprics of Rouen, Tours, Sens, and Paris; ſo that appeals lie from them to him. He has alſo ſix biſhops for his ſuffragans, with a dioceſe of ſeven hundred and ſixty-four pariſhes, and a revenue of forty-eight thouſand livres, (two thouſand one hundred pounds ſterling) out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome three thouſand florins; and he has the title of count of Lyons, beſides that of archbiſhop.

Some mountains lie round the city, on which there being ſeveral convents, ſeats, gardens, and vineyards, form a very delightful proſpect.

The inhabitants are, for the moſt part, makers of ſilk, gold, and ſilver laces. Formerly the looms in and about this city amounted to eighteen thouſand; but in 1698, this number was found reduced to four thouſand. It is ſtill, however, in great repute for the above manufactures, particularly for its bombazines, which are admired for their beautiful luſtre; and its trade extends not only over all France, but even to Spain, Italy, Swiſſerland, Germany, and the Low Countries.

The diſtrict of Forez, the next diviſion of this province, is equal in extent to Lyonnois and Beaujolois put together, but has only ſeveral ſmall towns. Its capital is Montbriſon, ſituated on the little river Veziza, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Lyons, and has ſeveral courts of juſtice and public offices: a collegiate church, with ſome other churches and convents are alſo contained in it.

The diſtrict of Beaujolois is ten French leagues in length, and eight in breadth. This is a very fruitful country. Its capital is Ville Franche, which is ſeated on the little river Morgon, near the Soane; and has a collegiate church and an academy of the polite arts, with ſeveral public offices and buildings.

SECT. V.

Deſcribing the Situation, Extent, and Boundaries, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Minerals, Produce, Trade, Government, Inhabitants, principal Cities and Towns, &c. of the Governments and Provinces, of LANGUEDOC, ROUSILLON, and FOIX, LOWER NAVARRE and BEARNE, GUIENNE and GASCONY, AUVERGNE, LIMOSIN, and LA MARCHE.

THE government of Languedoc is bounded on the eaſt, by the Rhone, which ſeparates it from Provence and Dauphine; on the north, by Lyonnois, Auvergne, and Guienne; on the ſouth, it terminates on the counties of Rouſſillon and Foix, and alſo on the Mediterranean; on the weſt, a part of it is divided by the Garonne from a part of Gaſcony. The eaſtern coaſt, from Agde, as far as the Rhone, is remarkably increaſed, the ſea having retired from it conſiderably as evidently appears on conſulting the accounts of ancient geographers with reſpect to the ſituation of ſeveral of its maritime places, and comparing them with the preſent.

The form of this country is very irregular; however, its extent, from eaſt to weſt, may be computed at about ſeventy leagues; but from north to ſouth, in the narroweſt part, it is between ten and twelve: in the broadeſt part, weſtward, it is almoſt thirty, and to the eaſtward near thirty-two. Along the ſouthern coaſt, which is properly a long valley, extending from Toulouſe to the ſea, it generally blows a weſt wind; though it is ſometimes north, and ſometimes ſouth-weſt. This wind gradually increaſes, and, being cool, refreſhes the country in ſummer. The inhabitants call it Cirs, in conformity to its ancient name Circius: oppoſite to this blows another from the eaſt or ſouth-eaſt, which is called Autun. This is firſt perceived near Narbonne, and at Caſtlenaudari it is very violent: this wind, being hot, cauſes head achs, with loſs of appetite, and ſeems to ſwell the whole body. In the eaſtern part of Languedoc is frequently felt a cold and very ſtrong north wind, which follows the courſe of the Rhone, in the valley through which it runs, from north to ſouth, and is called Biſe, or Black. Sometimes, in direct oppoſition to the latter, blows a ſea wind, which is uſually accompanied with a drizzling rain; but, when dry, has the ſame morbid effect as the Autun in Upper Languedoc: beſides, in the heat of ſummer, from the coaſt of Leucate to the Rhone, ſea-breezes conſtantly ſet in, at nine or ten o'clock in the morning, and, to the great refreſhment of the air, laſt till about five in the evening. It is alſo obſervable, that at the foot of the Pyrenees, near the village of Blaud, in a narrow valley wholly environed with mountains, except towards the north-weſt, and this contains openings two or three hundred paces wide, blows a very cool weſt or north-weſt gale, which chiefly prevails in ſummer, and then only in the night. In clear and warm weather this gale is much ſtronger than in a thick and cold air. In ſummer, it cools the whole valley, and in winter prevents white froſts; and the inhabitants of the valley of Blaud can winnow their corn at no other time than in the night, and it only blows at that time.

This is a very mountainous country, particularly the Cevennes, which are very high and ſteep; yet theſe being, as it were, the head-quarters of the proteſtants, abound in people. Here are lead and iron mines; ſome very beautiful marble is alſo dug out of the quarries, and in ſeveral places in Lower Languedoc are found turquoiſes.

Languedoc is very fertile in corn, fruit, and fine wine; it alſo contains large plantations of olive and mulberry-trees, the latter for ſilk worms, and the former for oil; though this laſt is inferior to that of Provence. They here tread out the corn in the manner practiſed in the eaſt, by cauſing a number of mules and horſes to turn round a circle upon the grain, which is ſtrewed under them, and afterwards alſo tread the ſtraw into ſmall pieces, to ſave the trouble of chopping it. In Upper Languedoc grows a plant called Woad; its root is uſually an inch thick, and a foot or a foot and a half in length, with five or ſix leaves growing from it, that are a foot long, and ſix inches broad. The flower repreſents a croſs, and bears an oblong ſeed, which is ſometimes of a violet, and ſometimes of a yellow colour; but the former is the beſt. It is uſually ſeen in February, and requires a good ſoil, with great care after it begins to ſhoot. When the herb is ripe, it is cut off cloſe

to the ground, and immediately pounded to a paſte, which is made up into cakes or balls; and theſe acquire a very beautiful and laſting blue, when dried in the ſun, and reduced to a powder.

One of the curioſities of this country, though found alſo in Spain and Italy, is the fork-tree. The ſtem is from two to four feet high, when its farther growth is generally checked. At the top of its ſtem grow a conſiderable number of ſtrait ſhoots, which are ſuffered to riſe five or ſix feet, and about the third year are cut into the form of three pronged forks, and in the ſixth, ſeventh, and ſometimes the ninth, when they have completed their growth, are carefully cut off cloſe to the ſtem, and, being put into a hot oven, undergo a ſecond formation.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Rhone; 2. The Garonne, which iſſues from the Pyrenean mountains; 3. The Loire, which iſſues from the Vivarez, and falls into the Mediterranean; 4. The Aude; 5. The Tarne, which ſprings from the Gevaudan; and, 6. The Allier, which riſes in the ſame country. Here are likewiſe ſeveral periodical and medicinal ſprings.

One of the nobleſt works that any country has ever produced, is the royal canal, formed in order to make a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean ſea, that veſſels might paſs from one ſea into the other, without going round by Spain. Riquet, after employing twenty years in a minute conſideration of every particular, during which he had no other counſellor than his gardener, completed his plan, which he executed between the years 1666 and 1680, in the reign of Louis XIV. This canal begins at the harbour of Lette on the Mediterranean, and traverſes the lake of Thau, and a quarter of a mile below Toulouſe is conveyed into the Garonne by three ſluices. There are in it ſixty-four large ſluices, many of which conſiſt of two, three, and four ſmaller ones, by means of which the water is conveyed into the riſing grounds. The whole is forty French leagues in length, and every where ſix feet deep; ſo that a barge of one thouſand eight hundred quintals may be forwarded to any place upon it; and its breadth, from one bank to the other, is one hundred and forty-four feet.

There is a large reſervoir at St. Ferreol, a quarter of a mile below Revel, between two rocky hills, that are in the form of a half moon: it is one thouſand two hundred fathoms in length, five hundred in breadth, and twenty deep, the whole ſurface being ſix hundred eighty-ſeven thouſand four hundred and thirty-eight feet. Into this baſon of water the rivulet of Laudot, which runs down the hills, is received, and incloſed by a wall two thouſand four hundred feet long, one hundred and thirty-two in height, and twenty-four thick, having a ſtrong dam defended by a ſtout wall of free ſtone. Under the dam runs an arched paſſage reaching to the main well, where three large cocks, of caſt braſs, are turned and ſhut by means of iron bars; and theſe cocks diſcharge the water through mouths as large as a man's body into an arched aqueduct, where it runs through the outer wall, and when got beyond it, goes under the name of the river Laudot; continuing its courſe to the canal called Rigole de la Plain. From thence it is conveyed to another fine reſervoir near Naurouſe, two hundred fathoms in length, one hundred and fifty in breadth, and ſeven feet in depth; and out of this baſon it is conveyed by means of ſluices, as well to the Mediterranean ſea as to the ocean; according as the canal requires it. Though the above cocks remain open for ſome months ſucceſſively, yet there is no viſible diminution of the water in the great reſervoir.

Near Bezieres are eight ſluices, which form a regular and grand caſcade nine hundred and thirty-ſix feet long, and ſixty-ſix high, by means of which veſſels may paſs acroſs the river Orb, and continue their voyage on the canal. Above it, between Bezieres and Capeſtan, is the Mal Pas, where the canal is conveyed for the length of a hundred and twenty fathoms, under a mountain cut into a very lofty arcade, the greateſt part of which is lined with free-ſtone, except towards the end, where it is only hewn through the rock, which is of a ſoft ſulphureous ſubſtance.

At Agde is a round ſluice, with three openings, three different depths of the water meeting there; and the gates are ſo ingeniouſly contrived, that veſſels may paſs through by opening which the maſter pleaſes; an invention that ſtruck the great Vauban himſelf with admiration. The leſſer rivers and ſtreams that might have prejudiced the canal have been carried under it by water courſes, of which there are forty-four, beſides eight bridges. The whole work coſt thirteen millions of livres, (ſomewhat more than half a million ſterling) part of which money was furniſhed by the king, and part by the ſtates of Languedoc.

The king generouſly granted to Riquet, the inventor of this canal, and his male heirs, all the juriſdiction and revenues belonging to it; ſo that the crown does not come into poſſeſſion till the extinction of that line. Ships paſſing on it, for every hundred weight pay twenty ſous, (ten pence Engliſh money) and even the king himſelf pays this toll for military ſtores, &c. ſent by way of this canal; ſo that the revenue, eſpecially in time of briſk trade, is very conſiderable. However, the charges attending it are alſo very great: for the ſalaries of the ſeveral directors, receivers, comptrollers, lieutenants, clerks, and watchmen, annually amount to one hundred thouſand livres, (four thouſand pounds ſterling) beſides the great expence of repairs. The counts of Caraman, deſcendants of the above-mentioned Riquet, are alſo obliged to keep paſſage-boats, which are drawn by mules or horſes; and though there are no paſſengers, they muſt go and come at ſtated times. This is a dangerous coaſt, and alſo in want of good and ſecure harbours.

With reſpect to trade, the city of Montpellier, by means of the river Lez, and the lakes near it, carries on, at the harbour of Cette, the greateſt maritime trade in all Languedoc; but the whole is not very conſiderable. The commerce of this province principally conſiſts of manufactures and other goods. Wine is exported hence to the coaſts of Italy; oil to Switzerland and Germany; and, when the harveſt is uncommonly good, corn to Italy and Spain; dried cheſnuts and raiſins are ſent to Tunis and Algiers; and cloth to the Levant, Switzerland, and Germany.

About the middle of the ſixteenth century, the Reformation made an extraordinary progreſs in this province; but was ſoon followed by civil broils, and all the rage of perſecution, which was carried on here with greater fury than in other parts of France; and Languedoc was the ſcene of continual commotions and cruelties for above an hundred years. But notwithſtanding the torrents of blood that were poured out here, in order to exterminate the Hugonots (and the whole kingdom of France did not exhibit more ſcenes of cruelty than were inflicted on this ſingle province); yet there ſtill continue to reſide in theſe parts many ſecret proteſtants. So ineffectual are fire and ſword to accompliſh the purpoſes of ſuperſtition and bigotry.

Here are great numbers of popiſh clergy, who are alſo very wealthy, there being in Languedoc no leſs than three archbiſhops and twenty biſhops, and the whole eccleſiaſtical revenues amount to twenty-five millions forty-one thouſand eight hundred and fifty-two livres per annum (or, one million one thouſand ſix hundred and ſeventy-four pounds ſterling). It has alſo a great number of inferior courts, ſubject to the ſupreme ones, which are the parliament of Toulouſe, and the chamber of accompts and taxes at Montpellier. The governors of diſtricts here reſemble the bailiffs in the other provinces, and are eight in number. Every diſtrict has a court of juſtice, to which lie appeals from the Vigueries or royal courts. In it is alſo a ſuperior foreſt court, with ſeven dependent on it. The parliament conſiſts of the clergy, the nobility, and the commons, who are called together by the king every October. Under the governor of Languedoc are three general lieutenants, namely, one over Upper Languedoc, the ſecond over Lower Languedoc, and the third over the dioceſes of Niſmes, Alais, Mende, Puy, Viviers, and Uſez. It has alſo nine inferior governors, to each of which a diſtinct department is aſſigned.

The following are the principal places in this province; viz. 1. Toulouſe, or Thoulouſe, the capital of Languedoc, and one of the moſt ancient cities in the kingdom, is ſituated in latitude forty-three degrees thirty-five minutes forty ſeconds, and in one degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, in a diſtrict called the Toulouſain, in a moſt delightful plain on the Garonne, and, next to Paris, is ſaid to be the largeſt city in all France. The ſtreets are moſtly broad, and the houſes built of brick; it is not, however, very populous, and though ſo finely ſituated, its trade is inconſiderable, its ſtaple article being Spaniſh wool. This is chiefly imputed to the vanity of the merchants, who no ſooner acquire a conſiderable fortune than, laying aſide all commerce, they make it their chief aim to obtain a ſeat in the city-council.

In this city are the ſeat of an intendency and receiver's office, of a governor, a provincial court, a royal tribunal, an admiralty, a foreſt-court, a mint, and other public offices;

offices; here alſo is the reſidence of an archbiſhop, and the ſecond parliament of the kingdom. The dioceſe of the archbiſhop contains two hundred and fifty pariſhes, his revenue amounts to ſixty thouſand livres a year (two thouſand four hundred pounds ſterling), and he pays five thouſand florins to the court of Rome.

Though the cathedral is an ancient handſome ſtructure, yet it contains nothing remarkable: in the ſpacious area before it is a fountain, over which is an obeliſk curiouſly wrought. In the church of St. Semin, or St. Saturnin, are ſaid to lie thirty bodies of ſaints, and among them ſeven of the apoſtles, one of whom they pretend to be St. James the Younger, though St. Jago de Compoſtella, in Spain, alſo boaſts of being poſſeſſed of the body of that apoſtle. Near this city ſtands a ſecularized abbey. The church of La Dorade is thus called from a gilded, but now a coal black image of the Virgin Mary, which ſtands on the great altar, and in any time of calamity is the conſtant refuge of the inhabitants. The name of the ſtatuary was Luke, which being marked on the baſe, has made the common people imagine that this image was carved by St. Luke. The church of the Carmelites has a large and magnificent chapel; that of the Dominicans is alſo large and ſplendid. Under the choir of the Franciſcan church is a vault, where bodies dry without mouldering or putrefaction, but become extremely light.

The ſociety of the Blue Penitents in this city, is one of the moſt renowned fraternities in the whole kingdom, having in its regiſters kings, princes of the blood, and eminent eccleſiaſtics. The univerſity of Toulouſe is reputed the ſecond in France, and conſiſts of ſeveral colleges. The four faculties, namely, divinity, law, philoſophy, and phyſic, with the liberal arts, are taught here. Here is alſo an academy of polite literature, founded by royal patent in September 1694; it is compoſed of a chancellor, and forty-two members or fellows, who employ their talents chiefly in Poetry. This is in the room of a ſociety called the Floral Games; and ſtill every year, on the third day of May, they give away four prizes, one gold and three ſilver flowers, to thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves by writing the beſt copy of verſes. The above ſociety meets in the town-houſe, which is a ſpacious building called the Capitolium, in which there is a white marble ſtatue of Clementia, who is ſaid to have inſtituted the above-mentioned Floral prizes in the year 1330. The hall of this ſtructure is adorned with the buſts of the illuſtrious and celebrated natives of Toulouſe, as alſo of two gothic kings, ſome accounts of Toulouſe, and ſeveral diſtinguiſhed civilians. Here are preſerved five large parchment folios, finely written and illuminated, being the annals of the city from the year 1288 to the preſent time. Here is alſo an academy of the ſciences and liberal arts.

The ſtone bridge over the Garonne, which is a hundred and thirty-five fathoms long, and twelve broad, reſts on ſeven arches of different magnitudes; but, except the cantons, which are of ſtone, is wholly built of brick. In this city are made bergamo carpets, but of little value, together with ſome ſlight ſilk and woollen ſtuffs.

2. The city of Narbonne, the antient Narbo, is ſixty-four miles to the weſt of Montpellier, ſeated on a canal which paſſes through it, and joins the river Aude. It is a fortified place, and the reſidence of an archbiſhop, whoſe province contains one hundred and forty-four pariſhes, and its revenue amounts to ninety thouſand livres per annum (three thouſand ſix hundred pounds ſterling), and he is taxed nine thouſand florins at the court of Rome. The cathedral, called St. Juſtus and St. Paſtor, is remarkable for its fine organ, and curious paintings, in which are repreſented the raiſing of Lazarus from the dead, the laſt judgment, and other pieces. Here are alſo five other pariſh-churches, the principal of which is the collegiate church of St. Paul, with a college of the fathers of the chriſtian doctrine, and ſeveral convents for perſons of both ſexes. Among the antiquities ſtill to be ſeen here, is a beautiful ſepulchre of white marble, in the garden of the archbiſhop's palace; and in the walls of the court of it, ſeveral ſtones and inſcriptions are placed.

3. The city of Montpellier, in Latin Mons Peſſalanus, is ſeated on a hill by the river Lez, fifty miles to the north-eaſt of Narbonne, and, next to Toulouſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in all Languedoc. Here are many fine houſes; but the ſtreets are very narrow, which is attended with this convenience, that in hot weather they have linen awnings drawn over them, under which a perſon may walk without being incommoded by the ſun. In this city is a chamber of taxes and accompts, with an intendency, a treaſurer's office, a provincial court of juſtice, a ſheriff's court, an independent court, a foreſt court, a mint, &c. The air here is ſo pleaſant and healthy, that numbers of foreigners, and eſpecially of the Engliſh, reſort hither for the recovery of their health, particularly when labouring under hectic diſorders.

The city is adorned with ſeveral ſtately edifices, as the hall of juſtice, the churches of St. Peter and the Virgin Mary; and a ſtrong citadel, flanked with four royal baſtions, which commands the town and neighbouring country. The biſhop of this place is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Narbonne; his dioceſe contains one hundred and ſeven pariſhes; his revenue is thirty two thouſand livres (one thouſand two hundred and eighty pounds ſterling) out of which he pays four thouſand florins to the court of Rome. In the ſquare of Louis the Great, which is without the city, is the pleaſant walk of Peyron, in which ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue of that monarch in bronze, upon a pedeſtal of a greyiſh white marble. This the ſtates of Languedoc erected in honour of him. The city gate, leading to this ſquare, is built in the form of a triumphal arch.

In 1706 a royal academy of ſciences was founded here, and they have an excellent phyſic garden, in which public lectures on botany are read. The univerſity here is particularly famous for phyſic, it being founded by phyſicians, who were expelled Spain in the year 1180. The celebrated ſcarlet gown of Rabelais, with which all doctors of phyſic are inveſted at taking their degree, has long ſince ceaſed to be an original, the ſtudents having, from time to time, cut off little ſlips; ſo that the robe now uſed is ſaid to be at leaſt the third or fourth ſubſtitute. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in wool brought from the Mediterranean; alſo in wine, Hungary water, aqua-vitæ, cinnamon-water, &c. they are likewiſe much employed in making verdegris, and in manufacturing dimities, ſilks, and woollen ſtuffs.

The proteſtants were formerly poſſeſſed of this city, as one of their cautionary towns; and though Henry IV. ceded to them this and other places, his ſon Lewis XIII. took it from them in 1622, after a vigorous defence by the garriſon and inhabitants.

4. The ſmall town of Frontigniac, or Frontignan, is ſeated on the lake of Thau, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Montpellier. The above lake, which is alſo called Magalone, is twelve leagues in length, and ſeparated from the ſea only by a narrow tract of land; but in one place has a communication with the gulf of Lyons, which we are told, does not take its name from the city of Lyons, which is ſeated at a great diſtance from the ſea, but rather from the violent ſtorms ſo frequent in this ſhallow part of the Mediterranean, and which deſtroy the ſhips as a furious lion does its prey. This place is remarkable for its excellent wine, jar-raiſins, and its handſome town-houſe: the wine is called, by the Engliſh, Frominiac.

5. The large city of Niſmes, in Latin Nemauſius, ſtands thirty miles to the north of Montpellier, in a pleaſant ſituation, having on one ſide hills covered with vines, and on the other a very fertile plain. The ſtreets are in general narrow, but kept pretty clean, and the houſes are handſomely built with ſtone. Here is a collector's office, an intendency, and a provincial court of juſtice. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, and his dioceſe contains two hundred and fifteen pariſhes: he has an annual revenue of twenty ſix thouſand livres, (one thouſand and forty pounds ſterling) out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is one thouſand two hundred florins. Here are ſeveral convents in this city; an academy of polite literature, founded in 1682; and it is defended by a citadel conſiſting of four baſtions. Here are ſuch a multitude of manufactories, that its cloth and ſilk trade alone exceeds that of the whole province. One third of the inhabitants are ſecret proteſtants.

Several illuſtrious monuments of antiquity are to be ſeen in this city and its neighbourhood: one of the principal of theſe is an amphitheatre, ſaid to be the leaſt damaged of any in Europe. It is built of free-ſtone, the outſide of which is very entire: the ſtones are in many places of an amazing length and thickneſs: it is two ſtories high, and has ſixty arches and columns in each ſtory; on theſe and their cornices are to be ſeen the Roman eagles, with figures of Romulus and Remus ſucking a wolf. The ſteps or ſeats are ruined, and the area filled with houſes. Over the large entrance is a triple and winged priapus, the figure of a woman holding by a bridle, and two half bulls cut in ſtone.

Beſides the above antiquities, here is an oblong ſtructure, embelliſhed with thirty-two columns of the Corinthian, ſuppoſed to be a temple erected by the emperor Adrian

Adrian, in honour of Plotina, conſort to Trajan. A temple conſiſting of moſt beautiful free-ſtone, above half of which is ſtill ſtanding, and is ſuppoſed to have been dedicated to Diana, and cloſe by it is the fountain of Diana, mentioned by Auſonius, which firſt diffuſing itſelf into a deep and wide pond, furniſhed water enough to ſupply all the gardens of the city. It appears, from ſeveral remains, that this was a public bath. Here is alſo an octangular tower fifteen fathoms high, the whole being a ſolid ſtructure from the bottom to the top. The eſplanade, or walking-place without the city, is extremely delightful. The heads of all the Roman eagles found here are ſtruck off; which is imputed to the Goths, who on their reduction of this country, are ſuppoſed to have done this by way of inſult to the haughty enemy they had ſubdued.

About a mile and a half from the market-town of Remoulins, and not far from Niſmes, is a bridge called the Pont du Gardé. This is a moſt valuable piece of Roman antiquity, being part of the great aqueduct by which the ſpring of Eure was carried the length of nine hours diſtance to Niſmes, and there diſtributed in the amphitheatre, public fountains, and private houſes. The above bridge conſiſts of three ranges of arches, built one above another, over the river Gardon, and thus connecting the high rocks on both ſides the river, ſo as to afford a free paſſage to the water of the ſpring above-mentioned from one mountain to the other. The lower part conſiſts of ſix arches, four hundred and thirty-eight feet in length, and eighty-three feet in height. The ſecond conſiſts of eleven arches each fifty-ſix feet in diameter, and ſixty-ſeven in height; and is of ſuch an extraordinary width, that, beſides the pillars on which the upper part or range of arches reſts, there is a horſe and foot-way leading through it, ſecured by a breaſt-work. The third range, which reſts on the ſecond, and is five hundred and eighty-five feet and a half in length, conſiſts of thirty-five arches, each of which is ſeventeen feet in diameter; and over this uppermoſt range runs the aqueduct, which is of ſuch a height and breadth, that with a little inclination of the body a perſon may walk in it. The whole is of a very hard and durable free-ſtone. From an eminence towards Uzez, a ſmall epiſcopal town, near the ſpring of Eure, entire ranges of arches, belonging to this vaſt aqueduct, are here and there to be ſeen.

The ſmall village of Quiſſac is ſeated on the Vidourle, between which and the town of Sauve, at the foot of a mountain near the river, is a periodical ſpring, which runs and intermits twice in twenty-four hours. The flow laſts ſeven hours twenty-five minutes, and the intermiſſion five hours. This is ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by a cave or reſervoir in the mountain, which being filled every five hours, diſcharges itſelf through a canal in the form of a ſyphon. This water is drank as a mineral, and when heated is uſed for bathing. It contains a conſiderable quantity of ſulphur, and is reputed very good for all diſorders of the eyes.

The diſtrict of Albigeois, in Languedoc, is that from whence the Albigenſes take their name, they being a brave and upright people, who ſo early as the eleventh century oppoſed popery, and adhered to the doctrines of the goſpel, amidſt the violent perſecutions which their integrity drew upon them. The country produces plenty of corn, wine, fruit, and ſaffron; but the people are poor.

Alby, the capital of this country, ſtands on an eminence near the river Tarn; it is the reſidence of an archbiſhop, and has a royal tribunal, with ſeveral other courts. This dioceſe contains three hundred and twenty-ſeven pariſh-churches, and the annual revenue of the archbiſhop amounts to ninety-five thouſand livres, (three thouſand eight hundred pounds ſterling) out of which he pays two thouſand florins to the court of Rome. He is lord alſo of the city, though the high and low juriſdiction, and the high domains are in the king's hands. The cathedral is one of the richeſt and fineſt buildings in the kingdom: the epiſcopal palace is alſo very noble. The walk called La Lice, a little above the city, is extremely pleaſant, and the little town of Chateauvieux forms a handſome ſuburb. At a council held here in 1176, the doctrines of the Albigenſes were condemned.

Thirty-five miles to the north of Montpellier ſtands Alais, or Alez, which is a pretty large populous city, and ſeated on the river Gardon. It is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, who has an annual revenue of ſixteen thouſand livres, (ſeven hundred pounds ſterling) out of which he pays to the court of Rome five hundred florins. This dioceſe conſiſts of eighty pariſhes; the biſhopric was founded ſo lately as the year 1691, in order to bring over to the church of Rome the great number of proteſtants in that part of the country, and a college of Jeſuits was added as auxiliaries to it. The quantity of unwrought ſilk annually carried out of this city, is ſaid to amount to one million two hundred thouſand pounds weight, at the loweſt computation.

Rouſſillon is ſeparated to the north from Langeudoc by the Leſſer Pyrenees, to the eaſt it borders on the Mediterranean, and to the ſouth and weſt is divided by the large Pyrenean mountains from Catalonia and Cerdagne. The length of this country, from eaſt to weſt is about fifty miles, and it is twenty-five in breadth. Its name of Rouſſillon is derived from its ancient capital of Ruſcino. Among the ſeveral mountains here, the higheſt are thoſe of Maſſane and Canigou, the latter of which is ſaid to be fourteen hundred fathoms in height.

The country is on all ſides environed with mountains: and the ſummer heats are ſo intenſe, that the inhabitants are almoſt univerſally ſwarthy and meagre. The ſoil is very fruitful in corn, wine, and forage; and in ſome parts ſo uncommonly fertile, that, after the corn harveſt is got in, they ſow millet, and thus procure two, and ſometimes three harveſts in a year. Mules are here uſed for the plough. The great wealth of the country conſiſts in olives and oranges, which are almoſt as common here as apples and pears in Normandy. They have very little wood, and that only of ſhrubs, and the only way of being ſupplied with goods from other countries is by means of mules, from their want of navigable rivers.

With reſpect to animals, they have a great number of ſheep, which are much eſteemed for the uncommon delicacy of their fleſh. Oxen are alſo fattened here, for the gratification of the wealthy; but the breeding of cows is neglected, their milk being bad; however, the pigeons, quails, and partridges of Rouſſillon are excellent. The chief branch of trade in this province is oil, which they ſell to the annual amount of two hundred thouſand livres; (eight thouſand ſeven hundred pounds ſterling) they alſo export wool, corn, and millet. The Tet, Tec, and Agly, its only rivers, are no more than rapid brooks, which diſcharge themſelves into the ſea. Here are alſo hot baths, and a cannet, and the lake of St. Naizaire; the ſea water is conveyed into canals, and there by the heat of the ſun converted into ſalt.

Louis XIII. took this country from the king of Arragon, to whom it formerly belonged; but by the peace of the Pyrenees in 1669 it was ceded to France. It contains but one biſhopric. At Perpignan is a ſuperior court, or council, to which lie appeals from all the inferior courts. In it is alſo a mint. The contributions payable by the inhabitants conſiſt of a poll-tax, which produces about forty thouſand livres, (one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds ſterling.) This country, beſides a governor, has a lieutenant-governor, and deputy-governor.

The capital town is Perpignan, in Latin Perpeniacum; it is ſeated on the river Tet, partly in a plain, and partly on a hill. It is fortified with a high and thick wall, ſtrengthened with baſtions: and has alſo a citadel, which is a fine work, and the ſuburbs are likewiſe defended by a fort. It is, however, a place of no great extent; but is very populous, there being here a ſuperior royal council, or high court of juſtice, an intendency, a chancery, a ſalt office, and a mint. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, and has a dioceſe of a hundred and eighty pariſhes. His revenue is about eighteen thouſand livres, (ſeven hundred and eighty pounds ſterling) out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome fifteen hundred florins. Beſides the cathedral it has four pariſh-churches, a ſeminary, twelve convents, and had two convents of Jeſuits. It has likewiſe an univerſity founded in 1349, with ſeveral alms-houſes and hoſpitals. Among the other public buildings is a large cannon foundery. The greateſt diſadvantage of this city is the want of good water.

The government of Foix contains the diſtrict and county of Foix, with the territories of Andorre and Donezan. It is bounded on the north and eaſt by Languedoc, on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains and Rouſſillon, and on the weſt by Gaſcony. The principal rivers are the Auviege and the Rize. This country is a dependency on the parliament of Toulouſe, and conſtitutes a part of the lands of the ſtates who are annually called together by the king. Its trade conſiſts of cattle, raiſins, turpentine, pitch, cork, jaſper, and particularly iron; and has a lieutenant-general, beſides the governor.

Among the mountains is ſituated Upper Foix, its products are wood, iron, mineral waters, with ſome paſtures. In this country are ſeveral caverns, in which are very ſingular figures formed by the petrifying waters. Lower Foix

produces ſome grain and wine. In this government are four principal towns; but theſe are very ſmall, and too inconſiderable to require particular attention.

Donezan, the little diſtrict or ſovereignty juſt mentioned, is nine miles in length, and the ſame in breadth; it is ſeparated from the county of Foix, by a chain of mountains, and contains nine market-towns and villages; and the territory or valley of Andorre has alſo ſeveral villages in it.

We ſhall deſcribe that part of Navarre which belongs to Spain, in treating of that kingdom; and now come to French, or Lower Navarre, which is united under the ſame government with the principality of Bearne. Theſe two contiguous countries are bounded on the north and eaſt by Gaſcony; on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains; and by another part of Gaſcony on the weſt.

The little government of Lower Navarre is one of the ſix bailiwics which formerly compoſed the kingdom of Navarre: but in 1512 Ferdinand, king of Arragon and Caſtile, having, under frivolous pretences, poſſeſſed himſelf of the kingdom of Navarre, all that Catharine, the lawleſs heireſs, and her huſband John d'Albert, could procure to be reſtored to them, was this little ſpot. They were alſo poſſeſſed of Bearne. John, their ſon, had no better ſucceſs; he poſſeſſed the ſame countries, but the title of ſovereign was confined to the ſcanty remnant of Navarre, which was called a kingdom. Johanna, his daughter, in 1584, married Anthony of Bourbon, to whom ſhe brought the above-mentioned countries as a dowry. Their ſon, Henry IV. became king of France, and Lower Navarre and Bearne were annexed to that crown by his ſon and ſucceſſor Louis XIII.

Lower Navarre, conſidered as a ſeparate kingdom or province, is bounded, on the north, by Gaſcony; on the eaſt, by a part of Gaſcony and Bearne; it is ſeparated from Upper Spaniſh Navarre by the Pyrenean mountains, on the ſouth; and, on the weſt, borders on Labourd, a diſtrict of Gaſcony; its extent is only twenty-four miles in length, and fifteen in the broadeſt part.

The principal rivers are ſmall; theſe are the Nive, which has its ſource from the Spaniſh mountains; and the Bidouſe, which has its ſource here; and both fall into the Adour. The country is mountainous, and produces little. The inhabitants ſpeak the Baſque dialect, which is the ſame with that of Biſkay.

There is neither abbey, collegiate church, nor convent, in the whole country; the only eccleſiaſtical buildings remaining here being four parochial priories. The Reformation took place here under the reign of Henry II. king of Navarre; but in 1694 there was, at leaſt in appearance, a general return to the Romiſh church. In Bearne are two biſhoprics. They allow to the governor ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and forty livres, and two thouſand ſeven hundred and forty to the deputy-governor. The whole government is ſubject to the juriſdiction of the parliament of Pau; yet both Lower Navarre and Bearne have ſtates of their own, each paying the king annually four thouſand eight hundred and ſixty livres (two hundred and thirteen pounds ſterling) as an ordinary contingent, with two thouſand more towards the maintenance of the troops.

There are five diſtricts in LowerNavarre, and its principal town is St. Jean Pied de Port, or St. John at the Foot of the Gate, which is ſituated at the entrance of the paſs that leads through the Pyrenean mountains into Spain. It ſtands on the river Nive, twenty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bayonne, and has a citadel placed on an eminence. Beſides the above town, there are only four other ſmall ones, and ſome inconſiderable villages in this country.

Bearne is a principality of much greater extent; it being about forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-ſix in breadth; but is mountainous, and, except the plains, is in general barren. However, ſome of the mountains contain mines of copper, iron, and lead, and are covered with pines fit for maſts and planks. In this country are produced great quantities of maillac, which is a kind of Indian corn, and alſo flax. In ſome places the inhabitants make excellent wine, the very rocks being planted with vines; but very little wheat or rye is produced here.

The capital town in this principality, namely, Pau, in Latin Palum, ſtands on an eminence, at the foot of which runs the river Gave Bernois. It is ninety-ſeven miles to the ſouth of Bourdeaux, and is the ſeat of a parliament and a bailiwic. This is a ſmall, but pretty town, and has manufactures of cloth. It has a caſtle, in which king Henry IV. of France was born: here are alſo five convents, and two hoſpitals.

The ſmall, but populous city of Oleron is ſeated on the banks of the river Gave, which, from this city, is called the Gave of Oleron, ten miles to the ſouth-weſt of Pau. It has a bailiwic court, and is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Auch, and has a dioceſe containing two hundred and ſeventy-three pariſhes, with a yearly revenue of thirteen thouſand livres, (five hundred and ſixty-nine pounds ſterling) and pays ſix hundred florins to the ſee of Rome. Its trade is not, at preſent, ſo conſiderable as formerly.

The town of Navarreins, built by Henry d'Albert, king of Navarre, and prince of Bearne, is alſo ſituated on the Gave of Oleron, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bayonne. It ſtands in the middle of a fertile plain, and is a ſquare city, pretty well built. This place is ſurrounded with walls; but lies open to an attack from the neighbouring hills. It is the ſeat of a governor, and a king's lieutenant.

Guienne and Gaſcony are bounded, on the eaſt, by Auvergne and Languedoc; on the weſt, by the Bay of Biſcay; on the north, by Saintonge, Angoumois, Limoſin, and Auvergne; and, on the ſouth, by the Pyrenean mountains. This government extends, from north to ſouth, about eighty leagues, and from eaſt to weſt, about ninety. It was formerly part of the antient kingdom of Aquitaine. Here are mines of copper, and fine quarries of marble of all colours; and the country abounds in corn, wine, fruit, hemp, and tobacco; it alſo produces brandy, prunes, and many other commodities. Its trade in wine is ſo very conſiderable, that the city of Bourdeaux alone exports annually one hundred thouſand tons.

The principal rivers are, the Garonne, which receives many ſmall ſtreams; and the Adour, which riſes in the mountains of Bigorre, and falls into the ocean: here are alſo ſeveral ſprings of medicinal waters.

Soon after Charlemagne had created his ſon Louis king of Aquitaine, this kingdom was divided into the duchies of Aquitaine and Gaſcony, which, by the marriage of William IV. duke of Aquitaine, with Briſce, heireſs to Gaſcony, were united, and continued in that family till the year 1150, when, by the marriage of Eleanor with Henry II. king of England, this duchy fell to that crown, and during almoſt three hundred years was ſubject to the Engliſh, who were diſpoſſeſſed of it by Charles VII. in 1453. Louis XI. in 1469, conferred it on his brother Charles, who was the laſt duke of Guienne, it being on his deceaſe, again annexed to the crown of France. However, in 1753, the title of duke of Aquitaine was revived, being conferred on the ſecond ſon of the Dauphin.

There are, in this government, an archbiſhop, with nine ſuffragans: it alſo contains two generalities, namely, that of Bourdeaux, which is under the parliament of that city; and that of Montauban, under the parliament of Thouloufe. The former is compoſed of nine, and the latter of four large ſeneſchalſhips or bailiwics. In each is alſo a court of aids, under the direction of the governor, whoſe ſalary amounts to about ten thouſand livres, (four hundred and thirty-ſeven pounds ſterling,) with two lieutenant generals, one for Guienne, and the other for Gaſcony and Bigorre: here are thirteen deputy-governors, beſides the above-mentioned.

The capital town of Guienne is Bourdeaux, in Latin Burdigula: it is ſeated on the Garonne, in forty-four degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in forty minutes weſt longitude, two hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. This is a pretty large and populous town, having a great number of ſtately houſes built of ſtone; but they are old, and the ſtreets very narrow. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to forty thouſand.

The neweſt and handſomeſt part of the city is the Royal ſquare, near the harbour; in which ſtands a grand magazine, and the exchange. The ſquare is adorned with a ſtatue of Louis XIV. in braſs. There is a conſiderable traffic carried on in the town, it being reſorted to by merchants from moſt parts of Europe. Its haven, which is very capacious and ſafe, is called Le Port de la Lune, or the Port of the Moon, from its being in the form of a creſcent. The tide flows into it very high, and carries ſhips of large burden up to the quay. The city itſelf is in the form of a triangle, the two ſhort ſides towards the ſea, and the largeſt towards the river Garonne. The palace, the town-houſe, the handſome markets, the public fountains, the quay, and the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, are worth the curioſity of a traveller; as is alſo the caſtle called the Chateau Trompette, which ſtands at the entrance of the quay, and commands the whole harbour. There is alſo another caſtle, at the other end of the quay, called Le Chateau de Haa, which is alſo very ſtrong: in both

both theſe fortreſſes a garriſon is conſtantly kept. There is alſo a fort called St. Louis, or St. Croix; but it is of no great importance.

During the reign of Louis XIV. Bourdeaux was fortified in the modern taſte by Vauban; but the ramparts are now ſaid to be ruinous. At the mouth of the Garonne, ſix leagues below the city, ſtands on a ſmall iſland a ſtately watch-tower, where they light flambeaux every night for the direction and ſecurity of ſuch veſſels as ſail up or down that river; a precaution highly neceſſary, on account of the many rocks and ſhelves with which it abounds.

Bourdeaux is the ſee of an archbiſhop, the ſeat of a parliament, a court of aids, a ſeneſchalſhip, a provincial tribunal, an admiralty, and a treaſurer's office. It has alſo an exchange and a mint. The archbiſhop has nine ſuffragans under him, with a province of four hundred and fifty pariſhes, beſides about fifty chapels of eaſe. His revenue is fifty-five thouſand livres per annum (two thouſand five hundred and ſix pounds ſterling) and his taxation at the court of Rome four thouſand florins. The cathedral is a large gothic ſtructure, which contains nothing remarkable but the ſilver ſhrine of relics on the great altar.

The church and convent of the Dominicans are new and elegant ſtructures, but thoſe belonging to the Carthuſians have a ſplendor ſeldom ſeen in any convents of that order. In this city is likewiſe an abbey of Benedictines, of the order of St. Maur. The Jeſuits had, till their expulſion in 1764, a fine college here. The univerſity was founded in 1441, and in 1712 the king erected here an academy of the ſciences and polite arts, the library to which does not contain a great number of books, but conſiſts entirely of ſelect pieces, placed in a moſt elegant hall.

Here are ſtill ſome viſible remains of Roman antiquities, particularly an amphitheatre built by the emperor Gallienus, whoſe place it is called; only ſome parts of the ſide walls are ſtanding, with the two principal gates of the building.

This city carries on a very conſiderable trade, and for its improvement a kind of toleration is granted to the Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, Hamburghers, and Lubeckers, and even to the Portugueſe Jews; but theſe laſt have no ſynagogue, nor are any proteſtants indulged in the public exerciſe of their religious worſhip, only the Engliſh are connived at, and have a miniſter in a lay habit, and the other foreign proteſtants are not prohibited reading a ſermon privately to their families. The Scots, on account of the ſervices they formerly performed for the French, have conſiderable privileges allowed them in this city, and a gate of Bourdeaux bears the enſigns of one of the name of Douglas; even to this day Scottiſh veſſels have peculiar immunities allowed them in trade, and from this port they generally ſhip their wines. In this city Edward the Black Prince reſided for ſome years, and his ſon, afterwards Richard II. king of England, was born during his ſtay here.

The city of Perigueux is the capital of a very large diſtrict named Perigord, the ſee of a biſhop and the ſeat of a bailiwic, and a court of juſtice; it is ſeated on the river Iſle, in a fine country, ſixty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Bourdeaux; the biſhop is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, and has a dioceſe containing four hundred and fifty pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-four thouſand livres, (one thouſand and fifty pounds ſterling) out of which he is taxed two thouſand five hundred and ninety florins at the court of Rome. This city has four convents, one hoſpital, and had a college of Jeſuits. The old town is called La Cité; and the new town named La Ville, is about one hundred paces diſtant.

The town of Agen, capital of a diſtrict called the Agenois, is pretty large, and well inhabited. It is ſeated on the river Garonne, ſeventy-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. The biſhop ſtiles himſelf count of Agen, but this is only a titular honour; he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, under whom he has a dioceſe of three hundred and ſeventy-three pariſhes, and one hundred and ninety-one chapels of eaſe, with a yearly revenue of thirty-five thouſand livres, (one thouſand five hundred and thirty-one pounds ſterling) out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome two thouſand four hundred and forty florins. There are here a cathedral and a collegiate church, two pariſh-churches, with ſeveral convents; and there was here a college of Jeſuits. This city is finely ſituated for trade, but makes little advantage of it.

In the diſtrict of Lower Quercy, ſtands Montauban, in Latin Mons Albanus, a well-built handſome city, ſeated on the river Tarn, twenty-ſeven miles to the north of Toulouſe, and is the ſee of a biſhop, with the ſeat of a court of aids, a provincial court, and a bailiwic. It properly conſiſts of three parts, the Old and New Town, with the town of Bourbon, which lies on the other ſide of the river, and is a ſuburb. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toulouſe, and has a dioceſe of ninety-ſix pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-five thouſand livres per annum, (one thouſand and ninety-four pounds ſterling) out of which he pays a tax of two thouſand five hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city are two collegiate churches, an academy of polite literature, one ſeminary, eight convents, and a general hoſpital; it had alſo, till lately, a college of Jeſuits. Woollen ſtuffs are its principal trade.

The inhabitants, in 1562, became proteſtants, and fortified the city in ſo ſtrong a manner, that Louis XIII. beſieged it in 1621 without ſucceſs, and was unable to reduce it till the year 1629, when he cauſed its fortifications to be demoliſhed.

The diſtrict of Gaſcony, called by the French Gaſcogne, conſtitutes the ſouth part of the government of Guienne, and includes the country lying between the Garonne, the ocean, and the Pyrenean mountains. It receives its name from the Gaſcones and Vaſcones, by the moderns called Baſques or Vaſques, a people who lived on the Pyrenean mountains in Spain, and towards the cloſe of the ſixth century ſettled on the north ſide of the Pyrenees, where they defended themſelves againſt the Franks; but were at laſt obliged to ſubmit. It is bounded, on the north, by Guienne; on the weſt, by Languedoc and the county of Foix; on the ſouth, by the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from Spain; and on the eaſt, by the ſea of Gaſcony, or bay of Biſcay. The inhabitants are ſaid to have quick parts, but are ſo addicted to boaſting, that from them the term gaſconade is become proverbial for bragging ſtories. The country is not very fertile, it producing little corn, though it has great plenty of fruit, and the mountains afford timber fit for building of ſhips.

The principal places in this province are the following; viz. 1. Auch, the ancient Eluſaberris, and afterwards Auguſta; it is the capital of the diſtrict of Armagnac, and of all Gaſcony; and ſtands on the ſide and top of a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Gers, thirty-ſeven miles to the weſt of Toulouſe, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, between which there is a communication by means of two hundred ſtone ſteps. This place is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and has an intendency, a treaſurer's office, a bailiwic, a provincial and royal court. The lordſhip of this city is divided between the archbiſhop and the count of Armagnac. The dioceſe conſiſts of three hundred and ſeventy-two pariſh-churches, and two hundred and ſeventy-ſeven chapels of eaſe; and the revenue of the archbiſhop is ninety thouſand livres, (three thouſand nine hundred and thirty-ſeven pounds ſterling) out of which he pays to the court of Rome ten thouſand florins. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent in the kingdom; the chapter is compoſed of fifteen dignitaries, and twenty-five canons; and among the latter there are five which are only honorary. The king himſelf is the firſt of them, as count of Armagnac; the four others are the barons of Monteſquieu, Pardaillau, L'Iſle, and Montruit.

2. The town of Bayonne, in Latin Lapurdum, capital of the diſtrict of Labourd, is ſeated in forty-three degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in one degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, at the junction of the Adour and Nive, near the mouth of the former, and a little below the city they diſcharge themſelves into the bay of Biſcay. It is of pretty conſiderable extent, and is the ſee of a biſhop: it has alſo a bailiwic-court, an admiralty, and a mint. The name of Bayonne is compounded of two Baſque words, Baia and Ona, ſignifying a good harbour, and it well deſerves that title; for though the ſhallows render the entrance to it ſomewhat difficult, it is notwithſtanding much frequented.

There is no other place in France that has, like this, the advantage of being ſituated on two rivers, into which the tide flows; the Nive runs through it, and the Adour cloſe to its walls; ſoon after which they unite, and divide the city into three parts; that called the Great Town, lies on the ſide of the Nive; the Little Town is between the Nive and the Adour; and the ſuburb of St. Eſprit, in which great numbers of Jews reſide, lies on the other ſide of the river. The two firſt parts, beſides their other works, have each a ſmall fort; the ſuburb has good fortifications, and a regular ſquare citadel, which, ſtanding on an eminence, commands the three ſeveral parts of the city, the harbour, and the adjacent country. Moſt of theſe works have been repaired and improved by Vauban, the celebrated engineer; for though the city is not very large, yet from

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its being one of the keys to France by the side of Spain, it is of the utmost importance.

There are in this city a cathedral and collegiate church, five convents, and one college; the suburb has also a collegiate church: but neither the cathedral, which is dedicated to the holy Virgin, nor any of the other public or private buildings, have any thing remarkable. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Auch; he has a revenue of one thousand nine hundred livres, or eighty-three pounds sterling, out of which he pays one hundred florins to the court of Rome; his diocese contains seventy-two parish churches.

Auvergne, which is the next government to be described, takes its name from its antient inhabitants the Averni: it is almost one hundred miles in length, and seventy five in breadth; and is bounded, on the north, by Bourbonnois; on the west, by Limosin, the district of Quercy in Guienne and the Cevennes; on the east, by Forez, a large district in the government of Lionnois; and on the south, by Guienne and the Cevennes.

This government is divided into Upper and Lower Auvergne; the latter of which is a very pleasant fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, fruit, forage, and hemp; it far excels Upper Auvergne, which is cold, and full of mountains that are covered with snow seven or eight months in the year, though its pastures are excellent, and the inhabitants deal largely in cattle. The situation of the mountains occasions the winds blowing in such eddies, that the windmills here are of no service.

There are several mountains in this country, the highest of which are, 1. Le Puis de Dome, the perpendicular height of which is eight hundred and ten fathoms; 2. The Cantal, nine hundred and eighty-four; and, 3. Mont-d'Or, one hundred and thirty: the two latter are no less famous for the curious plants that grow on them. At Pontgibaud is a silver mine, but the produce not answering the expence, the working of it has been discontinued; however, there are very profitable coal mines in the neighbourhood of Brisac.

The most considerable rivers are, 1. the Allagnon, which rises in mount Cantal, and, after a rapid course, falls into the river Allier; 2. the Dordogne, which springs from Mont d'Or; and, 3. the Allire, which rises in the Gevaudan, and falls into the Loire.

This country produces corn, wine, cattle, cheese, coals, besides other useful articles, and carries on many manufactures, as all kinds of silks, stuffs, clothes, very beautiful laces, and paper, which is esteemed the best in all Europe. Some thousands of labourers go every year from hence to Spain, to gather in the harvest, and return here with the greatest part of the money they have earnt.

This province is intirely subject to the parliament of Paris, but is governed by different laws; Lower Auvergne having a particular code of its own, while in Upper Auvergne the civil law takes its place. The whole country is divided into five large districts, and two bailiwics. There are two lieutenants-general and two sub-governors under the chief governor.

The town of St. Flour, capital of Upper Auvergne, stands on a mountain of difficult access. It is the see of a bishop, whose diocese consists of two hundred and seventy parishes: he has a revenue of twelve thousand livres, (about five hundred and twenty-five pounds sterling) and his taxation to the court of Rome is nine hundred florins. Besides its cathedral, it has a collegiate church. The cloth, carpets, and knives, manufactured here, are greatly esteemed. The inhabitants carry on a good trade in grain, this city being, as it were, the general magazine of the neighbouring country, which produces a great deal of rye.

The town of Aurillac, which disputes the title of capital with St. Flour, is seated in a valley on the banks of the river Jordane, two hundred and fifty miles to the south of Paris, and thirty to the south-west of St. Flour. This town is populous, and pretty well built; it also confers the title of count, and here are some manufactures of tapestry and lace. Here is a district and bailiwic court; it has likewise a castle seated on a high rock, and a collegiate church, which is properly a secularized abbey, the abbot of which is lord of the town, and holds immediately of the pope; here are also an abbey, and four convents.

The city of Clermont, the antient Augustonemetum, afterwards Auvergne, the capital of the whole country, stands on a small eminence in Lower Auvergne, between the rivers Artier and Bedat. Its streets are narrow, and the houses are dark. It contains a tax chamber, a bailiwic, and a county-court, &c. This was formerly the principal place belonging to the counts of Auvergne, who therefore stiled themselves counts of Clermont. Besides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, three abbies, and many convents: in the abbey of St. Allire the bodies of several saints are said to be deposited. In the chapel of St. Viterand, and in that of St. André, are the tombs of the old counts of Clermont, and the dauphines of Auvergne. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges; he is also lord of the small towns of Billon and Croupieres, enjoys a diocese of eight hundred parishes, with a revenue of fifteen thousand livres, (six hundred and fifty-six pounds sterling) out of which he pays four thousand five hundred and fifty florins to the see of Rome.

There are several wells in the neighbourhood of this city: their water soon covers with a stony crust any substance laid in them. The most remarkable of these is that in the suburb of St. Allire, which has formed a famous stone bridge mentioned by many historians. This is a solid rock, composed of several strata formed during the course of many years, by the running of the petrifying waters of this spring. It has no cavity of arches, till after above sixty paces in length, where the rivulet of Tiretaine forces its way through. This petrifying spring, which falls on a much higher ground than the bed of the rivulet, gradually leaves behind it some lapidious matter, and in process of time has thus formed an arch, through which the Tiretaine has a free passage. The necessity which this petrifying matter seemed to be under of forming itself into an arch, could continue no longer than the breadth of the rivulet, after which, the water of the spring ran regularly under it, and there formed a new petrifaction resembling a pillar. The inhabitants of these parts, in order to lengthen this wonderful bridge, have diverted the brook out of its old channel, and made it pass close by the pillar, by which means they caused the spring to form the second arch, and thus they might have produced as many arches as they pleased; but the great resort of people to see this natural curiosity becoming troublesome to the Benedictines of the abbey of St. Allire, within whose jurisdiction the spring lies, in order to lessen its petrifying virtue, they divided the stream into several branches, which has so well answered their intent, that at present it only covers with a thin crust those bodies on which it falls perpendicularly; but on those over which it runs its ordinary course, no traces of its petrifying qualities are any longer perceivable. This is the only water drank in this suburb, and we do not hear that the use of it is attended with any bad effects.

The government of Limosin, or Limousin, derives its name from the antient Lembovices, and is bounded, on the east, by Auvergne; on the south, by Guienne; on the west, by Perigord, in Guienne, and Angoumois; and on the north by La Marche and Poitou. Its extent from north to south is about twenty-five French leagues, and from east to west somewhat less.

It is divided into Upper and Lower: Upper Limosin is very mountainous, and consequently cold, but Lower Limosin is more temperate. The former produces little wine, and that too very indifferent, but that of Lower Limosin is extremely good. It produces such numbers of chesnut-trees, that the inhabitants derive their principal subsistence from them. The grain which grows here is rye, barley, and Turkish corn. They have also mines of copper, tin, iron, and lead, and there are some iron works in this country.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Vienne, the source of which lies in the borders of Lower Limosin and La Marche. 2. The Vezere, which rises in the same country. 3. The Coureze, which falls into the Vezere; and, 4. The Dordogne, which divides Limosin from Auvergne, and the district of Quercy in Guienne. The country is subject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and, besides its governor, has one lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors.

The principal places are, 1. Limoges, in Latin Lemovicæ, the capital of the country, which is situated on the river Vienne, partly on a hill and partly in a valley, thirty leagues to the west of Clermont. The town is about a league and a half in circumference, but ill built, the houses being generally of wood, small, and dark; but the cathedral is a magnificent structure; besides which it has a collegiate church, three abbies, one convent, and a college and seminary, which lately belonged to the jesuits. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges, and his diocese, which extends over Upper and part of Lower Limosin, La Marche, and a part also of Angoumois, contains nine hundred parishes; and his revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, (eight hundred and seventy five pounds sterling) out of which he pays sixteen hundred florins to the court of Rome. It contains a bailiwic, a

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county and royal court, with other public offices, and also a mint.

2. The town of Tulle, properly Tuelle, which is situated in Lower Limosin, near the confluence of the little rivers Coureze and Solane, fifteen leagues to the south of Limoges, and a mile and a half in circumference. It contains about twelve hundred houses, and five thousand people. Its bishop, who is lord and viscount of the town, is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges; and his diocese, which consists of seventy parishes, brings him in a revenue of twelve thousand livres, (near five hundred and twenty-five pounds sterling) out of which he pays to the see of Rome fourteen hundred florins. It has six convents in it.

3. The little town of Brize la Gaillarde is seated near the confluence of the Coureze and Vezere, seventeen leagues to the south of Limoges, and five to the west of Tulle, in a valley environed with little hills, planted with vines and chesnut-trees; the situation being extremely pleasant. It is the only fine town of the province: the houses are elegantly built, and the walks about it are extremely pleasant. In this town are found all the pleasures and conveniences of life. It contains about one thousand houses, in which are about five thousand inhabitants.

La Marche is bounded on the north by Berri; on the east, by Auvergne; on the south, by Limosin; and on the west by Poitou: it being about twenty-two French leagues in length from north to south, and eight in breadth from east to west.

This government, like Limosin, is divided into Upper and Lower, and the soil and climate in both are the same. Its principal rivers, are the Vienne; the Great and Little Creuse, which discharge themselves into the Vienne; the Cher, and the Gartempe, the later of which falls into the Creuse. The upper parts of the district are pretty fruitful in corn. Subordinate to its governor, are a lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors. It contains two bailiwics, and is governed by its own laws.

The Capital of the Upper and Lower Marche, is Gueret, seated on the river Gartempe, ten leagues to the north-east of Limoges, and the place where the courts of justice are held; but it has only one parish church, one college, one priory, two convents, and an hospital. The other places in this government contain nothing remarkable.

SECT. VI.

Describing the Governments of SAINTONGE and ANGOUMOIS, NIVERNOIS and BOURBONNOIS, BERRI and TOURAINE, POITOU and AUNIS, ANJOU and SAUME, ORLEANNOIS, MAINE and PERCHE, with an Account of their Boundaries, Situation and Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, principal Cities, Towns, Places, and Government; Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, &c.

THE government of Saintonge is bounded by Poitou and Aunus on the north; by Angoumois and Perigord on the east; by Guienne and the river Gironde on the south; and by the bay of Biscay on the west; extending twenty-five leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. It derives its name from the Santoni, its ancient inhabitants. The country abounds in corn, wine, and all kinds of fruit; and the inhabitants, who are situated near the sea, make great quantities of excellent salt. Its horses are also much esteemed. In it are some mineral springs. Its principal rivers are the Charente, which abounds in fish; it rises near Charennac, and runs into the sea; and the Butonne, which rises in Poitou, and falls into the Charente.

This province is divided, by the Charente, into the south, or Upper Saintonge: and into the north part, or Lower Saintonge. It is subject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, a few parishes excepted, which are within the jurisdiction of Angoumois. The governor-general is also deputy-governor of this country.

The principal places in Upper Saintonge, are, 1. Saintes, the capital; which is seated on the Charente, fifty-eight miles to the northward of Bourdeaux, and twenty to the east of the bay of Biscay. It is a little ill-built city; but contains a provincial and a bailiwic court, with other public offices, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux. His diocese contains five hundred and sixty-five parishes and chapels, and his revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, (eight hundred and seventy-five pounds sterling) out of which his Roman tax is two thousand florins. The streets are narrow and mean, but in the suburbs is an abbey, and the jesuits had a college here. Some ancient ruins discover its antiquity; as, a triumphal arch supposed to be erected in the reign of Tiberius, the ruins of an amphitheatre, another triumphal arch, and several aqueducts.

2. Pons, a handsome town, stands high on the little river Seigne, over which it has several bridges, whence it probably received its name. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, and contains three parish-churches, three convents, three alms-houses, and a commandery of the knights of Malta. And,

3. St John d'Angeli, in Latin Angeliacum, situated on the river Butonne, five leagues to the north-east of Saintes, and has a royal court of justice. While this place continued in the possession of the protestants, it was populous and well fortified; but being reduced in 1621 by Louis XIII. the fortifications were razed, and the city deprived of its privileges. It has an abbey and three convents. The inhabitants make woollen stuffs; and its brandy is much esteemed.

The government of Angoumois is bounded by Poitou on the north; by Limosin, on the east; by Perigord, on the south; and by Saintonge on the west; it being between fifteen and sixteen French leagues in length, and about sixteen in breadth. The country is full of little hills, but has none of any considerable size. It produces wheat, rye, barley, Spanish corn, oats, saffron, wine, and fruit: it also yields some excellent mines of iron, and is particularly famous for making of paper.

Its principal rivers are the Charente and Touvre, the latter of which rises here, and runs into the former. This country is subject to the parliament of Paris, and contains a bailiwic and a territorial jurisdiction.

The two following places are the most considerable in this government; viz. Angouleme, the capital of Angoumois, which is seated on the top of a hill surrounded with rocks, at the foot of which runs the river Charente, thirty miles to the eastward of Saintes. It confers the title of duke, is the see of a bishop, and has a bailiwic, a country and forest court, an office of the five great farms, &c. and is said to contain eight thousand persons. Here are twelve parish-churches, and the abbey of St. Cibard, in which lie buried the old counts of Angoumois; it also contains ten convents, and a general hospital. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, and has a diocese of two hundred parishes, with a revenue of twenty thousand livres, (eight hundred and seventy-five pounds sterling) out of which he is taxed one thousand florins to the court of Rome.

2. The second town of this county is Coignac, or Cognac, which stands seven leagues to the westward of Angouleme, in a most delightful situation on the Charente. This place is remarkable for its excellent wine and brandy: here is a castle, in which Francis I. was born, and three convents.

Nivernois is bounded, on the west, by Berri; on the south, by Bourbonnois; on the east, by Burgundy; and on the north, by Burgundy and the Gatinois. This government is pretty nearly of a circular form, and is about twenty leagues over either way. It produces corn, wine, and fruit; except in the district of Morvant, which is a mountainous country, that produces scarcely corn enough for the subsistence of the inhabitants. It has large woods, some pit-coal, and mines of iron.

Among the many rivers which water Nivernois, three of them are navigable; these are, 1. the Loire, which runs from south to north, along the western borders of this country. 2. The Allire, which runs into the Loire; and 3. The Yonne, which rises on the south-east part of this province, and, running northward, falls into the sea: the other streams serve to render the country fruitful and pleasant: here are also some mineral springs. This country, which is divided into eight districts, is subject to the parliament of Paris, and has its own particular laws: over it is a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a deputy-governor.

The most considerable places in this government are, 1, Nevers, the antient Noviodunum, and afterwards Nivurnum, the capital of the country, situated in the district called Le Vaux de Nevers. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the banks of the Loire, which is here joined by the little river Nievre, thirty leagues to the south-east of Orleans. It has a handsome stone bridge of twenty arches: but the streets are narrow, and the ground uneven. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Cyr, is a fine structure; besides which, there are eleven parish-churches, two abbies, and several convents. Among the other buildings is an old castle, which fronts a large square, and consists of handsome houses uniformly built. Here are a forest and bailiwic court, with a salt-office. The bishop is suffragan of

the archbiſhop of Sens, and his dioceſe conſiſts of two hundred and ſeventy-one pariſhes. His revenue amounts to twenty thouſand livres, (eight hundred and ſeventy-five pounds ſterling) and he pays one thouſand two hundred and fifty florins to the court of Rome. This place is celebrated for its porcelain and glaſs-houſes, and for its works in enamel. The inhabitants alſo carry on a great trade in corn, hemp, wood, pit-coal, iron, and tin wares. The fields about the town are extremely pleaſant, particularly the public walks in the adjoining park. It is computed that the inhabitants amount to about eight thouſand.

2. The town of Clamecy is ſeated in a diſtrict called the Vale of Yonne, and upon the banks of that river, which is here joined by the Burron, and rendered navigable. Pantenor, one of its ſuburbs, ſtands on the other ſide of the Yonne, and in the year 1180 was the reſidence of the biſhop of Bethlehem, who had been compelled to leave Paleſtina. The biſhop of the city, who to this day ſtyles himſelf biſhop of Bethlehem, is created by the caunt de Nevers, and enjoys all the privileges of the other French biſhops, though his revenue amounts to no more than one thouſand livres, (forty-four pounds ſterling) and this town is his whole dioceſe. Here are a caſtellany, and a ſalt-office.

Bourbonnois is bounded, on the weſt, by Upper Marche; on the ſouth, by Auvergne; on the eaſt, by the duchy of Burgundy; and, on the north, by Nivernois and Berri. It is about thirty French leagues in length, and twenty in breadth.

The ſoil is pretty fertile, and produces corn, fruit, and forage: here is alſo good wine, but not in a ſufficient quantity for exportation. It has likewiſe a few coal-pits, and a great number of mineral ſprings and warm baths.

Its chief rivers are the Loire, the Allire, and the Cher; beſies which, it has ſeveral other ſmall ones. In July, when the ſnow melts on the mountains of Auvergne, great damages are done by the inundations of the Allire.

The whole country contains twenty-two ſmall towns. It is ſubject to the parliament of Paris; though the duke of Bourbon, to whom it belongs, has the nomination of all the civil officers, yet their proper maſter is the king. Beſides the governor and lieutenant-general, here are alſo two ſub-governors.

The principal places are, 1. Moulins, in Latin Molinæ, the capital of the country: It is ſeated on the Allire, in a pleaſant fertile plain, almoſt in the middle of France, thirty miles to the ſouth of Nevers, and fifty-five to the north of Clermont. It is well-built, and is one of the moſt agreeable places in the kingdom. It contains an intendency, a chamber of domains, a caſtellany, and ſeveral courts. It has likewiſe a collegiate church, five convents, a college which formerly belonged to the jeſuits, and an hoſpital.

The ſmall town of Bourbon l'Archambaud, ſtands fifteen miles to the weſt of Moulins, and is environed by four hills, on one of which is an old caſtle which contains three chapels, among which, that called The Holy is very ſplendid. Here are alſo one pariſh, and one collegiate church, a priory, a convent, and two hoſpitals. This town is famous for its hot baths and cold mineral ſprings. It contains a royal caſtellany and a diſtrict court.

Berri extends, from eaſt to weſt, between twenty-ſeven and twenty-eight French leagues, and between thirty-five and thirty-ſix from north to ſouth. This government is bounded, on the north, by the Orleannoiſe; on the weſt, by La Marche and Touraine; on the eaſt, by the Nivernois.

It enjoys a temperate climate; and the ſoil produces wheat, rye, and wine, which in ſome places is equal to that of Burgundy. Its other products are alſo good, particularly its hemp and flax, in which it abounds; and its rich paſtures feed great numbers of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, which are valued for the fineneſs of their wool. Oker, which is ſeldom met with in other parts of France, is found in this country.

Beſides the lake of Villiers, which is between ſeven and eight leagues in circuit, here are the following principal rivers, viz. the Loire, the Creuſe, and the Cher; the Large and Leſſer Sandre, the Lerre, and the Indre; theſe two laſt have their ſources in this country: the Orron, the Aurette, the Moulon, and the Evre.

This country is divided into Upper and Lower Berri: the whole is under the juriſdiction of the parliament of Paris, and is governed by laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor, are one lieutenant, and two ſub-governors.

The following are the two principal places in this government, viz. 1. Bourges, the capital of Upper Berri, and of the whole country: it is ſituated on a hill between the rivers Evre and Orron, to the banks of which it gradually deſcends, thirty-five leagues to the ſouth of Paris, and ſeventeen almoſt ſouth-eaſt of Orleans. Theſe two rivers encompaſs it on every ſide, except on that next the gate of Bourbonnoux. It is a large ſpacious city, containing a cathedral, four collegiate churches, beſides two annexed to the ſeminary, four abbies, and ſixteen pariſh churches, with a beautiful and large college, which lately belonged to the jeſuits. You meet here with many eccleſiaſtics, gentlemen, and ſcholars; and it is computed that there are in this city fifteen thouſand ſouls; but not many of them are tradeſmen; the place having no other trade than what is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and has an intendency, a ſalt-office, an independent royal tribunal, and ſeveral other offices and courts.

The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is a fine Gothic ſtructure, ſtanding on the higheſt part of the city: the archbiſhop, who is ſtyled patriarch and primate of Aquitaine, has five ſuffragans, with a dioceſe of nine hundred pariſhes, and a revenue of thirty thouſand livres, (one thouſand three hundred and thirteen pounds ſterling) out of which he pays four thouſand and thirty-three florins to the ſee of Rome. The palace built by Prince John of France, duke of Berri, is a magnificent edifice, in one part of which, called the king's apartment, the governor reſides, and the other ſerves for the courts of juſtice; the great hall in the latter, which has no pillars to ſupport it, is eſteemed one of the fineſt and largeſt rooms in the kingdom.

The town-houſe, erected by Jaques Coeur, is one of the moſt elegant buildings ever erected by a private man, and was purchaſed by the great Colbert, about A. D. 1670, who gave it to the corporation of this city. The ſquare of Bourbon is the largeſt in Bourges, and here anciently ſtood a Roman amphitheatre. The public walks and the malls are much admired, and the great number of religious houſes are another conſiderable ornament to the city. The univerſity of Bourges conſiſts of four faculties, and was founded or revived in the year 1463.

Bourges was taken by ſtorm by Julius Cæſar; and the inhabitants having exerciſed ſome cruelties on the Roman ſoldiers that had fallen into their hands, he glutted his revenge by deſtroying near forty thouſand of the natives. In the fifteenth century Charles VII. made this the place of his reſidence, while the Engliſh were maſters of almoſt all the reſt of the kingdom; on which occaſion the Engliſh called him king of Berri, by way of deriſion.

The large town of Iſſoudun, in Latin Exolidunum, which is the ſecond in rank in the province, ſtands in a beautiful plain, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bourges, and is the principal place in Lower Berri. It contains a ſalt-office, a manor-court, and other public courts and offices. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Town: it has one abbey, two collegiate, and four pariſh-churches, five convents, and two hoſpitals; and a caſtle that commands the place.

Touraine derives its name from the Turones. It is bounded, on the north, by the river Maine; on the eaſt by the Orleanois; on the ſouth by Berri and Poitou; and, on the weſt, by Anjou. Its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is twenty-two French leagues, and twenty-four from north to ſouth.

This government enjoys a temperate air; and the country is ſo delightful, that it is called The Garden of France; but it is not every where alike. The tract called the Varennes, which lies along the Loire, has a ſandy ſoil, that produces rye, barley, millet, garden-plants, and an herb which makes a good yellow dye. That called the Verron is richer, and yields corn, wine, very fine fruit, and particularly large plums. La Champagne is a ſmall ſtrip of land between the rivers Cher and Indre, abounding in grain, and particularly wheat. La Brenne is a ſwampy country, but the eminences along the Loire and Cher are covered with vineyards. La Gaſtine is a ſtiff land, very difficult to plow; and the country of Never is diſtinguiſhed by its having ſeveral iron and one copper-mine.

This province is governed by its own laws; but the inhabitants have a right of appeal to the parliament of Paris. It has a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a ſub-governor. There are twenty-ſeven towns or boroughs in the country.

The principal places are the following, viz. 1. Tours, the Cæſarodunum, or Turoni of the ancients, and the capital of the country, lies in a plain extending between the river Loire and the Cher, and is fifty-two miles to the north-eaſt of Poitiers, and a hundred and twenty-ſeven to

the ſouth-weſt of Paris. The city is large and well-built, and the ſtreets very clean, on account of ſeveral rivulets running through them from ſix public fountains. In this city is a very fine mall, above a thouſand paces in length, and adorned on each ſide with two rows of fine elms. The inhabitants are ſo ſcrupulous, that after it has rained, no perſon is ſuffered to play, nor even walk in it till it be dry, under a penalty of ten livres, (eight ſhillings and nine-pence Engliſh). This city has a mint, a receiver's office, and a ſalt office, an intendency, a provincial, a bailiwic, and foreſt-court.

The cathedral is a fine ſtructure, with two lofty towers, a curious clock, and a library, where are ſeen ſeveral ancient manuſcripts faſtened by chains upon deſks. The two moſt valuable of theſe manuſcripts are, one of the Pentateuch, written in ſmall capitals, which is reckoned to be a thouſand years old, and another of the four Goſpels in Saxon characters, which ſome think to be of the ſame age as the Pentateuch, and others, twelve hundred years old. There are here alſo five collegiate churches, three abbies, twelve convents, and the jeſuits had a college. Here is a royal palace, and an academy of polite literature. The city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, under whom are eleven ſuffragans, ſeventeen abbies, twelve collegiate churches, ninety-eight priories, three hundred pariſhes, and a hundred and ninety-one chapels. His revenue is forty thouſand livres, (one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds ſterling) and he pays to the court of Rome nine thouſand five hundred florins.

Poitou is bounded, on the north, by Touraine and Anjou; on the eaſt, by La Marche and part of Berri; on the ſouth by Angoumois and Aunis; and on the weſt by the bay of Biſcay. It extends from north to ſouth twenty-two French leagues, and from eaſt to weſt forty-eight. It received its name from the ancient Pictavi, or Pictoni.

In this country there is an agreeable variety of champaign lands, woods, and paſture-grounds, with a few foreſts. The ſoil is various, according to the different parts of the country; but it in general abounds in corn and cattle. The principal trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in woollen ſtuffs, oxen, horſes, and mules.

Its principal rivers are the Vienne, which riſes on the borders of Limoſin, and being joined by the Creuſe, falls into the Loire; the Sevre Niortoiſe, which riſes in this country, and, after receiving the Venotee, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea; theſe are all navigable: here is alſo the Clain, which riſes in the frontiers of Angoumois, and falls into the Vienne above-mentioned.

This city, while the manufactures of gold, ſilver, and ſilk brocades were in a flouriſhing condition, was computed to contain ſixty thouſand inhabitants, which number is now reduced to thirty thouſand. It is governed by a mayor and twelve eſchevins, or aldermen.

The town of Amboiſe, in Latin Ambacia, or Ambaſia, is ſeated at the confluence of the Loire and the Amaſſe, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Tours; it contains a ſalt-office, with a royal and foreſt-court. In it are two pariſh-churches, four convents, and one hoſpital. Near the town is a large caſtle ſtanding on a high rock, in which are the ſtatues of Charles VIII. and his conſort Anne; as alſo a ſtag's head of very extraordinary dimenſions, it being ten feet high and eight feet broad, from the extremity of one horn to the other. This was ſuppoſed to be natural, till it was at laſt diſcovered to be fictitious, and only made of wood. There are here alſo ſeveral other curioſities. In this town Charles VIII. was ſlain, either by running againſt a door, or, according to others, by being ſhot through the head. This was alſo the place where the civil war in 1561 firſt broke out, and where the name of Huguenot was firſt given to the French proteſtants.

Charlemagne erected this province into an earldom. Eleanor, daughter to the laſt duke of Aquitaine, brought it to her ſpouſe, Henry II. king of England, to which it continued ſubject, with ſome interruptions, till the unfortunate reign of Henry VI. when it was taken in 1436, ſince which time it has continued annexed to the crown of France.

This province is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and has but one provincial court: there are under the governor a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors. The whole government is divided into two parts. Upper Poitou, which conſtitutes the eaſtern part of the country, is larger, more fruitful, pleaſant, and healthy, than the Lower.

The principal places in Upper Poitou, are, 1. Poitiers, or Poictiers, in Latin Auguſtoritum, the capital of the country. This city ſtands upon a hill on the left bank of the little river Clain, into which falls another rivulet; it is ſituated about eighteen leagues to the eaſt of the ſea-coaſt, and ſeventy miles to the north-eaſt of Rochelle. Were its circuit to be only conſidered, it would, perhaps, be eſteemed the firſt in the kingdom, next to Paris, but it is far from being peopled in proportion to its extent, there being corn-fields and meadows within the walls; for the city has been ſo reduced by the civil wars, that it is almoſt become a deſert, and is a mean, ſmoky place. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, and has a dioceſe of ſeven hundred and twenty-two pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-two thouſand livres, (nine hundred and ſeventy-three pounds ſterling) out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thouſand eight hundred florins. The cathedral is of an uncommon ſize, and built in the gothic ſtile. In this city are alſo four collegiate churches, ſeventeen other pariſh-churches, four abbies, twenty-one convents, two ſeminaries, and three hoſpitals; an univerſity founded here in 1431. In 1687 the inhabitants erected, in the royal ſquare, a pedeſtrian ſtatue of Louis XIV. The manufactures of this town are gloves and combs; and woollen caps and ſtockings are imported from hence. It is the ſeat of a ſeneſchalſhip, a preſidial court, an office of the finances, and a county court.

Here are ſtill to be ſeen ſome remains of Roman antiquities; among which is an amphitheatre, which lies among gardens and ſmall houſes; a triumphal arch, or rather gate, erected at the beginning of a military way, of which nothing at preſent remains but the arch, with the two pillars which ſupport it. The palace, and thick round tower cloſe by it, bear evident marks of their being of gothic ſtructure, though ſuppoſed by ſome to be Roman works.

Edward the Black Prince obtained, near this city, a memorable victory over the French, in the year 1356, when he took priſoners John their king, with his ſon Philip.

2. The town of Niort, which has the moſt flouriſhing trade of any in the province: it is ſeated on the river Soure, and has a bailiwic, a royal juriſdiction, and a foreſt-court. Here are ſome manufactures of wool; and the place contains a caſtle, two pariſh-churches, nine convents, and a general hoſpital.

The city of Lucon, in Lower Poitou, is ſeated in a moraſs, twenty-three leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Poictiers, and enjoys the title of a barony. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is lord and baron of the town, but ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux. His dioceſe conſiſts of two hundred and thirty pariſhes, and he has a revenue of twenty thouſand livres, (eight hundred and ſeventy-five pounds ſterling,) out of which he is taxed one thouſand florins to the court of Rome. Beſides the cathedral, this place contains only one pariſh-church, one ſeminary, and two convents. The air is reckoned unwholſome.

Aunis is bounded, on the weſt, by the bay of Biſcay; on the north and eaſt, by Poitou; and, on the ſouth, by Saintonge. It is watered by the Soure, which riſes in Poitou, and there are good harbours along the coaſt. This little province is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, but is partly governed by its own common law, founded on cuſtom. Under the governor is a lieutenant-general, and a deputy-governor. The country is ſomewhat barren, but produces ſome corn, and a great deal of wine; and there is good paſturage in the marſhes.

Rochefort, in Latin Rupiſortium, is ſituated on the river Charante, at a league and a half diſtance from its mouth, three from Brouage to the weſt, and ſix from Rochelle to the ſouth, and has a very convenient harbour. It was formerly but a ſmall village, belonging to a private family, from whom Lewis XIV. bought it in the year 1664, to build a city here. It had been obſerved, that from this place to the ſea, the river Charante was deep enough to carry the largeſt ſhips, the bottom excellent for anchoring, and the banks very even and ſolid; whereupon it was reſolved to build here a city, which was done accordingly; ſo that here are all the neceſſary magazines and warehouſes for ſhipping, and a moſt commodious and large dock, where, in the year 1690, they built fifteen gallies, and two large men of war, in leſs than eight months time. There are here ſeveral other ſtately buildings, as a victualling-warehouſe, a foundery, a manufactory of ſail-cloth, the hotel called Cazernes, for the education of three hundred gentlemen of noble families, deſigned to ſerve in the navy, and who are taught at the king's expence all that they muſt know for that purpoſe: this hotel ſerves now to lodge the marines; an hoſpital for ſick ſeamen and ſoldiers, &c. The entrance of the river and the road are defended by ſeveral forts, which render it impoſſible for any ſhips that would come to attack the city; and a league below Rochefort,

there

there is a long ſtaccado acroſs the river, which is defended by a fort, on which are forty-four guns. On the twenty-firſt of September, 1757, the iſle of Aix, with the fort upon it, was taken by the brave captain Howe, in the Magnanime, after about an hour's reſiſtance, when the whole garriſon, which conſiſted of near ſix hundred men, were made priſoners of war.

La Rochelle, in Latin Rupella, and formerly Portus Santonum, becauſe it was dependent on Saintonge, has been always a very conſiderable port and trading town. It is the capital of the province of Aunis, ſituated on the ſea, in forty-ſix degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, and one degree ten minutes weſt longitude. It ſtands over-againſt the iſle of Ré, and but two leagues diſtant from it, and four from that of Oleron, ten leagues from Saintes to the north-weſt, and twenty from Poitiers to the ſouth-weſt. This city being the chief ſeat of the reformed in France, ſuffered very much during the civil wars, and was often valiantly defended, and long poſſeſſed by that party, till at length Lewis XIII. after a long and famous ſiege, made himſelf maſter of it in the year 1628, chiefly by the means of an admirable rampart or bank of earth which cardinal de Richelieu cauſed to be raiſed againſt it on the ſide of the ocean. After it was taken the king cauſed the walls and fortifications to be demoliſhed, except only two towers, which defend the port: but Lewis XIV. has cauſed new and ſtrong fortifications to be raiſed about it.

The port is almoſt round, and about fifteen hundred paces in compaſs; it is defended by two towers, the one is a priſon for ſtate-criminals, and the other is called the Tower of the Chain. No veſſel can enter into the harbour without the leave of the governor and captain of this laſt tower. They drive here a conſiderable trade into the iſlands of America; and the Engliſh, the Dutch, the Swedes, and the Danes, ſend here yearly a vaſt number of ſhips to load wine, brandy, ſalt, paper, linen cloths, and ſerges. The merchants here ſend all the neceſſaries of life into America, and bring back from it the product of thoſe countries. Their chief manufacture here is the refining of ſugar; they have alſo ſet up of late a manufacture of earthen-ware, which ſucceeds very well. This city is well-built; the ſtreets are broad and ſtrait; and the houſes neat and fine, ſupported with piazzas and porticos, under which one is ſheltered from the rain and ſun. In the year 1649, the epiſcopal ſee of Maillezais was removed hither, and the iſle of Ré, together with many other neighbouring places, to the number of about an hundred towns and villages, were taken from the dioceſe of Saintes, and added to this. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux. There was formerly in this town a college of jeſuits, where all the forms were taught to philoſophy incluſively. Here is a college of phyſic, and a ſchool of anatomy and botany for the inſtruction of young ſurgeons and apothecaries. Here is likewiſe a preſidial, a ſovereign court for the ſalt-marſhes in the weſt, and a court of the mint.

The iſlands of Oleron and Ré are ſituated on the coaſt belonging to this government: the former of theſe is five leagues long, two broad, and about three from the main land, having a town, caſtle, and light-houſe on it. The inhabitants were anciently famed for their ſkill in navigation, and whatever relates to the ſea: they are ſtill good ſeamen, and have always enjoyed very conſiderable privileges both under the dukes of Aquitaine, and the kings of France. The other iſle (namely Ré) is about four miles in length, and two broad, and betwixt two and three from the continent. It is populous, abounds in wine and ſalt, and has ſeveral pits in it, with a little fortified town called St. Martin. Both theſe iſlands were taken, in the ſixteenth century, by the citizens of Rochelle; and as the inhabitants were very well affected to them on account of the reformed religion, which moſt of them profeſſed, the Rochellers continued maſters of them till the year 1625, at which time they were retaken by Louis XIII.

Anjou received its name from the antient Andes, or Andegavi. This government is bounded on the north, by the river Maine; on the eaſt, by Touraine; on the ſouth, by Poitou; and, on the weſt, by Brittany. Its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is twenty-ſix French leagues, and twenty-four from north to ſouth.

Here is a pleaſant ſucceſſion of hills and vallies, producing corn, wine, peaſe, beans, flax, hemp, and fruit-trees. Its fine paſtures alſo furniſh great herds of cattle. It has likewiſe mines of coal, iron, and ſalt-petre, together with quantities of marble, ſtone, and ſlate.

Some have reckoned no leſs than forty-nine great and ſmall rivers in this country; but only ſix of theſe are navigable. Theſe are the Loire, the Vienne, the Toue, the Magenne, the Loir, and the Sarte. This country is under the parliament of Paris; but has laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor is one lieutenant-general, and two ſub-governors.

The principal city in this government is Angers, anciently Juliomagus, and in Laun Andegavum, the capital of the country, lies a little above the place where the rivers Loire and Sarte fall into the Mayenne, which divides the city into two equal parts. The firſt walls were raiſed by John, ſurnamed Lackland, king of England and duke of Anjou; but prince Louis, afterwards king Louis VIII. ſon to Philip Auguſtus, cauſed thoſe walls to be demoliſhed; however, St. Louis his ſon and ſucceſſor, rebuilt them as they now are. This is a large and populous city, containing nine thouſand houſes, and about thirty thouſand inhabitants; it has ſixteen pariſhes, twelve of which are within the town, and four in the ſuburbs. Here are likewiſe eight collegiate churches, and a great number of convents both of men and women. This city is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours. His dioceſe contains ſix hundred and ſixty-eight pariſhes; his revenue amounts to twenty-ſix thouſand livres, (one thouſand one hundred and thirty-eight pounds ſterling) and his taxation at the court of Rome is one thouſand ſeven hundred florins.

The cathedral is remarkable for three very high ſteeples built on its portico, of which that in the middle reſts upon the foundations of the two others. Its roof is very high, large, and bold; it is not ſupported by any pillars; and the whole ſtructure is in general elegant. Part of the town ſtands very low; ſo that it is proverbially ſaid in the neighbouring country, "that Angers is a low town, has high ſteeples, rich ſtrumpets, and poor ſcholars." It has a ſtrong caſtle built on a rock, and encompaſſed with ditches cut into it, though very ſteep on the ſide of the river, which runs at its foot. This caſtle is flanked with ſeveral large towers, and has a half-moon at the gate which leads to the ſuburbs. It was built by St. Louis during the wars with the Engliſh, and it now ſerves as a priſon for ſtate criminals. The univerſity, which is one of the moſt famous in France, was founded by St. Louis. Here the civil and canon law, divinity, phyſic, and the liberal arts, are taught. A chair for a profeſſor of the mathematics has been lately erected here, in the college of the fathers of the oratory.

Louis XIV. in 1615, eſtabliſhed in this city a royal academy, with the ſame privileges as that of Paris: it conſiſts of thirty-ſix members, who muſt all be natives or inhabitants of the province. Here is a great proceſſion annually celebrated at a feſtival called la Fete du Dieu, which is on Corpus Chriſti day, when all the prieſts and monks, with the principal inhabitants, and numbers of ſtrangers, carry lighted torches in their hands, and repreſentations of ſcripture hiſtories engraved, to atone for the pretended crimes of their archdeacon Berengarius, who oppoſed tranſubſtantiation about the year 1019, when that doctrine was firſt preached here.

A mayor and four aldermen, are annually choſen governors of this town; ſubordinate to whom are twelve counſellors, eight aſſeſſors, a city attorney, a commiſſary, and a recorder. Their juriſdiction extends over the manufactures ſet up in the town, ſuburbs, and liberty. Theſe manufactures conſiſt of fine woollen ſtuffs, ſtriped with ſilk and gold. They alſo bleach wax and linen cloth. There are likewiſe ſome ſugar-bakers in the town.

The government of Saumur, or the Saumarvis, contains a part of Anjou and Upper Poitou: it is under the direction of a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a ſub-governor.

The principal place it contains, is Saumur, in Latin Salmurus, the capital, and the ſeat of the public courts and offices, ſtands twenty-two miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Angers, and a hundred and ſixty to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. It contains a fine caſtle, three pariſh-churches, nine convents, and one royal college. Here is an important paſſage over the Loir, upon which there is a famous bridge. This city was much more opulent while in the poſſeſſion of the proteſtants; but has ſtill an univerſity. Near it is the abbey of the Benedictines of the congregation of St. Maur, which is a magnificent ſtructure.

Orleanois conſiſts of ſeveral ſmall countries, and is bounded, on the north, by Normandy and the iſle of France; on the eaſt, by the iſle of France, Champagne, and Burgundy; on the ſouth, by Nivernois and Berri; and on the weſt, by Touraine and Maine; including Orleanois Proper, Sologne, Beauſſe Proper, or Chartraine, Dunois, Vendomois, Blaiſois, the greateſt part of Gatinois,

nois, and Perche Gouet. The whole government extends about thirty-two leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-eight from north to ſouth in the broadeſt part.

Several rivers run through this government, or have their ſource in it, namely, the Loire, the Loiret, which riſes a league from Orleans, and falls into the Loire; the Cher, which alſo runs into the Loire; the Laconie, which riſes in the wood of Orleans, and loſes itſelf in the ſame river; the Aigle, which riſes in this government, and alſo mingles with the Loire; the Hyere, which loſes itſelf under ground, and, when it afterwards appears again near Montigny, is called le Ganelon, falls into the ſame river.

Here are likewiſe ſome remarkable canals. That of Briare, which receives its name from a ſmall town that joins the river Loire to the Loing, which falls into the Seine, and conſequently opens a communication between the countries lying on the Loire and the city of Paris. The canal of Orleans alſo joins the above-mentioned: this canal is near eighteen leagues in length, and contains thirty ſluices; it was begun in 1682, and finiſhed 1692.

The trade carried on there, by means of the Loire, is the moſt extenſive in the whole kingdom, comprehending not only all that comes from the ſouthern and weſtern parts, but likewiſe from foreign countries. The principal ſtaple is at Orleans. Under the governor are three lieutenant-generals, and three ſub-governors. The whole country, which contains four larger and three ſmaller juriſdictions, is dependent on the parliament of Paris.

The government of Orleannois Proper is one of the fineſt countries in France; it being fertile in corn, wine, and excellent fruit, and abounds in cattle, game, and fiſh.

The city of Orleans, anciently called Genabum, or Cenabum, and afterwards Aurelianum, and Aureliana, the capital of the government, is ſeated on the Loire, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge of ſixteen arches, leading to a ſuburbs on the ſouth ſide of the river. On this bridge is to be ſeen a beautiful monument of caſt braſs ſtanding on a ſtone pedeſtal, that has ſome ornaments in the Gothic taſte. In the centre of the monument is a crucifix, on the top of which ſtands a pelican with its brood pecking its own breaſt: before the crucifix is the virgin Mary ſitting, with the dead body of Chriſt reclined on her lap. On the right ſide is king Charles VII. kneeling, and ſtretching out both his hands towards the croſs, and on the left ſide the famous Maid of Orleans, alſo repreſented kneeling, both armed cap-à-pié with ſwords by their ſides; the king has a French coat of arms, and wears a crown on his helmet. The helmet of the maid is placed by her; her hair is tied behind, and the reſt of it hangs looſe on her back. Theſe ſtatues are not ſo big as the life. A ſolemn proceſſion is annually obſerved here on the 12th of May, in commemoration of the deliverance of the city by the Maid of Orleans.

This city, which is about four miles in circuit, ſtands in a moſt agreeable plain, and is built in the form of a bow: it makes, however, but a mean appearance, the ſtreets being in general narrow, though a few of them are broad and ſtrait; and, except ſome of the tradeſmen, the inhabitants are poor. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains an intendancy, a caſtellany, a country-court, a foreſt-court, a ſalt-office, and other courts and offices. It has a fine cathedral, built in the Gothic ſtyle, an abbey, three collegiate churches, twenty-two pariſh-churches, an univerſity, conſiſting only of civilians, which was formerly very famous, though it is at preſent in no great repute; one ſeminary in which divinity is taught, and a public library. The public walk is properly a part of the city ramparts, levelled and planted with beautiful rows of trees. This city, on account of its ſituation in the middle of the Loire, is the magazine of the whole trade of the kingdom, eſpecially in corn, wine, brandy, and ſpices: it alſo carries on a conſiderable trade in ſheep-ſkins and ſtockings, of which great quantities are made here. The ſuburbs on the farther ſide of the river makes a tolerable appearance, and has a Carthuſian monaſtery. The biſhop, who is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Paris, has a dioceſe of two hundred and ſeventy-two pariſhes, and a revenue of twenty-four thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed two thouſand florins to the ſee of Rome.

The city of Orleans was raiſed to a dukedom and peerage in the year 1344; and Louis XIV. gave it to his brother Philip, in which houſe it continues. It was beſieged by the Engliſh in 1428, and ſo ſtraitened, that the inhabitants reſolved to ſurrender to the duke of Burgundy, then in the Engliſh army, and their ally. But the Engliſh not being willing that the city ſhould be given up to him, he was diſguſted at it; and Joan of Arc heading the ſoldiers, raiſed the ſiege in 1429; from which ſhe obtained the name of the Maid of Orleans.

To the north of the city and of the river Loire, lies the foreſt of Orleans, which is the largeſt in the whole kingdom. It contains about fourteen thouſand acres planted with wood; but is interſperſed with ſeveral plains and villages. It is twenty leagues, or ſixty miles in length, and in ſome places ſeven or eight leagues, and in others only two or three in breadth. It contains high and lofty trees, as oaks, elms, &c. They fell timber in this foreſt, every year, to the value of one hundred thouſand livres, the profits of which belong to the duke of Orleans. The French language is ſpoken here in the greateſt purity.

The city of Chartres, the Autricum of the ancients, is the capital of the country of Chartrain: it is ſituated on the banks of the river Eure, about fourteen leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Paris, and is divided into two parts by the above river, the largeſt of which ſtands on an eminence. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris, and has a dioceſe of eight hundred and ten pariſhes; his annual revenue amounts to twenty-five thouſand livres, out of which the court of Rome is paid four thouſand florins. Here is a noble cathedral; but the city has little beauty to recommend it, the ſtreets being narrow, and the buildings old. It has three abbies, one priory, ſix pariſh-churches (without including thoſe in the ſuburbs), nine convents, one ſeminary, and two hoſpitals. In the city are alſo held a provincial and bailiwic court, together with a ſalt-office.

The city of Blois, in Latin Bleſæ, the capital of the diſtrict of Blaiſois, ſtands partly on an eminence, and partly in a plain on the river Loire, over which it has a well-built ſtone bridge. It is ſituated ten leagues to the ſouthward of Orleans, in a pure air, and in the midſt of one of the fineſt countries in France. It is a large, handſome city; but the greateſt beauty of it is the palace, or caſtle, the reſidence of ſeveral of their kings, with gardens adorned with fountains and other water-works, and a park ſuitable to the magnificence of the buildings. The ſtair-caſe of the palace is much admired, as well as the gallery, which is ſaid to be ſix hundred feet long; and there is a ſtatue of Louis XII. over the great gate. In the grand court before the palace ſtands one of the largeſt collegiate churches in France. It is remarkable, that there is an image of the virgin Mary over every gate in the city; theſe were ſet up in 1631, when, after having ſuffered much by the plague, they imagine on its ceaſing, that they were miraculouſly delivered by the queen of heaven, as they ſtyle her.

The pariſh church of St. Solenne, the largeſt in Blois, having been deſtroyed by a tempeſt, was magnificently rebuilt by Louis XIV. and converted into a cathedral: here are alſo ſeveral other churches, and a conſiderable number of convents. The jeſuits had alſo a beautiful college here, the front of which is adorned with the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders of architecture. The other public edifices, as the town-houſe, and the building where the courts of juſtice are held, are well worth viewing. Their fountains are alſo large, and well ſupplied by a noble aqueduct, ſuppoſed to be the work of the ancient Romans. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris, has in his dioceſe about two hundred pariſhes, and his annual revenue amounts to twenty thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand five hundred and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome.

The inhabitants of Blois are ſaid to be remarkable for their good ſenſe and genteel behaviour, as well as their ſpeaking French in perfection, which is ſuppoſed to proceed from the frequent reſidence of the court in this city, which is alſo diſtinguiſhed for making the beſt watches in the kingdom: but their principal trade is in wine and brandy, which are ſent to Orleans, Paris, Tours, Laval, and even into Holland.

In a wood on the river Coſſon ſtands the royal palace of Chambord, which is a magnificent edifice of free-ſtone, built by Francis I. It is ſaid to exceed any Gothic edifice in France, and to have ſuch various beauties, that the greateſt maſters may learn ſomething from it. The body of the building is compoſed of four large pavilions, and the whole is ſurrounded with a wall of hewn-ſtone flanked with towers, which give it a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. The tower over the centre looks very grand, and the principal winding ſtair-caſe is much admired. The halls, anti-chambers, chambers, wardrobes, cabinets, and galleries, are of exquiſite architecture, and the garden and park anſwerable to the beauty of the building. In this palace Staniſlaus, the dethroned king of Poland, reſided

nine years. It was afterwards conferred on the celebrated general count Maurice of Saxe, who died here in the year 1750, when the king gave it to his heir the count de Friſe, who in the year 1755 died in this place.

The town of Montargis, the capital of the Gatinois Orleannois, is ſituated on the river Loing, near the place where the canal of Orleans falls into it, twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of Paris. It is not large; but having been burnt down, is handſomely rebuilt, and has a caſtle pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, that commands the town and the neighbouring country. Beſides the pariſh-church there are ten chapels founded by the inhabitants, with a college and ſeveral convents. Here is a bailiwic, a foreſt and provincial court, and a ſalt-office.

The province of Maine, the earldom of Laval, and the greateſt part of the earldom of Perche, form one government. The county of Maine is bounded, on the north, by Normandy; on the eaſt, by Perche; on the ſouth, by Touraine and Orleannois; and on the weſt, by Anjou and Brittany, extending eighty-eight miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty in breadth from north to ſouth. It has mines of iron, quarries of marble, and, being very fruitful, abounds in corn, wine, flax, and cattle: their fowls are particularly admired, and are well known at Paris Its principal rivers are the Mayenne, or Maine; the Huiſne, which riſes in Perche, and runs into the Sarte; which alſo riſes in the Perche, and after receiving the Orne, the Huiſne, the Enferne, and the Little Loire, falls into the Mayenne in its paſſage.

This country was formerly an earldom, but has been united to the crown ever ſince the year 1584. It is governed by its own laws; but is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and has a particular ſub-governor.

The following are the principal places in this government; namely, 1. Mans, in Latin Cenomanum, the capital of the province of Maine; it is ſituated on a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Sarte, which here unites its water with the river Huiſne, thirteen leagues to the north-weſt of Tours, and thirty-two to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a ſalt-office, a provincial and foreſt court, &c. Its biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and ninety-ſix pariſhes, and a revenue of thirty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand two hundred and ſixteen florins to the court of Rome. Beſides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, are four abbies, thirteen pariſh-churches, eight convents, one college, and one ſeminary, in this city.

2. Laval, which is the capital of an earldom, ſtands on the Maine, eight leagues to the weſtward of Mans, and is encompaſſed by a wall and other fortifications in the antique taſte: it has alſo an excellent caſtle of the ſame kind; but it is incapable of making any great defence, ſince the improvement of the art of war. It has a ſalt-office, a country and foreſt-court, &c. and contains two collegiate churches, two pariſh-churches, one priory, and eight convents. This town was taken by ſcalade in 1446, by the Engliſh, headed by the brave Talbot earl of Shrewſbury.

The diſtrict of Perche is bounded by Normandy on the north; by the iſle of France and Orleannois on the eaſt; by the river Maine on the ſouth; and by Normandy on the weſt; it not being above fifteen leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. It is a hilly country, and the eminences produce only graſs for cattle; but the valleys and plains bear all kinds of grain and hemp, they alſo abound in apples, of which they make cyder, the uſual drink of the country: they have indeed a few vineyards, but the wine is ſo poor, that cyder is generally preferred before it. They have here alſo ſome iron mines, and mineral waters.

This province is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, enjoys its own laws, and is governed by a particular ſub-governor. The whole country does not belong to this government, Perche-Gouet being ſubject to that of Orleannois, and Timerais to that of the iſle of France. The principal places in this country are the following: Mortagne, the capital of Perche, ſituated eighty-five miles to the weſt of Paris; it is the ſeat of a ſalt-office, a viſcounty, a diſtrict-court, a foreſt-court, &c. It has one collegiate and three pariſh-churches, four convents, with one hoſpital; there are ſome conſiderable manufactures of coarſe linen carried on here.

The ſmall town of Belleſme is ten miles to the ſouth of Mortagne, and ninety to the weſt-by-ſouth of Paris, diſputes the rank of capital with Mortagne, and is alſo the ſeat of a royal viſcount, a foreſt-court, and a ſalt-office. In a neighbouring wood is the mineral ſpring of Herſe, the water of which has very ſalutary effects in many caſes.

SECT. VII.

Containing a particular Deſcription of the Government and City of PARIS, and the Neighbouring Places; alſo of the Iſle of FRANCE, its Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Produce, Palaces, principal Cities and Towns; the Inhabitants, Trade, Manufactures, &c.

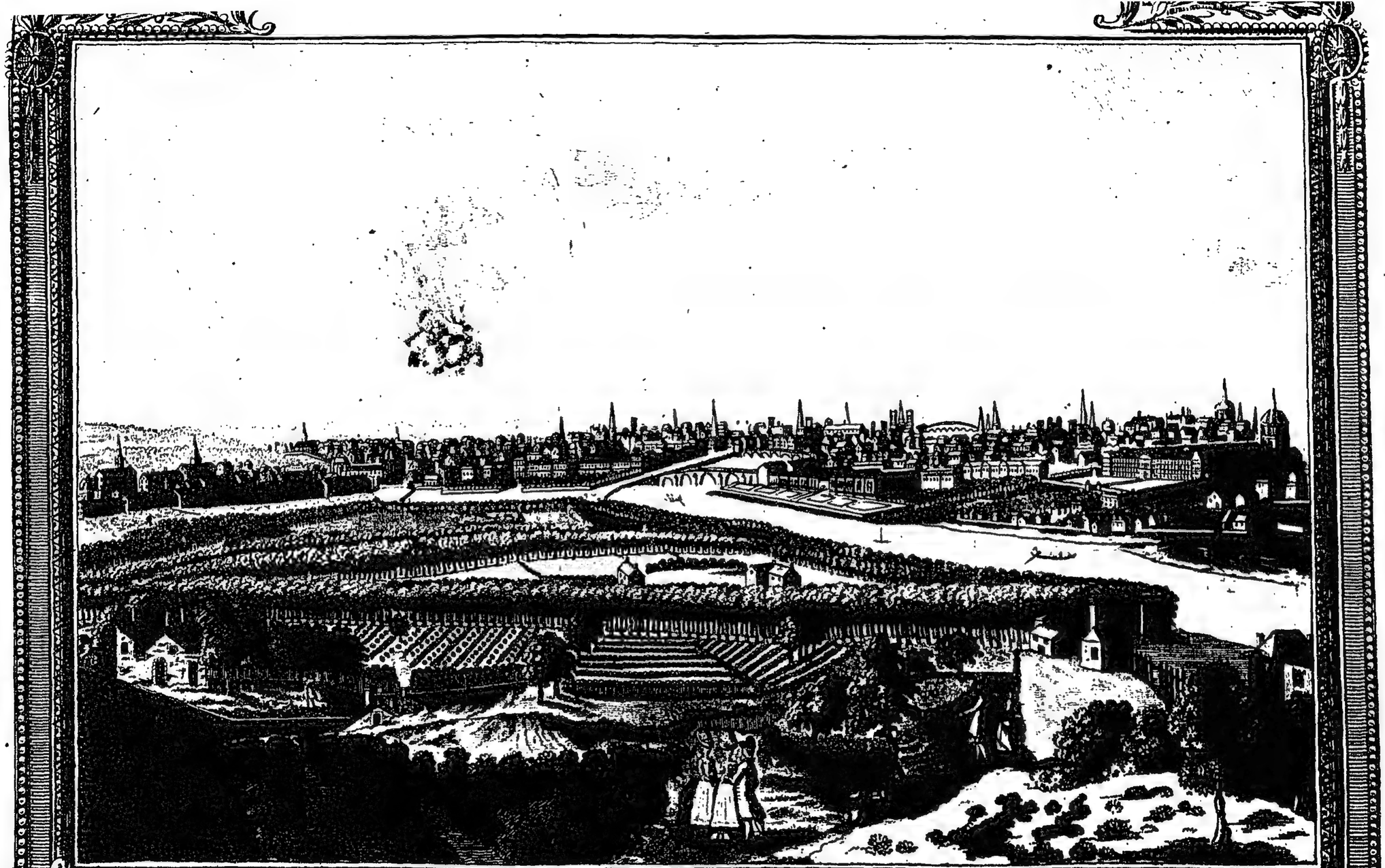
THE French geographers are not agreed about the boundaries of the government of Paris. It, however, includes, beſides the city, a part of the neighbouring country; and, beſides the governor, here are two lieutenant-generals, one of which is appointed for the city, the other for the provoté and vicomté, through its utmoſt extent. Within the boundaries of this juriſdiction are contained four others; theſe are Louvre and the Tuilleries, as alſo thoſe of the Baſtile and the Royal Hoſpital of invalids, the four governors of which receive their orders immediately from the ſovereign.

The city of Paris, in Latin Lutetia Pariſii, and Lutetia Pariſiorum, the capital of France, is ſeated in a large plain on the river Seine, in the middle of the iſle of France, in the forty-eighth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, two hundred and twenty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of London, ſeventy miles to the ſouth of Rouen, five hundred and fifty to the weſt of Vienna, ſeven hundred to the north-weſt of Rome, and ſix hundred and twenty-five to the north-eaſt of Madrid. It is of a circular form, about ſix or ſeven miles in diameter; and, including the ſuburbs, is eighteen or twenty in circumference. The ſtreets have been computed to amount to nine hundred and twelve, in which are about twenty thouſand houſes, from four to ſeven ſtories high; beſides churches, convents, chapels, colleges, communities, and warehouſes. "The number of its inhabitants," an accurate traveller obſerves, "cannot much exceed four hundred thouſand; for from the year 1728 to 1736, the annual bills of mortality were at a medium ſeventeen thouſand eight hundred; and it is calculated, upon very probable computations, that of twenty-five perſons in this city, one dies yearly; whence the above number of deaths make the number of living inhabitants four hundred and forty-five thouſand." This great city contains forty-ſeven pariſh-churches, beſides twenty others; three abbies and twelve priories for men, ſeven abbies and ſix priories for women; ſeventeen collegiate churches, thirteen of which have chapters; fifty convents and fraternities of eccleſiaſtics and laics, forty-three nunneries, and fourteen female communities; eleven ſeminaries, twenty-ſix hoſpitals, and forty chapels; an univerſity, ſix academies, beſides three others where young gentlemen are taught bodily exerciſes; five public libraries, four royal palaces, four caſtles, above one hundred hotels, ſome of which are ſtately ſtructures; eleven gates, ſeventy-three market-places, ſixty fountains, and twelve bridges over the Seine, ten of which are of ſtone.

With reſpect to the diſadvantages of this city, it muſt be obſerved, that Paris affords no good water fit for drinking, the inhabitants being obliged to uſe that of the Seine, which is fetid, and occaſions dyſenteries; or other ſort of water that is ſtill worſe, it being productive of the gravel and ſtone. The ſtreets are lighted in a very inelegant manner, by hanging up lanthorns in the middle of the ſtreets upon cords, which are put acroſs from one window to another: this is continued during ſix months in the year.

The ſtreets are kept clean, by means of ſome regulations formed by M. Turgot, provoſt of the merchants: theſe conſiſt in a canal lined with free-ſtone, ſix feet broad, and about the ſame depth, which receives all the ſoil from thoſe parts of the city through which it runs. This canal is kept clean by means of a large reſervoir formed in a particular building erected for that purpoſe, which is ſupplied with water from all the ſprings in the neighbourhood. In it are ſix pumps worked by a machine kept going by four horſes, and theſe diſcharge the water into a large reſervoir, likewiſe lined with free-ſtone, whence it runs under ground through two ranges of pipes of conſiderable bore, diſcharging itſelf with great violence into the above canal, and thus carries off all the filth into the Seine, which runs near the city.

In caſe of fire, very good regulations are made here: for the firſt preſident of the parliament, and the lieutenant of the police, the horſe and foot patrole, and ſome companies of the French and Swiſs foot-gaurds, are obliged to repair to the ſpot with all the expedition the diſtance of the place will



Cary sculp.

A General View of **PARIS**, *the Capital of* France, *taken from an eminence in the Village of* Chaillot.

will admit: but the actual extinguishing of the fire is committed to the care of the four mendicant orders, who on such occasions are to expend part of the stock they have acquired by begging, for the benefit of the public.

This city consists of three parts; namely, the town, which lies on the north of the Seine; the city, which is environed by that river; and the university, which lies to the south of that river; with twelve suburbs. In 1702 it was also subdivided into twenty quarters, or wards. The city is in the centre, and is the most cleanly and wealthy: it consists of three islands formed by the Seine; these are the isle du Palais; the isle of Notre Dame, and the isle Louviers. The last is small, and contains only storehouses for wood; it fronts the arsenal, and, by means of a wooden bridge, has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul.

L'Isle de Notre Dame, or the island of our Lady, is so called from the cathedral of that name: here the streets are very strait: by means of a stone-bridge, it has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul; by another, with that of Maubert; and it is also joined by means of a wooden bridge, to the isle du Palais; here is a parish-church of St. Louis, with some fine hotels.

L'Isle du Palais, or the island of the Palace, properly consists of Old Paris, and is so called from the place in which the parliament meet, and which takes up a great part of it. The metropolitan church stands at one end of this island, where are also several little parish-churches, the hospital called L'Hotel Dieu, or the House of God, which extends to the other side of the river, towards the south, and a vast number of small crooked streets or lanes, built with very high houses, inhabited by several families. Besides the above wooden bridge, which joins this island to that of Notre Dame, this quarter has a communication with other parts of the city by means of seven stone-bridges. The principal of these is the Pont-Neuf, or New Bridge, which is the finest bridge in Paris. It consists of twelve arches, and is twenty-two feet broad, reckoning the parapets. There is a footway raised on each side of the middle or carriage-way, which is thirty feet broad. Over the piles, on each side, are also semicircular lodgments, in which are one hundred and seventy-eight small shops belonging to the king's footmen, which only serve to obstruct a most beautiful prospect.

In the centre of the bridge is a fine equestrian statue of Henry IV. in brass, larger than the life, and standing on a marble pedestal, on the sides of which are basso relievos, with inscriptions representing the victories and principal actions of that hero. At the four corners are tied four slaves, also of brass, who trample upon antique arms. This stately monument is inclosed within iron-rails. Another monument of the Pont-Neuf is the Samaritaine, a building three stories high, in which is an engine that supplies some parts of the city with water. It is thus named from there being in the front, a group of figures representing the story of Christ and the woman of Samaria.

The Pont au Change, another bridge so called, has on it a brass statue of Louis XIV. and both this, and the bridge of Notre Dame, on which are also water-works, have each two rows of houses upon them, those of the first four stories high; and of the last, two.

The cathedral of Notre Dame is in the above island: this is a large and gothic structure, three hundred and ninety-six feet long, one hundred and forty broad, and one hundred and two in height: on the inside are four rows of pillars, thirty in a row, with forty-five chapels, built between the outermost rows and the wall. The pillars in the nave of the church are adorned with large and beautiful pictures; and the choir was splendidly repaired and beautified by Louis XIV. It has a small spire in the middle, and at the west end two square towers three hundred and eighty steps high; these are flat at the top, with a balustrade of free-stone, where you have a noble prospect of the city and the neighbouring country. In one of the towers are two large bells, one of which weighs forty thousand pounds, and the other thirty-one thousand. Near this structure stands the palace of the archbishop, in one of the halls of which is the library of the advocates, founded for the public use. There are also a great number of parish-churches in the island.

The division called Le Ville, or the Town, stands to the north of the above islands: it is daily beautified by rebuilding the old houses. On the east is the arsenal near the river, which consists of several courts, and has beautiful walks in the garden near the city-wall; and towards the north-east is the Bastile, a kind of fortress, consisting of eight large round towers, joined together by other strong buildings, and surrounded with ditches and bastions. The king keeps a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of soldiers in this place, which is also a prison for state-criminals.

The Louvre is one of the most considerable palaces in Paris, and is esteemed the principal ornament of the city. It is commonly divided into the Old and New. The old part of this royal palace was begun to be built with stone by Francis I. in 1528, and was finished by Henry II. in 1548. Succeeding kings improved and enlarged it, till Louis XIV. ordered it to be rebuilt on a new plan, which, if completed, would have rendered it a most magnificent structure. The whole building is three stories high in the new part; the first of the corinthian order, the second of the composite, and the third of the attic. The plan of the whole forms an equilateral quadrangle, containing a court in the centre three hundred and seventy-six feet square. The principal of the four main wings was built by Louis XIV. as also the greatest part of the two others which form the sides, together with a new front to that part which lies next the Seine. The four inner fronts, according to the plan, were to have consisted of eight pavilions, and eight corps de logis.

There is a kind of gallery, supported by four gigantic figures, in the hall of the Hundred Swiss. Great entertainments have been given in this hall: the queen Catherine de Medicis caused plays and interludes to be exhibited there for the amusement of the court. Henry IV. built a gallery along the river-side, quite to the Tuilleries, which is reckoned the finest in Europe; and the royal printing-house is under it.

The palace called the Tuilleries, or Thuilleries, stands at some distance behind the Louvre: it was built in 1564 by order of queen Catherine de Medicis, in a place where they formerly made tiles, (in French tuilles) from whence the palace takes its name; and this structure was also improved by Louis XIV. It is one range of building, with a dome in the middle, and a pavilion at each end. Before it is a handsome large space, divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilasters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are pleasant gardens, adorned with fine walks planted with ever-greens, and other trees, with beautiful parterres, where may be seen all the year round every flower in season. It has also three beautiful fountains, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a line terrace above a hundred perches long and eighty-four broad, planted with three rows of trees; and from this terrace is a most beautiful prospect over the adjacent country. These gardens are public, and great numbers of well-dressed people in summer evenings resort thither. All who wear a black bag and a sword are permitted to walk here, though all their other cloaths are not worth five shillings.

The palace called Le Cours stands on the bank of the river beyond the Tuilleries, it is composed of four rows of elms, eight hundred paces in length, forming three avenues that are altogether a hundred and twenty feet in breadth: that in the middle is the broadest, and has room for six coaches to pass a-breast. In the middle of the Cours is a large ring, encompassed with trees at the same distance from each other as in the other parts of the walks.

Luxemburg palace was built by queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hotel of Luxemburg, which name it has retained. It is one of the most perfect and regular pieces of architecture in all France. Here is a gallery of fine paintings done by the celebrated Rubens, who spent two years in that work. It consists of the history of the life of Mary de Medicis, represented allegorically in twenty-four large pictures, nine feet broad, and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows. The other apartments are also richly furnished, and adorned with a fine collection of valuable paintings. The gardens of this palace are elegantly laid out, and ornamented with fountains. They are daily visited in summer time by the nobility and others, like those of the Tuilleries; but more especially on Sundays, when several thousands of all ranks make their appearance there. It is here the custom for the gentlemen and ladies of the first quality, though richly dressed, to sit down to discourse on the grass.

The palais royal, or royal palace, was built by cardinal Richelieu, who made a present of it to Louis XIII. It consists of several sets of buildings separated by large courts, and is adorned with fine gardens. Several new apartments have been added to it since the cardinal's time, and here queen Anne of Austria, mother to Louis XIV. resided during

during the minority of her ſon. In this ſtructure are now held the courts of juſtice, of which the parliament is the nobleſt.

With reſpect to the royal obſervatory, it is a very ſtately edifice, built in 1667 upon the higheſt ground in Paris; and as neither iron nor timber has been employed in its conſtruction, except for the ſtair-caſe, it has coſt great ſums. Several aſtronomers, maintained by the king, have apartments in it. The French make their firſt meridian paſs through this obſervatory, which is two degrees thirty minutes more eaſt than London, according to Street's obſervations; or, according to thoſe of Harris, two degrees thirty-five minutes fifty-one ſeconds.

The Gobelins is a houſe thus called from one Gobelin, an eminent dyer, who removed from Rheims to Paris in the reign of Francis I. and bought that houſe. He had diſcovered the ſecret of dying that beautiful ſcarlet, called from him the ſcarlet of the Gobelins. Lewis XIV. bought that and ſome of the neighbouring houſes, where he eſtabliſhed a manufacture of the fineſt tapeſtries, and alſo ſettled a great number of gold and ſilver-ſmiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other artificers in every branch tending to ſplendor and magnificence. They are all under the direction of the ſuperintendent of the buildings, arts, and manufactures of France. There have been above eight hundred workmen employed here at a time; and though their number be ſince conſiderably decreaſed, yet there are ſtill to be ſeen many things of the moſt curious workmanſhip.

The moſt remarkable church, after that of Notre Dame, already deſcribed, are, 1. The church and nunnery of Val de Grace, founded by queen Anne of Auſtria, upon the ſuppoſed miraculous birth of Lewis XIV. after ſhe had been married twenty-two years without having any offſpring. Her heart and that of Henrietta Maria of England, ducheſs of Orleans, lie entombed here. The altar and cupola are exceeding fine. The nuns of this convent muſt all be of noble extraction, and chooſe a lady abbeſs once in three years. Madame la Valiere, one of Lewis the XIVth's miſtreſſes, retired to this monaſtery ſoon after her leaving the court. To it is a handſome aſcent by ſeveral ſtone ſteps, which lead into the portico in the front of the church.

2. The church, which lately belonged to the jeſuits, and which ſtands in St. Anthony's ſtreet, where they have the heart of Lewis XIII. incloſed in a gold caſe and ſupported by two angels of ſilver. Here is alſo a fine altar with ſeveral braſs ſtatues, and the monuments of the princes of Condé. This church is neat and elegant, and built in the modern ſtyle.

3. The large and beautiful church of St Euſtace.

4. The Theatines have a large church and cloiſter by the ſide of a river, ſome diſtance below the college of the Four Nations. Cardinal Mazarine left a legacy for erecting this edifice.

Here is a ſquare and lofty building, called Clermont college, which, till lately, belonged to the jeſuits, who taught here in ſeveral ſchools about two thouſand boys, many of whom were gentlemen's ſons: theſe boarded here, and had ſeveral halls to dine in. Many of the ſcholars wear coloured gowns, with large round velvet caps, when they learn logic, and ſquare caps when they read philoſophy.

The Paris univerſity is ſaid to be founded by Charlemagne in 791. In this univerſity are upwards of thirty colleges, the moſt conſiderable of which are, 1. The Sorbonne; 2. The college of Navarre; 3. The college of the Four Nations; and, 4. The faculty or college of phyſic.

1. The college of Sorbonne was founded in 1250; but was very poor when cardinal Richelieu cauſed it to be rebuilt in 1629. The preſent building is a very magnificent ſtructure, in which are apartments for thirty-ſix doctors, with a library and halls for public lectures and acts. To the three profeſſors chairs the cardinal added three others of a royal foundation. This is thought to be the ſtricteſt college in Europe, the degree of doctor being only given to thoſe who hold the Sorbonnic act, which is to anſwer all diſputants from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet: on which account the title of doctor of the Sorbonne is of great repute. The doctors wear black gowns, and have white fur hanging acroſs the breaſt, when exerciſes are performed.

2. The college of Navarre was founded by Jane, conſort of Philip the Fair, queen of Navarre, in 1305, for ſtudying divinity; and in 1683 three other chairs were added, Beſides the fellowſhips for ſtudents in divinity, queen Jane founded alſo twenty others for ſtudents in grammar; ſix other fellowſhips have been founded here, and the records of the univerſity are kept in this college.

3. The college of the Four Nations is the fineſt in the univerſity, and deſigned for the reception of the children of gentlemen, or eminent citizens of four different nations, namely, French, Italians, Spaniards, and Germans. There ſhould be ſixty fellows in this college, by virtue of its original foundation; but they have been reduced to half that number. It is alſo called the college of Mazarine, from the cardinal of that name, who left two millions of livres to it in his laſt will. The univerſity adopted this college upon condition that neither divinity, law, or phyſic, ſhould be taught in it; nor any academy annexed to it in which ſtudents ſhould be taught to ride, fence, and dance. Beſides the ordinary profeſſors, here is one for mathematics. The doctors of the Sorbonne appoint the principal, who has the title of Great Maſter, and is always one of their own body. The fellowſhips are at the king's diſpoſal, who gives them to ſuch as are preſented to him by the ſecretary of ſtate of Paris. This college has a ſtately front, in the form of a theatre, facing the Louvre, which is on the oppoſite ſide of the Seine.

4. The faculty of phyſic has a college built in 1477, in which are five profeſſors, who are annually choſen. The morning profeſſors read lectures on phyſiology, botany, and pharmacy: and the evening profeſſors on pathology and ſurgery. In this college is an amphitheatre, in which are annually given complete courſes of anatomy, ſurgery, pharmacy, and chemiſtry. Every Saturday ſix doctors meet there in order to examine ſuch of the poor who are ſick, and come to conſult them; and the bachelors of phyſic are obliged to attend, in order to write the preſcriptions of the phyſicians. The faculty is compoſed of all the doctors and licentiates who have taken their degrees in the univerſity of Paris: they have a dean at their head, and a cenſor. Theſe doctors and licentiates have the ſole right of practiſing phyſic at Paris, no phyſician of any other univerſity being ſuffered to practiſe here, unleſs he be a phyſician to the king or royal family. There are fellowſhips for the ſtudents, in moſt of the colleges in the univerſity; and all the profeſſors have ſettled ſalaries.

We muſt not omit to mention the ſeveral academies; which are, 1. The French academy founded in 1633, by cardinal Richelieu, for the improvement of the French language: this conſiſts of forty members, who meet in a hall of the Old Louvre, on Mondays, Thurſdays, and Saturdays.

The next is, 2. The royal academy of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres, inſtituted for the advancement of polite literature. In this academy ancient monuments are explained, and the tranſactions of the kingdom perpetuated by medals, inſcriptions, &c. It conſiſts of four ſorts of members: there are twelve honorary, and twenty penſioners, with twenty-ſix aſſociates, and twelve ſtudents. Wedneſdays and Saturdays are their days of meeting.

The third is, 3. The royal academy of ſciences, which has its honorary members, penſioners, aſſociates, and ſtudents: it was inſtituted in 1666.

In 1648 was founded, 4. The royal academy of painting and ſculpture. The maſter-pieces of the painters and ſculptors, admitted into this academy, are diſpoſed in three halls, and marked with the names of the ſeveral artiſts. Here are alſo the portraits of a great number of celebrated painters; and ſeveral of the ſtatues of Gyps, taken from antiques, are to be ſeen among others.

In 1671 was founded, 5. The royal academy of architecture, but letters patent were not obtained for it before the year 1717. It is divided into two claſſes: the firſt is compoſed of ten architects, a profeſſor, and a ſecretary; and the ſecond of twelve other architects. The profeſſor, whoſe poſt, as well as that of the ſecretary, is obliged to read public lectures, in the hall of the Louvre, every Monday and Thurſday.

There are ſeveral hoſpitals in this city, the moſt conſiderable of which are, 1. That for diſabled ſoldiers; 2. The Hotel-Dieu; 3. Trinity-hoſpital; and, 4. The General hoſpital.

1. The Royal hoſpital for diſabled ſoldiers may be conſidered as a large palace; it taking up above ſeventeen acres. Here are four large courts, all of the ſame form, ſurrounded with regular buildings four ſtories high. In the middle is a fifth court, larger than all the four taken together. It is encompaſſed with a double row of arches, one above the other, forming very narrow galleries. This hoſpital is full of lame and ſuperannuated officers and ſoldiers. The great order and ſtrict diſcipline obſerved in it cannot be ſufficiently admired. It has a governor, a king's lieutenant, and a major. The chapel is very beautiful, and its altar adorned in the moſt ſplendid manner.

2. The moſt ancient and largeſt hoſpital in Paris is the Hotel-Dieu, or, the Houſe of God. As all poor ſick people are admitted into it, there have ſometimes four thouſand perſons in it at the ſame time. They are attended with the greateſt care by the nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine, who perform the office of nurſes. All manner of patients are admitted into this hoſpital, without regard to their country, religion, or diſeaſe; nor are thoſe who labour under any incurable diſeaſe ever diſcharged, and ſuffered to periſh in the ſtreets; and no ſecurity is required for their burial in caſe of death. Theſe circumſtances redound greatly to the honour of this excellent charity.

3. The Trinity hoſpital was founded about the year 1202, by two friers, for the reception of poor travellers; but it is now uſed for the maintenance and education of poor children of both ſexes, born at Paris in lawful wedlock: they wear blue gowns. Here are an hundred beds for boys, and thirty-ſix for girls, who have different apartments, in the eaſt of which there is an infirmary. The youngeſt are taught to read and write; and, when they are ſix or ſeven years old, are inſtructed in ſome trade within the hoſpital. In order to encourage mechanics to come and exerciſe their trades here, and teach the children, the parliament has declared, that ſuch journeymen as have taught theſe children ſix years in this hoſpital, ſhall have the freedom of the city without any expence; and that ſuch children, as ſhould be arrived at the age of twenty-five, and ſhould have taught others during ſix years, after they were out of their apprenticeſhip, ſhould enjoy the ſame privilege. This wiſe eſtabliſhment has procured the city a vaſt number of ſkilful artificers. For the government of this hoſpital, ſix perſons are preſented by the attorney-general, out of whom five of the moſt eminent are choſen by the parliament.

4. The General hoſpital is in the ſuburbs of St. Victor: it alſo goes by the name of La Sal Petreria, ſalt-petre having been formerly made here. In it is a noble foundation for the female ſex, near ſeven thouſand of whom are here provided for, and live under the inſpection of ſixty ſiſters, ſubordinate to whom are eighty governeſſes, and a conſiderable number of maid-ſervants. Into this place are received foundlings, who take up one ward; girls and young women, who ſew and knit: a great number of bad women, who are here compelled to ſpin woollen: ſome hundreds of female ideots, who live in little houſes built in the form of a ſtreet: many other poor women, ſome of whom are kept here gratis, and others pay a ſmall matter: delinquents are alſo confined, but not put to work, in this hoſpital.

The caſtle of Biceſtre alſo belongs to this excellent foundation: it is ſeated on an eminence, at a ſmall diſtance from the above-mentioned hoſpital, and is on all ſides defended by a wall, which is of very conſiderable compaſs, containing within it many large buildings, and ſeveral open ſquares. In this caſtle are nearly four thouſand perſons of the other ſex, particularly poor men, who are entertained here gratis, and ſome who pay for their reception into the houſe: perſons diſordered in their ſenſes, whoſe ward reſembles a village, it being built in regular ſtreets: twenty-five men, and as many women, afflicted with the venereal diſeaſe. Common priſoners are kept here in a particular houſe, walled in, and every one in a cell by himſelf. But the moſt remarkable thing here is a large well, which is a modern work: it is of a circular form, and lined with free ſtone from top to bottom: it is one hundred and twenty-eight feet in depth to the ſurface of the water, and twenty more to the bottom. Round the well, at the water's edge, is a gallery, to which a perſon may, on occaſion, be let down. The water is drawn up by means of an engine worked by four horſes, who are relieved every three hours; it is received all the day long into huge buckets, each of which contains twelve hundred pounds weight of water, which is diſcharged out of theſe into a leaden baſon, whence it runs into a reſervoir, and is conveyed to all parts of this vaſt building by means of pipes.

Beſides the above-mentioned, here is alſo the hoſpital de la Piétié, in St. Victor's ſtreet, which conſtitutes alſo a part of the General hoſpital, and is the place where the governors uſually hold their meetings. The Piétié Biceſtre and General hoſpital, together with the Hotel Dieu, have one common fund, amounting to full two millions of livres per annum. Its preſent governors are twelve ſubſtantial citizens appointed by the provoſt of the merchants, and by the echevins, or magiſtrates; but approved by the parliament, before whom they muſt be ſworn. The archbiſhop of Paris, the firſt preſident of the parliament, chamber of accounts, and court of aids, the attorney-general, the lieutenant-general of the police, and provoſt of the merchants, are the ſeven honorary adminiſtrators, or governors.

With reſpect to the ſquares in Paris, the moſt famous is that called La Place des Victoires, or the Square of Victories. In it is a noble ſtatue of Louis XIV. which is one of the beſt pieces of ſtatuary in Europe: he is repreſented clad in his robes, with victory behind him of the ſame magnitude and metal, putting a crown on his head, and poiſed with her foot on a globe. Under her is a three-headed cerberus, to repreſent Louis XIV. triumphing over the triple alliance, and this inſcription under it; VIRO IMMORTALI, "to the immortal man." The whole mould was caſt at once, and weighs above thirty thouſand pounds. The pedeſtal is twenty-two feet high, which, with the maſſy piece of mould the ſtatue ſtands upon, makes the whole near forty feet high. Upon the pedeſtal there are four ſlaves of braſs, with baſſo-relievos of the king's battles and conqueſts. Under the pedeſtal there is a pavement of marble incloſed within ſtately iron grates. There are ſeveral inſcriptions upon the pedeſtal relating to the king's great actions, but very fulſome, alledging, for inſtance, that he gives laws to all the world, and to himſelf. The ſtatue being of braſs, and the outſide gilt, the ridiculous vanity of the king for whom it was intended, the odious flattery of his ſycophants, and the abſurd inſcriptions placed about the ſtatue, and intended to do him honour, occaſioned a ſatirical epigram, which may be thus rendered in Engliſh:

"Well may the French with wond'ring grimace ſtare,
"With gold to ſee their monarch's image glare;
"This ſtatue ſhews on what his pride is built,
"His heart is braſen, and his outſide's gilt;
"And his poor ſubjects' deſpicable plight,
"Prove all's not gold that glitters to the ſight."

In the eſtimation of the French, the triumphal arch at Paris exceeds every thing of the kind in Europe, whether antient or modern. The ſtructure is indeed noble, it conſiſting of three faces of an extraordinary height, with two portals, after the manner of the antient and modern Romans. The orders of the columns are finely deſigned; and the captives and trophies, with which this ſtructure is adorned, are executed in the moſt admirable manner; the whole being done from the deſign of the famous Perault. The king's ſtatue on horſeback is placed on this arch.

All the gates of this city are triumphal arches, and pompous pieces of architecture: that of St. Dennis, leading to the ſquare of the ſame name, is above ſeventy feet high, and as many over, adorned with columns, baſs reliefs, and trophies, with ſome inſcriptions relating to the paſſage of the French over the Rhine, and their taking of Maeſtricht. The gate of St. Martin is fifty feet high, and as many wide, and has on each ſide an inſcription relating to the actions of Louis XIV. The third gate is that of St. Anthony, erected in the reign of Henry II. but repaired and embelliſhed by the city, with ſome inſcriptions in honour of Louis XIV.

The fair of St. Germain, which begins on the third of February, and holds all Lent, is, among other things, worthy of notice. The place where it is kept is a large ſquare building; which has ſix or ſeven rows of ſhops, wherein the cuſtomers play at dice when they come to buy goods; for they are firſt cheapened and bought, and then the people play who ſhall pay for them. The greateſt gaming is after candle-light, and ſometimes the king himſelf comes hither to play. Here is a celebrated picture of our Saviour's aſcenſion, with St. Peter, St. Paul, and two angels in the ſame piece, the work of Antonio Moro: the frame, valued at two hundred piſtoles, is curiouſly carved and richly gilt.

There are a great number of pleaſure-boats on the river Seine, belonging to the king and perſons of quality, in which they ſometimes take the amuſement of ſailing on the water, for the ſake of the air. The water of this river generally looks green and dirty, which is not to be wondered at, as it is commonly filled with covered barges full of waſher-women cleaning their linen: yet it is carried in pails through many of the ſtreets, and ſold as milk is in London. It is a common obſervation, that the French women are the worſt laundreſſes in Europe: they waſh their linen in cold water in the river; and as to ironing and plaiting, they have not the leaſt notion of it. There are here indeed ſome Engliſh women who will finiſh them pretty neatly, but not ſo white as in England, which may

in a good measure be owing to the water, in which they are washed.

The jurisdiction of several courts at Paris extends very far. The principal of these are the parliament, which is the last resort in all causes where the crown does not interpose; a general court of the justices in eyre; a court of the constables and marshals of France; a court of the admiralty; the bailiwic of the palace; the court of the châtelet, or the ordinary court of justice for the civil government of the city, of which the provost, or mayor, with the four echevins, or aldermen, and twenty-six counsellors, are judges; a salt office; a court of the warren of the Louvre, established for the preservation of the game six leagues round Paris, and to prevent people from hunting in those limits without leave; the court of the Hotel de Ville, or town-house, which takes an account of the city rents, and of the taxes on all provisions brought into Paris; and the court of the consuls, which takes cognizance of all commercial affairs.

Malefactors here are condemned to the gallies, to the gibbet, and to what is called being broke alive upon the wheel: the last is used only in case of murder, but if the evidence leaves only some room to doubt the guilt of the person accused, he is, as in many other countries, cruelly put to the torture to obtain a confession: and here it must be observed, that malefactors in France receive their sentence on their knees; which is no sooner pronounced than the hangman ties a rope about their necks, and conveys them to prison, whence, after confession, they are generally dragged immediately to the gallows. The common place of execution is the Greve, the square in which stands the town-house.

We shall now give the manner wretches are broke, as it is called, on the wheel, which we shall take from Mr. Stephens's travels through France. "In the middle of the square, says he, a scaffold was erected; and at half an hour after four the prisoner was brought to it in a cart, attended by the city guard, walking two and two, a priest accompanying the dying man. On the scaffold was erected a large cross exactly in the form of that commonly represented for St. Andrew's. The executioner and his assistants placed the prisoner on it, in such a manner, that his arms and legs were extended agreeably to the form of the cross, and strongly tied down. Under each arm, leg, &c. was cut a notch in the wood, as a mark where the executioner might with the greater facility break the bone. He held in his hand an iron bar, not unlike an iron crow, and in the first place broke his arms, then in a moment after both his thighs. It was dreadful to see the poor wretch writhe his body with agony, and to observe the distortions of his face. It was a considerable time before he expired, and it would have been longer, had not the executioner given him what is called the coup de grace, or merciful stroke, on his stomach, which at once put an end to his misery. They then took the dead body from the cross, and put it on a wheel, fixed to a long pole, where he was exposed for some time; and this part of the ceremony occasions the common expression of being broke upon the wheel, though it is performed on a cross."

The inhabitants of Paris carry on a very extensive trade with the other parts of the kingdom. Their commerce with foreigners is also considerable; for it is observed, that one single branch, that of the gold, silver, and silk stuffs manufactured at Paris, is equal to the whole trade caried on at Lyons. They have here likewise manufactures of all other sorts of stuffs, of looking-glasses, and almost every other utensil necessary for support and convenience.

In this city are six principal companies of tradesmen, out of which the consuls, who have the regulation of trade, are chosen; these are the drapers, the grocers and apothecaries, the mercers and jewellers, the skinners, the hatters and goldsmiths: besides which there are the booksellers, the vintners and wine-merchants, the wool-merchants and timber-merchants: but though these are esteemed inferior to the others, they are capable of being elected consuls, and enjoy the same privileges.

In the neighbourhood of this capital the land is in general flat and even, intermixed, however, with a few eminences. Towards the north of Paris, the soil is fat, and produces a great quantity of very good corn. On the other side it is sandy, marshy, and wet. The whole is, however, cultivated with great care and industry; and the people have carried the art of gardening to such perfection, that in the midst of winter they raise all those sorts of kitchen-stuff that seem to be the produce of summer only. Within the election of Paris, they make one year with another, about sixteen thousand hogsheads of wine, which is all drank at Paris, or in the places contiguous to it.

Paris has undergone the fate of most other cities: it has been several times besieged, twice burnt, and once considerably damaged by an inundation of the Seine. Henry VI. king of England, was crowned here, and his court was kept with great state and magnificence at the Louvre in 1422. On the twenty-first of August 1572, it was in a most detestable manner stained with the blood of six thousand protestants; the signal for this most horrible massacre being given by the tolling of the great bell, which is still to be seen in the tower of the palace where the parliament sits. In the civil war, Paris took part with the Leaguers, and was besieged in the year 1589 and 1590, in vain, by Henry III. and IV. but in 1594, after the coronation of the latter, it readily opened its gates to him.

There are several palaces and little towns, in the neighbourhood of Paris, which are included under the same government. The principal of these are the following; viz.

The royal palace of Madrid, in the wood of Bologne, is situated about three miles to the west of Paris. This palace was built by Francis I. in 1529, after the model of the palace of Madrid in Spain. It consists of a suite of buildings three stories high, besides the ground-floor, supported by coupled columns. The whole building is surrounded with a narrow ditch. The arches have an ornament of a singular kind, they being incrusted with a sort of tiles that glisten very much when the sun shines upon them. The principal building is flanked on each side by two large pavilions, at the angles of which there are smaller ones. In the middle of the fronts of each of the large pavilions is a round tower, the top of which is in the form of a dome.

The fine seat of Conflans is thus called from its being near the confluence of the Seine and the Maine. It owes its beauty both to nature and the elegant taste of Francis de Harlay, archbishop of Paris: it belongs to that metropolitan see, and is the country-seat of the archbishops. The rooms within are extremely magnificent, especially the gallery, which is adorned with pictures executed by the best masters. The gardens are very beautifully laid out, and adorned with groves, walks, statues, water-works, &c.

About two leagues to the east of Paris stands the town of St. Maur de Fossez, on the banks of the river Maine, over which is a stone bridge. Here is a very fine seat, with beautiful gardens, belonging to the duke of Bourbon; also an antient abbey of St. Maur, which was secularized in 1535, and afterwards changed into a collegiate church of canons.

The small town of Ruel is situated on the banks of the Seine, five miles from Paris, where is a handsome church, and some elegant gentlemen's houses: but it is principally noted for a seat built by cardinal Richelieu, which, though not magnificent, is admired for its neatness, it being adorned with very beautiful gardens in the Italian taste, which have some curious water-works belonging to them.

Within the wood of Vincennes, at the distance of three miles to the east of Paris, is a royal palace, or castle, which was considerably improved and beautified by Francis I. Henry II. Louis XIII. and XIV. It is an oblong square building, encompassed with dry ditches, which are lined, and pretty deep. The castle is composed of several square towers, the highest of which is called the Donjon, and is surrounded with a particular ditch, over which there is a drawbridge. The chapel, though in the gothic taste, is not without beauty, it being adorned with several pyramids, and other embellishments; and the paintings on the windows are highly valued. The rooms within the palace are beautiful and stately, and the ceiling adorned with paintings. The wood above-mentioned reaches almost to the gates of Paris, and is inclosed within a wall.

Here is also a fine park; and the gate through which you enter is a noble piece of architecture, in the form of a triumphal arch, adorned with columns and statues, and stands in the middle of a large court, on each side of which is an open gallery supported by rustic arches, besides a fine suite of buildings.

There is a palace, at the entrance of this park, where they used formerly to keep wild beasts, as lions, tygers, and leopards. This park takes up one thousand four hundred and sixty-seven acres. The avenue leading to the palace has four rows of elms planted on a spot which has been made level for that purpose, they having been obliged to support it, in several places, by means of high and thick walls.

walls. This palace, or caſtle, has ſometimes ſerved as a priſon for perſons of the higheſt rank, when they have incurred the diſpleaſure of the king.

The iſle of France, conſidered as a government, is bounded, on the north, by Picardy; on the weſt, by Normandy; on the ſouth by the Orleannois; and on the eaſt, by the government of Champagne; extending, both in length and breadth about ninety miles. The air is temperate, and the ſoil fertile; ſo that corn, wine, and fruit, are produced here in great plenty.

This country is divided into ſeveral ſmall diſtricts. It has ſeveral conſiderable towns in it, which we ſhall hereafter deſcribe; but ſhall begin with the palaces, as having a nearer affinity to the places lately taken notice of.

The principal palace is that of Verſailles, ſituated four leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Paris, on a riſing ground, in the midſt of a country fit for hunting, and abounding with game. Louis XIII. built a caſtle here, to ſerve as a hunting-ſeat; but Louis XIV. being much pleaſed with the ſituation, converted the village into a fine town, and the caſtle into the moſt noble palace in the world. The ſide fronting the ſtables is not anſwering in magnificence to the reſt; but that facing the gardens is extremely beautiful. Its roof, glittering with gold, affords a noble proſpect at a diſtance; and the gardens, ſtatues, canals, groves, grottoes, fountains, and other water-works, far ſurpaſs any thing of the kind to be ſeen in Italy; and its riches and beauty within perfectly correſpond with its outſide. The avenue leading to the caſtle divides the town into two parts; that which ſtands on the left hand, in coming from Paris, is called Old Verſailles, and that on the right the New Town.

The palace, which is ſeated on an eminence in the midſt of a valley, is encompaſſed with hills. On the ſide towards Paris is a fine avenue of elms, the viſta in the middle being ſixty feet wide, and thoſe on the ſides thirty each. The end of the great royal ſquare is encompaſſed with regular pavilions built by the princes and lords of the court; theſe, with other fine houſes, form the new town. This ſquare has a fountain in the middle of it, with walks like thoſe leading to it. From thence you aſcend the great court of the palace, which is four hundred and eighty feet long, with four large pavilions at the corners for the officers lodgings.

The great court is incloſed with an iron baluſtrade, and two large buildings, that form the wings on each ſide, having balconies ſupported by columns, and adorned with fine ſtatues. Theſe wings, together with the pavilions, ſerve for offices to the palace, and have courts with other buildings behind them. Here are other double apartments, which, joining thoſe wings, form a communication between the new and old caſtle, and, contracting the upper part of the great court, end gracefully at the ſmall one. Out of this court is an aſcent of three marble ſteps into a large landing-place, and from thence by five more, into the little court paved with black and white marble. In the middle is a marble fountain and baſon, with ſtatues of gilt copper.

The front and wings are of brick and free-ſtone, adorned with marble buſts and brackets. Before this front is a balcony ſupported by eight marble columns of the doric order, with red and white ſpots like jaſper, and their baſes and capitals of white marble. In the two angles of the wings in the front are hanging pedeſtals, which ſupport two cloſets encompaſſed with gilt iron caſes; and underneath are two baſons of white marble in the form of ſhells, where young Tritons ſpout water. The middle building has three gilt iron doors in the porch, with apartments on the right and left ſides of it.

After quitting the great court, and paſſing through an open porch, you aſcend by a large ſtair-caſe eighty-one feet long and thirty broad. There is an entrance, from this porch, into two painted halls. The ceiling of one of them is ſupported by eight marble columns of the doric order, that have red and white veins; the capitals and baſes are of a green colour; and the columns, being four on a ſide, divide the hall into three parts. On the ſides oppoſite to each column are pilaſters of the ſame marble, that ſupport a cornice under the platform; and there are niches with ſtatues fronting the windows.

The other hall, which is next to the former, is ſupported by twelve columns of the ionic order, with marble pilaſters behind them that have red, black, violet, and yellow veins; and their capitals and baſes are of fine white marble. From this you enter another hall of the ſame dimenſions, where the ceiling is an octagon, with twelve double pedeſtals by the windows and doors, of fine marble, on which are placed figures of the twelve months, repreſented by winged young men in gilt copper. The pieces over the doors and windows are either of a white or flame-coloured marble. Upon one ſide of this hall is the chamber and cloſet of the baths.

All the parts that are not hung with tapeſtry are lined with marble, and the nearer you come to the king's apartments, the more ſumptuous are the marbles, ſculptures, and paintings. The like order is obſerved in the upper apartments, which are eight on a floor, adorned with different ſorts of marble and curious paintings. The guard-hall is ornamented with marble that has black and yellow veins. In the other apartments is a marble with green veins, and others are lined with a fine marble called agate, brought from the Alps.

On the ſide towards the green-houſe are other lodgings in the ſame order, with an apartment for the dauphine, under that of the queen, the ceiling of which is curiouſly adorned. The queen's apartments are a ſuite of rooms that have the ſame dimenſions with the king's; but of different workmanſhip; the paintings on the ceilings repreſent the actions of the antient heroes. Oppoſite to the front of the palace is a large plat in the garden, one hundred yards long, and twelve broad: the principal front looks towards a piece of water, and has three balconies, ſupported by four columns each, and a figure upon every column repreſenting a month of the year, and theſe balconies are richly adorned with ſtatues of excellent workmanſhip.

The vaſt variety of paintings and ſtatues, with which the apartments of this palace are adorned, are too numerous to particularize. The royal cabinet for medals, coins, paintings, and the like curioſities, had the choice of all that Italy could afford. The king's lodgings are enriched with utenſils of maſſy plate, even to the bedſteads, baluſtrades, and rails. The gallery towards the ſide of the garden is perhaps the nobleſt ever beheld, for its delightful proſpect, and the fine ſtatues and looking-glaſſes placed between the pannels of the windows.

The chapel, built in 1699, is a moſt finiſhed piece of architecture, ſculpture, and painting, performed by the moſt eminent maſters. Every room in the palace has a particular name taken from the principal object painted on the ceiling; for inſtance, the hall of plenty, from plenty and liberality being painted on the ceiling. Here are ſeveral pictures of the Holy Virgin; one in which ſhe holds the infant Jeſus, and is ſurrounded with ſeveral pilgrims, done by Pouſſin; the Virgin Mary and Joſeph flying into Egypt, by Guido, &c. The ſaloon of Venus has that goddeſs painted on the ceiling, ſeated in a chariot drawn by doves, the gods and heroes adorning her triumph. Here are pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, who gives orders in relation to the gardens of Babylon; of Auguſtus exhibiting a chariot race in the circus; of Cyrus reviewing his army; and of Alexander marrying Roxana. The hall of war has the ceiling adorned with paintings in five compartments, the largeſt of which in the middle repreſents France holding a thunder-bolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other; the four others are on the ſides of it: the firſt is Bellona in a violent rage; the ſecond repreſents Germany in vain endeavouring to defend the Imperial crown; in the third Spain ſeems to threaten France; but her ſoldiers are put to flight; the fourth ſhews Holland thrown back upon her lion. The room is alſo adorned with ſix heads of the Roman emperors in porphyry; the drapery of the buſts is of gilt braſs, and they are placed on oriental alabaſter pedeſtals.

The bed-chamber of the king is more magnificent than any of the other rooms; the carvings are all gilt, on a white ground. The bed is placed in an alcove, where two figures of Fame, who are repreſented ſitting, ſeem to watch for the preſervation of the king. The chamber is adorned with ſeveral fine pictures, and the furniture of the bed is of crimſon velvet, embroidered with gold.

No leſs magnificence appears in the gardens, than in the palace. In deſcending from the terrace, you ſee two baſons which contain ſeveral water-ſpouts, and in the midſt of each, a collection of ſpouts in the form of a wheat-ſheaf, that riſes twenty-nine feet high. The borders of theſe baſons are each adorned with eighty groups of brazen figures, repreſenting river gods and nymphs; and four others of the ſame metal repreſenting cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of the parterre are two other baſons of marble, where the water is thrown into two ſheets, that have a fine effect, and on the borders of the baſons are groupes of animals in braſs. From this parterre you ſee in a kind of creſcent which is below it, the baſon of Latona, round which are repreſented a groupe of the three figures, Latona, Apollo,

Apollo, and Diana. Latona here ſeems to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty of the peaſants of Lycia, who are repreſented as metamorphoſed into frogs, which throw a vaſt quantity of water upon the groupe. There are ſeveral other baſons with jets, and other curious water-works, a particular deſcription of which would carry us too far.

Here is a famous canal, at one end of which is a baſon of an octagonal figure, four hundred and twenty feet in diameter; four of its ſides are circular, three in ſtraight lines, and the other joins the canal. In two of the angles of this baſon is a ſea-horſe with a Triton on his back. The great canal is thirty-two fathoms broad, and eight hundred long, including the baſons at each end. In the middle it is croſſed by another canal about five hundred and twenty fathoms in length. The court ſometimes divert themſelves in yachts and galleys upon theſe canals.

The green houſe, or orangery, is a maſter-piece of its kind. It has a ſouthern expoſure; and contains, firſt, a large gallery, four hundred and eight feet long, with twelve arched windows in the front; and on each ſide are two others, each three hundred and ſixty feet long. Theſe galleries are adorned on the outſide with fine rows of columns. Before this green-houſe is a beautiful parterre, with a fine baſon in the middle, from which a ſpout of water riſes forty feet high. It is embelliſhed with four rows of columns, of the Tuſcan order, groupes of ſtone figures beautifully carved, vaſes, ſtatues of white marble, &c. This parterre ſeems a foreſt of orange and lemon-trees, myrtles, &c. in the ſummer-ſeaſon.

Another celebrated curioſity is the labyrinth, which is a fine grove, the ſeveral walks of which are ſo interwoven with each other, that it is very difficult for a perſon without a guide not to loſe himſelf. At the entrance are two ſtatues, the one of Æſop, the other of Cupid holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the alleys you meet with a beautiful fountain, in a baſon of fine ſhell-work, where one of Æſop's fables is very naturally repreſented; the ſubject of which is expreſſed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a braſs plate with a black ground. Here are a great number of other groves, all beautifully adorned, and at one end of the garden is the place where a variety of foreign beaſts and birds are bred.

There is another palace, in the park of Verſailles, called Trianon, ſituated at one end of the canal which croſſes the large one. This is both genteel and magnificent; the architecture and ornaments are in an exquiſite taſte, and the front about ſixty-four fathoms broad. The court before it is adorned with a fine periſtile, ſupported with marble columns and pilaſters. The two wings are terminated by two pavilions, and over the whole building is a baluſtrade adorned with ſtatues, urns, &c. In the apartments are fine pictures, and the furniture is very ſumptuous. The gardens are here alſo embelliſhed with fine baſons, caſcades, and groupes of figures, extremely well executed.

There is another royal ſeat, in a park contiguous to Verſailles, called Marly, delightfully ſituated in a little valley, with a very fine proſpect of the caſtle of St. Germain, and of the neighbouring country. On coming from St. Germain to this palace, you enter firſt a round court, three hundred feet in diameter, where ſtands the guard-room, and where terminate the ſeveral courts for ſtables, coach-houſes, &c. The palace conſiſts of a large pavilion, ſtanding detached from any other, as alſo twelve ſmaller ones, ſix on each ſide: the outſide of the great one is adorned with paintings in freſco. The ſteps are embelliſhed with figures of ſphinxes, groupes of children, vaſes, &c.

In the great hall there are ſixteen pilaſters, and it is adorned with fine looking-glaſſes and pictures. In the king's apartments, and in thoſe of the royal family, there are ſeveral beautiful pieces of painting, repreſenting the ſieges which Louis XIV. carried on in perſon. The ſmall pavilions are joined to one another by arches, through each of which you go into a little arbour made with lath-work. In all thoſe pavilions there are apartments for people of quality. They have nothing very remarkable; but in each of the two laſt there is a globe, of which cardinal d'Etrées made Louis XIV. a preſent. They are eleven feet, eleven inches, and one half diameter, and were invented and made by father Coronelli.

There is a large caſcade in the gardens; it is properly a river, which falling from a very high place, forms very beautiful ſheets of water. At the bottom there are ſeveral baſons, adorned with groups, ſtatues, &c.

The engine of Marly, for raiſing the water, ſtands on the river Seine. It is compoſed of fourteen wheels, which are turned by horſes, and ſet two hundred and twenty-five pumps a going; by which means the water is carried up into a tower ſix hundred and ten fathoms diſtant from the river. From thence the water runs into an aqueduct three hundred and thirty fathoms long, and from thence it is conveyed through iron pipes of eighteen inches bore, into the reſervoirs of Marly, which are three hundred and fifty fathoms farther. Theſe reſervoirs furniſh all the water-works of Marly and Verſailles: all theſe works have coſt immenſe ſums; the water being conveyed over ſeveral hills.

From the ſide of the parterre which faces the large pavilion, there is a moſt extenſive and fine proſpect. From this parterre you go down into another, which is adorned with marble ſtatues, and has a fine baſon in the middle, where there are ſeveral water-ſpouts in the form of a wheat-ſheaf. Beyond it there is a large baſon ſurrounded with walks and graſs-plats. Going ſtill farther down, you meet with two other baſons adorned with ſhell-work, and groups of white marble, repreſenting rivers and nymphs. The water falling out of theſe baſons form ſeveral ſheets, and fall into another baſon below.

The town of Fontainbleau is mean, though it has a particular ſub-governor, a royal prevoté, and a foreſt-court. It is thirty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is ſolely remarkable for its royal palace, in which the French kings have taken great delight, it being well ſituated for a hunting-ſeat. It conſiſts of ſeveral ſets of buildings, added to one another at different times, without any order or ſymmetry, which conſtitute a confuſed maſs of various kinds of architecture; yet this very confuſion has an air of grandeur which ſtrikes the eye. Its ſituation is in a bottom, and ſurrounded by a large foreſt; and the neighbouring hills are crowned with bare rocks. The court frequently take the diverſion of hunting in the foreſt, as it abounds with game.

In this palace there is one room larger than the reſt, where plays are performed when the court is here. There is, in this room, a chimney-piece twenty-three feet high and twenty wide, built by Henry IV. it is adorned with four lofty Corinthian columns of ſpotted marble, with the baſes and capitals of white marble, on which ſtand the equeſtrian ſtatue of the laſt mentioned prince; underneath are two baſſo-relievos, one repreſenting the battle of Ivry, and the other the ſurrender of the city of Mante. Two marble ſtatues, repreſenting loyalty and peace, ſtand on each ſide of this figure, and facing the fire-place is a noble theatre for the acting of plays. All the rooms are adorned with paintings. That in which the king dines in public has a very fine ceiling, and noble pictures repreſenting fortitude, temperance, juſtice, and prudence, with ſeveral other ſubjects.

This palace has alſo very fine galleries belonging to it. Among the reſt, the ſtag-gallery, along the orangery, is particulary worthy of notice, it being adorned with paintings of all the royal palaces, between which are ſtag's heads ſet off with branches of a very uncommon ſize. Under each ſtag's head is an inſcription, ſhewing in what wood, and by what king, the ſtag was killed. Thus many of them are repreſented as ſaying, very politely, king Charles, or king Louis did me the honour of taking me.

In the gallery of Diana is the picture of Henry the Great in a hunting-dreſs, and the different kinds of hunting, in which he delighted, are repreſented in ſeveral paintings twelve feet high, and twenty broad. Near this gallery is the aviary, which is extremely large and beautiful, it being ninety feet in length, and nine in breadth. In the middle is a large dome, under which is an artificial rock, made of ſhell-work, from which iſſue ſeveral ſprings, the water of which runs along the whole aviary through many little channels made in the ſtone pavement.

There are ſeveral ſtatues and fountains in the gardens, the largeſt of which ſtands in the middle of the garden, and is called the fountain of the Tiber, from that river being repreſented in braſs. Beyond it are one grotto and ſeveral caſcades; and at the entrance of the park is a fine canal ſix hundred fathoms long, and twenty broad; it is all lined with ſtone, and has a fountain at each end. The alleys of this park being of a vaſt length, make a very rural and delightful appearance.

Meudon is a large open town, two leagues below Paris. There is here a fine palace built in the reign of Henry II. for the cardinal of Lorraine; it came afterwards ſucceſſively to Meſſieurs Servients and de Louvois, who each adorned it in their turns. Louis XIV. bought it of Monſieur de Louvois's widow, and gave it to his ſon the dauphin, grandfather to the preſent French king. The dauphin added ſeveral buildings and ornaments to it. This

palace lies in the middle of a pleaſant foreſt, and is decorated with a grotto paved with ſpotted porphyry, and fine water-works. The houſe is adorned with rich furniture, marble ſtatues, and fine paintings of Roman emperors, and ancient philoſophers.

At the entrance of the court of the palace is a large pile of buildings on the right, and another on the left, which open in the form of a ſemicircle, but are disjoined from the body of the houſe. In the middle of the front is a lofty advanced building, entered by three doors: above them runs an order of architecture, conſiſting of arches and columns finely deſigned; over them is another order accompanied with pilaſters; and over all is a fountain containing two ſtatues in a recumbent poſture, admirably well finiſhed. The wings are not ſo high as the principal building, and each of them is terminated by a ſquare pavilion. The inſide of the palace was adorned with the richeſt furniture, and a fine collection of ſtatues, paintings, medals, and other antiquities. The front towards the garden alſo conſiſts of a lofty advanced building, with wings conſiderably lower, which terminate on the right and left on two pavilions of the ſame height as the body of the building. The gardens are much admired for their fine walks, parterres, &c. There are ſome excellent ſtone quarries near Meudon.

St. Cloud, in Latin Fanum Sancti Clodoaldi, was formerly called Nogent: it is ſituated on the river Seine, two leagues below Paris; and ſtands on a hill, the foot of which is watered by the river, over which there is a ſtone bridge. There is in this town a noble palace belonging to the duke of Orleans; it is adorned with fine paintings and ſculptures; and the garden is extremely magnificent, abounding with water works, as fountains, caſcades, ſheets of water; alſo with pleaſant walks, charming parterres, and all that can pleaſe the eye, and ſatisfy a ſpectator of the niceſt taſte; but a particular deſcription of all thoſe beauties would carry us too far. The manor of St. Cloud was erected into a duchy peerdom in favour of the archbiſhops of Paris to whom it belongs.

This town is much reſorted to, on account of its extraordinary pleaſantneſs. It has a manufactory of porcelain, and a fine bridge of ſtone over the Seine. In 1589, Henry III. was murdered in this place. Beſides the palace, here are a collegiate church, and a convent.

The town of Senlis, in Latin Auguſtomagus, is ſeated on an eminence on the banks of the little river called Nonette, twenty miles to the north-weſt of Paris, in a diſtrict called Valois. It is the reſidence of a governor, a diſtrict court, and a ſalt-office. In this city, and its three ſuburbs, are ſix pariſh-churches; among which is the cathedral, which has a ſteeple that is one of the higheſt in France, and the figures that adorn the front of the right wing of this church are very curious. Here are alſo a collegiate church, and a royal chapel. Its biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and has within his dioceſe one hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pariſhes, forty-four chapels, three abbies, nine priories, with nineteen infirmaries, and his annual revenue amounts to eighteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome one thouſand two hundred and fifty-four florins. The city is defended by a wall, a dry moat, and baſtions, and has its own laws.

The town of Soiſſons, which is the capital of a diſtrict called the Soiſſonnois, and of the whole government, is ſeated in a pleaſant and fruitful valley, on the river Aiſne, ſixty miles to the north-eaſt of Paris. It is a pretty large well-built town, and gives the title of count. Several councils have been held here. It is the reſidence of a governor-general, and the ſeat of a generalité, an intendency, a board of the finances, a ſalt-office, a court of juſtice, a foreſt-court, &c. In this city, beſides the cathedral, which has one of the moſt conſiderable chapters in the kingdom, are three collegiate churches, one college of the fathers of the oratory, ſix abbies, ſeveral convents, a French academy, and an ancient caſtle. Its biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Rheims, in whoſe abſence he performs the ceremony of the king's coronation: he has three hundred and ninety-ſeven pariſhes, and twenty-three abbies within his dioceſe, which produces a revenue of eighteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays the court of Rome's taxation of two thouſand four hundred florins.

The town of St. Denis is ſeated in a fruitful plain, in the iſle of France Proper, five miles to the north-weſt of Paris, owes its origin to a celebrated abbey of Benedictines, founded there by king Clotaire, in honour of St. Denis, ſo early as the year 600, but greatly improved by his ſon Dagobert. The abbey is now rebuilt with the fineſt free-ſtone, and has a garden laid out in the moſt elegant taſte. The church, though Gothic, is a handſome ſtructure, and not only contains a very rich treaſury, in which are kept the crown jewels; but is likewiſe the place of interment for the kings of France and their families; but no tombs have been erected here, for Henry IV. or any of the ſucceeding kings. The famous marſhal de Turenne has a noble monument here erected by the king's order, in a marble chapel built on purpoſe, where his effigy lies at full length, ſurrounded with laurels and trophies, and a Roman eagle retreating backward at the ſight of ſo formidable an enemy. Immortality with a radiant crown on her head, holds in one hand a crown of laurel, while ſhe ſupports with the other the dying hero. Wiſdom and Valour are alſo repreſented in their proper attitudes: the former ſeems aſtoniſhed at the ſtroke which deprives France of that great man, and the latter appears in conſternation. On the altar in this abbey is a croſs, ſaid to be of maſſy gold, ſeven feet high, ſet with diamonds and rich pearls, and by it a table of gold; the altar is plated over with ſilver. After the death of cardinal de Retz, its laſt abbot, its income, amounting to one hundred thouſand livres, was given to the houſe of St. Cyr. Its preſent revenue is ſixty thouſand livres. Beſides this church here are thirteen others, among which are the collegiate church of St. Paul, and five convents.

The ancient city of Novon is pretty large, and well-built; it ſtands in the diſtrict called Noyonnois, on the little river Verſe, twenty-two miles to the north-weſt of Soiſſons. It is the reſidence of a governor, and has a ſalt-office, a foreſt-court, &c. Beſides its cathedral and a royal chapel, it has ten pariſh-churches, two abbies, two convents, one community, one ſeminary, and two hoſpitals. Its biſhop, who is alſo ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, is a count and peer of France: his dioceſe conſiſts of four hundred and fifty pariſhes, and ſeventeen abbies; and his revenue amounts to twenty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays three thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The principal trade of this city conſiſts in corn. It has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire. Calvin, the celebrated reformer, was born here.

The city of Laon, in the diſtrict called the Laonnois, ſtands on a ſteep eminence in the midſt of a large plain, twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Soiſſons. It is well-built, and has an old caſtle, and beautiful ſtreets. It has a governor, a ſalt-office, a foreſt-manor, and a court of juſtice. Beſides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, five abbies, two convents, a college maintained at the expence of the city, one general hoſpital, and an alms-houſe. Its biſhop, who is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Reims, is the ſecond duke and peer of France. Within his dioceſe are three hundred pariſhes, and twenty-four abbies. His revenue amounts to thirty-thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand florins to the court of Rome. Excellent wine is produced in the neighbouring country.

The city of Beauvais, in the diſtrict of Beauvaiſis, is ſeated on the river Teraine, ſixteen leagues to the north of Paris, and is almoſt ſurrounded with hills. Cæſar having beſieged and taken this town, is ſaid to have given it the name of Cæſaromagnus. It is fortified, but is of no great ſtrength, it being commanded by the neighbouring mountains. Its cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, is a magnificent building: it has alſo ſix collegiate churches, thirteen pariſh-churches, three abbies, a general hoſpital, and an alms-houſe. It has likewiſe a manor-court, which, together with a foreſt-court, are dependent on the biſhop. It has likewiſe a province-court, and a ſalt-houſe. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, is a count and peer of France, and has a dioceſe conſiſting of twelve chapters, fourteen abbies, forty-eight priories, four hundred and forty-two pariſhes, and three hundred chapels, with an annual revenue amounting to fifty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays a taxation of four thouſand ſix hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city is a conſiderable manufactory of tapeſtry, and great quantities of ſerge and woollen cloths are alſo made here.

This city was beſieged in vain by the Engliſh in 1443, and in 1472 it made a brave defence againſt Charles duke of Burgundy, when the women ſignalized their courage under the conduct of a brave heroine named Joan Hatchet, whoſe picture they preſerve in the town-houſe; and in memory of this action the women are allowed to march firſt in a proceſſion annually obſerved on the tenth of July. The adjacent country abounds in corn, paſture, and fruit, and affords ſome of the beſt mutton in France.

The town of St. Germain's, or St. Germain en Laye,

is well inhabited; it is ſeated on an eminence along the Seine, ten miles to the north-weſt of Paris, and has very good air and water. The Engliſh deſtroyed a palace which ſtood here in 1346; but a new building being raiſed by Francis I. it afterwards received the name of the Old Palace, to diſtinguiſh it from one built there by Henry IV. which was called the New. Louis XIII. added ſome conſiderable embelliſhments to it, and Louis XIV. enlarged it by the addition of five ſtately pavilions, whence, though it is no regular building, it makes a grand appearance.

The New Palace, as it is called, fronts the Old, and ſtands on the brow of a hill, with a garden of ſix beds of earth ſupported by arches ſloping into the valley. This building is a true image of the tranſitorineſs of all ſublunary things, the galleries in it being turned into granaries, and the paintings ſcarce diſtinguiſhable for filth. The very alcove in which Louis XIV. was born is now a duſt-hole, and the grand ſtair-caſe leading into the garden is wholly in ruins, while the arches for the beds in the garden are in many places ſunk into the ground. The Old Palace was the reſidence of James II. after his flight from England, and here too he died. The ſtreets of the town are well paved, the houſes are lofty and handſome, with ſome large ſquares and hotels, though only one pariſh-church, three convents, and an hoſpital, are contained in it.

The convent of St. Cyr, for nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine, was founded in 1686 by Madame de Maintenon, miſtreſs, if not the ſecret conſort of Lewis XIV. of which ſhe herſelf was abbeſs till the fifteenth of April, 1719, when ſhe died. It contains fifty ladies of quality, thirty-ſix lay-ſiſters, and two hundred and fifty pupils, who muſt be between the age of ſeven and twelve; but muſt prove their nobility for four generations, and have no defect in body or mind. Here they continue till they are twenty years of age, when ſuch of them as are diſpoſed to be nuns are diſtributed among the royal abbies, where they are admitted gratis: the others are married to gentlemen, with a portion of four hundred piſtoles, beſides a certainty of preferment to the bridegroom; or elſe they are ſent back to their parents. On the death of any one of the fifty ladies, her place is filled up by election from among the young ladies. The thirty-ſix lay ſiſters inſtruct them in every branch of education becoming their ſex. The convent is a very ſpacious and ſplendid ſtructure; and the foundation has an annual revenue of one hundred and eighty thouſand livres, one hundred thouſand of which ariſe from the extinction of the abbey of St. Dennis, excluſive of its lands and immoveables.

SECT. VIII.

Treating of the Government of BRITTANY and NORMANDY, their Situation and Extent, Hiſtory of the Country, its Produce, principal Cities and Towns, Trade and Manufactures of the Inhabitants, &c.

BRITTANY, called by the French Bretagne, is a kind of peninſula, ſurrounded, on the ſouth and weſt, by the Atlantic ocean; on the north, by the Britiſh channel; and joins Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou towards the eaſt. Its greateſt length, from eaſt to weſt, is ſixty leagues; and its greateſt breadth forty-five, but in many places it is very narrow. It received its name from the old Britons, who being driven out of Britain about the middle of the fifth century, by the Angles and Saxons, croſſed the channel into Gaul, and, after wandering about for ſome time, ſettled in this province, to which they at length gave their name. In ſucceeding times the Britons were obliged to ſubmit to the kings of France.

Charles the Great had a fleet here, to act againſt the Normans, and under his ſucceſſors, Numenius, a chief of the Britons, created himſelf king; but his ſecond ſucceſſor was taken off by ſome conſpirators, who made themſelves maſters of the country, under the title of counts. The Normans afterwards reduced the country, but were unable to keep the quiet poſſeſſion of it; till at length Conan, count of Brittany, married his only daughter Conſtantia to Gottfried, count of Anjou, the ſon of Henry II. of England, and duke of Normandy; and the daughter and heireſs of this Conſtantia marrying Peter of Dreux, Brittany fell to the royal family of France, Peter being a prince of the blood. It was then governed by the dukes of Brittany; and at length, by marrying their daughters to the kings of France, in 1532, it became united to that crown.

This province is intermixed with plains and mountains, of which there are more in Lower Brittany, which is croſſed by a chain of mountains, called Mount Arré. There are ſeveral fruitful plains, and alſo many ſandy and barren heaths. The air is every where pretty temperate, but thick and moiſt towards the ſea-coaſt. The ſoil here yields paſture, hemp, wood, minerals, corn, and but very little wine. The meadows feed abundance of cattle, eſpecially horſes, of which a very good race is bred here. Hemp and flax grow in great plenty, ſo that abundance of canvas and linen is made in this province. The foreſts are many and large, and contain great variety of game. There are alſo here ſome mines of iron, lead, copper, and tin. This province is happy in havens, having more good ſea-ports than any other parts of France. The inhabitants are good fiſhermen, being encouraged by the great variety of delicate fiſh taken on their coaſt, particularly ſalmon, herrings, ſardines, and a certain fiſh of a moſt delicious taſte, called imperator, or empereur, at Marſeilles, and gracieux ſeigneur, or gracious lord, in Brittany; beſides tunnies, porpuſſes, dolphins, &c.

They have their own parliament, which is held at Rennes; as alſo their own laws, and particular ſtates, the latter of which conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, burghers, and peaſants. They uſed to meet formerly every year, but ſince 1630 they meet once in two years. Their chief buſineſs is, to conſent to the free-gift demanded of the province by the king. The governor is likewiſe admiral of Brittany; and under him are two lieutenant-generals one of whom has the ſuperintendency of eight dioceſes, and the other only of the earldom and biſhopric of Nantes: beſides theſe, there are three ſub-governors. In the meeting of the ſtates, and aſſeſſment of taxes, the country is divided according to its nine biſhoprics, five of which belong to Upper, and four to Lower Brittany.

The principal places in this government are, 1. Rennes, the ancient Condate, the capital of the province being ſeated on the river Vilaine, about fifty-five miles to the north of Nantes, and forty-five to the ſouth of St. Malo's. It is divided by the river into two parts, which have a communication by three bridges. It is pretty large, populous, and the ſee of a biſhop; here is alſo held the parliament of the whole country, an intendency, a county-court, a foreſt-court, and a conſulate. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, has a dioceſe conſiſting of two hundred and thirty-ſix pariſhes, with an income of fourteen thouſand livres, out of which his taxation to the ſee of Rome is one thouſand florins. This town contains many well-built houſes; but the ſtreets are narrow, dark, and dirty. Beſides the cathedral, it has eight pariſh-churches; and ſeventeen convents; the Jeſuits had here a fine college, and the ſtates of the province have erected in this city a noble ſtatue of Louis XV.

2. Nantes, in Latin Nannetes, was called by the ancient Romans Condiviſtum: it is the ſecond city of Brittany, and the capital of a county of the ſame name, ſituated on the northern bank of the river Loire, near the confluence of the river Ardre, about eight leagues from the ſea to the eaſt, and eighteen from Rennes to the ſouth. It was the ſeat of the late dukes of Brittany, and gave the title of count to their eldeſt ſons. It is a pretty large city, ſurrounded with ramparts, and very deep ditches, with ſome fortifications; it has an old caſtle flanked with large round towers towards the city, and with ſome half-moons towards the ſuburb of St. Clement. This is an epiſcopal ſee, the biſhop of which is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, and, by virtue of his dignity, a counſellor in the parliament of Rennes. There is alſo here a chamber of accounts, an office of the finances, a preſidial, and an univerſity. The public buildings are the cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, a fair ancient ſtructure, beautified with two high towers; there are to be ſeen in this church the tombs of ſeveral dukes of Brittany; the collegiate church of the virgin Mary; ſeveral parochial churches; divers monaſteries; the town-houſe, built after the modern architecture; the palace of the chamber of accounts; that of the preſidial court, with a beautiful tower and clock; and a ſtately hoſpital. This city is a great mart for trade, vaſt quantities of all ſorts of merchandiſes are brought in by the river Loire, which flows up to its walls, and brings up very large boats, and ſhips of ſmall burthen; and from thence, by the ſame river, foreign goods are ſent to Anjou, Blois, Orleans, &c. and native commodities brought down. An excellent ſort of brandy is exported hence into foreign countries. By reaſon of this convenience for trade, the city has been, from time to time, conſiderably increaſed; and there are now four ſuburbs round it, which are much larger than the city itſelf, and very well filled with inhabitants.

bitants. One of the ſuburbs, called la Foſſe, is near the harbour, and inhabited by rich merchants. There is here a large key, along which are very fine houſes, and large warehouſes. There is a very particular kind of ſociety or partnerſhip eſtabliſhed above a century ago, between the merchants of Nantes and thoſe of Bilboa in Spain. This ſociety is called the contraction, and has in each of theſe cities a reciprocal tribunal, after the manner of a conſular juriſdiction; a merchant of Nantes, who happens to be at Bilboa, has a right to ſit in this tribunal, and has a deliberate voice; and the merchants of Bilboa are uſed after the ſame manner when they are at Nantes. It is becauſe of this ſociety, that the Spaniſh wool pays but a very ſmall duty at Nantes, and that in return the linen of Brittany is upon the ſame footing at Bilboa. Theſe two cities had even formerly ſhips in common, which traded for the profit of the partnerſhip; but this is now no longer practiſed. They have eſtabliſhed of late at Nantes a manufactory of cotton-linens, which ſucceeds as well as that which has been long ſince ſet up at Rouen, and may even exceed it in time, becauſe cotton and indigo are here much cheaper than at Rouen.

The famous edict in favour of the proteſtants, was made at Nantes by king Henry IV. in the year 1595, which was regiſtered in the parliament of Paris, and confirmed and ſworn by his ſucceſſors Louis XIII. and Louis XIV. notwithſtanding which the latter repealed it in the year 1685, and cruelly perſecuted his proteſtant ſubjects, as we have related in another place.

The city of St. Malo, or St. Malo's, in Latin Macloviûm, and Maclopolis, is ſmall, but populous, ſeated on a little rocky iſland, formerly called St. Aaron, in the Engliſh channel, is in forty-eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude; but is joined to the continent by a long mole, not above thirty fathoms broad, at the head of which is a ſtrong caſtle flanked with large towers. The harbour is ſpacious, and one of the beſt on the coaſt, but of difficult entrance, it being ſurrounded with ſeveral rocks, and at time of ebb left almoſt dry, ſo that it will not admit large veſſels, though it is very eaſy to build or refit ſuch ſhips as can enter it.

On the neighbouring rocks are ten different forts, and the town, which is ſurrounded with walls, and deep ditches, is always guarded by a ſufficient garriſon. As ſoon as the gates are ſhut, they let looſe upon the ramparts twelve or thirteen very fierce bull-dogs, which would infallibly tear in pieces any perſon that ventured to come near them, whence it is commonly ſaid that St. Malo is guarded by dogs, though theſe are only deſigned to prevent the garriſon from being ſurprized. This city is alſo ſecured towards the ſea by a ſhoal of ſand that encompaſſes it, and, beſides the rocks, by ſmall iſlands; ſo that the harbour is eſteemed one of the keys of France.

This city is very conſiderable, not only for its ſtrength, but alſo for its trade. The inhabitants, who are ſea-faring people, are famous for their ſkill in maritime affairs, on which account a great number of privateers are fitted out from hence in time of war, which very much diſturb the trade of the channel, and accordingly made many Engliſh captures during the reign of king William, which brought a bombardment upon the town, though it received but little damage. But in 1758, a ſelect body of above twenty thouſand Britiſh troops, under the command of the late duke of Marlborough, and a powerful ſquadron under commodore Howe, having landed at Cancalle bay between the ſixth and ſeventh of June, they burnt all the ſhips in the harbour, to the number of a hundred, great and ſmall; after which, finding the town impracticable, they re-embarked, and arrived ſoon after at Spithead, with little or no loſs. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours; his dioceſe conſiſts of one hundred and ſixty pariſhes; he is lord of the city, and his income amounts to thirty-five thouſand livres per annum, out of which he pays one thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral of St. Vincent is one of the moſt ancient in all France: ſeveral fine monaſteries, and other conſiderable public buildings, are alſo in this city.

Breſt, in Latin Breſcia, a famous ſea-port in the biſhopric of St. Pol de Leon, is ſituated on the north ſide of a large and commodious harbour, which opens to the ocean in the weſtern part of the continent of France, about fifty miles to the north-weſt of Belleiſle, in forty-eight degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in four degrees thirty minutes weſt longitude. It is a ſmall fortified city; the ſtreets are narrow, and it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle which ſtands on a rock, very ſteep towards the ſea; and likewiſe by a tower oppoſite to the caſtle, which guards the entrance into the port on that ſide. It is encompaſſed on the land-ſide with a broad ditch, and ſome other works. It has a ſpacious fine road and harbour, and the latter is ſurrounded with very good quays; upon which are built warehouſes filled with naval ſtores of all kinds. The harbour lies between the city and the ſuburb of Recouvrance, which is half as big as the city. The road is extremely ſpacious, and might contain five hundred men of war; but the entrance to it, on account of its narrowneſs, is exceeding difficult, and particularly from the blind rocks which lie under water at high tide.

This port is the moſt ſecure retreat for the French ſhips of war, and is the beſt poſſeſſed by that nation on this ſide of the Mediterranean; whence that city is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France, the other being at Toulon, in the Mediterranean; and therefore in this harbour the greateſt number of the French navy is fitted out. It is ſaid that naval ſtores and neceſſary proviſions for ſeventy ſail of men of war are conſtantly laid up at Breſt, and ſhips of eighty or ninety guns are built here, which renders the place rich and populous. There is always a ſtrong garriſon in the caſtle, commanded by ſtaff-officers. Louis XIV. cauſed an arſenal to be built here, and erected an academy for the marine. Here are a court of admiralty and bailiwic, with only two pariſh-churches, and a convent. The jeſuits had alſo a ſeminary here, before their expulſion from France.

The Engliſh, in 1694, made an attempt upon Breſt, but the deſign tranſpired, ſo that the avenues being defended by a numerous train of artillery, and an army ſuperior to that of the invaders, general Talmaſh, who commanded the Engliſh, was mortally wounded in making the deſcent, and the forces were obliged to retire with loſs from the place.

The iſland of Belleiſle is about ſix leagues from the coaſt of Brittany, in the forty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the third degree five minutes weſt longitude. The ancients called it Coloneſus, or the Beautiful iſland, which is the ſignification of its preſent name. It is about ſix leagues long, two broad, and confers the title of marquis. It is ſurrounded on all ſides with rocks, and has only three landing-places, Palais, Sauzon, and Goulſard; every one of which labours under ſome capital defect, either in being expoſed, ſhallow, or dangerous at the entrance. It contains only one little city, called Palais, three country towns, a hundred and three villages; and there are about five thouſand inhabitants in the iſland.

The capital town, Palais, takes its name from a caſtle in its neighbourhood belonging to the duke of Belleiſle, afterwards converted into a citadel. This fortification is ſtrong and regular; it fronts the ſea, and is compoſed principally of horn-works, and provided with two dry ditches, the one next the counterſcarp, and the other ſo contrived as to ſecure the interior fortifications. The citadel is divided from the largeſt part of the town by an inlet of the ſea, over which is a bridge of communication. In the year 1759 admiral Hawke, with a ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, off the ſouth coaſt of this iſland, burnt, ſunk, and deſtroyed moſt of the French fleet from Breſt under Conflans, who was himſelf either mortally wounded, or loſt in making his eſcape in his boat to ſhore. Two of the enemy's ſhips ſunk to the bottom with all the men, and the ſhattered remains of his fleet, to the number of ſeven ſail, ran up for ſhelter, after throwing their guns over-board, into the river Vilaine in Brittany, and there continued diſabled on account of the ſhallowneſs of the water. The Engliſh indeed loſt two of their men of war by too eager a purſuit of the enemy; but though they ran aground, all the crew were ſaved, and their loſs was inconſiderable in other reſpects.

This iſland was attacked in 1761, by an Engliſh fleet under the command of commodore Keppel, and the land forces under general Hodgſon. The Engliſh fleet after landing their troops and their cannon, which was accompliſhed with the greateſt difficulty, by dragging them up the rocks, laid ſiege to the city; and the garriſon, commanded by the chevalier de St. Croix, a brave and experienced officer, threatened a long and obſtinate defence. The enemy made ſome ſallies, which only animated the Engliſh troops by the difficulties with which they had to contend; but at length a furious attack being made upon the enemy's lines which covered the town, they were carried with no great loſs; this was principally owing to the uncommon intrepidity of a body of new-raiſed marines. No action of greater ſpirit and gallantry had been performed during the whole war. However, the garriſon held out till the ſeventh

of

of June, when they capitulated, and marched out with the honours of war. This iſland was reſtored to the French by the late peace, until which time it was kept by the Engliſh.

The government of Normandy, which derives its name from the antient Normans, is bounded on the eaſt by Picardy and the Iſle of France; on the ſouth, by Beauſſe, Perche, and Maine; on the weſt, by Brittany; and, on the north by the Britiſh channel: from north to ſouth, its extent is thirty leagues, and upwards of ſixty from eaſt to weſt.

This province is one of the moſt fruitful in the whole kingdom, and one of the moſt profitable to the king. It abounds in corn, flax, hemp, and vegetables for dying, but the little wine it produces is very indifferent. It, however, yields great quantities of apples and pears, of which the natives make cyder and perry for their uſual drink. It is alſo a fine country for cattle, it being full of excellent paſtures. The ſea ſupplies it with plenty of fiſh, and great quantities of ſalt are extracted from its waters. Here are ſome mineral waters. The many iron-works are of no ſmall advantage to the country, in which are alſo ſome mines of copper.

This province is watered by ſeveral rivers, the principal of which are, 1. The Lezon, which riſes here, and, being joined by the Orbiquet, is afterwards called the Tonques, and, becoming navigable, loſes itſelf in the channel. 2. The Carentone, which has alſo its ſource in this province, falls into the Rille. 3. The Orne, which riſes here, and, after receiving ſeveral ſmaller rivers, falls into the Britiſh channel. 4. The Eure. 5. The Andelle, which riſes in this province, and, falling into the Seine, is of great advantage in conveying to Paris wood for firing. 6. The Rille, or Riſle, which riſes here, and alſo falls into the Seine. 7. The Dive, which alſo riſes here, and, after receiving the Vic, becomes navigable, and diſcharges itſelf into the Britiſh channel.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this province, is is neceſſary to obſerve, that the antient dukes of it roſe to great power, both here, and in foreign countries; and William, in the year 1066, became king of England by conqueſt. In 1135 the male line of this king became extinct in the perſon of Henry I. and his daughter Matilda marrying Godfrey, count of Anjou, the fruit of this marriage was Henry II. king of England, duke of Normandy, lord of Guienne, Poitou, and Saintonge. He leaving three ſons, Richard, Godfrey, and John, the laſt of them ſeized on the dominions of both his brothers, and even cauſed Arthur, the ſon of Godfrey, to be taken off, for which he was deprived of moſt of his territories in France, and in 1203, Normandy was annexed to that crown. Henry III. of England ceded to Louis the Pious and his ſucceſſors all his claim to this province; which afterwards, to the end of the fourteenth century, ſome kings beſtowed on their eldeſt ſons, with the title of duke of Normandy, till that of Dauphiné was inſtituted. And at length the animoſities between the houſes of Orleans and Burgundy afforded the Engliſh an opportunity of conquering not only Normandy, but a great part of France. This province was ſubject to England about thirty years, till at laſt, during the minority of that unhappy prince Henry VI. the Engliſh were driven out by Charles VII.

Normandy is governed by its own law, which is called, "the wiſe," and on this account the country is ſtyled, Le Pais de la Sapience, or, The Land of Wiſdom. Rouen has a parliament, on which all the other courts of the province are dependant. With reſpect to its finances, it has three generalities, namely, at Rouen, Caen, and Alençon, from which the king is ſaid to have drawn twenty millions of livres, (eighty-ſeven thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling) a year. Hence the government of Normandy is one of the moſt conſiderable in the whole kingdom. Under the governor, are two lieutenants-general, one for Upper, and the other for Lower Normandy; and each of the ſeven great diſtricts, into which the country is divided, has a deputy-governor of its own. Under the archbiſhop of Rouen are the ſix biſhoprics of Normandy; and theſe ſeven dioceſes contain eighty abbies, and four thouſand two hundred and ninety-nine pariſhes.

The principal places in this province, beginning with Upper Normandy, are the following, viz. 1. Caudebec, in Latin Calidum Beccum, that is, the Hot Bec. This is a ſmall, but populous town, ſeated on the river Seine, into which, near this place, falls a rivulet which runs through the town, and gives name to it. It is cloſely built, and has walls flanked with towers, and ſurrounded with deep ditches. It has three ſuburbs; and the ſmall river Caudebec, being divided into ſeveral canals in the town, turns a conſideral number of mills, that are very ſerviceable to the tanners and leather dreſſers ſettled here. In this town is a ſalt and treaſury office, with a provincial, an admiralty, and a foreſt court. It contains two convents, one pariſh-church, and an hoſpital. This place is a conſiderable thoroughfare for ſuch as go from Rouen to Havre de Grace, and other parts of the country of Caux, of which it is the capital. Among other manufactures, the inhabitants make hats, which were formerly in great repute, on account of their not letting in the rain, but this branch of trade has greatly declined.

The ſea-port town of Dieppe is ſituated on the ſhore of the Britiſh channel, oppoſite to Brighthelmſtone in England, and is much reſorted to, particularly by veſſels from Scotland. It ſtands thirty miles to the north of Rouen, on a level ſpot, between two rocks, or mountains, and the mouth of the river Betune, called at this town the river of Arques, which, falling into the ſea, forms the harbour. It is fortified with bulwarks next the ſea, with a fortreſs at the ſuburb called Pollet, and a caſtle, which, together with the craggy rocks that lie on the ſouth, render it a place of conſiderable ſtrength, though its fortifications are very irregular. Its natural ſtrength induced Henry the Great to chuſe it for his head quarters, when oppoſed by the league, at his acceſſion to the throne.

This town is pretty large, and well-built: it has a good harbour, which is long, but narrow, and on this account difficult of acceſs. In time of war, it is generally a ſtation of privateers; but has not a ſufficient quantity of water for large ſhips. It is chiefly inhabited by ſeafaring men, who are eſteemed very expert in maritime affairs; alſo by mechanics, who make curious works in ivory; and likewiſe by merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade to foreign parts. The inhabitants were chiefly proteſtants, until the perſecution which enſued upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes. The pariſh-church of St. James is a very fine ſtructure; and has a tower, from which, in fine weather, the coaſt of England may be ſeen. It contains two ſuburbs, and has both a ſalt-office and a court of admiralty.

During the wars between England and France, this town was frequently taken and retaken. It was almoſt totally deſtroyed, in 1694, by bombs fired into it from the Engliſh fleet commanded by lord Berkely; and in the wars of Queen Anne it was alſo roughly treated, after which the court ſent thither an architect and engineer, who rebuilt it in a regular manner: this indeed gives the town an external air of beauty, but it is attended with very great inconvenience to the inhabitants. The chief trade of Dieppe conſiſts in herrings, with which they furniſh Paris and the province of Normandy: they alſo fiſh for whitings, mackarel, and oyſters, which they ſell in the neighbouring provinces: together with their ivory-works and laces made here. The ſea compaſſes made in this town were once much eſteemed; but its trade has of late years very much decreaſed.

The town of Rouen, the capital of Normandy, called by the antients Rothomagus, and afterwards Rothomum, is ſeated in a diſtrict called Le Vexin Normand, and is environed on three ſides by high hills covered with trees, and, on the fourth, is ſeated on the north bank of the Seine in forty-nine degrees thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in one degree ten minutes eaſt longitude. It is alſo watered by two little rivers called Aubette and Robec. The tide flows ſo high up the Seine, that veſſels of above two hundred tons burthen can come up hither, and load and unload at a large quay, which is built along the city. Its ſituation is ſo very commodious for trade, that Rouen is conſidered as the centre of the northern trade of France. It had formerly a ſtately ſtone bridge over the Seine, of thirteen arches, but it is now ruined; and there is another of boats of a very artificial ſtructure built near it, and extending two hundred and ſeventy paces in length; it riſes and falls with the tide, and is paved like the ſtreets. This bridge, however, coſts a great deal of money to keep it in repair; and they are obliged in winter to take it in pieces, leſt the ice ſhould damage or carry ſome part of it away. The city has no other fortifications than a wall, with round towers in the antique taſte, and irregular baſtions to defend the gates on the land-ſide, except an old caſtle which was begun in the year 1429, as ſoon as king Henry V. of England made himſelf maſter of Rouen, and was finiſhed in the reign of Henry VI. in 1443. It is an antique building of little ſtrength, flanked with five large round towers; it has a draw-bridge, the whole being encompaſſed with a wet ditch.

In this city there is no garriſon, though it has a particular

lar governor. It is, however, very populous, for it contains ſeven thouſand two hundred houſes, in which are ſixty thouſand perſons; but is not very ſpacious. The ſtreets in general are very cloſe and narrow, and the houſes moſtly of wood and plaiſter; it has, however, ſix large ſuburbs, in which are five pariſhes, and thirty in the city; it has alſo fifty convents, and four abbies; the jeſuits had alſo a college here. Its archbiſhop has ſix ſuffragans, and a province of thirteen hundred and eighty-eight pariſh-churches, beſides chapels, and his annual revenue amounts to eighty thouſand livres, (three thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling) out of which he pays twelve thouſand florins to the court of Rome. He ſtyles himſelf primate of Normandy, though he has no archbiſhop in his province ſuffragan to him; but for this title he has no ſuperior in France, and he depends immediately on the holy ſee.

The city is adorned with many ſtately piles of building, among which is the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, the choir of which is lined round with copper. It has three very lofty towers, particularly that of the pyramid, the ſpire of which is only made of wood, and covered with lead gilt. It has two hundred ſteps, and the whole edifice upwards of ſix hundred to the top. In this cathedral are to be ſeen the monuments of ſeveral kings, lords, and prelates; and likewiſe the monument of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our Henry VI. In the butter tower, as it is called, which is that juſt mentioned, is a great bell, ten feet in height, the ſame in diameter, and weighs thirty-ſix thouſand pounds. On the great gate is a triumphal arch in honour of king Henry the Great, with emblems of his conqueſt over the holy league. The body of the church is ſupported by twenty pillars; and, upon the whole, this church exceeds in beauty and regularity that of Notre Dame at Pars.

The other remarkable ſtructures are the church of St. Toin, a very lofty building, chiefly famous for its great bell; the convent of the Cordeliers; the church which lately belonged to the jeſuits; the church and the abbey of St. Owen; and the parliament-houſe; which are all beautiful ſtructures. The archbiſhop's palace is alſo a fine building, adorned with elegant paintings and pleaſant gardens. In the veal-market ſtands the image of the celebrated maid of Orleans, whom the Engliſh had the cruelty to burn as a witch, and is here repreſented kneeling before Charles VII. and in the new market is the ſtatue of Louis XV. erected in 1721; but the workmanſhip is very ordinary.

There is a very extenſive trade carried on in the city and diſtrict of Rouen, conſiſting of woollen and linen cloths, leather, hats, paper, and many other merchandizes. The woollen manufactories, which employ ſeveral thouſand workmen, are particularly advantageous to the whole province; but they are only ſo far profitable to the nation in general, as they prevent the money from being ſent abroad; but the linen manufactures of various ſorts exported to Spain are highly beneficial, and the returns generally made in the coin of that country.

This place has undergone various calamities and viciſſitudes of fortune: it has been almoſt entirely burnt thirteen or fourteen different times. In 841 it was taken by the Normans; the Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1418, and in 1449 it was ſurrendered to Charles VII. the French king. It was afterwards ſtormed and taken by the French proteſtants, and re-taken and plundered in 1562 under Charles IX. Anthony of Bourbon, king of Navarre, received a mortal wound before it; but his ſon Henry IV. took it in 1592. William I. king of England, commonly ſurnamed the Conqueror, died in this city.

The town of Caen, in Latin Cadomus, is ſituated in a diſtrict of the ſame name, thirty miles to the ſouth of Havre de Grace, ſixty-five to the weſt by ſouth of Rouen, and a hundred and twenty-five to the weſt of Paris. It ſtands in a valley between two large meadows, at the confluence of the rivers Orne and Odan, by the united ſtream of which it is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, that have a communication by means of the bridges of St. James and St. Peter, on the latter of which is erected a ſtately town-houſe, adorned with four large towers. The Upper town is defended by a caſtle built upon a rock and very well fortified, and the Lower is entirely ſurrounded with water. It is a place of good trade, veſſels of ſome burthen being able to come up from the ſea to St. James's bridge, and its inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to forty thouſand ſouls.

This is the ſecond town in Normandy, and contains an intendency, an admiralty, a provincial, and forelt-court, with a ſalt-office. It has twelve pariſh-churches, one collegiate church, two abbies, fourteen convents, with a houſe which till lately belonged to the jeſuits, and two hoſpitals. King Charles VII. founded an univerſity here about the year 1430, and likewiſe a mint. An academy of ſciences and belles letters was alſo eſtabliſhed in this city by Louis XIV. and in the royal ſquare, which is both ſpacious and regular, with fine houſes on three ſides of it, ſtands a marble equeſtrian ſtatue of that prince, ſurrounded with an iron baluſtrade. The principal trade of this town and its diſtrict conſiſts in fine linen and cloth.

The city of Bayeux, the capital of the country of Beſſin, is ſeated on the river Aure, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Caen, and contains an admiralty, a ſalt-office, a foreſt and diſtrict-court, &c. It has ſeventeen pariſh-churches, nine convents, two hoſpitals, and a college and ſeminary, which lately belonged to the jeſuits. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rouen, has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and fifteen pariſhes, with a revenue of ſixty thouſand livres, (two thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-five pounds ſterling) out of which he pays four thouſand four hundred and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a very ſtately ſtructure, beautified with a tower and two lofty ſpires. The city is divided into Upper and Lower, and manufactories of cloths, ſerges, and ſtockings, were ſet up here, which ſucceeded very well; but the high taxes impoſed on them, which the merchants were forced to pay, obliged them not only to abandon thoſe manufactories, but likewiſe the city itſelf.

The ſea-port town of Cherburg, in Latin Cæſaris Burgus, ſituated in the Engliſh channel oppoſite to Hampſhire, is fifty miles to the north-weſt of Caen, in a diſtrict called the Coutantin, and lies between Cape La Hogue and Barfleur. It contains an admiralty, a bailiwic, and a viſcounty-court: it has alſo one abbey, and a general hoſpital. Here they formerly made very fine glaſs, which, for clearneſs and beauty, even excelled that of Venice; but, for certain political reaſons, the work has been removed to Auxerre, in Burgundy. It was a very ſtrong place, from the fortifications that have been lately erected there, before they were deſtroyed, together with the famous baſon, by the Engliſh in the year 1758. The port is ſmall but pretty good, for veſſels of three hundred tons can come into it, and ſome merchant ſhips are built here. Off this place the confederate fleet under admiral Ruſſel obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French, commanded by M. de Tourville, in 1692, and afterwards burnt, took, or ſunk about fifteen of their ſhips of war, near Cape La Hogue; among which was the Soleil Royal, or the Royal Sun, the French admiral's ſhip. In the laſt war with France, in the reign of George II. the Britiſh forces, under the command of the late duke of Marlborough and lord George Sackville, landed here and took the town without the leaſt oppoſition in Auguſt 1758, together with the ſhips in the baſon; demoliſhed the fortifications, and ruined the other works, particularly the baſon and harbour, with the ſluice and all the forts, carrying away to England twenty-one pieces of braſs cannon and two mortars.

The town of Havre-de-Grace is ſituated at the mouth of the river Seine, forty-miles to the weſt of Rouen; it was built by Francis I. who alſo called it, after his own name, Ville François; whence it has been alſo called Franciſcopolis; but this name is now ſuperſeded by the other. This is the capital and ſeat of its little government, and contains a naval intendant, a viſcounty, an admiralty, a royal court of juſtice, and a ſalt office; with one pariſh-church, one ſeminary, and two convents. It has a good harbour between the town and citadel, which is ſmall but regularly fortified, and an arſenal. It is a pleaſant well-built town, and a place of good trade, many merchants reſiding here.

In the reign of Charles IX. this town was ſeized by the proteſtants, who in 1562 delivered it to queen Elizabeth, in conſideration of the aſſiſtance that princeſs had given them; but the following year it was vigorouſly beſieged by the French, and with equal courage defended by the Engliſh, under the earl of Warwick; but a peſtilence, which raged in the town, forced them to ſurrender in July, 1563. Afterwards, in 1694, the Engliſh deſtroyed this city by a bombardment.

The ſea-port town of Barfleur is ſituated forty miles to the north-weſt of Rouen, and about five to the weſt of Havre-de-Grace: it ſtands between two hills, the one on the eaſt, and the other on the weſt. It contains an admiralty-court, and a ſalt-office: it is the ſeat of a royal juſtice, and contains a ſmall magazine; but has only one pariſh-church and one convent. This place was twice taken by the Engliſh, viz. in the years 1415 and 1440.

It was formerly a conſiderable port; but that of Havre being found more convenient, it has been neglected, and is now only capable of receiving ſmall veſſels.

SECT. IX.

Containing a geographical Deſcription of FRENCH FLANDERS, together with the County of ARTOIS, and the Town thereunto belonging, their Situation and Boundaries, Hiſtory, Trade, Manufactures, Inhabitants, &c.

LOUIS XIV. having, in 1667, over-run French Flanders, then a part of the earldom of Flanders, it obtained its name from thence. This country alſo includes the Cambreſis, the county of Hainault, and a ſmall part of the earldom of Namur; and is bounded, on the north, by the Seine and German ocean; on the ſouth, by Artois; on the weſt, by the German ocean; and, on the eaſt, by the Auſtrian Netherlands. Its paſtures are excellent, and conſequently produce fine cattle; but for want of wood, or coal, the inhabitants are obliged to make uſe of turf for their fuel: it abounds alſo in corn and vegetables of all kinds, as alſo in flax.

In French Flanders are the following conſiderable places, viz. 1. Gravelines, or Gravelingen, a ſmall but ſtrong town ſeated near the mouth of the Aa, or the Engliſh channel, fifteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Dunkirk, and, beſides its other fortifications, is defended on the land-ſide by a good citadel, and to the ſea by a fort. It was taken and burnt by the Engliſh in the year 1383, but afterwards rebuilt to better advantage, and walled round. In 1528 it was fortified by the emperor Charles V. but in 1644 it was taken by the French, and in 1652 by the archduke Leopold. In 1658 it was again taken by the French, and was at laſt yielded to them by the treaty of the Pyrenees; but in 1694 the Engliſh fleet laid it entirely in aſhes; but it was rebuilt, and its fortifications have ſince been greatly improved by marſhal de Vauban, ſo that it is now a place of ſtrength.

The town of L'Iſle, Liſle, or Ryſſel, the capital of French Flanders, and of all the French conqueſts in the Netherlands, is ſituated on the Deule, thirty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Dunkirk. It is beautifully built, and is large, handſome, and populous; it is the reſidence of the governor-general; and has an intendency, a mint, a caſtellany, a bailiwic, and foreſt-court. It has a collegiate church, and about thirty other churches, ſeven of which are parochial, a great number of convents, and a noble hoſpital called L'hoſpital Comteſſe. Several of the buildings are very fine, particularly the exchange, which is a ſquare ſtructure, ſurrounded with piazzas.

This city is ſtrongly fortified, which the Engliſh and their allies experienced in the reign of queen Anne, when prince Eugene, after the battle of Oudenarde, ſat down before it in 1708 for near three months, and though he at laſt took it, it was with the loſs of a great number of men; but it was reſtored to the French by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Both the ancient and new fortifications are very numerous and conſiderable, they having been greatly improved by marſhal de Vauban. The citadel, which was the firſt built by that great engineer, is a pentagon, compoſed of five regular baſtions, defended by ſeveral works, and ſurrounded with a deep ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. To the fortreſs are two gates, one towards the city, and the other towards the country. The eſplanade, or ſpace between the city and citadel, is planted with four rows of trees, which form very pleaſant walks.

The general governor of French Flanders is alſo governor of this city, in whoſe abſence his place is ſupplied by the king's lieutenant. The citadel has alſo a governor, and a lieutenant of the king. The governor preſides at the meeting of the ſtates, which is commonly held about the cloſe of the year. The other members of this aſſembly are the magiſtrates of L'Iſle, who have always the firſt rank, the lords who have ſovereign juriſdiction, and the deputies from Douay and Orchis. The ſum demanded by the king from the ſtates generally amounts to two hundred and fifty thouſand livres, (ten thouſand nine hundred and thirty-eight pounds ſterling) which is always granted and raiſed from the twentieth part of the revenue of eſtates, and from duties on taxes. Beſides which the city of L'Iſle annually pays thirty-ſeven thouſand five hundred livres, (one thouſand ſix hundred and forty-one pounds ſterling) towards the repairs of the fortifications. The clergy and nobility pay no ſubſidy, and do not aſſiſt at the meeting of the ſtates; but three or four days after they break up, theſe are called together by the governor, &c. and a ſum demanded in the king's name; and then theſe two bodies commonly grant a twentieth part and a half of the income of their eſtates. The body of the magiſtracy of L'Iſle and its diſtrict is compoſed of a mayor, ſtyled revart, and twelve echevins, all of whom are annually changed. There are here conſiderable manufactories of ſilk, cambric, fine linen, and other ſtuffs; and their camblets are highly eſteemed. The trade of L'Iſle through France by land-carriage, or by the way of Dunkirk, is pretty conſiderable. The moſt profitable commerce is that to Spain and the Weſt Indies, either by commiſſion, or on their own account.

The city of Douay is pretty large and well fortified; it ſtands on the river Scarpe, twelve miles to the eaſt of Arras, and is of an oval form, larger than L'Iſle, but leſs populous by one-third. It is defended by fort Scarpe, which ſtands about a mile below the city, and the whole country may be laid under water by means of ſluices. Here is an univerſity founded in the year 1559, one collegiate church, and ſeven that are parochial, with a famous Engliſh ſeminary. The principal trade of this city conſiſts in the making and ſelling of worſted camblets, which are bought up by all the neighbouring people, eſpecially at the annual fair kept here in September. The magiſtracy conſiſts of twelve echevins, the firſt of whom is ſtyled the chief. In 1710 the confederates made themſelves maſters of the city; but in the year 1712 they loſt it again.

The territory, called the Cambreſis, is about ten leagues in length, and from five to ſix broad, though in ſome places not above two or three. It is fruitful and well inhabited.

The city of Cambray, in Latin Cameracum, and Camaracum, the capital of the Cambreſis, is ſituated on the Scheld, fifteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Douay, and is a pretty large well-fortified city, defended by a citadel and fort. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and beſides its cathedral, contains two chapters, ten pariſh churches, two abbies, and two hoſpitals. The archbiſhop ſtyles himſelf prince of the holy Roman empire, as indeed he formerly was, and count of Cambreſis. He is, however, lord of the city. His dioceſe conſiſts of eight hundred pariſhes, and his revenue is a hundred thouſand livres, (four thouſand three hundred and ſeventy-five pounds ſterling) out of which he is annually obliged to pay ſix thouſand florins to the court of Rome. This city has been ſubject to France ever ſince the year 1667: it is famous for its Cambric, which took its name from it.

The town of Chateau-Cambreſis, capital of the earldom of Cambreſis, lies thirteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Cambray, and was once fortified; but at preſent lies open, and contains one abbey. The archbiſhop, who has here a very magnificent palace, and fine gardens, is lord of this place. In the year 1559 the famous treaty of Chateau-Cambreſis was concluded here, between Henry II. king of France, and Philip II. king of Spain, by which the French gave one hundred and ninety-eight towns for Ham, Le Catelet, and St. Quintin.

Hainault is a part of the earldom of Henegau, and its principal city is the following; viz. Valenciennes, a large and populous city, ſeventeen miles to the north-eaſt of Cambray, is ſeated on the river Scheld, which not only divides it into two parts, but almoſt runs round it. The fortifications are after the manner of Vauban; it has a good citadel on the Scheld, and very fine ſluices. That part on the right of that river belongs to the dioceſe of Cambray, and has one collegiate church, and one abbey; the other ſide belongs to the dioceſe of Arras. This city was taken by the French in 1677. The inhabitants have manufactories of woollen ſtuff, and very fine linen.

In the government of Dunkirk there is only the town of the ſame name, and ſome neighbouring villages.

The town of Dunkirk, called by the French Dunquerque, is ſeated on the Colne, which here falls into the Britiſh channel, in fifty-one degrees two minutes north latitude, and in two degrees twenty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude; twenty-ſix miles to the eaſt of Calais. It derives its name from a church built there on the Duns, or ſand banks, erected, as it is ſaid, by St. Eloi, who firſt preached Chriſtianity among the Flemings. Some houſes were gradually built near it, ſo as to form a little town, which Baldwin, earl of Flanders, in the tenth century, encompaſſed with a wall; and it enjoying a harbour commodious for trade, the inhabitants engaged in commerce, by which it grew large and wealthy, and had even ſome ſhips of war; ſo that in the twelfth century the inhabitants fitted out a ſmall fleet againſt the Norman pirates, and performed ſuch

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eminent ſervices, that Philip, earl of Flanders, conferred ſome conſiderable privileges on the town.

In the thirteenth century, this town was ſold to the biſhop of Cambray, who enlarged the ſame, and improved the harbour. It was afterwards in the poſſeſſion of ſeveral different families, and in 1538 the emperor Charles V. erected a caſtle here; but in 1551 it was taken and deſtroyed by the French. It was afterwards poſſeſſed by Spain, and though the town recovered itſelf again, the inhabitants had a great ſhare in the diſturbances which aroſe in the Netherlands. In 1646 and 1658 it was taken by the French, and in the laſt mentioned year ceded to the Engliſh, for aſſiſting France againſt Spain. In 1662 Charles II. king of England, ſold the town to France for five millions of livres, (one hundred and ſixty-eight thouſand, ſeven hundred and fifty pounds ſterling) by which means Louis XIV. alſo acquired Mardyke, and the other villages which had been built round Dunkirk by the Engliſh.

After this, the French king ordered the city to be well fortified, erected a fine citadel, and built fort Louis, which ſtands to the ſouth on the canal of Bergen, about a mile and a half from the town. The harbour was alſo put into a moſt excellent condition, two moles of piers forming a canal in the ſea one thouſand fathoms in length, and about forty in breadth, and at each end of the moles were erected two batteries. Beſides theſe, on each ſide of the dyke, was a fort, together with the battery of Revers; the caſtle of Gaillard on the eaſt, and a little farther Fort Blanc. Between all theſe forts ſhips were able to paſs in their way to the harbour, and there was alſo a large baſon contiguous to it.

In 1706, this city enjoyed a flouriſhing trade, and contained one thouſand ſix hundred and thirty-nine houſes, in which were fourteen thouſand two hundred and ſeventy four inhabitants. The Engliſh, for the ſecurity of their commerce, which had ſuffered immenſe damage from the privateers of Dunkirk, compelled France to promiſe at the peace of Utrecht to deſtroy the fortifications, to fill up the harbour, to demoliſh the dams and ſluices, and never to repair them. This was actually begun; but it was found, or at leaſt pretended, that by filling up the harbour, the country round, for about ten French leagues, would be in danger of being overflowed. To remedy this inconvenience, ſeveral fruitleſs negociations paſſed between France and England, and in the mean while a new canal was made at Mardyke.

By a treaty concluded at the Hague between France, England, and Holland, in 1717, it was agreed, that the large entrance of the new ſluice at Mardyke, which was forty-four feet broad, ſhould be entirely demoliſhed; and that no harbour, ſluice, or baſon, ſhould ever be made either at Dunkirk or Mardyke, or within two French leagues round: and that the demolition of the works of Dunkirk ſhould be entirely compleated; but France making no great haſte in this work, it was, in 1748, made an article of the peace at Aix la Chapelle. After which France, inſtead of fulfilling theſe engagements, began ſome new works, which gave freſh umbrage to the court of England, who received certain intelligence that the city was again fortified on the land ſide, the baſon widened, and rendered as commodious for the reception of ſhips as ever the harbour had been. The French court replied, that theſe works had no other view than to free the inhabitants from the exhalations of the ſtagnating water, a pretence as falſe as it was ridiculous, ſince the French made the greateſt advantage of this place during the war in the reign of Louis XV. but at the concluſion of it, again agreed to demoliſh the works, and fill up the bar, which was the more neceſſary to be inſiſted upon, as the French have no other harbour in the channel, but that of St. Maloes, which is only capable of receiving ſhips of between thirty and forty guns.

By the late treaty, concluded in 1783, the French are permitted to fortify the harbour of Dunkirk, from which the merchants apprehend the moſt dreadful conſequences; as the next time we are at war with the French, they will be able to ſend, in a few hours, from that port, ten ſail of the line, which can ſweep the Downs, by capturing the whole fleet, which often conſiſts of two hundred ſail, and upwards, of merchantmen, with three or four men of war: the ſhips ſo taken can eaſily be conveyed in a few hours to Dunkirk, before any fleet at Portſmouth can hear of it, and the fortifications will prevent any fleet from retaking them.

The village of Mardyke is about four miles to the eaſt of Dunkirk, and was formerly conſiderable only on account of its fort, built on the ſea-ſhore, which has often been beſieged and taken, and was at laſt demoliſhed. Mardyke at length became celebrated for its noble canal, which Louis XIV. cauſed to be formed under the direction of Le Blanc, it being three thouſand three hundred and thirty-eight fathoms and two feet in length. It began at the canal of Bergen, near Dunkirk, and extending, with the breadth of between twenty-five and thirty fathoms, no leſs than one thouſand five hundred fathoms in length from eaſt to weſt; then winding from north to ſouth, three hundred fathoms farther it had an incomparable ſluice with two baſons, one of which was forty-four feet broad, it being contrived for the reception of large veſſels; the other twenty-ſix in breadth, and intended for thoſe that were ſmall.

Artois, which forms a part of the Netherlands, is bounded, on the north, by Flanders; on the eaſt, by Hainault; and on the ſouth and weſt, by Picardy. This county is twenty-ſix French leagues in length, and about half as much in breadth. It is one of the beſt and fineſt provinces in the whole kingdom, and, beſides its great fertility, has in it ſeveral linen manufactories, and carries on a conſiderable trade in flax, hops, wool, and oil of turnip-ſeed. The Scarpe, the Aa, and the Canche, are its principal rivers.

The county of Artois, together with Picardy, are ſubject to one governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors; one for Arras and Bipauma, and the other for Air and St. Omer's. Here is a provincial council, which, in civil affairs, is ſubordinate to the parliament of Paris. The raiſing of the royal revenues is here adminiſtered by the conſent of the ſtates, which conſiſt of the clergy, a great number of abbots, and the deputies from every chapter: beſides theſe, there are the nobility, who amount to about ſeventy perſons; and the commoners, who conſiſt of the council of Arras, and the deputies of the magiſtracy of the eight principal towns of the country. No cuſtoms are paid here; the free gift required is in ſome meaſure ſettled at four hundred thouſand livres, (ſeventeen thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling) but as the number of cavalry in the country is not always alike, the charges of forage vary accordingly.

The following are the moſt conſiderable places in this province: viz. 1. Arras, the Origiacum of Ptolemy, and the Atrebatæ of Cæſar: it it ſituated in a diſtrict of the ſame name, and ſtands on the Scarpe, twelve miles to the ſouth-weſt of Douay. This is a very ancient and large place, divided into two parts, the one called the city, and the other the town, which is the more modern of the two; each of theſe is ſurrounded with old walls, which have round towers, built after the ancient manner, and a gate, over which was an inſcription in French, "That when the French ſhall take Arras, the mice ſhall eat the cats;" but the event ſhewed that it was not impoſſible, for in 1640, it was taken by the French.

The celebrated Vauban repaired the old walls, to which he added ſeveral baſtions, and a great number of new works in the ditch, which is large and very deep; particularly lunettes, built after Vauban's manner, and the firſt works of that kind which that excellent engineer performed. The ditch is ſurrounded with a covert-way, and a glacis as uſual, beyond which are ſeveral redoubts of a pentagonal figure, placed in the re-entering angles, and each has its particular ditch, covert-way, and glacis. The citadel is ſomewhat higher, towards the country; it is not very large, but is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt in the kingdom: it being an oblong pentagon, compoſed of five baſtions, as many half-moons, four tenailles, placed in the curtains, and a fauſſe braye, which covers the front on the city ſide. All theſe works are ſurrounded with a ditch, with which the Scarpe, or at leaſt a canal drawn from that river, communicates.

There are ſeveral handſome broad ſtreets, and it is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make ſail-cloth and tapeſtry, eſpecially the latter, which was invented here, and therefore that manufacture obtained the name of Arras: this is, indeed, very beautiful, though inferior to the tapeſtry made at Paris, Bruſſels, and Antwerp. The large market-place here is ſurrounded with fine buildings, among which is the governor's houſe. There are eleven pariſh-churches, ſeveral convents, one ſeminary, and there was lately a college of jeſuits. The cathedral, which is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a fine ſtructure, in which are preſerved ſome famous relics. The abbey of St. Vaſt has a magnificent church belonging to it; and among the chapels here, is one called the chapel of the Holy Candle, in which was kept a candle, which it is pretended was given by the bleſſed Virgin to the inhabitants, to cure them of an inward heat, which burnt and conſumed them. The biſhop, who is lord of the city, and preſident in the aſſembly of the ſtates, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cambray, and has a dioceſe of four hundred pariſhes, with

with a revenue of twenty-two thouſand livres a year, (nine hundred and ſixty-three pounds ſterling), and is taxed at the court of Rome four thouſand florins.

The ſtrong city of Aire, in Latin Aeria, and Aria, is ſituated on the river Lys, near the confines of Flanders, and is about ten miles to the ſouth-eaſt of St. Omer's. This is a well-fortified place, having, beſides the walls, baſtions, half-moons, horn-works, redoubts, counter-ſcarps, and ditches, with a moraſs, which encompaſſes it on three ſides. On that ſide which is acceſſible, at the diſtance of a cannon-ſhot from the city, and the river Lys, ſtands fort St. Francis, to which you go from the city by a regular canal. This fort is a ſmall, but regular pentagon, compoſed of five baſtions, encompaſſed by a ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. The Lys divides the city into two unequal parts, which contain a collegiate church, with ſeveral convens, and had till lately a college of jeſuits, with two hoſpitals, one of which is inſtituted for ſoldiers. But, notwithſtanding the ſtrength of this place, the French took it in 1641, and ſoon after it was retaken by the Spaniards. In 1676, it was again taken by the French, and was confirmed to them at the peace of Nimeguen. In November 1710, it ſurrendered to the allies, after a very vigorous ſiege, and the trenches had been open for ſix weeks; but it was reſtored again to the French, by the treaty of Utrecht.

The ruins of the once conſiderable city of Terouenne are between Aire and St. Omer's. This city formerly ſtood on the river Lys, and was famous on account of its being inveſted by Henry VIII. king of England, in perſon, in the year 1503, aſſiſted by the emperor Maximilian, who on this occaſion wore a St. George's croſs. At this ſiege the French, attempting to throw proviſions into the town, were defeated by the Engliſh, with great ſlaughter, and from the hurry with which they fled, this was called the Battle of the Spurs, intimating that theſe were the principal weapons they made uſe of to eſcape in ſafety. A fortnight after this battle, the city was taken, but diſmantled and quitted. The French afterwards repaired it, but the emperor Charles V. taking it in 1553, levelled it with the ground, and it has never been rebuilt ſince that time.

The city of St. Omer, capital of a bailiwic, is called in Latin Andomaropolis, and was formerly called Sithin. It is a conſiderable city, ſeated on the Aa, eight miles north-weſt of Aire, partly on an eminence, and partly on a moraſs, and is one of the beſt fortifications in the Netherlands: it being defended not only by a caſtle, but by large baſtions, between which are half-moons ſurrounded with large ditches, which are indeed too high to have any water in them; but are ſo deep, that it would be very difficult to mount from them to the walls of the ramparts. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cambray, who has a revenue of forty thouſand livres, (one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty pounds ſterling) and is taxed one thouſand florins to the ſee of Rome.

There are ſeveral fine ſtreets, a large ſquare, and many handſome houſes in this city, and among the latter is the town-houſe. The cathedral dedicated to St. Omer, is a noble ſtructure, chiefly remarkable for its chapels, which are embelliſhed with fine marble and beautiful paintings. Beſides the cathedral, are ſix pariſh-churches, and a very rich abbey of the order of Benedictines. On each ſide of the portico belonging to it ſtands a large ſquare ſteeple of great height, where a conſtant watch is kept, to give notice whether there be an enemy in the neighbourhood of the city, the gates of which are never opened till it be day-light, and the watch has given notice, by a ſignal, that he has diſcovered no danger.

In this city are ſeveral convents and nunneries, two hoſpitals for maidens, a general hoſpital for the ſick, an orphan-houſe for poor boys, another for girls, and a houſe for twelve poor old men, in memory of the twelve apoſtles, beſides ſeveral other foundations, particularly one for annually giving a ſum of money to poor girls in marriage. Here is alſo an Engliſh ſeminary. The city is populous, and has ſome trade, a number of ſmall veſſels coming up here from the ſea by means of the river Aa. The government of St. Omer's is under a mayor, who is annually changed, and twelve echevins; and there are above an hundred villages under its juriſdiction.

Several floating iſlands are ſeen to the north-eaſt of St. Omer's: they move backwards and forwards, according to whatever motion is imparted to them. Upon theſe iſlands are ſeen graſs always growing, and the people draw them with ropes to the ſhore in order to drive their cattle into them: they have alſo ſome trees growing here, but theſe they keep very low, for fear the wind ſhould have too much hold of them, and drive the iſlands with too much impetuoſity.

SECT. X.

Deſcribing the ancient and modern Hiſtory of FRANCE; giving an Account of their Monarchs, from the earlieſt Times to the preſent Reign; the King's Titles, his Succeſſion to the Throne, Arms, Coronation, Enſigns of Royalty, &c. the ſeveral Orders of Nobility, and Knighthood; Parliaments, great Officers, great Councils of State and Courts of Juſtice; Laws, Taxes, Land Forces, and Navy of this Kingdom.

THE Celtæ were the moſt antient inhabitants of France: the Romans firſt conferred on them the name of Gauls, and Julius Cæſar reduced the country into a Roman province, calling it Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, or Gaul on the Italian ſide of the Alps.

In the fifth century, the Burgundians, Viſigoths, and Bretons, ſettled in ſeveral parts of Gaul. Theſe were followed by the Franks from Germany, who under Merovic and Childeric conquered a part of Gaul, and under Clovis extended their dominions from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire: for king Clovis, who began his reign in 468, quelled the Burgundians, Viſigoths, and inhabitants of Brittany, and became the firſt Chriſtian monarch of the Franks, whoſe kingdom was then divided into Auſtraria, on the eaſt part; and Neuſtria, on the weſt; and the four ſons of Clovis, on the deceaſe of their father, divided his kingdom among them.

The Franks, when they had conquered the lands of Gaul, diſtributed them among their officers; and theſe, with the clergy, formed the firſt great councils or parliaments. Thus the government appears to have been a mixed monarchy, in which nothing of moment was tranſacted without the grand council of the nation, conſiſting of the principal officers, who held their lands by military tenures; while the conquered Gauls, who manured the lands for the Franks, were reduced to a ſtate of ſervitude.

The government of France continued under this conſtitution until Charles Martel, in 732, uſurped the ſovereignty. This nobleman was marſhal of France, or mayor of the palace, and had long exerciſed the ſovereign power in the name of Childeric, a weak and indolent prince. The Saracens, who had made themſelves maſters of the ſouth of France, penetrating into the heart of the kingdom, he entirely defeated them, and driving them out, was conſidered as the deliverer of Chriſtendom: he there became ſo popular, that with the conſent of the people, and even of the pope, he aſſumed the dominion of France; and having a victorious army at his command, not only depoſed the king, but deprived the nobility and clergy of their ſhare in the government, and thereby rendered himſelf an abſolute prince.

Pepin, the ſon of Charles, ſucceeded his father in the throne, but reſtored the privileges of the noblity and clergy, on their agreeing to exclude the former race of kings. He alſo divided the province among his principal nobility, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments; till at length, aſſuming a kind of independency, they only acknowledged the king as their head: and this gave riſe to the numerous principalities, and their ſeveral parliaments, every province retaining the ſame form of government that had been exerciſed in the whole; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, unleſs the nobility and gentry gave their aſſent and concurrence thereto.

Their next monarch was Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, the ſon of Pepin: he conquered Italy, Germany, and part of Spain, and was crowned emperor of the Romans by pope Leo, in the year 800, and from him ſprang the race of kings called the Carlovingian line. About eighty years after the death of Charlemagne, the empire was ſeparated from France, and the Normans greatly diſtreſſed that country by their invaſions.

The race of kings of the Carlovingian line continued ſovereigns of France till the reign of Louis V. when, in 987, Hugh Capet, a popular nobleman, began the Capetine line of monarchs. Cruſadoes, or expeditions to the Holy Land, for the recovery of Jeruſalem from the Saracens, being preached up by order of the pope, the princes of every kingdom in Europe engaged in thoſe falſely called holy wars, in which Chriſtianity was to be propagated by fire and ſword, and in which ſeveral hundred thouſand deluded zealots periſhed: but though they at length took Antioch,

Antioch, Jeruſalem, and other ſtrong places, they loſt them all again within two hundred years. In one of theſe wild expeditions, Louis IX. with moſt of the nobility, were taken priſoners in Egypt, and an immenſe ſum was paid for their ranſoms.

The kingdom of Navarre was added, in 1285, to the crown of France, by the marriage of Philip IV. with Jane queen of Navarre. During this reign, the conſtitution of the government received a conſiderable alteration; for the nobility and clergy refuſing to grant the king the ſupplies he demanded, he ſummoned the deputies or repreſentatives of the commons to parliament, and conſtituted them a third ſtate, on their granting him his demands.

Hubert, count dauphin of Vienne, transferred his dominions to the crown of France in 1349, on condition that the king's eldeſt ſon ſhould be ſtyled dauphin ever afterwards, which has accordingly continued to this day.

A claim being laid to the crown of France by Edward III. king of England, on account of his being deſcended in a direct line from Philip IV. that prince invaded the kingdom; and in 1346 obtained a complete victory at Creſſy in Picardy, and the next year took Calais. In 1356 the French were again defeated at Poictiers, by the eldeſt ſon of Edward III. ſtyled Edward the Black Prince, who brought priſoners to England John king of France, and his ſon Philip.

The French king Charles VI. being ſeized with a kind of frenſy, and becoming unfit to govern, the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans contended for the adminiſtration; and the quarrel grew to that height, that the duke of Burgundy cauſed the duke of Orleans to be aſſaſſinated in the ſtreets of Paris, which laid the foundation for a civil war. About the ſame time Henry V. king of England, invading France, obtained a victory at Agincourt, in 1415. The French now propoſed a reconciliation between the duke of Burgundy and the Orleans family; and a conference was held between the young duke of Orleans and the duke of Burgundy, to accommodate matters; but at a ſecond conference, the dauphin and the duke of Orleans cauſed the duke of Burgundy to be murdered. Hereupon the queen and the young duke of Burgundy joined the Engliſh, with whoſe aſſiſtance king Henry made an almoſt entire conqueſt of France; and a parliament being held at Paris, the king of England was made regent of France during the life of the French king Charles VI. declared ſucceſſor to that crown, and at the ſame time married the princeſs Catherine, the French king's daughter. King Henry dying, and leaving an infant ſon, that infant was crowned king of France at Paris in 1431; but Charles the dauphin, alſo cauſing himſelf to be proclaimed king, recovered all the countries which the Engliſh had taken.

Charles VIII. the laſt of the firſt line of the houſe of Valois, dying in the year 1498, the crown deſcended to Louis XII. duke of Orleans. Three of his ſons ſucceeded him in order. Under the firſt, namely, Francis II. the religious diſputes began to break out in France; the proteſtants were perſecuted; and under Charles IX. theſe diſputes occaſioned two civil wars; after the concluſion of which, on the eighteenth of Auguſt, 1572, was perpetrated the barbarous maſſacre of Paris, which left an indelible ſtain on the hiſtory of France. Afterwards king Henry III. being thought to favour the proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Clements, a monk. His legal ſucceſſor was Henry IV. king of Navarre, the firſt of the houſe of Bourbon that ſat on the throne of France: but he being a proteſtant, was obſtinately oppoſed by the popiſh party; and though he changed his religion in order to pleaſe his ſubjects, yet having paſſed an edict of Nantes, for the toleration of the proteſtants, he was aſſaſſinated in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravaillac, a monk.

After the death of Henry, which happened in 1610, Louis XIII. a minor of nine years of age, ſucceeding to the throne, Mary of Medicis, his mother, was declared regent. She continued to invade the liberties of the ſubjects, and to revive the perſecution againſt the proteſtants, which occaſioned another civil war. Cardinal Richlieu, being about this time introduced into the miniſtry, entirely ſubdued the Parliament of Paris, and put a final period to the liberties of the people.

On the death of Louis XIII. and that of cardinal Richlieu, which happened about the ſame time, his ſon Louis XIV. ſucceeded to the throne, and in his long reign carried the power of France to its greateſt height. To his kingdom he added the provinces of Alſace and Rouſſillon, with a conſiderable part of the Netherlands, Franche Comté, or the earldom of Burgundy, and the other principal city of Orange. He alſo enlarged his dominions in America and Aſia, and placed his grandſon Philip of Anjou on the throne of Spain, while navigation and manufactures were improved throughout the kingdom. But the bravery and ſkill of the great duke of Marlborough ſet bounds to his conqueſts, which had been carried on with the utmoſt cruelty; and particularly on his invading the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1689, he burnt and deſtroyed all the fine towns in that country. He alſo repealed the edict of Nantes, and began a ſevere perſecution againſt the Proteſtants, who fled into England and other countries, where they ſet up ſilk manufactories, &c.

Louis XV. the late king, ſucceeded his grandfather Louis XIV. on the firſt of September, 1715, and was crowned at Rheims on the twenty-fifth of October, 1722. Louis XVI. the preſent king of France and Navarre, was born in 1754, ſucceeded his grandfather Louis XV. in 1774, and married in 1770, to Maria Antonietta, ſiſter of the emperor of Germany, born in 1755. The dauphin, the iſſue of this marriage, was born October 29, 1781, and named Louis Xavier Benedict.

The king of France's title is, Louis XVI. by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre. The title of ſire, or lord, is given him by his ſubjects, as a mark of his unlimited power; and foreigners ſtyle him the moſt Chriſtian king, or his moſt Chriſtian majeſty; but the king's ſubjects are not to make uſe of it.

The French writers affirm, that their king never dies, but as ſoon as his eyes are cloſed, the next prince of the blood ſucceeds to the throne, and is inſtantly inveſted with the ſupreme authority; but where the king is a minor, that is, before he has entered the fourteenth year of his age, the adminiſtration of government is entruſted to a regent, uſually the queen-mother, or a prince of the blood, according to the determination of the parliament at Paris, in which the reſt of the kingdom generally acquieſce. But that is ſeldom diſputed, if the deceaſed king has appointed a regent by his will.

A new king, on entering into his fourteenth year, goes in great ſtate to the parliament of Paris, attended by the princes of the blood, the peers, and general officers of ſtate. This aſſembly is generally called the bed of juſtice, and here he is declared to be of age; yet the regent frequently procures himſelf to be conſtituted prime miniſter, and under that title ſtill continues to govern the kingdom till his majeſty thinks fit to aſſume the reins of government.

The French arms are three flours de lys, or, in a field azure, ſupported by two angels, in the habit of Levites, each holding in his hand a banner with the ſame arms: the creſt is an open crown: the whole under a grand azure pavilion ſtrewed with fleurs de lys, or, and ermine, and over it a cloſe ground with a double fleur de lys, or, on the ſides of which are flying ſtreamers, on which are written the words uſed in battle, MON JOIE S. DENNIS, and above them on the royal banner or oriflame, LILIA NON LABORANT NEQUE NENT; that is, lilies neither toil nor ſpin; which is ſuppoſed to be an alluſion to the ſalique law, that excludes females from the ſovereign power.

In France, the nobility are divided into four claſſes: the firſt includes only the princes of the blood, conſiſting of the houſe of Orleans, and the two branches of the family of Bourbon, thoſe of Condé and Conti. Next to theſe immediately follow the king's natural children who have been legitimated, and theſe precede all the nobility of the kingdom.

To the ſecond claſs belong the high nobility, as the dukes and peers of the realm, of which there are forty-five in all, including the ſix princes of the blood, who are peers by birth.

The third claſs is compoſed of the common ancient nobility, who in ſome provinces, particularly in Languedoc, are ſtyled nobles; but in moſt of the others ecuyers.

In the fourth claſs are the new nobility, whom the king has either raiſed by patent, or ennobled by their employments.

There are three orders of knighthood in France: firſt, that of St. Michael, inſtituted in 1469, and though originally compoſed of only thirty-ſix knights, was afterwards enlarged to one hundred. A perſon muſt be a knight of this order, before he can enter into that of, ſecondly, the the Holy Ghoſt, which was founded in 1578, by Henry III. and is compoſed of one hundred perſons beſides the ſovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and perſons of the higheſt rank. Thirdly, the order of St. Louis, which was inſtituted in the year 1693, by Louis XIV. merely as a diſtinction for military merit, and is worn by almoſt every officer, and even by ſubalterns.

The three ſtates of the kingdom formerly conſiſted of the repreſentatives of the clergy, the nobility, and the repreſentatives of the citizens: nothing of conſequence, in relation to the ſtate, was decreed or enacted without their conſent; but theſe aſſemblies are now entirely aboliſhed, and have never been convened ſince the year 1614.

The courts in which juſtice is now uſually adminiſtered, are, firſt, the parliaments, which are the laſt reſort when the court does not interpoſe. There are, at preſent, twelve, namely, thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rennes, Pau, Metz, Beſançon, and Douay. They principally conſiſt of a certain number of preſidents and inferior judges, who purchaſe their places either of the crown, or of thoſe who are in poſſeſſion of them: for all magiſtrates and officers of juſtice in France openly purchaſe their places, and the government makes a conſiderable revenue by theſe ſales. They enjoy their poſts for life, except they have been guilty of ſome crime in the exerciſe of their office.

The parliament of Paris is the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, for hither the king frequently comes in perſon, and here the royal edicts are recorded and promulged; till when they have not the force of laws. It is compoſed of the princes of the blood, dukes, and peers of France, beſides the ordinary judges, and takes cognizance of all offences committed by peers, where the court does not interfere. This parliament conſiſts of ten chief preſidents, ſome honorary counſellors, or judges, four maſters of the requeſts of the houſhold, twenty-one preſidents a mortier, ſo called from the form of their caps, and of two hundred and thirty-two other counſellors or judges; an attorney-general, advocates, ſolicitors-general, regiſters, notaries, ſecretaries, &c.

The principal officer of the crown is the chancellor, who preſides in all courts and councils of ſtate in the king's abſence; the others are, the keeper of the ſeals, four ſecretaries of ſtate, the marſhals of France, the colonel-general of the horſe, the great maſter of the artillery, the admiral of France, two vice-admirals, the general of the galleys, the four great officers of the order of the Holy Ghoſt, namely, the chancellor, the maſter of the ceremonies, the great treaſurer, and the ſecretary; the chief preſidents of the ſeveral parliaments, with the governors and the lieutenant-generals of the provinces. And the principal officers of the houſhold are the great maſter of the houſhold, the great maſter of the horſe, the great almoner, the great chamberlain, the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, the great butler, the great huntſman, the four captains of the garde du corps, and the great porter.

All affairs of ſtate are conducted by ſeven great councils. The firſt of theſe is, the ſupreme council of ſtate, in which, beſides the king and the prime miniſter, when there is one, it is compoſed of the comptroller-general of the finances, and the three ſecretaries of ſtate.

The ſecond is the ſecretary of ſtate's office, in which, beſides the king, the dauphin, and prime miniſter, there ſit the chancellor, the preſident of the council of finances, the four ſecretaries of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances. Here all affairs of the provinces are tranſacted; commiſſions, letters, and orders ſent to the governors and other officers of the ſeveral provinces and cities. The ſecretaries of ſtate make the motion, and every one expedites the reſolution taken on the articles of his department: and the members divide among them the foreign and domeſtic affairs of ſtate.

The third council is that of the finances, which beſides the king and chancellor, conſiſts of a preſident, one of the ſix intendants of the finances, a member of the council of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances. The royal revenues are under the direction of this council.

The fourth is the privy-council, which is convened by the chancellor on ſuch days as he pleaſes. On the king's abſence, there is always a chair ſet for him. This council at preſent conſiſts of the chancellor, or keeper of the great ſeal, twenty-one ordinary counſellors of ſtate, the ſecretaries of ſtate, the comptroller-general of the finances, the intendants of the finances, who are all ordinary members, and twelve ſtate-counſellors, who officiate only half-yearly. The ordinary ſtate-counſellors have each a ſalary of five thouſand five hundred livres, (two hundred and forty-one pounds ſterling) the half yearly, three thouſand three hundred livres, (one hundred and forty-five pounds ſterling). In this council alſo aſſiſt twenty-two maſters of requeſt, who belong alſo to the parliament, and lay before it any affairs they are entruſted with.

The fifth is the grand council, which has the deciſion of all cauſes relative to archbiſhoprics, biſhoprics, and abbies; and has alſo the power of determining all diſputes of the other ſovereign tribunals, in matters of juriſdiction and other conteſts. The chancellor of France preſides in this council: he is aſſiſted by ſeveral preſidents, counſellors, &c.

The ſixth is the high court of chancery; which conſiſts of the keeper of the great ſeal, who is frequently the ſame with the chancellor of France; of four grand audienciers who peruſe papers ſent from the ſecretary of ſtate's office to be ſealed, and make report to the chancellor: of four comptrollers of the audience, who give the papers allowed to be ſealed to an officer called chauff-cire, or chaff-wax, and receive them back from him; and four keepers of the rolls of the offices of France, who keep the regiſters of all the officers that require the great ſeal, with ſeveral clerks and other officers and aſſiſtants.

The ſeventh and laſt office is that pertaining to commerce, the members of which, beſides the king and prime miniſter, are the chancellor, the comptroller-general of the finances, and two ſecretaries of ſtate.

In this kingdom, juſtice is adminiſtered by inferior, middle, and ſuperior courts. The more important cauſes are cognizable only by the parliament, which decides cauſes in the laſt reſort. The middle tribunals pronounce definitively in certain ſmall cauſes, both civil and criminal. The inferior courts belong to the prevotes, mayors, judicatures, chatellanies, and other juriſdictions dependent on the crown, or particular lordſhips; from theſe, appeals lie to the bailiwics, or precinct courts, and from theſe again to the provincial courts.

The civil law prevails in many of the provinces; while others have their own cuſtomary laws. Thoſe of principal note among the latter are about ſixty; but, including the juridical cuſtoms of ſingle places, they make about two hundred and eighty-five. Beſides theſe, there are ordinances, edicts, and declarations, which are of univerſal force. The civil and criminal proceſſes were amended and reduced to a general uniformity, in 1666, under Louis XIV.

There is a ſtrict diſtinction made in France between the canonical and papal eccleſiaſtical law; and by the obligatory canons, or church ordinances, are only underſtood thoſe canons of the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, and the œcumenical councils, that have been confirmed by the conſent of the churches bound by them, which could not be tranſacted without the approbation of the civil power. Thus the interpolated decretals of the ſee of Rome are abſolutely excluded. The king's ordinances iſſued for the protection of the liberties of the Gallican church, conſtitute the moſt conſiderable part of the eccleſiaſtical law of France.

The French king's revenues are both ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary revenues comprehend the domains, which conſiſt in lands, lordſhips, and foreſts: the aids or duty on wines, which are the twentieth part of the wine ſold by wholeſale, and the eighth or tenth of that retailed: the gabelle or ſalt-duty, which is here extremely high. The other duties are the taille, or land-tax, the capitation, or poll-tax; the cuſtoms of all kinds, the duty on ſtamped paper, and other impoſts.

The cuſtoms, ſuch as wine-licence, ſalt and ſtamp-duty, tobacco, poſts, &c. are farmed out to the farmers-general, who have their under farmers and receivers. The great officer for levying the taxes is the comptroller-general, who keeps a duplicate of all receipts and diſcharges relative to the royal revenue.

It is reckoned that the ordinary revenues of the crown, ariſing from the above taxes, amount to about ten millions ſterling. An amazing ſum conſidering the lands belonging to the church, and what is payed to ſupport the clergy; and the many thouſand drones who, ſhut up in convents, are ſupported by the labour of the induſtrious.

In time of peace, the land forces of France amount to about two hundred thouſand men, among which are a great number of Swiſs, Germans, and other foreigners; and in time of war they are frequently augmented to four hundred thouſand.

The French have alſo a very conſiderable navy. Claſſes are inſtituted through all the maritime provinces, where the ſea officers and ſailors, and others belonging to the navy, reſide. Each claſs ſerves three or four years alternately, and thoſe who are not in actual ſervice, on board the king's ſhips, may enter on board thoſe of the merchants. In the beginning of the war in the late king's reign, France had upwards of a hundred and eleven men of war.

CHAP.

A NEW and ACCURATE MAP of SPAIN, and PORTUGAL, From the best Authorities.

BAY OF BISCAY

ATLANTIC OCEAN

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

FRANCE

GULF OF LYONS

ASTURIAS

GALLICIA

NAVAR

OLD CASTILE

NEW CASTILE

ARAGON

CATALONIA

MADRID

LEON

ESTRAMADURA

MURCIA

ANDALUSIA

PORTUGAL

BAY OF CADIZ

STRAITS OF GIBRALTER

PART OF AFRICA

MINORCA

Port Mahon

IVIZA

FORMENTERA

British Statute Miles.

10 30 50 100 150

West 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 from London

CHAP. XII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

SPAIN.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Deſcription of SPAIN, its' Name, Situation, Extent, and Boundaries; alſo an Account of the Country, with reſpect to its Mountains, Rivers, Climate, Produce, Cattle, &c.

SPAIN was anciently called Iberia, from the river Iberus; and Heſperia, from its weſtern ſituation; but Hiſpania, from which its modern name is derived, is ſuppoſed to have been formed from the Phœnician word Sepana, implying a rabbet, with which animals this country hath always abounded. It is ſituated between thirty-ſix and forty-four degrees north latitude, and between three and ten degrees weſt longitude, being the moſt weſtern part of the continent of Europe. Its length is ſeven hundred, and its breadth five hundred miles; it is bounded to the eaſt and ſouth, by the Mediterranean, the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic ocean; towards the weſt, by Portugal; and on the north, by the bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France. It was formerly conquered by the Romans, afterwards overrun by the Goths, then ſubdued by the Moors, from whom the Chriſtians recovered it.

There are ſeveral remarkably high mountains in Spain, the principal of which are the Pyrenees, which ſtretch from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic ocean; but not in a direct line, for near two hundred miles: their breadth is, in ſome places, not leſs than eighty. That called the Pic de Midi is of a prodigious height. Over theſe mountains there are only about five paſſages out of Spain into France, and thoſe alſo very narrow: even the vallies between the mountains are covered with thick and lofty woods. The other ridges of hills in Spain are the Sierre d'Occa, Sierra Molino, Sierra Morena, and Sierra Novada, or the ſnowy mountains. Near Gibraltar, oppoſite to mount Abyla in Africa, ſtands the celebrated mount Calpe: theſe were anciently called Hercules's Pillars. The mountains yield great quantities of timber for ſhipping, which are conveyed by the Ebro, and other rivers, to the Mediterranean.

According to ancient and modern writers, the mountains abound with gold, ſilver, iron, lead, tin, cinnabar, quickſilver, allum, vitriol, copperas, lapis calaminaris, &c. beſides gems, and mineral waters both hot and cold. The gold and ſilver mines are not worked at preſent, but thoſe of iron are. The neglect of the former is owing partly to the indolence of the Spaniards, and partly to the gold and ſilver imported from America.

Beſides the rivers Minho, Douro, Tagus, Menda, Lima, and Guadiana, which run through Portugal, but have their ſources in Spain, the moſt conſiderable are the Ebro, olim Iberus, Gaudalavier or Turio, Gaudalguivir, olim Perea Bœtis, and Tarteſſes, Segura, and Zucar. From the falſe notion of the Guadiana loſing itſelf under ground, it is ſuppoſed to have had the name of Anas, or the Duck.

The air, during the months of June, July, and Auguſt, is exceſſively hot in the day-time; but the reſt of the year it is pleaſant and temperate. Even during the above months, it is very cool in the ſhade; and ſo cold in the night, that it makes a traveller ſhiver; and in the day-time the violent heat continues only for about four or five hours. In the north, on the mountains and near the ſea-coaſt, the air is much leſs ſultry in ſummer than in the ſouth, eſpecially in the lower parts of the country, and at a diſtance from the ſea. It ſeldom rains here, except about the equinoxes, and the froſts are very gentle towards the ſouth; but on the mountains in the north and north-eaſt, the air is very ſharp in winter. Both in the ſouth and north, the air is generally clear and ſerene; and, as in the northern countries, diſtempers for the moſt part proceed from colds; ſo, in Spain, they are commonly the effects of heat.

In ſome parts of Spain there are ſandy deſarts, and in others barren mountains: the greater part of the country, however, has a good ſoil, and is very fertile, producing a great variety of rich wines, oils and fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, dates, figs, cheſnuts, capers, pears, peaches, pomegranates, &c. Grain, however, is ſcarce, which is owing to the almoſt general neglect of tillage; and but very ſmall quantities of flax, hay, and hemp, are produced. Some parts produce rice and ſugar-canes; and in others, honey, ſalt, ſilk, cotton, and wool abound.

Good horſes are produced here, but mules are more numerous, and in general much admired, which makes the fine breed of aſſes particularly valuable. Deer, wild fowl, and other game, are very numerous. Here are many goats, particularly the chamois, or Shamoy goat, and wolves are almoſt the only wild beaſts in the country.

The herb kali, which is uſed in making ſalt, ſoap, and glaſs, grows in great plenty about the ſea-coaſt. The locuſt-tree, an ever-green, is common in Valencia; the trunk is about two feet in diameter, the leaves green, ten on a twig, viz. five on each ſide; the fruit is an inch broad, reſembles kidney-beans, and grows in cluſters from the branches and body of the tree in a ſingular manner; the pods are thick, mealy, ſweet, and when dry, are given to horſes and cattle as provender.

The beautiful bird avelucos, or bee-eater, is found in no part of Europe but Granada and Andaluſia. It is of the ſize of a black-bird, and has a black bill, thick at the baſe, bending downward, and near two inches long. The legs and feet are like thoſe of a king's fiſher; the eyes are of a fine red, and there is a black ſtreak on each ſide of the head, which begins at the corner of the mouth, and runs beyond the eyes. The baſe of the upper chap, and under the chin, are covered with bright pale and blue feathers; but the upper part of the back of the head is of a duſky yellow, as well as the back and wings, only theſe laſt are ſhaded pretty ſtrongly with green. The tips of the quill feathers are brown, the breaſt and belly green, and the under part near the vent of a pale yellow, with a ſmall mixture of green. The outermoſt feathers of the tail are variegated with green and yellow, and the two middlemoſt feathers are twice as long as the reſt, that is, nine inches, and terminate in ſharp points of a brown colour.

There is great plenty of fiſh in the Spaniſh ſeas, among which is the anchovy. The wild bulls uſed in the bull-fights are principally bred in Andaluſia; and the ſheep in Spain are innumerable, as may be eaſily gueſſed by the number of ſhepherds, which are computed to amount to forty thouſand. The ſheep that bear the fine wool are driven every ſummer from ſouth to north, through the whole extent of the kingdom, and towards winter return again.

SECT. II.

Giving a geographical Deſcription of the ſeveral grand Diviſions or Provinces of SPAIN; together with an Account of their principal Cities, Towns, and Places, and the Trade, Manufactures, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THERE are fourteen diviſions or provinces in this country; namely, 1. Galicia; 2. Aſturias; 3. Biſcay; 4. Navarre; 5. Arragon; 6. Catalonia; 7. Leon; 8. Eltra-

8. Eſtramadura; 9. Old Caſtile; 10. New Caſtile; 11. Valentia; 12. Andaluſia; 13. Granada; and, 14. Murcia, which we ſhall treat of in the order here laid down.

1. The province of Galicia, which was anciently a kingdom, has the ocean on the weſt; Aſturias and Leon on the eaſt; Portugal on the ſouth; and the bay of Biſcay on the north. It is of a ſquare figure, one hundred and twenty miles each way, very mountainous, had formerly mines of gold and ſilver, but is at preſent the pooreſt and coldeſt part of Spain.

The principal places are, 1. St. Jago de Compoſtella, the capital of the whole province, is ſituated in forty-two degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in eight degrees twenty minutes weſt longitude, between the rivers Tambra and Ulla, in a moſt fertile plain, ſurrounded with hills of a moderate height, which ſhelter it from the nipping winds that blow from the mountains. The public ſquares and the churches are very magnificent; it has alſo a great number of monaſteries for both ſexes, and about two thouſand houſes. The cathedral is particularly worthy of notice, and in it is kept the pretended body of the apoſtle James the Younger, the tutelar ſaint and patron of all Spain. The order of St. Jago takes its name from this city, which alſo maintains a certain number of knights. The univerſity was erected in 1532; according to Major Dalrymple it has but few ſtudents. Here is alſo a tribunal of the inquiſition.

2. Orenſe, a city ſeated forty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-eaſt of St. Jago de Compoſtella, on the banks of the Minho, in a delightful country, and abounding in excellent wine and fine fruit. One part of it ſtands at the foot of a mountain, on which is felt a ſharp cold that is of long continuance; while the other part of the city, which lies on the ſide of the plain, enjoys all the pleaſures of ſpring, and the fruits of autumn.

3. The ſea-port town of Corunna, called by our ſeamen the Groyne, is ſituated on the bay of Biſcay. This is a place of conſiderable trade, having a ſpacious harbour, with walls and forts, ſeveral chapels, churches, and hoſpitals. It ſtands thirty miles north of Compoſtella, and is the ſeat of the governor and royal audience of Galicia. There is a quarry of jaſper in its neighbourhood.

4. The ſmall town of Lugo, anciently called Lucus Auguſti, is about ſeventy miles eaſt of Compoſtella. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago, and has a revenue of eighteen thouſand ducats. This town is incloſed with a ſtrong wall, ſo broad, that two coaches may go abreaſt upon it; and its neighbourhood produces turnips of fifty pounds weight, and very well taſted. Here are many warm and ſome hot baths.

5. Tui is a walled city on the river Minho, about forty miles ſouth of Compoſtella, and not far from Valença in Portugal. It enjoys a good air, being delightfully ſituated among gardens and vineyards; and is the ſee of a biſhop, who has a revenue of ſeven thouſand ducats.

6. The town of Vigo is ſituated on a ſmall bay, where, in 1702, the Engliſh and Dutch burnt the Spaniſh plate-fleet. 7. Ferrol, two leagues from Corunna, is an agreeable town, with a fine harbour, where ſeveral Spaniſh men of war are uſually at anchor. 8. Finiſterre is an inconſiderable town near the cape of that name. 9. Montforte la Lemos is a town belonging to the count of Lemos, who has a ſtately palace here. On the top of a neighbouring mountain is a ſpring that ebbs and flows as the ſea does, and is alternately hot and cold. 10. Mondonnedo, ſixteen leagues from the ſea-coaſt, is the ſee of a biſhop. 11. Betanzos, on the Mandeo, has a good harbour.

II. Aſturias, which is a principality, and gives title to the hereditary prince of Spain, has Galicia on the weſt, the bay of Biſcay, on the eaſt; the ſea on the north; and Old Caſtile and Leon, on the ſouth. It is one hundred and ten miles long, fifty-four broad, fertile, but thinly inhabited. The people, who are very poor and proud, plume themſelves upon being the genuine deſcendants of the ancient Goths.

The principal places are, 1. Oviedo, the capital, ſituated twenty miles from the bay of Biſcay, between the little Ove and Duva, from the former of which it is ſuppoſed to take its name. Here is an univerſity, founded in 1580, ſeveral convents, chapels, churches, and hoſpitals; and here Pelayo, and the firſt Chriſtian kings, after the conqueſt of Spain by the Moors, reſided. The town has ſtrong walls, and is the ſeat of the royal audience for the province. It is alſo the ſee of a biſhop, who is immediately ſubject to the pope, and has an income of twelve thouſand ducats. The neighbouring country is very mountainous, but abounds in grain, cattle, and cheſnut-trees.

2. The ſmall town of Gyon, near the ſea, has a good wall, caſtle, and port. It was called by the Romans Aræ Sextiæ, or Seſtinæ, and was once the capital of Aſturias, and the reſidence of Pelayo, whoſe ſucceſſors ſtyled themſelves kings of Gyon, for ſome time.

3. St. Andero, in Latin Portus Sancti Emederi, is a ſmall town, but has a large, ſecure, and well-fortified harbour, which, however, has a dangerous rock at the entrance of it.

4. Santillana is a ſmall town on the bay of Biſcay, belonging to the duke del Infantado, to whom it gives the title of marquis. It is ſuppoſed to be the Caulana, or Caucana, of the Greeks and Romans.

5. Liebana, an earldom, belonging to the dukes del Infantado. The Moors could never get footing in this province, which is one of the moſt craggy and mountainous parts of Spain.

III. The province of Biſcay has the bay of the ſame name on the north, and Old Caſtile on the ſouth, the Aſturias on the weſt, and Navarre on the eaſt. It is one hundred and ſixteen miles long, eighty broad, is famous for its oranges, lemons, and apples, of which good cyder is made, but in many places it is mountainous, and the ſoil ſtony and barren. This province is divided into three parts, viz. Biſcay Proper, Guipuſcoa, and Alaba.

The principal places in Biſcay Proper are, 1. Bilbao, vulgarly called Bilboa, the capital of the province: it is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ybaicabal, ſix miles from the ſea, where it has a good port, and a great trade in iron, wrought and unwrought, wool, ſaffron, and cheſnuts. It is large and populous, ſtanding where was formerly the Portus Amanus, and taking its name from a ford near the town, as having been at firſt called Bello Vado, which was at laſt corrupted into Bilbao, or Bilboa. The city is large and populous, containing twelve hundred houſes, five pariſh-churches, the like number of monaſteries, and ſeven nunneries. It has a good air, and is ſurrounded by a fruitful country, whence proviſions are cheap and plentiful.

There is alſo in this province Orduna, a ſea-port city, ſeated in a pleaſant valley formed by high mountains, twenty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bilbao; and two other ſmall towns, one of which is Durango, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt of Bilbao.

The city of St. Sebaſtian is of conſiderable ſize, has a ſecure harbour at the mouth of the little river Gummea, by the ancients called Menaſcum. It is a handſome place, well defended by a citadel, carrying on alſo a conſiderable trade in iron, ſteel, and wool; here is alſo a company which trades to the Caraccas. It enjoys a pleaſant proſpect of the ſea on one ſide, and the Pyrenean mountains on the other.

Fontarabia, or Fuentarabia, is a little neat town, ſituated on a peninſula on the ſea-ſhore, twenty-two miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bayonne. It is fortified both by nature and art; and has a good harbour, though it is dry at low water. The town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the declivity of a hill, and on the land-ſide is ſurrounded by the lofty Pyrenean mountains. It is a very important place, being accounted the key of Spain on that ſide. Near the city runs the river Bidaſſoa, or Vidoſſo, which is here very broad, and is the boundary between France and Spain. This place held out a ſiege againſt the French in 1638, for which it was honoured by the king with the title of a city; but in 1719 was taken by them.

The town of Toloſa, capital of Guipuſcoa, is ſeated between two mountains in a delightful valley, at the confluence of the Araxis and Oria, over which there are two handſome bridges, and at a ſmall diſtance ſeveral fine natural caſcades. This place is not large, but inhabited by a great number of perſons who are employed in making ſword-blades.

Salmas is noted for its ſalt-ſprings; the Sierra de Adriane, in this diſtrict, is the higheſt mountain among the Pyrenees; and Mondragon is celebrated for its mineral ſprings.

Alaba, the third diviſion of Biſcay, contains no place worthy of mention but Victoria, its capital, which is ſurrounded by a wall; has in it many magnificent monaſteries, and carries on a trade in wine, ſword-blades, iron, ſteel, and wool.

IV. The province of Navarre, called Upper Navarre, to diſtinguiſh it from Lower Navarre, belonging to France, was formerly part of the ancient kingdom of Navarre. It has

has Arragon on the ſouth; the Pyrenean mountains on the north and eaſt; and Old Caſtile and Biſcay to the weſt; being ninety miles long, and ſeventy broad. By a particular compact, no part of the revenues of this province is permitted to go into the royal treaſury, but all are obliged to be appropriated to the public ſervice. This country abounds with horned cattle, ſheep, game, horſes, honey, oil, wine, ſome grain, a few medicinal waters, and ſome minerals.

The principal places are, 1. Pampeluna, the capital, ſituated at the foot of the Pyrenees, and walled. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Burgos, and has a revenue of twenty-eight thouſand ducats. In 1608 an univerſity was founded in this city, where are alſo two caſtles, ſeveral churches, and a great many convents. Two high roads lead from hence over the Pyrenees, to France; one to Bayonne, through the valley of Batan; and the other, which is the beſt, to St. Jaen pied de Port, by the way of Taraffa. This city is ſaid to have been built by Pompey the Great, and thence called Pompeiopolis.

The city of Taſalla, on the Cadaço, is large and handſome, contains an univerſity, and is defended by a caſtle; and Oleta, on the ſame river, was formerly the reſidence of the kings of Navarre, though it is now an inconſiderable place.

3. Fifty-eight miles ſouth of Pampeluna ſtands the city of Sudela, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Ebro. It is walled, has a ſtately bridge over the Ebro, and contains ſeveral churches and convents.

4. Eſtella is a handſome town on the river Ega. Its name ſignifies a ſtar, having been built to guide and chear, like a ſtar, the weary pilgrims paſſing through theſe wild mountains, in their way to Compoſtella. 5. Viana, on the Ebro, formerly gave title of prince to the eldeſt ſon of the king of Navarre. 6. Songueſſa is a ſmall town on the river Arragon. 7. Caſcante, a ſmall city on the banks of the river Queiles, in the diſtrict of Tudela. Its Roman name was Caſcantum; and ſome coins of Tiberius, inſcribed Municeps Caſcantum, are ſtill extant.

V. The province of Arragon, which was antiently a kingdom, has the Pyrenees on the north, Valencia on the ſouth, Catalonia on the eaſt, and Caſtile and Navarre on the weſt, being one hundred and ſeventy miles long, and one hundred and ten broad. It is barren, though well-watered. The principal places are,

1. Saragoſſa, or Saragoza, the capital, ſituated on the banks of the Ebro, and almoſt in the heart of the province. It was antiently a Roman colony, and called Cæſaria, or Cæſar Auguſta, of which its preſent name is a manifeſt corruption. It is a large, magnificent, and populous city, ſtanding in a pleaſant fertile plain, watered by four rivers, and containing a great many ſplendid convents and churches; but the cathedral is an old irregular building. The archbiſhop has a revenue of fifty thouſand ducats. The univerſity here was founded in 1744. Of the churches, that of our Lady of the Pillar; and of the convents, that of St. Francis, are the moſt remarkable. Here are two ſtately bridges over the Ebro; and the walls of the city, though old, are ſtrong and lofty. A great many perſons of quality reſide in this city, which has alſo a conſiderable trade, and is the ſeat of the court of royal audience for Arragon, of the governor and captain-general, and an office of inquiſition.

2. Thirty-ſix miles north-weſt from Saragoza, is a conſiderable town on the little river Queiles: it is mentioned by Pliny, Ptolemy, and Strabo, under the name of Turiaſſo. Near it is Mon Cayo, antiently Mons Caci, which name the Spaniards pretend it had from the tyrant Cacus, who was killed by Hercules. This town is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Saragoza, and has a revenue of twenty-thouſand ducats per annum. It is well built, and walled, and drives a good trade.

3. Forty-eight miles from Saragoza, ſtands Daroca, a conſiderable town on the banks of the river Xiloca. It is walled, and ſituated on an eminence, amidſt a fertile and delicious plain. Here are ſeveral convents, chapels, ſquares, and fountains; and in the neighbourhood is a large cave, of which they relate many wonders. They pretend alſo to have in one of their churches ſix linen cloths, ſtained with the blood that came from ſo many conſecrated wafers, which upon an alarm of the approach of the Moors, were wrapped up in them.

4. About eighty miles ſouth of Saragoza, ſtands Turriel, a city on the banks of the Turias or Guadalaviar, where it is joined by the Alhambria. The river is called by Ptolemy Turiolus, and much extolled by Claudian for the rich flowery verdure of its banks. Here is a citadel, and the ſee of a biſhop, who has a revenue of ſix thouſand ducats, and is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Saragoza.

5. On the banks of the Guadalaviar, towards the borders of Caſtile, is ſituated Albarracein, a walled city, antiently called Lobetum and Turia. Here is a caſtle, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Saragoza, and has an income of ſix thouſand ducats per annum.

6. About thirty miles north-eaſt from Saragoza ſtands Hueſca, a handſome town on the Iſuela. The city ſtands in a healthy pleaſant air, and a fertile ſoil. Here is an univerſity, founded in the year 1354; and the ſee of a biſhop, who has a revenue of thirteen thouſand ducats per annum, with ſeveral monaſteries.

7. Xavier, on the river Callego, has its name from the famous St. Xavier. 8. Boria, a ſmall, but pleaſant city, near Mon Cayo, about thirty miles from Saragoza towards the weſt-north-weſt, called by antient writers Belſinum, and Balſio. It is walled, and has a caſtle, with ſeveral convents. 9. Xaca, at the foot of the Pyrenees, ſixty miles north-eaſt of Saragoza, is a well-built walled town, has a ſtrong caſtle, and is the ſee of a biſhop. 10. Barbaſtio is ſituated on the Vero, over which it has a ſtately bridge. It ſtands in a fertile plain, is ſurrounded by a wall, contains ſeveral convents, and is the ſee of a biſhop. 11. Calatayud, forty-five miles ſouth-weſt of Saragoza, is pleaſantly ſituated, has a fine air, ſtrong walls, many convents, and is celebrated for its fine-tempered ſteel. 12. Alcanitz, on the Gaudalupe, appertains to the order of Calatrava. 13. La Puebla de Alfundeu, is a handſome town near the river Ebro. 14. Montalvan is a fortified town belonging to the order of St. Jago.

VI. The province of Catalonia has the Mediterranean ſouth and eaſt; the Pyrenees north; and Arragon and Valencia weſt. It is one hundred and fifty miles long, one hundred and twenty broad, is well watered, has a fertile ſoil, and temperate air. The principal places are the following; namely, 1. Barcelona, or Barcino, the capital of Catalonia. This is a large and well-fortified ſea-port, ſeated at the foot of Montjoui, in the forty-firſt degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree five minutes eaſt longitude. It opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, between the rivers Llobregat and Beſes. It is a large and well-fortified place, divided into the Old and New Town, which are ſeparated from each other by a wall and ditch. Moſt of the ſtreets are broad, well paved and clean. It has many beautiful ſtructures, a large and ſuperb cathedral, with ſome other fine churches and convents, and ſeveral handſome ſquares.

2. Tarragona, an antient and ſtrong city, is ſituated on an eminence near the mouth of the little river Francoli, forty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Tortoſa, and about the ſame diſtance to the weſt of Barcelona. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who enjoys a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats a year. It has an univerſity, founded in the year 1532. Its harbour, on account of its many rocks, will not admit of ſhips of burthen; but it has a pretty good trade. The neighbouring country produces corn, oil, flax, and very good wine; and there are to be ſeen the ruins of magnificent buildings, and other ornaments of antiquity, both within and without the town.

3. The town of Girona, antiently Gerunda, ſtands in the eaſt part of the province, about twenty-one miles from the ſea, and ſixty north-eaſt of Barcelona. It is ſeated at or near the conflux of the Ter and Onhar; has ſtrong old walls, and other fortifications; with a great many convents, and an univerſity; being alſo the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tarragona, with a revenue of three thouſand ducats per annum. The town carries on a pretty trade, and gives the title of count: the neighbouring country is reckoned the moſt fertile in Certalſnia.

4. The antient city of Tortoſa, on the Ebro, ſtands near the ſea, and has a bridge of boats over the river, with a ſtrong caſtle, and other fortifications, an univerſity, and ſeveral churches and convents. This place is walled, carries on a good trade in ſilk and earthen-ware, is the ſee of a biſhop, and gives the title of marquis.

5. In the heart of the province ſtands Salſona, which is ſtrongly fortified, and the ſee of a biſhop. 6. Balagner, on the Legre, is nine miles north-eaſt from, 7. Lerida, on the ſame river; which is an antient, handſome, and ſtrong city, one hundred and five miles north-weſt of Barcelona. It contains ſeveral convents and monaſteries, an univerſity, a court of inquiſition, and is a biſhop's ſee. 8. Terroſis, near Lerida, has an air which is remarkably ſalubrious, and particularly in caſes of infanity; ſo that it is common all over Catalonia to ſay to a paſſionate man,

"You muſt be ſent to Terroſis for a cure." 9. Palames, a little town on a bay of the ſea, near cape Palaſugel, with a good harbour. It is fortified, has a good citadel, and gives the title of count. 10. Urgel, anciently Orgia and Orgelium, an ancient city, earldom, and biſhopric, not far from the Pyrenees, on the banks of Segre, about nine miles north-eaſt from Barcelona. It is ſtrongly walled, has an ancient caſtle, and ſeveral convents, and its territory is extremely fertile. 11. Roſes, a ſtrong town with a good harbour, on a bay of the ſea. It owes its name and origin to the ancient town of Rhoda, which ſtood a little way off, near cape Cruz. 12. Peucerda, a large town, and the capital of the earldom of Cerdagne. It is fortified in the modern manner, and ſtands at the foot of the Pyrenees, betwixt the rivers Carol and Segre.

VII. The province of Leon, which was anciently a kingdom, is bounded by the Aſturias, on the north; Eſtremadura, on the ſouth; Galicia and Portugal, on the weſt; and Old Caſtile, on the eaſt. It is one hundred and eighty miles long, and upwards of eighty broad; has a fruitful ſoil, abounds in cattle and game, and contains ſeveral quarries of ſtone, and mines of jewels. The dukes of Negera are hereditary governors.

The principal rivers of Leon are the Piſuerga and the Carrion, which riſe in Old Caſtile; the Eſſa and Orbego, both which have their ſources near the city of Leon; the Torto and Tera, which run into the Orbego; and the Formes, or Rio de Salamanca, which falls into the Douro on the frontiers of Portugal.

In this province are the following remarkable places; viz. 1. Leon the capital of the province, was built by the Romans in the reign of the emperor Galba, and called Legio Septima Germanica, from whence it derived the name of Leon. It is ſeated in the forty-third degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, between both the ſprings of the river Eſla, and at the end of a large plain bounded by the mountains of the Aſturias, fifty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Oviedo. The biſhop, whoſe annual revenue is twelve thouſand ducats, is immediately ſubject to the pope. The cathedral is famous not only for its beauty, but for its being the burial place of ſeveral ſaints, thirty-ſeven kings of Spain, and one emperor.

2. Salamanca is ſituated in forty-one degrees five minutes north latitude, and in ſix degrees ſixteen minutes weſt longitude. This city is of a peculiar form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. Its walls are ſix thouſand three hundred and ſixty paces in circuit, and adorned with thirteen handſome gates and ſtately towers. Within the city are one hundred and ſixty-two ſtreets, five thouſand houſes, many of which are magnificent buildings, ſeventeen ſquares, twenty-five pariſh-churches, twenty monaſteries, eleven nunneries, two houſes of retirement for young women to lead a penitent life, ſixteen chapels, ſix hoſpitals, and twenty-five colleges. The river Tormes, which runs by it, fertilizes the neighbouring country.

3. Roderigo, an epiſcopal city, which, after its being ruined by the Goths, was, in 1102, rebuilt by Don Roderigo Gonzales Giron, and from him received its name. It ſtands on the little river Agneda, or Agujar, twelve miles from the frontiers of Portugal, and has good ſtrong walls, nine gates, three ſquares, fifty-four ſtreets, two thouſand houſes, eight pariſhes, two monaſteries, two nunneries, ten chapels, and three hoſpitals. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago, and has an annual revenue of ten thouſand ducats. This city is one of the three places of rendezvous for the Spaniards, when they are at war with the Portugueſe.

4. Zamora, ſituated on the Douro, over which it has a fine bridge, and ſtands in a fertile country. The biſhop of this place has an annual income of twenty thouſand ducats, and is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo. The body of St. Ildefonſo, formerly biſhop of Toledo, is kept in this city.

5. Palenſia, which is a conſiderable walled city, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Carrion, anciently Nubis, one hundred and twenty miles north-and-by-weſt from Madrid. Here are a great many convents, churches, chapels, and it is the ſee of biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella, and has a revenue of twenty-four thouſand ducats per annum. This city was deſtroyed by the Romans, but rebuilt by Sancho the Great, anno 1033.

6. Medina del Rio Secco, a flouriſhing town, one hundred and twenty miles north and-by-weſt from Madrid. 7. Medina del Campo, a conſiderable town, about ſeventy-two miles north-weſt from Madrid. 8. Torto, on the Douro, one hundred and five miles north-weſt from Madrid. 9. Zamora, on the ſame river, and at the ſame diſtance from Madrid. 10. Tordeſillas, on the ſame river, about one hundred miles north-weſt from Madrid. 11. Aſterga, on the Aſturias, one hundred and fifty miles north-weſt from Madrid.

VIII. The province of Eſtremadura is bounded by Portugal on the weſt, Leon on the north, Andaluſia on the ſouth, and New Caſtle on the eaſt. It is one hundred and thirty miles long, one hundred and ten broad, is well watered; and the ſoil is ſo remarkably luxuriant, that it is juſtly deemed one of the moſt fruitful places in Europe. This province is now united to New Caſtile; but we ſhall conſider it ſeparately.

The principal places are, 1. Plazencia, or Placenſia, from which the diſtrict takes its name, is a beautiful well-built city, and a biſhop's ſee, on the banks of the little river Xerte, over which it has three bridges; it is about ſeventy miles ſouth-weſt from Madrid, and one hundred and twenty ſouth from Merida. It takes its name from the delightfulneſs of its ſituation, in the midſt of that moſt agreeable ſpot called La Vera de Plazencia, or the Orchard of Plazencia, which is diverſified with beautiful ſeats, villages, gardens, and groves of the fineſt citron, lemon, orange, and fig-trees. Here ſeveral of the ancients placed the Elyſian fields, knowing of no place more agreeable; and here the emperor Charles V. having reſigned all his dominions, retired into the famous monaſtery of St. Juſtus, where, after living two years as recluſe, he ended his days. The biſhop, who has a revenue of fifty thouſand ducats per annum, is ſubject to the archbiſhop of San Jago de Compoſtella. This city is defended by ſtrong walls and a caſtle, and is well-built and handſome.

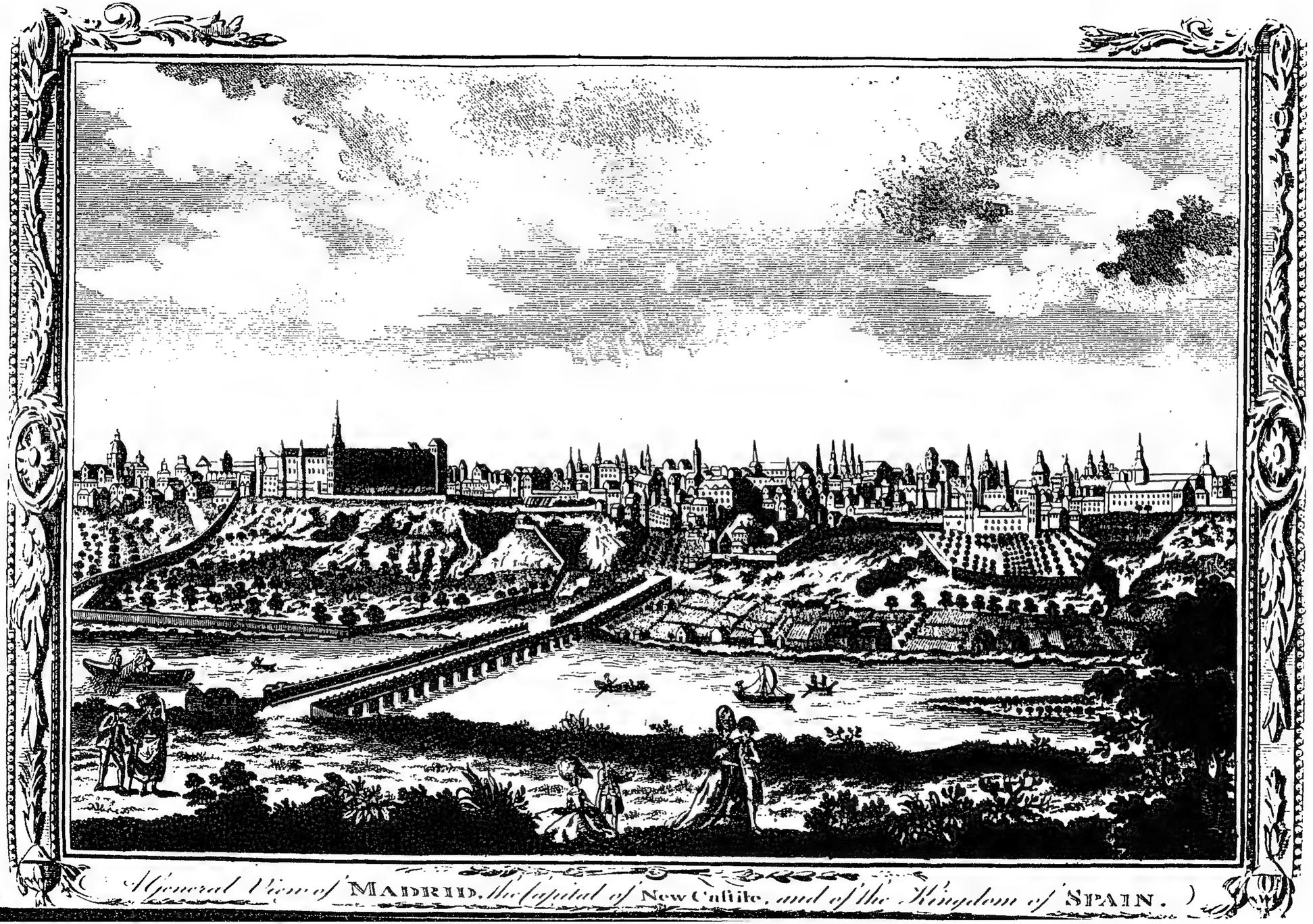
The other towns and places are, 2, Badajoz, now the largeſt city in the province, and well-fortified, ſtanding on the ſouth ſide of the Guadiana, on the frontiers of Portugal, about one hundred and fifty miles ſouth-weſt from Madrid, and forty weſt from Merida. In the Roman times it was called Pax Auguſta, and Colonia Paconſis, the former of which was corrupted by the Moors to Bax Augus, and afterwards to Badajoz. Here is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella, and has a revenue of ſixteen thouſand ducats: in the town are ſome handſome ſtreets, churches, and monaſteries, two modern caſtles, and a fine bridge of ſtone.

3. The town of Merida was originally built by Cæſar Auguſtus, and is ſituated on the Anas, over which it has a bridge. It is ſmall, but well-fortified: here is a triumphal arch called Arco de San Jago, and ſome other fragments of its ancient ſplendor.

4. Medellin, on the Guadiana, is ſuppoſed to be the ancient Colonia Matalmouris. 5. Bejar is only remarkable for a lake in its neighbourhood, which, previous to bad weather, always appears to be unuſually agitated. 6. Alcantara is a ſtrong town ſituated on the Tagus, over which it hath a magnificent bridge, built in the days of the emperor Trajan, and belonging to the knights, who take their names from it. 7. Truxillo, one hundred and thirty miles ſouth-weſt of Madrid, is defended by a ſtrong citadel, and is celebrated for being the native place of Francis Pizarro, the famous conqueror of Peru. 8. Curia, on the Alagon, is the ſee of a biſhop, and belongs to the Alva family. 9. Albuquerque is a walled town near the frontiers of Portugal. 10. Guadalupe is ſituated on a river of the ſame name.

IX. The kingdom or province of Old Caſtile is bounded on the north, by the Aſturias and Biſcay; on the eaſt, by Navarre and Arragon; on the ſouth, by New Caſtile; and, on the weſt, by Leon. Its figure is very irregular, and conſequently its dimenſions extremely different; however, its greateſt length from Valladolid to Tarracona, is about one hundred and twelve Engliſh miles, and its greateſt breadth about one hundred and eighty. Its principal rivers are the Douero and Ebro, the firſt of which is joined by the Attayada, the Andaja, the Arebarillo, and the Piſuerga, which alſo receives the Arlança and Arlançon. The ſources of all theſe rivers are in this province, which is mountainous, and leſs fertile than New Caſtile.

The moſt remarkable places in this province are, 1. Avila, or Avila de Rey, forty miles to the eaſt of Salamanca, is an ancient city, ſeated on a fine plain environed with mountains, and producing excellent grapes and other fine fruits; it is ſurrounded with a wall, on which are eighty-ſix towers, and ten gates. It has nine pariſh-churches,



A General View of MADRID, the Capital of New Castile, and of the Kingdom of SPAIN.

churches, as many monaſteries, ſeven nunneries, eighteen chapels, two colleges, nine hoſpitals, and an annual charitable donation of ten thouſand ducats given by the city, for maintaining poor orphans and other needy perſons. The royal caſtle ſtands on a rock, and is provided with a garriſon and artillery for its defence.

2. Segovia is a city of great antiquity, and ſtill a conſiderable place. It ſtands high between two hills, and is large, populous, and handſome. It has excellent manufactories of cloth and paper, and alſo exports a very fine ſort of wool. It has twenty-ſeven pariſh-churches, as many monaſteries, eight nunneries, five hoſpitals, three chapels, ſeven ſquares, and forty-three ſtreets of the firſt rank, beſides a great number of lanes.

In this city are ſeveral fine churches, beſides the cathedral; that of St. Milan is very old. The arches of this church are all round and large; and the pillars, which are lofty, have carved capitals, containing many figures both of men and animals; ſome with beautiful foliage: the ſhafts are round and plain, placed upon ſquare baſes extremely large. At the entrance is a ſort of alcade, with beautiful ſmall columns of black marble, and a ſort of ſpiral line joins the pillars together. The church dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt is ſaid to be the oldeſt in the city, it being built in 923.

The royal palace, or Alcazar, is ſuppoſed to have been built in the eighth century. The front is about fifty feet long: there are two conic turrets at each wing; and the façade is adorned with ſeveral diminutive turrets in the ſame ſtyle. Above the ſkilling or ſpan-roof of the firſt front, there riſes another ſkilling-roof adorned with turrets in the ſame ſtyle; and between the wings in the middle riſes a lofty ſquare brick tower, ſurrounded with ſmall circular turrets ending in a conſole. Along the front of the firſt building runs a neat, ſmall, open gallery, juſt under the cornice. The whole of the fabric appears to be in the old Mooriſh ſtyle, and is extremely pretty and light.

Here is the famous tower or caſtle of Segovia, ſo celebrated in Gil Blas and other romances, the antient receptacle of ſtate priſoners. There is another large priſon in the middle of the city; but that is only for common malefactors.

Here is a famous univerſity in this city, which is the ſee of a biſhop, who has a revenue of twenty-four thouſand ducats per annum.

Though the town-houſe is a good modern ſtructure, yet the city, upon the whole, has a ſtrange appearance: the buildings look wild and odd, ſometimes being raiſed upon the uneven and craggy parts of the rock, and conſiſting of all the ſtyles of architecture, Roman, Gothic, Spaniſh, Mooriſh, and Saxon.

The moſt remarkable curioſity among the buildings of this city, is the Segovian aqueduct, which exends to a ſmall river, called Rio Frio, which riſes in the ſkirts of a paſs in the mountains, and takes from it as much water as would fill a duct that would contain a human body.

The principal mint of all Spain is in this city: when at work, they can coin thirty thouſand ducats in a day. Here they make a good paper; but the woollen manufacture of this city is the beſt and moſt conſiderable in all Spain; the blankets of Segovia are, perhaps, the fineſt in the world; for they have a vaſt quantity of the fineſt wool, produced from the numberleſs flocks bred in the neighbouring plains. Here are alſo ſeveral other manufactories, particularly of linen, which is carried on very ſucceſsfully.

The city of Valladolid, antiently called Pindia, is large, beautiful, and populous, eighty-ſix miles to the north-weſt of Madrid. It is ſituated in a ſpacious and delightful plain, watered by the Piſuerga, over which it has a ſtately bridge: beſides which, it has about nineteen ſmall ones over the Eſquera, a ſmall river that runs through ſeveral of the ſtreets, and thence through a delightful landſcape of gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, which it waters in its courſe. The city is walled round, and has ſix gates; but it is a place of no great ſtrength. It has long broad ſtreets, with large and lofty houſes, ſplendid palaces, ſpacious and elegant ſquares, and fountains; ſeventy convents, among which the dominican convent of St. Paul has a magnificent church; the college of the jeſuits is particularly worthy of notice, as is likewiſe that of St. Gregory.

Here is a great ſquare, or piazza, built after the model of that at Madrid, and conſiſts of five hundred arches with gilt balconies, three thouſand windows all in view, and three hundred and thirty gates or doors. It is ſeven hundred paces in circuit, and is capable of containing thirty thouſand perſons. A large well-built ſtreet, chiefly inhabited by gold and ſilver-ſmiths, ſtands near one ſide of this ſquare.

Near the Dominican convent, is a royal palace; here is alſo an univerſity, founded in 1346; a geographical academy, lately erected; a court of inquiſition; and a tribunal of juſtice, compoſed of one preſident, fifteen counſellors, four criminal judges, one ſupreme judge for Biſcay, four judges of nobility, two fiſcals, and an alguazil mayor; yet the revenue of its biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo, does not exceed twelve thouſand ducats per annum. The inhabitants of this town not only carry on a conſiderable trade abroad, but are employed in ſeveral manufactures at home, in which they are very ingenious and expert, and are as polite and well-bred people as any in Spain.

3. The city of Burgos, capital of the province, is ſituated on an eminence by the little river Arlançon, one hundred and twenty miles north of Madrid. It has a bridge over the river, and is a large, but not a fine city; though it has ſome handſome ſquares, public buildings, and palaces. It is ſaid to have nine months of winter, and three of fire, on account of their exceſſive heat. Among other convents, here is one for ladies of quality, called Las Huelgas, the revenue of which is ſaid to be eighty thouſand ducats per annum. The abbeſs, who is generally a lady of one of the firſt families in Spain, has ſeventeen other convents, fourteen towns, and fifty villages ſubject to her.

This city, which was built in the ninth or tenth century, on the ruins of Auca, claims the precedence of all others in the cortes or parliaments of Caſtile. The walls are antient, but ſtrong. On the north-ſide, on an almoſt inacceſſible rock, ſtands the citadel. The cathedral here is one of the nobleſt and richeſt in Spain. The archbiſhop has a revenue of forty thouſand ducats per annum; and the king is always the firſt of the canons. There are a great many elegant fountains to ſupply the city with water.

X. The province of New Caſtile, which was formerly a kingdom, has Old Caſtile on the north, from which it is parted by ridges of mountains; Eſtramadura, on the weſt; Andaluſia, on the ſouth; and Valencia and Arragon, on the eaſt. It is two hundred miles long, and in the wideſt place one hundred and ninety broad, well watered, fertile, and has a good air. The inhabitants ſpeak the pureſt Spaniſh.

4. The city of Madrid, which is the metropolis of all Spain, and the reſidence of the court, ſtands in the centre of a large plain, ſurrounded with mountains, and in the very heart of the kingdom, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, which is always very low and ſhallow, except when it is ſwelled by the melting of the ſnow on the mountains. The ſtreets are wide, ſtrait, and handſome, and adorned with ſeveral fine fountains; the houſes are fair and lofty; but built of brick, with lattice-windows, excepting thoſe of the rich, who have glaſs in their windows. There are two ſtately bridges here over the Manzanares, ſeveral beautiful ſquares, ſeveral magnificent churches, convents, palaces, and hoſpitals. The compaſs of the whole city is computed at about nine miles, and the number of its inhabitants at about one hundred and fifty thouſand.

This was formerly a very diſagreeable place, but has been greatly improved of late, and is now one of the neateſt in Europe. It is well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds at reaſonable rates; and the court, with the reſort and reſidence of the quality, and the high colleges and offices that are kept here, occaſion a briſk trade and circulation of money. There are three royal academies here, one for medicine, another for hiſtory, and the third for the improvement of the Spaniſh language.

The moſt magnificent palace, not only in this country, but perhaps in the whole world, is the Eſcurial, which takes its name from a ſmall village, near which it ſtands, about twenty-two miles north-weſt from Madrid. It was built by Philip II. and is a vaſt ſpacious ſtructure, all of curious white ſpeckled ſtones, with ornaments of various ſorts of marble, jaſper, &c. It was twenty-two years in building, and has the appearance of a town, having, it is ſaid, about eleven thouſand windows, and containing, beſides the royal apartments and offices, a moſt ſplendid church, in which are forty chapels, and as many altars, rich beyond imagination; a convent of jeremites, a college, ſeveral hoſpitals or infirmaries, and a noble library, containing a large and choice collection of books in all languages and faculties. Here is alſo the burial-places of the kings and queens of Spain, called the Pantheon, which, amidſt all its riches and ſplendor, is an affecting monument of the vanity and tranſitorineſs of human grandeur. In fine, it is ſaid, that it would take up above four whole days to go through all the rooms and apartments of this

palace,

palace, which exceeds all that can be imagined for variety of jaſper, marble, and curious ſtones, painting, ſculpture, plate, tapeſtry, guns, &c.

5. The town of Aranjuez, which is about thirty miles ſouth of Madrid, is ſituated on the banks of the Tagus, and was chiefly built within theſe twenty years; whoever chuſes to build houſes here, may have a free gift of the ground from the king, on condition of conforming to the general plan. The ſtreets are broad and parallel, and interſect each other at right angles. The houſes are of two ſtories in height, and are all painted white, with green doors and ſhutters. There are at preſent about five thouſand inhabitants, who live by letting their houſes to perſons who come with the court, and who reſide here annually from the middle of April to the end of July, during which time the number of inhabitants is increaſed to fifteen thouſand.

The royal palace of Aranjuez is a ſquare, and has twenty-one windows in front, and a turret at each end; but there is nothing remarkable either in its exterior or interior parts. Before the palace are three very large walks, each planted with four rows of tall elms. Small canals run between each row, which keep the roots conſtantly ſupplied with water, and make the trees grow to a very great ſize.

The antient fortified city of Toledo is ſituated in fifty-nine degrees forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in four degrees twenty minutes weſt longitude, and ſtands on a ſteep and craggy rock, encompaſſed by the Tagus, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, over which it has two ſtately bridges. The land-ſide is fortified by a double wall, in which are one hundred and fifty towers, and five large gates, beſides poſterns. It was formerly eſteemed a place of ſtrength; but in the laſt wars about the ſucceſſion, it always ſubmitted to thoſe who were maſters of the field. The city is divided into twenty-three wards, and has twenty-ſeven pariſhes, about twenty chapels, thirty-eight monaſteries and nunneries, four grand houſes of retirement for women, two large colleges, and twenty-five hoſpitals, one of them for lunatics. The ſtreets are narrow and ſteep; but there are no leſs than ſeven ſquares or market-places. There are here a magnificent and ſpacious old palace taken from the Moors, the ſtables of which can hold at leaſt five hundred horſes. The plain around the city is ſpacious, fertile, pleaſant, and ſo well watered by the Tagus, that it produces corn, wine, oil, fruit, and in ſhort every thing that can contribute to the convenience and delight of man. The air is particularly ſerene and healthy, and there is plenty of proviſions, which are very cheap.

In this city is a large cathedral of gothic ſtructure, rich in carving, but the building is neither light nor in a good taſte. It is three hundred and eighty-four feet long, one hundred and ninety-one broad, and one hundred and ſeven high, all of white ſtone. The roof is ſupported by eighty-eight lofty pillars, which divide it into five leſſer, the middlemoſt of which is very handſome, it being divided into two choirs neatly carved and inlaid. This is one of the richeſt cathedrals in the univerſe; and the archbiſhopric, both in power and revenue, the greateſt next to that of Rome; ſo that the late queen of Spain obtained it from the pope for one of her ſons, though a minor. The lands for the repairs of the church are ſaid to bring in annually thirty thouſand ducats, and for the dignitaries and canons two hundred thouſand more. The whole number of perſons belonging to the cathedral, is ſaid to amount to ſix hundred.

The remains of the alcaſſar, or altar built by Charles V. or according to others, by the archduke Charles, appear very noble; but it was burnt by the allies and Auſtrian party in the partition or ſucceſſion war, leſt it ſhould fall into the hands of Philip V.

One of the greateſt inconveniencies of this city is, the inhabitants having no water but what is brought from the Tagus, or ſaved from the eaves of their houſes, when it rains. There is here a remarkable common ſewer, which is ſaid to run under every houſe, to carry off all the ſoil into the river. Beſides the above ſtructures, there is an univerſity, founded in the year 1475, and a court of inquiſition. The city is populous, and carries on a great trade in wool, ſilk, ſtuffs, and fine ſword-blades.

Beſides the above, here are, 1. The town of Alcala de Henares, on the river Henares. 2. Guadlaara, on the ſame river, about thirty miles to the north-eaſt of Madrid. 3. Talavera la Reyna, on the Tagus, about thirty-ſix miles weſt from Toledo. 4. Cuença, about fifty miles from Madrid, towards the eaſt.

XI. The province of Valentia, which was formerly conſidered as a kingdom, has the Mediterranean ſea to the ſouth and eaſt; Murcia and New Caſtile to the weſt; and Arragon and Catalonia, to the north. It is two hundred miles long, eighty broad, is well watered, has a temperate ſerene air, and a ſoil remarkably fertile.

The moſt conſiderable places in this diſtrict are, 1. Valentia, the capital, one hundred and eighty miles ſouth-eaſt from Madrid: it is ſituated on, and has five bridges over, the Guadalquiver. This is a large, handſome, populous, trading city, and has a poſt within two miles of it. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and contains a tribunal or inquiſition, a ſovereign court of judicature, an univerſity, and a flouriſhing manufactory. Almoſt every houſe has a deep wall, and here is a grand common ſewer, ſaid to be the work of one of the Scipios, by which the filth of every houſe is carried off under ground.

2. The ancient city of Segorve, or Segoſbe, in Latin Segobriga, is pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Moriedro about one hundred and fifty miles eaſt from Madrid, thirty from the ſea, and as many north from Valentia. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Valentia, and has a revenue of ten thouſand ducats per annum: it alſo gives the title of duke.

3. The city of Orihuela, in Latin Orſelis, is the capital of a particular diſtrict, ſituated on the banks of the river Segura, about one hundred and ninety-four miles ſouth-eaſt from Madrid, and eighty ſouth from Valentia. Its preſent name is thought to be a corruption of Auriolla, i. e. the Pot of Gold, as it was called by the Romans, on account of the gold mines that were formerly about it. This place is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Valentia, and has a revenue of ten thouſand livres: here is now an univerſity.

4. The famous city and ſea-port of Alicant, is ſituated on the Mediterranean, about two hundred and ten miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Madrid, and about ſixty ſouth of Valentia. It has a commodious harbour, from whence a great quantity of delicious fruits, with excellent red and white wine, ſoap, and aniſe, are exported. It has a caſtle, ſtrong walls, and a few baſtions, for its defence.

5. The town of St. Denis, ſtands at the foot of a high hill, called Mongon, about thirty-four miles north-eaſt from Alicant, on the ſea-coaſt, where it has a convenient harbour, with a caſtle, and watch-tower of an extraordinary height. It is alſo well-fortified. This place is ſuppoſed to have been antiently called Diana, from a temple dedicated to that goddeſs.

6. The ſmall town of Morviedro is ſituated on the ſame ſpot where the antient Sagunhun ſtood, on the banks of the river formerly called Palantia, but which now bears the ſame name as the town, independent of the walls which mark the limits of the antient Sagunhun. The remains of an amphitheatre and palace are to be ſeen in this town; they are ſituated about three miles from the ſea, at the foot of a hill, on the ſummit of which is a fort, twelve miles north of Valentia.

7. Cape Arteñues is the antient Artemyſium. 8. Gandia, on the Alcay, gives the title of duke to the noble family of Borgia, contains an univerſity, and is defended by a caſtle. 9. La Mata contains the moſt conſiderable ſalt-work in Spain. 10. Uche is a handſome town, very pleaſantly ſituated near Alicant.

XII. The province of Andaluſia is eſteemed the beſt in all Spain, it abounding in exquiſite fruits of all kinds, honey, excellent wine, grain, ſilk, ſugar, fine oil, numerous herds of cattle, particularly horſes, with metals, cinnabar, and a certain ſpecies of quickſilver. The heat in ſummer indeed is very great; but the inhabitants generally ſleep by day, travelling and following their other employments in the night. The air is, however, in other reſpects, good, and is ſometimes refreſhed with cooling breezes. This province is properly compoſed of three ancient kingdoms, which in the king's title, inſtead of the common names, are expreſſed by that of Andaluſia. Theſe are the kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, and Jead.

The river Guadalquiver, by the antients called Bœtis and Tarteſſus, traverſes the whole country, and the Guadiana ſeparates it to the weſt from the Portugueſe Algarva.

The city of Seville, the ancient Hiſpalis, and capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is ſeated in thirty-ſeven degrees fifteen minutes north latitude, and in ſix degrees five minutes weſt longitude, two hundred miles to the ſouth-weſt of Madrid, in a large plain on the banks of the Guadalquiver. It is ſaid to be three leagues and a half in circuit, including the ſuburbs, and ſix miles round the walls. The ſtreets in general are very narrow and irregular; and though there are many conſiderable houſes,

yet they do not preſent very ſplendid appearances. The city and ſuburbs, according to Major Dalrymple, contain fourteen thouſand private houſes, and its inhabitants are computed at three hundred thouſand.

There is, in this city, a very celebrated cathedral church built in the gothic ſtile; it was begun in 1401, and finiſhed in 1520: it is immenſely rich in treaſure; the ſilver altar, which is exhibited on particular feſtivals, is moſt magnificent. The Giralda, built by the Moors in the year 1000, is a ſquare tower, which ſerves as belfry to the church, from the top of which is an extenſive and beautiful proſpect. This is an archbiſhop's ſee, with an annual revenue of three hundred thouſand dollars, which is equal to fifty thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-one pounds ſterling, to which belong forty canons, whoſe incomes are very conſiderable.

The city of Cadiz ſtands on an iſland, which is ſeparated from the continent by a narrow channel, or arm of the ſea, over which there is a bridge well-fortified, on the Atlantic ocean, being about three hundred miles to the ſouth-weſt of Madrid, eighty from Seville to the ſouth-weſt, and fifty-eight from Gibraltar. The iſland is about ſixteen or ſeventeen miles long, and about ſix in breadth, producing little grain, but ſome good wine and paſture. This celebrated city is of pretty large circumference; moſt of the ſtreets are narrow, crooked, ill paved, and dirty; but a few of them are broad, ſtraight, and well paved. The houſes are generally three or four ſtories high, and many of them are handſome buildings; but houſe-rent and proviſions are dear, and good freſh water very ſcarce. It contains about thirteen convents, among which the college of the jeſuits is the fineſt in Andaluſia; but has only one pariſh-church, which is the cathedral. Major Dalrymple informs us, that in 1774, this town was ſuppoſed to contain between ſeventy and eighty thouſand inhabitants. The biſhop of this city is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Seville, and has an annual revenue of twelve thouſand ducats. Cadiz is the centre of the whole American trade, to which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Italian merchants ſend their goods, which are ſhipped off here in Spaniſh bottoms to America, by Spaniſh factors in their own names. Beſides theſe nations, all others who carry on any traffic here by ſea, have alſo their agents, correſpondents, and factors in this city; and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a great figure. The number of inhabitants is computed at forty thouſand.

The harbour and bay of Cadiz are ſpacious and ſecure, the entrance being defended by fort Matagorda, which covers the harbour and bay; and by fort Puntal, which ſtands oppoſite to it, on a point of that neck of land on which the city is built. The Spaniards commonly call both theſe Los Puntales.

As the fortreſs of Gibraltar is of the utmoſt importance to Great Britain, it has been celebrated upon many occaſions in the annals of hiſtory, and, during the late ſiege by the Spaniards, has attracted the attention, and engroſſed the converſation of all Europe, we ſhall therefore give an ample deſcription and account of it from the lateſt, beſt, and moſt authentic information.

Gibraltar is a large promontory in the province of Andaluſia, in Spain, joined by a narrow neck of land, only three thouſand and ninety feet in its narroweſt, and four thouſand five hundred and fifty feet in its wideſt part; in length it is four thouſand four hundred feet from the northern part of the mountain to where the neck widens on the continent. The extreme length of the peninſula from the northern plain to the ſouthermoſt point, is two miles, two thouſand nine hundred and forty-feet: the extreme breadth of its baſe line is four thouſand two hundred and ninety-ſix feet. The town is on the weſt ſide of the mountain, occupying a ſmall inclined plain of five thouſand eight hundred and twenty feet long, and one thouſand one hundred feet broad, which ſize cannot poſſibly be increaſed, as it is bounded on the weſt and north by the bay, and on the eaſt and ſouth by the riſing of the mountain. The ſummit of the rock is about one thouſand four hundred feet perpendicular above the ſea; it riſes not with a ſudden elevation, but by hill placed upon hill.

In July 1773 there were ſeven regiments at Gibraltar, and about ſix hundred men were always on guard at a time: the diſcipline obſerved here is very ſtrict. There are three hundred and forty guns mounted on the fortifications, and there is room for one hundred more: thoſe of the grand battery are of bronze, the reſt of iron. No perſon is allowed to quit the Engliſh territory, either by ſea or land, without a paſs from the governor. Gibraltar has undergone no fewer than twelve ſieges, beſides the late one.

In 1310 Alonzo Perez de Guzman firſt took it from the infidels, which ſo enraged them, that they murdered their king, Mahomet.

The ſecond ſiege was in 1316, when Iſmael, king of Granada, in vain attempted to retake it.

The third commenced in February 1332, under Abamelique, when the Spaniards, after enduring almoſt intolerable fatigue, and ſubſiſting for weeks on the leather of their ſhields, were ſtarved into a ſurrender in the middle of June.

The fourth ſiege was begun by Don Alonzo XI. in the end of the ſame month, he having been within four days march of the place on its ſurrender. This inveſtment was attended with uncommon circumſtances of hardſhip, both to the beſieged and beſiegers. The latter were blocked up in the neck of Gibraltar by the king of Grenada and Abamelique, who marched with an army to the relief of the garriſon. At laſt, on the twentieth of Auguſt, a peace was concluded, and the ſiege was raiſed.

Don Alonzo again ſat down before it in the ſummer 1349, and during this, which was the fifth ſiege, and which continued for nine months, the garriſon was reduced to great ſtraits. But Don Alonzo was carried off by the plague in March 1350.

The emperors of Fez neglecting their Spaniſh territories, Juzaf, third king of Grenada, took it in 1410. This was the ſixth ſiege, but the inhabitants drove out the conquerors, and put themſelves under the protection of Muley Bueld, emperor of Fez.

Juzaf beſieged it in form the January following, with a fleet and army, and the garriſon was ſtarved into a ſurrender. This was the ſeventh ſiege.

The eighth ſiege was in 1438, when Don Enrique de Guzman attacked it with a ſtrong force, but was defeated by the Moors, and drowned; his ſon, however, brought off the remains of his army.

In 1462 the ſon returned with a greater force, and took the place, which ever ſince has remained in the poſſeſſion of the Chriſtians. This was the ninth ſiege.

The tenth was in 1704, when it was torn from the Spaniards by the Engliſh, under the command of Sir George Rooke. Upon this occaſion the conqueſt was particularly aſcribed to the ſeamen, whoſe irregular enterprize hurried them to ſeveral poſts which commanded the garriſon, and which brought the enemy to ſurrender.

The Spaniards were ſorely hurt with the loſs of this important ſtation. They knew its conſequence, and, added to the value conferred by its ſtrength and ſituation, the circumſtance of giving to an antient enemy ſuch a footing in the kingdom, was a mortification which the proud ſpirit of the Spaniards could not bear. An expedition was immediately formed, and the eleventh ſiege commenced under the marquis de Villadarias. The ſiege laſted four months; and finding all their efforts, though vigorous, were vain, it was abandoned in 1705.

Great Britain, fully ſenſible of its importance, hath maintained it at an immenſe coſt, and hath taken ſuch advantage of its natural powers in diſpoſing the works that have been raiſed, as to make it indubitably the ſtrongeſt fortification in the univerſe.

The late ſiege, which was the thirteenth, continued inceſſantly for four years, it having been inveſted by ſea and land in the month of July 1779; by ſea under the command of Don Barcelo, and by land under Don Juan de Mendoza: and the garriſon preſented to Europe a picture of the moſt gallant defence. They reſiſted the efforts of the moſt numerous and beſt equipped band of beſiegers that, perhaps, ever beſet any fortreſs. The Spaniards bent every endeavour to this ſingle object. They ſtarved their marine, and neglected their power in every other quarter of the globe, that they might employ all their reſources, and direct all their attention to this great end. Their works were immenſe, their induſtry, indefatigable. They endeavoured to accompliſh its reduction by the conſtancy of their attack: by their numbers they were able to make their operations inceſſant, that the garriſon might have no relaxation from fatigue, no opportunity for repoſe. All their ſtruggles, however, were rendered abortive. Our fleets have annually relieved the garriſon, and on the only occaſion when they were oppoſed, had the glory to gain a ſignal victory over the Spaniſh ſquadron, commanded by Don Juan de Langara. The Engliſh fleet was commanded by the gallant Admiral Rodney, who took from the enemy the Phœnix, Don Juan de Langara, admiral, commander, eighty guns, and ſeven hundred men: the Minorca, Princeſſa, and Diligente, ſeventy guns, and ſix hundred men each: the San Julian and San Eugenio were alſo

taken; the former went on ſhore, the latter was driven on the breakers, and loſt: the San Juſti and San Lorenzo eſcaped, very much damaged: the San Domingo of ſeventy guns and ſix hundred men, blew up in the action, and all on board periſhed. The loſs, upon this occaſion, on the ſide of the Engliſh, was one hundred and thirty-two men killed, and one hundred and two wounded. The happy conſequence of this victory was, the effectual relief and ſecurity of the garriſon.

Gibraltar, however, continued to be inveſted by the combined forces of France and Spain, till the month of September, 1782, when the enemy made their grand but ineffectual attack on the place, both by ſea and land, of which the following account was publiſhed by authority, on the ſixteenth of November, in the ſame year; in a letter from the right honourable General Elliot, the brave governor, to the ſecretary of ſtate; dated

Gibraltar, September 15, 1782.

"My Lord,

"THE enemy having collected his whole force by ſea and land; forty-four ſail of the line, beſides three inferior two-deckers; ten battering ſhips, five bomb-ketches, ſeveral frigates and zebeques, a great number of guns and mortar boats, a large floating battery, many armed veſſels, and near three hundred boats, purpoſely conſtructed for carrying troops:

"Their land batteries mounted with above one hundred pieces of cannon, and an equal number of mortars and howitzers:

"An army of near forty thouſand men:

"On the thirteenth inſtant, at eight in the morning, all the battering ſhips, commanded by Don Buenventura Moreno, rear-admiral, were put in motion, and came forward to the ſeveral ſtations previouſly determined they ſhould take up: the admiral being placed upon the capital of the King's Baſtion, the other ſhips extending three to the ſouthward of the flag, as far as the church battery; five to the northward, about the height of the Old Mole; and one a very little to the weſtward of the admiral; by a quarter before ten they were anchored in line, at the diſtance of a thouſand to twelve hundred yards: immediately a heavy cannonade began from all the ſhips, ſupported by the cannon and mortars in the enemy's lines and approaches: at the ſame inſtant our batteries opened with hot and cold ſhot from the guns; and ſhells from the howitzers and mortars. This firing continued, without intermiſſion, on both ſides, until noon, when that of the enemy from their ſhips ſeemed to ſlacken, although but little. About two o'clock the admiral's ſhip was obſerved to ſmoke, as if on fire, and a few men buſy on the roof, ſearching for the cauſe. Our batteries never diſcontinued: the enemy's fire from the ſhips gradually decreaſed. About ſeven in the evening they fired from a few guns, and that only at intervals. At midnight the admiral's ſhip was plainly diſcovered beginning to burn; an hour after it was completely in flames: eight more of the ſhips took fire in ſucceſſion. Signals of diſtreſs being now made, the launches, feluccas, and boats of the wole fleet, began to take out the men from on board the burning ſhips. Many ſhots were ſtill fired from thoſe in which the flames had yet made no conſiderable progreſs; and the fire from the enemy's batteries on ſhore did not in the leaſt diminiſh. Brigadier Curtis, who, with his ſquadron of gun-boats lay ready to take advantage of any favourable circumſtance, left the New Mole at two o'clock, and about three formed a line upon the enemy's flank, advancing and firing with great order and expedition; which ſo aſtoniſhed and diſconcerted the enemy, they fled precipitately with all their boats, abandoning the ſhips, in which ſome officers, and numbers of their men, including many wounded, were left to periſh. This unavoidably muſt have been their wretched fate, had they not been dragged from amidſt the flames by the perſonal intrepidity of brigadier Curtis, at the utmoſt hazard of his own life, a life invaluable to his Majeſty's ſervice. For ſome time I felt the utmoſt anguiſh, ſeeing his pinnace cloſe to one of the largeſt ſhips at the inſtant ſhe blew up, and ſpread her wreck to a vaſt extent all round. The black cloud of ſmoke being diſperſed, I was again revived by the ſight of the pinnace, little apprehending that the Brigadier was in the utmoſt danger of ſinking, ſome pieces of timber having fallen into, and pierced the boat, (killing the cockſwain, and wounding others of the men) ſcarce any hope left of reaching the ſhore: providentially he was ſaved by ſtopping the hole with the ſeamens jackets, until boats arrived to their relief. One of our gun-boats was ſunk at the ſame moment.

"In the courſe of the day the remaining eight ſhips ſeverally blew up with violent exploſions: one only eſcaped the effects of our fire, which it was thought proper to burn, there being no poſſibility of preſerving her.

"The admiral's flag remained flying on board his ſhip, till ſhe was totally conſumed."

"Extract of a letter, from Captain Curtis, dated Gibraltar, September 15, 1782.

"At eight o'clock in the morning of the 13th, the ten battering ſhips of the enemy lying at the head of the bay, under the command of admiral Moreno, began to get under ſail, in order to come againſt the garriſon; every thing was in readineſs for their reception. At ten the admiral's ſhip was placed about one thouſand yards from the King's Baſtion, and commenced his fire. The others were very ſhortly afterwards poſted to the north and ſouth of him, at ſmall diſtances aſunder, and began their cannonade. They were all fixed on the ſtations allotted them in a maſterly manner. Our batteries opened as the enemy came before them: the fire was very heavy on both ſides: the red-hot ſhot were ſent with ſuch preciſion from the garriſon, that in the afternoon the ſmoke was ſeen to iſſue from the upper part of the Admiral, and one other, and men were perceived to be uſing fire-engines, and pouring water into the holes, endeavouring to extinguiſh the fire. Their efforts proved ineffectual; by one o'clock in the morning the two before-mentioned were in flames, and ſeveral others actually on fire, though as yet not in ſo great a degree. Confuſion was now plainly obſerved among them, and the numerous rockets thrown up from each of the ſhips, was a clear demonſtration of their great diſtreſs: their ſignals were anſwered from the enemy's fleet, and they immediately began to take away the men, it being impoſſible to remove the ſhips. I thought this a fit opportunity to employ my gun-boats, and I advanced with the whole (twelve in number, each carrying a twenty-four or eighteen-pounder) and drew them up ſo as to flank the line of the enemy's battering ſhips, while they were annoyed extremely by an exceſſive heavy and well-directed fire from the garriſon. The fire from the gun-boats was kept up with great vigour and effect. The boats of the enemy durſt not approach: they abandoned their ſhips, and the men left in them to our mercy, or to the flames. The day-light now appeared, and two feluccas, which had not yet eſcaped, endeavoured to get away; but a ſhot from a gun-boat killing five men in one of them, they ſubmitted. The ſcene at this time before me was dreadful to a high degree, numbers of men crying from amidſt the flames, ſome upon pieces of wood in the water, others appearing in the ſhips where the fire had as yet made but little progreſs, all expreſſing by ſpeech and geſture the deepeſt diſtreſs, and all imploring aſſiſtance, formed a ſpectacle of horror not eaſily to be deſcribed. Every exertion was made to relieve them; and I have inexpreſſible happineſs in informing my Lords, that the number ſaved amounts to thirteen officers, and three hundred and forty-four men. One officer and twenty-nine wounded (ſome of them dreadfully) taken from among the ſlain in the holds, are in our hoſpital, and many of them in a fair way. The blowing up of the ſhips around us, as the fire got to the magazines, and the firing of the cannon of others, as the metal became heated by the flames, rendered this a very perilous employment; but we felt it as much a duty to make every effort to relieve our enemies from ſo ſhocking a ſituation, as an hour before we did to aſſiſt in conquering them. The loſs of the enemy muſt have been very conſiderable, (private accounts make it two thouſands.). Great numbers were killed on board, and in boats. Several launches were ſunk. In one of them were fourſcore men, who were all drowned, except an officer and twelve men, who were floated under our walls upon the wreck. It was impoſſible that greater exertions could have been made to prevent it, but there is every reaſon to believe that a great many wounded periſhed in the flames. All the battering ſhips were ſet on fire by our hot ſhot, except one, which we afterwards burnt. The admiral left his flag flying, and it was conſumed with the ſhip."

By the late treaty of peace between England, Spain, and the other belligerent powers, which was concluded in the begining of the year 1783, this important place, ſo gallantly defended, is allowed ſtill to remain in the hands of the Engliſh, no ſtipulation having been made concerning it.

The town of Algeziras is at preſent but a mean, old place in the Streights, and has a decayed harbour, with only a few ſhattered houſes. The Moors firſt landed here, and held the place almoſt ſeven hundred years. The word Algezira, in Arabic, ſignifies an iſland; and the harbour being formed by two iſlands, it has been called in the plu-

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ral number Algeziras. This port was, however, ſerviceable to the Spaniards, for ſheltering and repairing their ſhips of war during the ſiege of Gibraltar.

The next kingdom included in the province of Andaluſia, is Cordova, which though much ſmaller than that of Seville, is equal to it in fertility.

Cordova, the city, anciently called Corduba and Colonia Patricia, lies in thirty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in four degrees fifty-three minutes weſt longitude. It is a very ancient city, ſituated in a beautiful and very ſpacious plain on the banks of the river Guadalquiver, over which there is a ſtone bridge of ſixteen arches. On the north ſide of the town runs the Siera Morena, a remarkable chain of mountains that ſtretch themſelves from the ſea above two hundred miles inland. The walls are in many places entire, partly Roman, partly Mooriſh. It is at preſent a conſiderable city, but badly built, the ſtreets narrow and irregular: the houſes are chiefly ſtone, conſtructed in the Mooriſh taſte, on each ſide of a ſquare court-yard. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo, has an annual revenue of forty thouſand ducats. The cathedral is a large antique and magnificent ſquare building. The eſpiſcopal palace is a large ſtructure. The Alcazar, or Mooriſh palace, is now made uſe of for the inquiſition. In 1586 Cordova ſuffered very much by an earthquake. This town has been famous for its leather; whence the Engliſh word cordwain, from Cordovan. There is alſo a conſiderable ſilk manufactory carried on in this place.

The neighbouring mountains are covered with delightful gardens and plantations of olives, oranges, lemons, and figs. They are alſo interſperſed with pleaſant valleys, refreſhed with ſprings of good water. When the abovementioned trees are in bloſſom, they diffuſe a fragrancy all over the country. Beſides the excellence of the wine, and the plenty of fruits and vegetables, there is the fineſt breed of Spaniſh horſes in this country.

The town of Andujor, one hundred and fifty miles ſouth of Madrid, is ſituated in a fertile ſoil, and has a bridge over the Guadalquiver; Lucena, forty-five miles ſouth-weſt from Seville, is a conſiderable city, very pleaſantly ſituated; and Vaena is a large pleaſant town belonging to the town of Sexi.

Jean is the ſmalleſt of the three kingdoms comprehended in the province of Andaluſia. The principal city it contains is Jean, which ſtands at the foot of a mountain, and is defended by a caſtle. It is populous, and has ſome fine churches and monaſteries; but the greateſt devotion is paid here to St. Veronica. Its biſhop, who is under the archbiſhop of Toledo, has a yearly income of twenty thouſand ducats. It was once the capital of a Mooriſh kingdom; and the country particularly abounds in ſilk, beſides producing great plenty of corn, wine, oil, and fruit.

The other towns of leſs note, are, 1. Ubeda, the Ubea, or Vetala of the Romans, a ſmall city, one hundred and fifty miles ſouth from Madrid, and fifty-ſeven north from Grenada. 2. Baeza, anciently Vatia, Beathia, and Beatia, a conſiderable city, three miles from the Guadalquiver, and about fifteen ſouth-weſt from Ubeda.

Beſides the above-mentioned, there are ſeveral other places of ſome note in the province of Andaluſia; namely, 1. Alcantara, between Seville and St. Lucar, which has a fine Roman bridge over the Moraſus. 2. Oſſuna. 3. Medina Sidonia, twenty-ſeven miles eaſt of Cadiz. 4. Traigueros, about thirty miles north of Palos. 5. San Lucar de Barameda, at the mouth of the Guadalquiver, forty-five miles below Seville. 6. Port St. Mary's, a walled town, at the mouth of the river Guadalete. 7. Palos, at the mouth of the Trino, about thirty miles north of St. Lucar. Chriſtopher Columbus ſet out from hence, in the year 1492, on the diſcovery of America. 8. Xeres de la Frontera, a pretty conſiderable town on the river Guadalete, ſix miles from the ſea, and fifty ſouth of Seville. The horſes bred here are reckoned the beſt in all Spain.

XIII. The province or kingdom of Granada, which is ſometimes called Upper Andaluſia, is bounded to the ſouth and eaſt by the Mediterranean; to the weſt and north by Lower Andaluſia; and to the north-eaſt by Murcia. Its extent, from weſt to eaſt, is two hundred and ten miles; but its greateſt breadth is about eighty.

The air is temperate and healthy; and though there are many mountains in the province, and ſome of them very high, yet they are almoſt every where covered with vines and fruit trees, together with laurel, myrtle, ſweet baſil, thyme, lavender, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which give an excellent taſte to the fleſh of their cattle and ſheep. The vallies are extremely beautiful, and the whole is well watered. This was the laſt of the Spaniſh kingdoms poſſeſſed by the Moors, who did not reduce it till the year 1492. The principal places are the following, viz. 1. Granada, the capital, which is ſituated at the conflux of the Zemland Daro, one hundred and eighty miles ſouth of Madrid. It ſtands in the midſt of a fruitful country, has a fine air, is capacious and populous, being one of the largeſt cities in Spain, and containing upwards of ninety thouſand inhabitants. It is of a circular form; and the ſnowy tops of the Sierra Nevada mountains, which are ſeen at the diſtance of three leagues, greatly diverſify and add to the verdure of the circumjacent ſcene. The cathedral is very large; and the inſide, within theſe fifteen years, has been incruſted with the fineſt marble highly poliſhed, and enriched with ornaments of bronze; but though the whole is expreſſive and coſtly, the workmanſhip is executed in a deſpicable manner. In the adjoining chapel royal ſeveral crowned heads, and other great perſonages, lie buried. The church of St. John of God has a handſome ſtone front, and elegant cloiſters, which, in 1749, were painted in freſco.

The royal palace of the Alhumbra is one of the moſt entire, as well as moſt magnificent of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhumbra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1658, but which was never finiſhed; the ſhell of it remains; it is built of yellow ſtone; the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico, of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many pieces of marble. The Alhumbra is a maſs of many houſes and towers walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and ceiling, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt. All the floors are either marbled or tiled.

The ſilk manufactory in Granada is very conſiderable, and the arſenal is the beſt furniſhed of any in Spain. There is likewiſe a theatre, which is but mean and dark; a circular amphitheatre for bull-feaſts, built of brick, with wooden ſeats, and conſiſting of two rows of boxes ſixty-eight in each row; the inner area being one hundred and eighty-five feet in diameter; a court of inquiſition, a royal tribunal, &c. There is a large plain without the city, called La Vega de Granada, which is full of hamlets, villages, and other ſmall buildings.

2. The ancient city of Malaga is large, well-built, ſtrongly fortified, and populous: it has a fine harbour on the Mediterranean, two hundred and ſixty miles ſouth of Madrid, and ſeventy-five ſouth-weſt from Granada. The city is encompaſſed with a double wall, and defended by two caſtles. So great is the exportation from hence of wines, raiſins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits, beſides wool and oil, that the duties on them are ſaid to yield to the king eight hundred thouſand ducats per annum. The harbour runs up into the town five hundred and thirty common paces, with a good breadth, and four ſtairs to take water at, and twenty-four pillars of jaſper ſtone to faſten the ſhips to. The biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Seville, and has a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats per annum.

3. Seventy miles ſouth-weſt from Granada ſtands Antiquera, which is a pretty large and handſome town, with a caſtle. Near it is a famed ſalt-pit, which ſupplies the whole territory with that commodity; with a ſpring, which is ſaid to be an excellent lithontriptic, or diſſolvent for the ſtone in the urinary paſſages: here are alſo a parcel of rocks, called El Torcal, which at a diſtance repreſent men, beaſts, buildings, &c. and ſome caverns, that are ſaid formerly to have contained gold. This place is ſuppoſed to be the Singilium of Pliny, and the Antiquaria of the Itinerary.

4. The ſmall city of Almeria, on the Mediterranean, is ſituated two hundred and ten miles ſouth-eaſt from Madrid, and ſixty-four ſouth-eaſt from Granada. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Granada, and has a revenue of four thouſand ducats: this place has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

5. Guadix, twenty-four miles eaſt of Granada, is the ſee of a biſhop. 6. Alhama, twenty-eight miles ſouth-eaſt of Granada, has ſome admirable warm baths. 7. Gueſcar, between the Guadadar and Dravate, belongs to the duke of Alva, and has a great trade in wool. Loxa Santa Fé,

Fé, Baza, Velez-Malaga, and Ronda, are too inconſiderable to merit attention.

XIV. The laſt province we have to deſcribe is Murcia, which was anciently a kingdom: it has New Caſtile on the north; Andaluſia on the weſt; Valentia on the north-eaſt; Granada on the ſouth-weſt; and the Mediterranean on the ſouth. It is one hundred miles long, ninety in the broadeſt part, well watered, and tolerably fertile.

This province contains, 1. Murcia, from which it takes its name, ſituated in a ſpacious and delightful plain, on the river Segura, about two hundred miles ſouth-eaſt from Madrid, and about twenty north from Carthagena. This is a large and populous city, having a great many convents, churches, ſquares, and gates, with a good wall, a court of inquiſition, a ſtately palace, and a caſtle. It hath often ſuffered by the inundations of the Segura. The adjacent country abounds in mulberry trees, olives, ſugar canes, and fine fruits.

2. The town of Carthagena has a noted ſea-port on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, not far from Cape Palos, one hundred and eighty miles ſouth-ſouth-eaſt, from Madrid, and forty-two ſouth-weſt from Murcia. It is ſaid to have been built by Aſdrubal, the Carthaginian general, two hundred and twenty-five years before Chriſt, and called Carthage Nova, or New Carthage.

The air here is temperate in ſummer, and ſo mild in winter, that the roſes blow as fair and freſh at Chriſtmas, as in England in June. Both city and harbour are well fortified. The bay on which it ſtands abounds in fiſh, eſpecially mackarel; and the neighbouring country affords diamonds, rubies, amethyſts, garnets, agates, and mines of allum. The city is pretty large, and its harbour one of the beſt in Spain. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo. Under the Romans and Carthaginians this was one of the moſt flouriſhing cities in all Spain; for, from hence they ſhipped off thoſe vaſt quantities of gold and ſilver which they dug in the Pyrenees and other mountains.

3. Almaçaſon, a little ſea-port at the mouth of the Guadalantin, is celebrated for the mines of allum in its neighbourhood.

4. Lorca, forty-two miles ſouth-weſt from Murcia, is pretty populous: it is ſituated on the Guadalantin.

SECT. III.

Deſcribing the Manners and Cuſtoms of the SPANIARDS; their Language, Religion, Diverſions, Bull-feaſts, Plays, &c.

THE inhabitants of Spain are grave and ſolemn in their behaviour; they are remarkable for frugality, love of pomp, fidelity, valour, intrepidity, and abhorrence of drunkenneſs: they are very jealous of their honour, when once engaged; and a celebrated author obſerves, that "the Spaniards have been, in all ages, famous for their honeſty." Juſtinian mentions their fidelity in keeping whatever was entruſted to their care: they have frequently ſuffered death rather than reveal a ſecret, and have ſtill the ſame fidelity for which they were formerly diſtinguiſhed.

The Spaniards, however, on the other hand, are univerſally too much given to women; and their jealouſy, where either their wife, daughter, ſiſter, or even miſtreſs is concerned, ſeldom fails to end in bloodſhed; for they think no means too cruel, baſe, or unjuſt, to wipe off any ſtain that is caſt upon their honour, or to gratify their revenge. Pride of birth is no where carried to a greater height; and the inſinuation, that a man is deſcended from the Moors, is ſufficient to make him ſtab the ſlanderer, or procure his being privately aſſaſſinated. In ſhort, they have a mixture of the moſt amiable virtues and the moſt ſhocking vices; and while they affect a haughty air to ſtrangers, no people in the world are more courteous to thoſe with whom they are intimately acquainted.

They are very moderate in their diet, and can make a meal of olives, a ſallad, a little garlic, or a few roots; but perſons of fortune have ſeveral expenſive diſhes. The men dine by themſelves, and their wives and children at ſeparate tables.

The Spaniſh women are for the moſt part very lean, and very amorous; they have black eyes, flat boſoms, ſmall feet, and long garments. They ſit croſs-legged on carpets, a cuſtom which they derived from the Moors. They are much addicted to painting, though their huſbands, through jealouſy, keep them very much at home.

It is computed, that the kingdom of Spain contains about ſeven millions and a half of inhabitants; but it would ſupport more than twice that number, were it properly cultivated. In the time of the Goths and Moors, it was ſuppoſed to contain between twenty and thirty millions of people; and might yet be very powerful, if it had no poſſeſſions in America, but now it is thinly inhabited.

The number of inhabitants is but ſmall, yet their poverty is remarkable, for they not only live in a country capable of ſupporting many millions more than it does, in the greateſt plenty, but have prodigious ſums poured in from America. Davala computes that, from the year 1492 when America was diſcovered, to 1731, above ſix thouſand millions of pieces of eight in regiſtered gold and ſilver have been imported into Spain, excluſive of far greater ſums unregiſtered, beſides thoſe received by foreign merchants from the Spaniſh dominions in America. It even appears that one year with another, Spain receives from their American colonies above twenty-ſix millions of pezos, or pieces of eight: yet Uſtariz computes, that all the coined and wrought gold and ſilver in Spain, including that belonging to churches and private perſons, ſcarcely amounts to one hundred millions of piaſtres of four ſhillings and ſixpence each.

The poverty of the Spaniards is generally aſcribed to two cauſes; the firſt of which is their want of induſtry in agriculture, handicrafts, and manufactories, which occaſion the country to be annually drained of many millions for corn and foreign goods: and ſecondly, to the inſatiable avarice of the clergy, who practiſe a thouſand arts to obtain the poſſeſſion of the wealth of the country.

Moſt of the provinces uſe what they call the Caſtellano, and Eſpannol, or Spaniſh, which has the neareſt affinity to the Latin, both in the words and the compoſition, of any language in Europe: but in Catalonia and Valencia the common people uſe a dialect of the Old French, or rather Gaſcon; but ſo mixed and corrupt, that none of the other provinces underſtand it.

In Spain the popiſh religion is practiſed with the greateſt ſcrupuloſity and pomp. In no country is there more praying and ceremony, and leſs real Chriſtianity. The Virgin Mary is more reſpected and adored among the Spaniards than God himſelf, as appears even from their compliments. The Spaniards are mere ſlaves to the clergy, who ſo artfully hoodwink them, that they do not perceive the chains of their ſlavery, or, if they do perceive them, bear them willingly: and when they gall them, dare not ſo much as vent a ſigh after freedom. Under any diſappointment, either in views of avarice or ambition, the clergy have their dreadful inquiſition at hand, which ſeizes both on honour and life; ſo that perſons of the moſt unſpotted innocence eſteem it a particular favour to come off only with the loſs of their fortunes. This infernal court was firſt introduced in 1478, by king Ferdinand the Catholic, and queen Iſabella, at the ſuggeſtions of John de Torquemada, a dominican, who was the firſt inquiſitor. At Madrid it conſiſts of an inquiſitor-general and ſix counſellors, one of whom is always a dominican, two judges, one fiſcal, and ſeveral other officers and aſſiſtants. The number of the families who are diſperſed all over Spain, as ſpies and informers, are computed at about twenty thouſand. Under this ſupreme court are others in the principal cities in the kingdom, and even in the Canary iſlands, Mexico, Carthagena, and Lima. But according to the lateſt accounts the power of this tribunal is now declining very viſibly, and ſeems haſtening to its fall.

It is neceſſary, however, to obſerve, that, amidſt the great decreaſe of the inhabitants in Spain, the body of the clergy have ſuffered no diminution; but has rather been gradually increaſing, inſomuch that Uſtariz computes the number of eccleſiaſtics and their ſervants at two hundred and fifty thouſand. The king nominates all biſhops and archbiſhops, who are afterwards confirmed by the pope.

A ſtranger finds many inconveniencies in this country, from the miſerable accommodations to be met with on the public roads; for, it ſeems, you muſt abſolutely carry your proviſions and bedding along with you; and even then, without you can bear fatigue well, lie down in your clothes, eat eggs, onions, and cheeſe; unleſs you can ſleep when your mules reſt, riſe the moment you are called, and ſet out early in the morning before the heat comes on, you will fare ill as a traveller. It is a good method to carry dried tongues with you, hard eggs, ſome portable ſoup, tea, ſugar, and ſpirituous liquors, not forgetting even pepper and ſalt; and whenever you meet with good bread, meat, fowls, and wine, always to buy them, whether you want them, or not, becauſe you know not what to-morrow may produce. A knife, fork, and ſpoon, are abſolutely neceſſary,

neceſſary, for you will find none; nor ſhould you omit a pair of ſnuffers, a candleſtick, and ſome wax-candles; but great care muſt be taken to carry neither tobacco nor rum, for they are contraband, and may occaſion the detention, if not the ſeizure of your baggage. You ſhould likewiſe have but few books, leſt they ſhould be ſeized.

In deſcribing the diverſions and paſtimes of the Spaniards, we ſhall firſt take notice of the bull-feaſt exhibited in the Plaça Mayor at Madrid as related by Carlton:

The ſport being to laſt three days, on the firſt, all the gentry of the place, and the neighbouring country, in their richeſt habits, reſorted to the great ſquare, and took their place on the ſcaffolds, while the populace, having provided themſelves with ſpears and darts, ſtood ready for the encounter; for the bull does not only fight with the tauriro (who is a perſon uſually hired on theſe occaſions, in the leſſer cities) but with the whole multitude, who throw their darts at him as often as they have opportunity. As ſoon as the door of the ſtall is opened, and the bull perceives the light, he comes out, ſnuffing the wind, and ſtaring about him, ſtamps on the ground, as in defiance of his enemies. Soon after the tauriro, cloathed in white, and holding his cloak in one hand, and a ſword in the other, enters the liſts; on whom, when the brute has ſet his eyes, he moves at firſt gently towards him; then gradually mending his pace till he comes within twenty yards of the tauriro, he ſprings forward and runs at him with all his force. The tauriro having ſlipt on one ſide, and avoided him, throws the cloak over his horns, and cuts him over the neck if he can, there being one particular place, which if he hits, he eaſily brings him to the ground. Carlton alſo ſays, he ſaw a bull ſo ſtunned with one ſtroke that he could not move, and the blood flowing plentifully out of the wound, after a violent trembling, the creature fell down dead. But this rarely happens, for he uſually receives a great number of wounds by ſwords and darts before he dies; and whenever he feels a freſh wound, he redoubles his fury againſt the tauriro, who having avoided him again, ſeldom fails to give him another wound. When the tauriro is wearied out, they bring in their dogs, hamſtring the beaſt, and pierce him till he expires; after which he is carried out of the barrier, with the loud acclamations of the people, as if ſome ſignal victory had been obtained. Our author relates, that he ſaw the tauriro, who was hired on this occaſion, and was eſteemed one of the beſt in Spain, mount one of theſe bulls, cutting and ſlaſhing him, till he had wearied the beaſt out, and then diſmounting, killed him with eaſe, to the great ſatisfaction of the multitude, who made the air ring with their ſhouts; and on ſuch occaſions, money is thrown to the tauriro, by the ſpectators, for his encouragement. On the third day of the feaſt, a young gentleman of quality, named don Pedro Ortega, performed the part of a tauriro, on horſeback, when the ſeats were covered with people of faſhion, who came from diſtant places to ſee the encounter. He entered the liſts, finely mounted on a managed horſe, attended by four footmen in rich liveries, who after their maſter had rode round the ſquare, and paid his compliments to the company, withdrew from the danger. Then the bull was let out, and having ſtood a little while ſtaring about, fixed his eyes upon his adverſary, and run at him with the utmoſt fury. The cavalier having dexterouſly avoided the brute, wounded him with a dart in the ſhoulder, whereupon the people ſhouted, their vivas were repeated, and the lady of his affections waved her handkerchief, as a mark of her ſatisfaction. The cavalier endeavoured always to keep his horſe on the ſide of the bull, for the advantage of ſtriking him, and throwing another dart, fixed it in his flank: but notwithſtanding the gentleman behaved to admiration, and often received the vivas and huzzas of the people; the bull, at length, getting his horns between the horſe's hinder legs, threw both man and horſe to the ground, and it was expected he would have killed them both, when, to the ſurprize of every one he withdrew to the farther ſide of the ſquare, and ſtood ſtaring about him. In the mean time the cavalier was carried off not much hurt.

The foot tauriro hereupon entered the liſts again, imagining he ſhould have met with an eaſy conqueſt; but the ſame bull made him frequently retreat into the places contrived for the ſecurity of footmen; nor was he able to diſpatch the creature at laſt, without the general aſſiſtance, the bull having near one hundred darts ſtuck in him before he fell, beſides many cuts and gaſhes in his fleſh. This ſport ſeemed to be ſo very barbarous to the late king, that he has been heard to ſay, it deſerved very little encouragement: at the ſame time, his ſubjects were ſo enchanted with the diverſion, that he did not think fit entirely to aboliſh it. Theſe entertainments, however, are of late much leſs frequent than they were formerly.

The court never exhibit the bull-feaſt in the Plaça Mayor but upon ſome extraordinary occaſion, as the acceſſion or marriage of their kings, for it is attended with very great expence, both to his majeſty and the city. But there is a theatre built without the walls, where there are bull-feaſts every fortnight, which to connoiſſeurs are greatly preferable to the others, the bulls being more furious, and the danger greater to thoſe who fight them; but their manner of engaging them is pretty much alike.

The theatrical exhibitions in Spain are generally abſurd. The prompter's head appears through a trap door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. There are two theatres in Madrid for the performance of Spaniſh plays. Rope dancing is exhibited in one of them, which was called El Theatro de la Cruz (the theatre of the Croſs), where there are three rows of boxes, fifteen in each row. Part of the pit has benches, with arms dividing them into diſtinct ſeats. The Spaniſh tragedies are for the moſt part ridiculous bombaſt, yet contain ſome elevated ſentiments: and their comedies are a jumble of religion and buffoonery mingled together in a moſt whimſical and inconſiſtent manner, though much humour and many ſtrokes of wit are diſcernible through their manifeſt abſurdities.

The Spaniards ſeem to give a military turn to many of their diverſions, and even in the very terms and language they uſe at cards: hombre in Spaniſh ſignifies a man, and from thence we derive our game at ombre; the four principal cards are called matadores, or murderers, becauſe they win all others. Spadillo is the little ſword, or, as we call it, the ace of ſpades; for ſpado, in Spaniſh, ſignifies a ſword, and their cards are painted with a figure of that weapon.

The Spaniards uſually breakfaſt and ſup in bed; their breakfaſt is frequently chocolate, tea being ſeldom drank by them. Their dinner is generally a pochero, or beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, and greens, &c. all boiled together. If it be a richer or more expenſive mixture of meats and delicacies, it is then termed an olla podrida, or what we call an olio. They are fond of garlic; and it is a proverb among them, that olives, ſallad, and radiſhes, are food for gentlemen. After dinner they commonly ſleep.

Men and women all wear the ſame dreſs in the ſtreets and at maſs; but on other occaſions, and in their private viſits, the ladies wear as great a variety of dreſs, and of a much richer ſort than thoſe of England. The ſpirit of jealouſy is ſo far worn out, that the married ladies of Madrid have each their profeſſed lover, like the cicisbeo of the Italian ladies.

With reſpect to their evening's airing, it is to the laſt degree inſipid: you ſee nothing but a ſtring of coaches following one another, filled with people of faſhion; here a duke and his confeſſor; there a couple of ſmart young abbés; here a whole family grouped together, huſband, wife, and children. When they take their airing on gala or court days, all their footmen wear plumes of feathers in their hats, and are dreſſed in laced liveries.

The grandees, and people of the firſt faſhion, keep a great number of ſervants. Some of them have three or four hundred domeſtics, and the Engliſh embaſſador, in compliance with the taſte of the country, keeps near a hundred. As their coaches are uſually drove with four mules, they have two poſtillions; with generally four and ſometimes ſix footmen behind their coaches. They take out the ſides and backs of their coaches, for the ſake of the air, in hot weather.

The Spaniards ſeldom uſe ſedans; and when they do they have always two footmen who go on each ſide the hindmoſt chairman, in order to hold him up leſt he ſhould fall: there are two on each ſide of the ſedan, and two who follow behind with lanterns, though it be in the middle of the day. Thus, excluſive of thoſe who go before, they have generally nine ſervants with a coach, and ten with a ſedan.

SECT. IV.

Of the Genius, Learning, Religion, Trade, and Commerce, Coins, Weights, and Meaſures, Conſtitution, Orders of Knighthood, Revenue, Forces, &c. of the SPANIARDS.

THOUGH the inhabitants of Spain are not wanting in capacity for the ſciences, yet little progreſs can be expected from them while they are debarred the uſe of their

natural talents. The clergy not being very learned themſelves, it is a point of policy with them to ſuppreſs all ſcientifical knowledge among the laity; and in order to keep them in ignorance and ſubjection, they brand all literary reſearches with the name of hereſy.

The preſent ſtate of divinity conſiſts much as it formerly did, in the ſtudy of the fathers, councils and decrees of the popes and their canons, and in ſyſtems of Thomatic and Auguſtine theology. The knowledge of the learned languages, and explication of the text of the ſacred writings, have little to do with it. To this tract of criticiſm they are almoſt utter ſtrangers, though they are well verſed in caſuiſtry, which makes a conſtant part of the ſtudies preparatory to the office of a clergyman.

The Spaniards have had many valuable writers in hiſtory; but it is dangerous to deſcend too near to the preſent time; beſides, his preſent majeſty has abſolutely forbid any of his ſubjects to write the hiſtory of Charles V. of Spain.

They are ſaid to be at leaſt two centuries behind the Engliſh, in phyſic and ſurgery; but where the people are perſuaded that ſaints, miracles, and charms can be procured to cure the moſt inveterate diſeaſes, there muſt be little inclination to have recourſe to art. However, they ſtill practiſe copious bleeding in moſt diſeaſes, and botany is much ſtudied among them.

They have many writers in poetry, beſides the celebrated Lopez de Vega, who wrote the Jeruſalem Conquiſtada, tragedies, comedies, &c. Their ſongs have a wonderful air of ſimplicity, and in ſome of them are much ſentiment as well as dignity: thoſe upon love are exceedingly chaſte; and ſome have a pleaſing air of romance, but like the people, are moral, grave, majeſtic, and penſive.

Cervantes and Guevara are their moſt celebrated writers of humour in proſe: the moſt famous work of the latter is the El Diablo Caxuelo, which la Sage modernized into a romance, known in Engliſh by the title of the Devil on two Sticks; and Diable Boiteux, in French.

Here is a want even of the moſt neceſſary trades; and of the few they have, the greateſt part are in the hands of the French, who are very numerous in this country: for the natives, beſides their averſion to work, diſdain to ſtoop to laborious employments. They are not, however, entirely without manufacturers, eſpecially of ſilk and wool; but theſe fall far ſhort of that flouriſhing condition to which they might be brought: and as tradeſmen and merchants are looked upon with contempt, they have no ſooner amaſſed a competent fortune, then they leave off trade, procure a title, and ſet up for perſons of quality.

This kingdom is extremely well ſituated for trade and navigation; they might be their own carriers; but this advantage they neglect, and leave it to other maritime nations, who turn it to a very good account. The Spaniards indeed deny them all acceſs to their poſſeſſions in America, and are ſo jealous of having that trade confined only to themſelves, that no foreign ſhips muſt even approach their coaſt: yet of this commerce, which is carried on in their own ſhips, they have the leaſt profit, they being little more than factors for the French, Engliſh, Dutch, and Italians, who ſend their goods to America by them, and have the greateſt ſhare in their returns of gold, ſilver, and other valuable merchandize.

The Spaniſh trade to America was formerly carried on by the flota and galleons; but ſince the years 1735 and 1737, the flota and galleons have been diſcontinued, and the trade to America carried on in regiſter ſhips, which any merchants may ſend, on obtaining permiſſion from the council of the Indies. Theſe ſail from Cadiz directly to Lima, Buenos Ayres, Maracaibo, Carthagena, Honduras, Campeche, Vera Cruz, &c.

The Spaniards alſo carry on a very conſiderable trade to the coaſts on the South ſea, between the town of Manilla, in the iſland of Luconia, and the harbour of Acapulco on the coaſt of Mexico.

The Spaniſh money is not eaſily underſtood; for the Spaniards make up moſt of their accounts, and form their calculations chiefly in theſe two ſpecies, the real de vellon, and the marevedi. The latter is the loweſt of the denominations of their copper money, and in this the king's accounts are kept; conſequently the revenues of Spain, and the wealth brought from Peru and Mexico, are annually computed by an integer of copper, that is three times leſs than our farthing. The real de vellon is the ſmalleſt piece of their ſilver money, and equals our two-pence half-penny, and two thirds of a farthing.

Our Engliſh merchants traffic chiefly in pieces of eight, and compute uſually by the piaſtre, an old diſuſed piece of eight, conſiſting of fifteen reals and two maravedis: or if they recon by piſtoles, they mean the piſtole of ſixty reals, which is the common piſtole, and not the gold one of ſeventy-five and ten maravedis, called the doubloon effectivo de oro by the Spaniards.

That the reader may form a more perfect idea of the Spaniſh coin, we have reduced it to the Engliſh weights and value, as follows: The old Engliſh piſtole, four penny weights, eight grains: ſeventeen ſhillings and four-pence. The new Seville piſtole, four penny weights, eight grains; ſeventeen ſhillings and four-pence. The old double doubloon, ſeventeen penny weights, eight grains; three pounds nine ſhillings and four-pence. The old double piſtole, eight penny weights, ſixteen grains; one pound fourteen ſhillings and eight-pence. The new Seville double piſtole, eight penny weights, ſixteen grains; one pound fourteen ſhillings and eight-pence. And the half and quarter of theſe in proportion.——The piaſtre of Spain, or Seville pieces of eight, four ſhillings and ſix-pence. The new Seville piece of eight, three ſhillings and ſeven-pence. The Mexico piece of eight, four ſhillings and five-pence. The pillar piece of eight, four ſhillings and five-pence. The rial, or bit, ſeven-pence.

The weights commonly uſed in Spain, are, the arrobe, which is exactly twenty-five pounds Engliſh weight, four of which make a quintal or hundred: but as the pound of Cadiz and Seville are much larger than thoſe of Caſtile, conſequently the arrobe is not the ſame throughout all Spain.

Almoſt every thing in Spain, whether dry or liquid, is ſold by the averdupoiſe pound of ſixteen ounces, and conſequently by the arrobe, thus wood, coals, corn, wine, oil, bread, and ſalt, are ſold by the pound, and by the arrobe in large quantities.

The weights uſed by the gold and ſilver-ſmiths are, 1. The quilate, or carat, of four grains. 2. A tomin, equal to three carats, twelve grains. 3. A caſtillan, equal to eight tomins. 4. The ounce, equal to ſix caſtillans and two tomins. 5. The mark is equal to eight ounces.

The Spaniſh liquid meaſures are, 1. Dos açumbres, or a gallon. 2. An açumbre, or two quarts. 3. Half an açumbre, one quart. 4. A quartillo, equal to a pint.

Spain is, at preſent, with reſpect to its conſtitution, an abſolute hereditary monarchy, where the females inherit in default of the male line. The king, in his title, enumerates moſt of the provinces, and particular parts of the dominions he has been, or is poſſeſſed of. In ſpeaking of him, he is commonly called his Catholic majeſty, or the Catholic king. The hereditary prince is commonly ſtyled prince of Aſturias, and the other royal children infantas. The kings of Spain are never crowned; they ſeem to have a power to diſpoſe of the crown to what branch of the royal family they pleaſe, of which we have an inſtance, when Charles II. gave his dominions to the duke of Anjou.

Here are ſeveral councils and tribunals for the adminiſtration of the government and of juſtice; as, the junta or cabinet council, the privy council, the council of war, the council of Caſtile, the council of the inquiſition, the council of the finances, the council of the Indies, the ſeven courts of royal audiences, the great court of the civil law, &c. Since the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, the cortes, or parliaments of this kingdom, have been diſcontinued.

The higher nobility of Spain conſiſts of counts, marquiſſes, and dukes. The grandees, who have precedence of all others, next the king and princes of the blood, are named out of theſe. Like thoſe of Portugal, they have the privilege of being covered in the king's preſence, who ſtyles them, in his letters, Illuſtrious; and in ſpeaking to them, or of them, their Eminences; but there are others, beſides the grandees, who are covered before the king, namely, cardinals, nuncios, archbiſhops, the grand prior of Caſtile, and the grand prior of Malta; the generals of the order of St. Dominic and St. Francis, ambaſſadors of crowned heads, the knights of the golden fleece, and of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, when the king aſſiſts at their reſpective chapters, in quality of grand maſter. The inferior nobility ſtyle themſelves cavalleros and hidalgos. No grandee can be apprehended for any crime, but by the expreſs order of the king; and they have many other privileges beſides theſe.

With reſpect to the orders of knighthood in Spain, that of the golden fleece is the principal, which was inſtituted in 1430 by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, and is common now to the kings of Spain and the houſe of

Auſtria. The order of Jago de Compoſtella was inſtituted in 1175, by Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The order of Calatrava was founded by Sancho III. of Caſtile. The order of Alcantara owes its inſtitution to Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The three laſt orders have large commanderies, or eſtates, annexed to them. The maſters of them were once ſo powerful, that they diſputed the king's authority over them: whereupon the king procured thoſe maſterſhips to be conferred on himſelf by the pope, that they might no longer aſſume an independency of the ſtate. Beſides theſe, here is the order of Charles III. which was inſtituted September 1771, in honour of the birth of his majeſty's grandſon, the order of Santiago, and the order of Monteſa.

The dominions of the crown of Spain in Africa are, the towns of Cetua, Oran, and Maſalquiver, on the coaſt of Barbara; in Aſia, the iſlands of St. Lazarus, the Philippines, and Ladrones: the greateſt part of the main land of South America; and in North America, Mexico, New Mexico, California, the iſland of Cuba, part of Hiſpaniola, Porto Rico, the two Floridas, &c. &c.

The royal revenue ariſes principally from the tenth of every thing ſold, to which may be added, the tithes and fourths of a hundred; the exciſe on wine, oil, tallow, ſoap, paper, ſalt-fiſh, &c. the uſual aid of four hundred and forty-one thouſand one hundred and ſeventy-ſix crowns, paid by all under the rank of nobility; the wine-gauge money; the ſtamp-duties, and the half-annetes; the duties on proviſions, which is fourteen per cent. thoſe on ſalt, tobacco, the poſt-office, the regulations of the crown of Arragon, and the bull of the cruſado, by virtue of which the clergy and laity pay a contribution towards carrying on a war with the infidels, even whether there be any ſuch war or not; indulgencies; licenſes for eating butter, cheeſe, milk, and eggs in Lent; the ſubſidies and tithes of church and abbey-lands; the money paid by thoſe orders in lieu of the lances and galleys they were bound to furniſh; the taxes on downs, commons, and other paſtures; the Madrid exciſe; the thirds, tenths, and patrimonial rents of Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, and Majorca; the eccleſiaſtical payments for the military hoſpitals; the quickſilver, and other American revenues; the Weſt-India trade; the coinage, &c. all which together amount at preſent to about three million three hundred ſeventy-three thouſand two hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſterling.

The land forces of Spain conſiſt of ninety-ſix thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſeven men. The kingdom is well defended on all ſides: towards France it has a ſecure fence in the Pyrenean mountains: and the ſea-coaſts are lined with redoubts, forts, and towers; and up the country the army of an enemy would, for want of forage, be put to very great inconveniencies, particularly the horſe.

The Spaniſh naval forces conſiſted, in the late war, of upwards of fifty ſhips of the line, twenty-one frigates, fourteen xebecs, four packet-boats, and ſeventeen bomb-veſſels; the complement of all which amounts to about fifty thouſand nine hundred and ſixty men.

CHAP. XIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

PORTUGAL.

SECT. I.

Containing the natural Hiſtory and Geographical Deſcription of the Country, its Towns, Rivers, Climate, Soil, Produce, &c. alſo of the Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, Religion, Laws, Cuſtoms, &c.

THIS is the moſt weſtern kingdom in Europe; it is bounded, on the north, by the province of Leon, Eſtremadura, and Andaluſia; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending from the thirty-ſixth degree fifty minutes, to the forty-ſecond degree three minutes north latitude, and between the ſeventh and tenth degrees of weſt longitude from London. Its length from Valença, the moſt northern town in it, to Sagres, the moſt ſouthern, near cape St. Vincent, is about three hundred and ten miles; and its greateſt breadth, from Peniche, a ſea-port in Eſtremadura, to Salvaterra, on the frontiers of Spain, is one hundred and twelve miles.

Here the climate is much more temperate than in Spain, though it is a little different in the ſeveral provinces. The northern parts feel a kind of painful cold in winter, though this is chiefly owing to the rains which fall at that ſeaſon, and in the ſouthern the ſummer heats are very great. However, both winter and ſummer are very ſupportable: for cooling ſea-breezes during the latter refreſh the country, which is extremely delightful in the ſpring ſeaſon.

Portugal is, in many parts, a mountainous country, and theſe mountains contain the ores of ſilver, copper, tin, and iron, but the Portugueſe being ſupplied with metals from their poſſeſſions in other parts of the globe, and particularly with abundance of gold from America, no mines are worked in their own country. Gems of all kinds, as turquoiſes and hyacinths, are alſo found in the mountains; and particularly a beautiful variegated marble, with many other curious foſſils of the lapidary kind, of which ſeveral ſorts of work are made; here are alſo very good mill-ſtones, and here is a remarkable ſalt-petre mine on the hill of Alcantara, not far from Liſbon.

The ſoil is very fruitful, but as agriculture is much neglected, above half the country lies waſte, and the inhabitants are ſupplied with a great part of their corn by the Engliſh and Dutch, and have alſo Indian corn from Africa. Portugal, however, abounds in excellent wine and oil; the greateſt part of the latter is made in the province of Alentejo, for the olive-trees thrive better here, near the ſea, than up in the country. Here are alſo abundance of oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, raiſins, almonds, cheſnuts, and other fruit. Great plenty of fine honey, and conſequently of wax, is likewiſe produced here.

The principal rivers in Portugal have their ſources in Spain; there are the Minho, the Luna, or Lethe, the Douro, the Tajo, or Tagus, the largeſt in the kingdom, the Guadiana and Cavado; which laſt riſes in the mountains of Trazos, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Barcelos. The three principal, namely, the Tagus, the Douro, and Guadiana, divide the kingdom into three parts. All theſe rivers abound in fiſh.

Portugal contains the ſix following provinces, viz. I. Entre Douro E Minho. II. Tralos Montes. III. Beira. IV. Alentejo. V. Algarve. VI. Eſtremadura.

I. The province of Entre Douro E Minho is ſo called from its ſituation, which is between the rivers Douro and Minho; having Galicia on the north; a ridge of mountains on the eaſt; Beira on the ſouth; and the ocean on the weſt. It is ſeventy miles long, fifty broad where wideſt, and is remarkable for its fertility.

The principal places are, 1. Broga, between the rivers Cavado and Deſte: here is the ſee of an archbiſhop who is primate of Portugal, and ſpiritual and temporal lord of the city and neighbouring country. In this town are, a ſtately cathedral and archiepiſcopal palace, a great many convents, ſeveral pariſh churches, about twelve thouſand inhabitants, a noble hoſpital, a large college, and a houſe of mercy, which is a charitable foundation for the relief of good fami-

lies

lies fallen to decay, and for marrying young maidens, and putting boys to employments. There are ſome remains of antiquity in this place, particularly of an amphitheatre and an aqueduct. The archbiſhop's revenue is ſaid to be forty thouſand cruſadoes, or ſix thouſand pounds ſterling.

2. The town of Porto, or Oporto, on the river Douro, which, a little below, falls into the ſea. Here is a commodious harbour, much frequented by the Engliſh; but the bar at the entrance into it is ſomewhat dangerous. Next to Liſbon, it is a city of the greateſt opulence, beauty, and trade in the kingdom. At the mouth of the river is a caſtle to guard it, called St. John's. Here are above twenty thouſand inhabitants, ſeveral hoſpitals and pariſh churches, beſides the cathedral, a great many convents, a mint, ſeveral courts of juſtice, and is the ſee of a biſhop, who ſtiles himſelf Epiſcopus Portucalenſis, and has a revenue of fifteen thouſand cruſadoes, or two thouſand pounds. The city is fortified only with an old wall and towers. It had formerly its particular lords; but now belongs to the crown, and ſtands one hundred and twenty miles north of Liſbon. Here is an Engliſh conſul, and an Engliſh factory concerned in the wine trade, conſiſting of about thirty families, that maintain a clergyman, who performs ſervice on Sundays at each houſe alternately. The church Dos Clerigos, which is ſituated on the higheſt part of the city, ſerves as a land-mark to ſailors. A gate and priſon have lately been erected; chairs and horſe litters are common; the merchants aſſemble in the ſtreets to tranſact buſineſs, being ſhielded from the rays of the ſun, or from rain, by means of ſail-cloths; and the principal trade is in wine, corruptly called port wine by the Engliſh.

Oppoſite the town, on the other ſide the river, is Gaya, a ſmall place, which was antiently called Cale; and Oporto, when firſt built, was called Portucale, or the harbour of Cale: hence alſo, as ſome think, the kingdom derived its name.

3. The ſmall, but antient town of Guimarenes, belonging to the crown, is ten miles eaſt of Broga, and about one hundred and fifty north of Liſbon. It is encompaſſed with a good wall, and defended by an old caſtle; contains about five thouſand inhabitants, ſeveral convents, hoſpitals, and courts of juſtice, and has manufactories of linen and fine thread.

4. The town of Viana de Fez de Lima is pleaſantly ſituated near the mouth of the Lima, thirty miles north of Liſbon. It contains about ſeven thouſand inhabitants, ſeveral courts of juſtice, churches, convents, and a ſpacious magazine. This place has a conſiderable trade; it is large, well built, ſtrong, and has a commodious harbour.

5. Villa Nova de Porto, oppoſite to Oporto, on the ſouth ſide of the river Douro. 6. Villa Nova de Carveira, on the Minho. 7. Pont de Lima, one hundred and eighty miles north of Liſbon. 8. Villa de Conde, a ſea-port at the head of the mouth of the Ave. 9. Caminha, at the mouth of the Minho. 10. Valença, a ſtrong town on the ſame river.

II. The province of Tra Los Montes has Leon to the eaſt, Beira ſouth, Galicia north, and ſome mountains weſt. It is one hundred and twenty miles long, eighty broad, abounds in game and fruits, produces but little corn, and is watered by the Douro.

The principal places are, 1. Braganza, a city near the river Fervença, at the extremity of the province, and near the borders of Leon and Galicia, about one hundred and twenty miles northward from Liſbon. It contains about three hundred inhabitants, ſeveral convents, and a good caſtle; has a variety of ſilk manufactures, and is well fortified. This town is ſuppoſed to have been the antient Cælia Briga Brigantia, or Brigantium. The anceſtors of the preſent royal family, were dukes of Braganza, before they were advanced to the throne, in the perſon of John, the eighth duke and fourth king of that name.

The town of Chaves, on the river Tamega, is about ſix miles from the borders of Galicia, and two hundred north-eaſt from Liſbon. It was built by the emperor Flavius Veſpaſian, anno 78, and called Aquæ Flaviæ: it is well fortified, and contains about two thouſand ſouls. There is ſtill a Roman bridge of ſtone over the Tamega, with other marks of its antient grandeur.

3. Miranda de Douro, ſtands on the frontiers of Spain, about one hundred and twenty miles ſouth from Braganza, and one hundred and eighty north-eaſt from Liſbon, belongs to the king, and contains about ſeven hundred inhabitants. It is well-fortified, pleaſantly ſituated on the north ſide of the Douro, and is the ſee of a biſhop who has a revenue of ten thouſand cruſadoes, or one thouſand four hundred pounds.

4. The town of Villa Real, or the Royal Town, was ſo called becauſe founded by king Dennis, anno 1289: it ſtands between the rivers Corgo and Ribira, about one hundred and fifty miles north of Liſbon. This is the beſt and largeſt town in the province, and belongs to the infanta. 5. Torre de Moncorvo, containing about one thouſand inhabitants, is ſurrounded with a wall.

III. The province of Beira is the largeſt in the kingdom, has Tra los Montes, and Entre Douro e Minho north; Portugueſe Eſtremadura ſouth, Spaniſh Eſtremadura eaſt, and the ocean weſt. It is about one hundred and forty miles each way, well-watered, and naturally fertile; but the inhabitants are remarkably lazy.

The moſt conſiderable places are, 1. Coimbra, on the Munda, or Mundego, over which it has a ſtately bridge about ten miles from its mouth, and ninety north from Liſbon. It was antiently a famed Roman colony. Here are now a great many convents, colleges, and churches, beſides the cathedral, courts of juſtice, one of the tribunals of the inquiſition, an univerſity, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is count of Arganil, and has a revenue of forty-three thouſand two hundred cruſadoes, or ſix thouſand pounds. The monks of the convent of the Holy Croſs here are all noblemen, and of the order of St. Auguſtine. The univerſity is a very magnificent ſtructure: the profeſſors belonging to it are ſaid to be about fifty, and the ſtudents about two thouſand. The cathedral is admired for its architecture, its ornaments, and riches. The number of inhabitants is about twelve thouſand.

The other places are, 2. Lamego, a city near the Douro, about one hundred and forty miles north-eaſt from Liſbon. 3. Guarda, a ſtrong city, one hundred and forty miles north-eaſt of Liſbon. 5. Caſtello-Branco, a town with a caſtle. 5. Pentrel, two hundred miles north of Liſbon. 6. Almeida, a fortified town near the river Coa. 7. Penamacor, a ſtrong town on the Spaniſh frontiers. 8. Figueta, a ſmall port, eight miles from Liſbon. 9. Aveiro. 10. Viſeu, a city on a ſmall river, which falls into the Mundego, about one hundred and twenty miles north-eaſt of Liſbon. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Braga, and has a revenue of eighteen thouſand cruſadoes, or twenty-five hundred pounds ſterling.

IV. The province of Alantejo borders to the north, on Eſtremadura and Beira; to the ſouth, on Algarve; to the eaſt, on Spain; and to the weſt, on the ſea. It is one hundred and twenty miles long, nearly the ſame broad, and has a very fertile ſoil.

The principal places are, 1. Portalegre, formerly Portus-Alacer, a fortified city, about ninety miles eaſt-north-eaſt from Liſbon, and ten from the Spaniſh frontier. Here are betwixt five and ſix thouſand inhabitants, ſeveral courts of juſtice, fountains, convents, and churches, beſides the cathedral, a manufactory of coarſe woollen cloth, and the ſee of a biſhop, who has about five hundred pounds ſterling a year.

2. The city of Evora, ſixty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon. Here are ſeveral churches, hoſpitals, courts of juſtice, convents, a cathedral, an univerſity, and twelve thouſand inhabitants. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has a revenue of about ſixty thouſand cruſadoes, or eight thouſand pounds ſterling.

3. Elvas, antiently called Helva, and by Pliny Alba, is a city with a caſtle, and other fortifications, one hundred and twenty miles eaſt of Liſbon. Here are ſeveral convents, churches and courts of juſtice, with a noble aqueduct, extending ſeveral miles, and ſupported in ſome places by a triple arch. This is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has a revenue of about ten thouſand cruſadoes, or one thouſand four hundred pounds ſterling. The neighbouring country is pleaſant, very fruitful in wine and oil, and the number of the inhabitants about three thouſand.

The other places of leſs note are, 4. Beja, about ſeventy-eight miles ſouth-eaſt from Liſbon, 5. Eſtremaz, one hundred and five miles eaſt of Liſbon. 6. Villa-Viçoſa, or the Delightful Town, alſo about one hundred and five miles eaſt of Liſbon. 7. Serpa. 8. Moura, a fortified town, near the Guadiana. 9. Campo-Mayor, one hundred and ſeventeen miles eaſt of Liſbon. 10. Avis, ſixty miles eaſt of Liſbon. 11. Ourique. 12. Crato. 13. Barbo, contain nothing remarkable.

V. The little kingdom of Algarve is bounded, to the eaſt, by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andaluſia; to the ſouth and weſt, by the ocean; and to the north, by the mountains called Serra de Algarve, or Caldeirao, and



The Governor of BATAVIA's PALACE, *in the* EAST INDIES.

Leake sculp.

Serra de Monarchique, which divide it from Alantejo; its greateſt length being about one hundred miles, but its breadth only about twenty-eight. There was formerly comprehended under it a much larger extent of country than at preſent. Though very mountainous, it is extremely fertile in corn, wine, oil, and all ſorts of fruits; and contains four cities, twelve leſſer towns, ſixty villages, ſixty-ſeven pariſhes, and about ſixty thouſand inhabitants.

The moſt conſiderable places are, 1. Faro, ſituated on a bay, and well fortified, with a harbour and a caſtle, not far from cape St. Mary, called by Pliny Promontorium Cunium. It contains ſeveral convents, about four thouſand five hundred inhabitants, and is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe income amounts only to five thouſand cruſadoes, or ſeven hundred pounds. The queens of Portugal are entitled to the juriſdiction of it.

2. The town of Lagos, about one hundred and ten miles ſouth from Liſbon, and twenty-five eaſt from cape St. Vincent, has a harbour on a large bay, with two forts to defend it. Here are ſeveral convents and courts of juſtice, and about two thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants.

3. The city of Tavira, ſituated on a bay at the mouth of the river Sequa, one hundred and twelve miles ſouth-eaſt from Liſbon. Beſides walls, it has a caſtle for its defence, and a harbour guarded by two forts: here are ſeveral convents, and near five thouſand inhabitants.

The other places of inferior conſequence are, 4. Sylves, a ſmall town belonging to the queen, and containing about one thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants. 5. Villa Nova de Portimao, in the diſtrict of Lagos; it is defended by two forts, and contains about one thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants. 6. Loule, a walled town, with a caſtle, in the diſtrict of Tavira, containing above four thouſand inhabitants, and ſeveral convents.

VI. The province of Eſtremadura is bounded, on the weſt, by the ſea; on the ſouth, by Alantejo, and on the north and eaſt, by Beira. It is one hundred and twenty miles long, ſixty broad, well watered, and fertile, producing corn, wine, oil, millet, pulſe, and fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. The climate is alſo very pleaſant and mild, the heat being qualified by the breezes from the weſtern ocean. The people are more induſtrious, have more trade, and a greater variety of manufactures, and conſequently live better than in the other provinces, which this ſurpaſſes alſo in reſpect of its ſoil, commodious ſea-ports, the inland navigation of the Tagus, its metropolis being the reſidence of the court, &c. It contains three cities, one hundred and eleven ſmall towns, three hundred and fifteen pariſhes, and above two hundred thouſand ſouls.

The city of Liſbon, anciently called Oliſippo, is the capital both of the province and kingdom, and ſtands near the mouth of the river Tagus, on the north-ſide. It firſt became conſiderable in the reign of king Emanuel: from that time it hath been the chief city, and the reſidence of its monarchs, the ſeat of the chief tribunals and offices, of the metropolitan, contains a noble univerſity, and is the receptacle of the richeſt merchandize of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. Its air is excellent, being refreſhed by the delightful ſea-breezes, and thoſe of the Tagus.

This city extends about two miles along the Tagus; but its breath is conſiderable. Like Old Rome, it ſtands on ſeven hills; but the ſtreets, in general, are narrow and dirty, and ſome of them are very ſteep, neither are they lighted at night. The churches in general are very fine; but the magnificence of the chapel-royal is amazing. Here is one of the fineſt harbours in the world; and there were a great number not only of fine churches and convents here, but alſo of other public buildings, and particularly of royal palaces, and others belonging to the grandees, but the greateſt part of them, and the city alſo, were deſtroyed by a dreadful earthquake on Nov. 1, 1755, which calamity we ſhall here give an account of, as related by Mr. Barretti, and two other gentlemen, who ſucceſſively viſited this ill-fated capital in 1760, 1761, and 1774.

"It is computed (ſay they) that Liſbon, before the earthquake, contained twenty-four thouſand houſes, many of which were ſix or ſeven ſtories high: Mr. Barretti ſuppoſes that two thirds of the city were levelled with the ground, and ſuch as withſtood the ſhock, received very conſiderable injury. Beſides theſe, abundance of large churches were thrown down or conſumed, two royal palaces, and many convents, nunneries, hoſpitals, and other public edifices. The king and royal family were in their carriages paſſing to a palace in the country, and happening to be in an open ſpace, were reſcued from the miſerable fate which they beheld on all ſides of them. Many, who had lived in opulence, eaſe, and ſplendor, were reduced to the moſt diſtreſſing want, even of the common neceſſaries of life; whilſt lingering and tormenting deaths awaited thouſands who were overwhelmed by the falling buildings, or conſumed by the ſpreading flames which burnt from the numerous fires, and formed an almoſt general conflagration. Thoſe of the wretched inhabitants, who eſcaped deſtruction in theſe horrid ſhapes, were forced to reſide in the moſt inclement ſeaſon of the year in the open air, ſcarce able to procure a ſufficient ſubſiſtence for their almoſt exhauſted bodies. Mr. Barretti ſays, that ninety thouſand are ſuppoſed to have been loſt on that fatal day. Imagination can ſcarcely form to itſelf a ſcene of confuſion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this. After the ſhocks of the earth had ſubſided, the fire continued raging for many weeks, by which the peſtilential air produced from the numerous dead bodies, was purified, and the ſurviving remnant of the inhabitants thereby preſerved their health, although ſurrounded by putrefaction." The number of people before this event did not, at moſt, exceed one hundred and fifty thouſand. The government of the city is lodged in a council, conſiſting of a preſident, ſix counſellors, and other inferior officers. The harbour has water enough for the largeſt ſhips, and room enough for ten thouſand ſail, without being crowded. For its ſecurity, there is a fort at the mouth of the river on each ſide, and a bar that runs acroſs it, and is very dangerous to paſs without pilots. Higher up, at a place where the river is conſiderably contracted, there is a fort, called Torre de Belem, or the Tower of Belem, under whoſe guns all ſhips muſt paſs in their way to the city; and on the other ſide are ſeveral more forts.

Before the earthquake, moſt of the private houſes were old and unſightly, with lattice-windows; and the number of convents and colleges amounted to fifty, namely, thirty-two for monks, and eighteen for nuns. The king's principal palace ſtands on the river, and is large and commodious. Of the hoſpitals, that called the Great is obliged to receive all perſons, of what degree, nation, or religion ſoever, without exception. At the village of Belem, near Liſbon, is a noble hoſpital for decayed gentlemen who have ſerved the king, and have not wherewithal to maintain themſelves. That called the Houſe of Mercy is alſo a noble charity. In the centre of the city, upon one of the higheſt hills, is the caſtle, which commands the whole, being large and ancient, and having always a garriſon of four regiments of foot. The cathedral, a heavy gothic edifice, contains great riches. The large ſquare, called Roſſo, is ſurrounded by magnificent buildings, and the whole city is under the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of the patriarch. The univerſity is inferior to that of Coimbra.

The famous aqueduct of Alcantara, which ſupplies the city of Liſbon with water, is a noble work, and deſerves the attention of every traveller; it is compoſed of two different kinds of arches, the one Roman, the other Gothic, by which the uniformity of the building is deſtroyed. During the earthquake, this building ſtood, though many of the key-ſtones fell ſeveral inches, and hang, only becauſe a ſmall part of the key-ſtone was catched by the centres cloſing again. At the neighbouring village of Belem are a handſome royal palace, and a magnificent monaſtery dedicated to St. Jerom; and the whole circumjacent country is extremely pleaſant, abounding in olives and other fruit-trees. On or about the ſpot where the royal palace ſtood before it was demoliſhed by the earthquake, there are many new ſtreets built, interſecting each other at right angles, parallel and ſtrait, eſpecially that called the Rua Auguſta. On each ſide of the new ſtreets is a foot-path, elevated ſomewhat above the pavement, and defended from carriages by ſtone-poſts.

Here is a theatre for Italian operas, and another for Portugueſe plays, in which there are four rows of boxes, twenty-ſeven boxes in each row; the ſeats in the pit are appropriated ſolely to the men. The admittance-money to the opera is a cruſado novo, or two ſhillings and eight-pence halfpenny. It muſt be confeſſed, that the Portugueſe ſtage has made but little progreſs towards refinement, and it is only ſince the earthquake that plays in the Portugueſe language have been allowed, the tranſlation of an Engliſh comedy being one of the firſt. There are two long rooms, where the Britiſh factory aſſemble twice a week during the winter to dance and play at cards.

About the year 1716, Liſbon was divided into two, under the names of the Oriental and Occidental part.

The other towns of this province are, 1. Leiria, a populous place, at the conflux of the Lis and Lana. 2. Setuval,

Setuval, a ſtrong well-fortified town, twenty miles ſouth of Liſbon. 3. Sintra, ſituated by the cape that bears the ſame name, is ſuppoſed to have the moſt ſalubrious air of any place in Portugal. 4. Santerem, on the Tagus, is a place of good trade.

By the decretals of the church, ſound learning and liberal ſcience are baniſhed Portugal: there are, indeed, univerſities at Coimbra and Evora, and at Siſton is a royal academy for the Portugueſe hiſtory; at Santarem is an academy of hiſtory, antiquities, and languages; and at St. Thomas an academy of ſciences, on the ſame footing as that of Paris; but all attempts to diffuſe uſeful knowledge are defeated by the tyrannical ſway of ſuperſtition, the parent of ignorance.

They pay little attention to the cultivation of their lands, and to manufactures; but carry on a very extenſive foreign trade, yet from this they reap little profit. The chief commodities of the Portugueſe conſiſt of imports from their own colonies, particularly from Brazil, as tobacco, cocoa-nuts, ſugars, ſpices, drugs, ivory, ebony, brazil-wood, hides, gold, pearls, diamonds, and other valuable gems.

Their ſhips ſeldom frequent the other countries of Europe or the Levant, their voyages rather lying to the coaſts of Africa, particularly the Gold Coaſt, whence they carry negroes to Brazil, and alſo purchaſe ſome gold and ivory. They likewiſe trade to their Eaſt-India colonies of Goa, Diu, and Macao; but this traffic, though once very important, is now greatly declined. Brazil, however, is ſtill a plentiful treaſury to Portugal, and foreigners are entirely excluded from all commerce with that country.

The Portugueſe long meaſure conſiſts of barros and cavidos; an hundred barros make one hundred and ſixty-four cavidos, or one hundred ninety-five and an half Hamburg ells; but an hundred cavidos are only equal to ſixty-one barros, or about one hundred and ninety Hamburg ells.

Sums of money are reckoned in Portugal by reis and cruſadoes, which are not real, but only imaginary coins. The gold coins of Portugal are the double moedas of one pound ſeven ſhillings value, the quarter of which is called a millrei, or a thouſand reis, and has therefore the number of one thouſand marked upon it; and the Johns, worth three pounds twelve ſhillings, which are ſubdivided into halves, quarters, eighths, and ſixteenths. The ſilver coins are the vintain of twenty reis; the half teeſtoon of fifty, and the whole teeſtoon of one hundred reis.

With reſpect to the weights in Portugal, an anoba is thirty-two pounds, and four anobas make a quintal.

The Popiſh is the only religion tolerated in Portugal: yet there are many concealed Jews, and thoſe too even among the nobility, biſhops, prebends, monks, and nuns; and the very inquiſitors themſelves. The inquiſition, beſides puniſhing Jews and reputed hereticks, who broach or maintain any doctrines contrary to the religion of the country, takes cognizance of all pretenders to ſorcery and the black art, apoſtates, blaſphemers, perjured perſons, impoſtors, hypocrites, &c. The burning of thoſe condemned by the inquiſition is called an auto de ſe, or act of faith. There are ſeveral tribunals of the inquiſition, one of which is at Goa in the Eaſt Indies; but there are none at Brazil. The reader may ſee a particular account of the popiſh inquiſition, and the various puniſhments inflicted by it, together with the dangerous tenets of popery, &c. in a work lately publiſhed, entitled, The Proteſtant Alarm, or Popiſh Cruelty fully diſplayed; written by Mr. Fellows, and ſold in a neat volume, price three ſhillings bound, by the publiſher of this work, and other booksellers. Though the power of the inquiſition was exerciſed with infernal fury and barbarities for many years in this kingdom and Spain, we are happy to inform our readers, that its authority has of late been greatly circumſcribed.

In Portugal, the being an ancient chriſtian, or, in other words, of an ancient chriſtian race, is eſteemed a very high degree of pre-eminence, and far ſuperior to what they call a new converted chriſtian, or a half new converted chriſtian; by which laſt they mean thoſe whoſe new converted anceſtors have married chriſtians of the ancient race.

Portugal is ſaid to have in it nine hundred convents, and moſt of them are very rich; but the jeſuits, who, in multitude and opulence, ſurpaſſed all the other orders, have lately been baniſhed that country.

Among their eccleſiaſtics, there is a patriarch of Liſbon, who muſt always be a cardinal, and of the royal family. Next to him are three archbiſhops, who rank with marquiſſes, and the firſt of them is the archbiſhop of Braga, who is primate of the kingdom, and lord ſpiritual and temporal of his city and neighbouring country. The biſhops hold the rank of counts. The Portugueſe have archbiſhopries and biſhoprics in the other three parts of the world, beſides thoſe in Europe.

Beſides the nomination of all biſhops, the king of Portugal receives a fourth of their revenue. The pope confirms the biſhops, publiſhes his bulls in the kingdom without the king's previous conſent, and, by his legate, governs the clergy, who, with reſpect to taxes and contributions, depend on him. He has alſo the gift of many ſmall prebends. The pope's nuncios have here ſo lucrative a poſt, that they never fail of raiſing vaſt fortunes before they return to Italy.

The Portugueſe, like the Spaniards, are extremely fond of their bull-feaſts, or bull hunting, which are generally exhibited on a Sunday afternoon in a capacious amphitheatre about four miles from Liſbon, at a place called Campo Pequeno. The king, royal family, and court of Portugal, are frequently preſent on theſe occaſions. This inhuman diverſion is ſo far from being diſcountenanced by the clergy, that great numbers of prieſts and friars are conſtantly to be ſeen among the ſpectators, and expreſs great pleaſure at the ſight.

The language of the Portugueſe is a compound of the Latin, Spaniſh, French, and Mooriſh.

With reſpect to the conſtitution of Portugal, it is an abſolute monarchy. Both here and in Spain there were antiently cortes, ſtates, or parliaments, but they have long ſince entirely loſt their ſhare in the legiſlature. For the adminiſtration of the civil government, there is a council of ſtate, and ſeveral ſecretaries; for military affairs, a council of war; for the finances, a treaſury-court; and, for the diſtribution of juſtice, ſeveral high tribunals, with others ſubordinate to them, in the ſeveral diſtricts into which the kingdom is divided. The proceedings of the courts are regulated by the Roman law, the royal edicts, the canon law, and the mandates of the pope. The cities have their particular magiſtracy.

The cuſtoms and other taxes run exceſſively high. Beſides the royal demeſnes, the hereditary eſtates of the Houſe of Braganza, the monopoly of Brazil ſnuff, the coinage, the money ariſing from the ſale of indulgencies granted by the pope, the fifth of the gold brought from Brazil, the farm of the Brazil diamonds, the maſterſhips of the orders of knighthood, and other ſources, yield very large ſums. The forces, however, of this nation, both by ſea and land, are very inconſiderable: their land forces are accounted the worſt militia in Europe, and their navy far from being reſpectable.

The titles of the king are, "King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this ſide and the other ſide the ſea of Africa; lord of Guiney, and of the navigation, conqueſts, and commerce in Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, India," &c. The king's eldeſt ſon is ſtiled prince of Brazil. The king of Portugal was dignified, in the year 1749, with the title of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty, by pope Benedict XIV.

Here are ſeveral orders of knighthood, which are, 1. The order of Chriſt, the badge of which is a red croſs within a white one, and the number of commanderies four hundred and fifty-four. 2. The order of St. James, the badge of which is a red ſword, in the ſhape of a croſs: there are a great number of towns and commanderies of this order. 3. The order of Aviz, whoſe badge is a green croſs, in form of a lily, and the number of its commanderies forty-nine. Though theſe three orders are religious, yet the knights are at liberty to marry. 4. The order of St. John; to which alſo ſeveral commanderies belong.

SECT. II.

Containing an Account of the firſt peopling of SPAIN; together with the antient and modern Hiſtory of SPAIN and PORTUGAL, to the Diviſion of the two Monarchies.

HISTORIANS tell us, that Spain was firſt peopled either from Gaul, to which it is contiguous, or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained under their power until the fall of that empire, when the Goths poſſeſſed themſelves of it. Theſe, in

in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had made themſelves maſters of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and, not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſſed the Mediterranean, and ravaging Spain, eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces.

Don Pelago was the firſt Spaniſh prince mentioned in the hiſtory of this country: he diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels, (afterwards known by the name of Moors,) and, about the year 720, took upon himſelf the title of king of Auſtria. His ſucceſſes animated other chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain were for many ages perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean time every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at laſt divided into twelve kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon Alphonſo threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the Spaniſh kingdoms, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs, and afterwards queen of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of one hundred and ſeventy thouſand families, out of Spain. This expulſion tended greatly to depopulate the country of artiſts, labourers and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America (which happened a few years after) not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, in order to prevent the return of the Moors and Jews into the country.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, afterwards emperor of Germany, ſucceeded his grandfather Ferdinand. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and particularly in America, began to alarm the jealouſy of the neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles: he was almoſt conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his proteſtant ſubjects in Germany, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic faith. At length, after a long and troubleſome reign, he reſolved to withdraw himſelf entirely from any concern in worldly affairs, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude. In conſequence of this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria with two branches. Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the younger had for his ſhare the empire, Hungary and Bohemia.

Though Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, yet he poſſeſſed few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. He married Mary queen of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf; and, after her death, he paid his addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, but without ſucceſs. His reſentment on this account produced very diſadvantageous wars with that princeſs, which occaſioned the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces. But in Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after having been governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and ſoon after Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquiſition, Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, and ſtill retains ſome of them.

Philip's deſcendants proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that, in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne by the title of John IV. ever ſince which, Portugal and Spain have been diſtinct kingdoms. Charles II. who left no iſſue, being the laſt king of Spain of the Auſtrian line, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Louis XIV. mounted the throne, by virtue of his predeceſſor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701; and after a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity at the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht in the year 1713. And thus Louis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics, accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Eaſt Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great Britain; eſpecially in the American ſeas, where a glaring partiality has been ſhewn to the French nation ever ſince, and renders the Engliſh being poſſeſſed of a port in the ſouth ſeas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, which ſerves as a curb on the united ſtrength of France and Spain. Philip, after a long and turbulent reign, died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. who died in 1759 without iſſue. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother Charles III. the preſent reigning monarch of Spain, by whom he hath iſſue, by his late queen Maria Amelia of Saxony, 1. Maria Joſepha Infanta; 2. Maria Louiſa; and, 3. Charles, prince of Aſturias, preſumptive heir to the crown, born November 11, 1748, and married to princeſs Louiſa of Parma.

It would have been impoſſible for the Portugueſe to ſupport themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter powers been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree with his wife and his brother Peter, and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to his late Portugueſe majeſty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by William king of England; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary they had almoſt ruined the allies, at the great battle of Almanza in 1707, the loſs of which was owing to their miſconduct.

John IV. dying in 1750, was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who in 1760 was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life. From this conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the jeſuits (who were ſuppoſed to have been the authors of it) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. Joſeph, having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter, Maria Frances Iſabella, was married by diſpenſation from the pope, to her uncle, Pedro Clement, brother to the late king Joſeph. This marriage was perfectly conſiſtent with the Levitical law, though contrary to the canons of the Chriſtian church; however, ſeveral children have ſprung from this marriage, the eldeſt of whom was the prince of Beira, (born Auguſt 21, 1761, and married February 21, 1777, to his aunt Maria Franciſca Benedicta); he bore the above title till his mother aſcended the throne, and then he aſſumed that of prince of Brazil, peculiar to the heir apparent. The queen immediately conferred the title of king on her huſband, as did our Mary the firſt on her huſband king Philip, but retained the ſovereignty in her own hands.

In the year 1762, when the war broke out between England and Spain, the Spaniards and their allies the French, pretended to force Joſeph into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a large body of French threatened it from another quarter: but, by the mediation of the Engliſh, an effectual ſtop was put to the invaſion; and in 1763 a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau between the contending powers.

On the twenty-third of February, 1777, Joſeph died, and was ſucceeded by his daughter Maria Frances Iſabella, princeſs of Brazil. She was born in 1734, and married her uncle don Pedro in 1760; and the Portugueſe dominions at preſent remain in the hands of theſe joint ſovereigns.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIV.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF FLANDERS.

SECT. I.

General Deſcription of that Part of FLANDERS, *which is included in the* BRABANT *Quarter; with its Boundaries and Situation, Extent, Towns, Places, Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, Cuſtoms, &c.*

THE country of which we now propoſe to treat, is a province of the Netherlands, being bounded by the German ocean and United Provinces, on the north; by Brabant, on the eaſt; by Hainault and Artois, on the ſouth; and by another part of Artois, and the German ocean, on the weſt. It is ſixty miles long, fifty broad, is level, fertile, has a good air, and contains thirty walled towns, one thouſand one hundred and fifty-eight villages, forty-eight abbies, &c. The men are heavy and laborious, but love good living; the women are induſtrious and handſome; the inhabitants are papiſts in all parts, except thoſe belonging to the Dutch; and the manufactures are linen, lace, and tapeſtry.

The ſeveral diſtinct diſtricts contained in this part of Flanders, are, 1. Brabant, which is bounded, on the north, by the United Provinces; on the ſouth, by Hennegan and Namur; on the weſt, by Flanders, properly ſo called; and, on the eaſt, by Liege. The air is good, and the ſoil fruitful. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which is the Demer, or Rupel. There are two fine canals in it, one of which joins the Senne and the Rupel, and coſt eight hundred thouſand florins; the other runs from Louvain to the Rupel. Between Louvain and Bruſſels is a fine ſtone cauſeway, and another reaching from Thieren and Liege. The ſouthern part, called Walloon Brabant, is mountainous, but not unfruitful.

In Auſtrian Brabant are reckoned nineteen walled towns, beſides a great many boroughs and villages. The ſtates of the province conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and repreſentatives of the chief towns. Theſe ſtates meet four times a year at Bruſſels. In them, and the viceroy, the legiſlative power, and that of levying money, is veſted, but the whole aſſembly muſt be unanimous in paſſing an act. They appoint a kind of committee of two clergymen and two noblemen, to meet daily during their receſs.

There are four hereditary officers of ſtate for this province, viz. the ſeneſchal, the chamberlain, the marſhal, and the guidon: beſides which, there is alſo a great huntſman, a great falconer, a great foreſter, a chief juſtice in eyre, and maſter of the wolf-hunters. The high council of Brabant, which is divided into two chambers, or courts, is chiefly held at Mechlin, where moſt of the provincial cauſes are tried. The Roman catholic is the only religion of this country; and the number and opulence of the eccleſiaſtics is very great. At Mechlin is the ſee of an archbiſhop, to whom are ſubject the prelates of Antwerp, Ghent, Boiſledu, Bruges, Ypreſs, and Ruremonde. There are fourteen collegiate churches, and two hundred and three cloiſters in the archbiſhopric.

This country, with many others, came to the houſe of Auſtria, by the marriage of Maria, daughter of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, with Maximilian, archduke of Auſtria. The principal manufactures are, lawns, cambricks, lace, and tapeſtry. The Walloon language, which is ſpoken here, is a mixture of German, French, and Spaniſh. The arms of the duchy are a lion, or; in a field, ſable.

Auſtrian Brabant is divided into ſeveral quarters. In the quarter of Louvain, the principal places are as follow:

1. Louvain on the Dyle, thirteen miles eaſt of Bruſſels. It was formerly the capital of the duchy; but at preſent Bruſſels is conſidered as ſuch. Louvain is a place of great antiquity, having been founded by the emperor Aſnulphus, as a check againſt the Normans. The emperor Charles V. was educated in the caſtle, which long continued the reſidence of the dukes of Brabant. Many aſſemblies of the ſtates have been kept in it.

The churches and cloiſters are very numerous and fine, both within and without the town, which is very large, but not populous: for there are many meadows, vineyards, gardens, and orchards, within the walls. The Stadthouſe and the church of St. Peter are very beautiful. The trade of Louvain hath long ſince been upon the decline, and at preſent is inconſiderable, conſiſting chiefly in the excellent beer which they brew, a great quantity whereof is ſent to the neighbouring cities, eſpecially to Bruſſels.

With a view to reſtore this city to its former luſtre, an univerſity was founded in it, in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, which enjoys great privileges, granted to it both by the popes and dukes. There are above forty colleges; and in the hall, where the public exerciſes are performed, are three ſpacious rooms, where lectures are read every morning in divinity, law, and phyſic, to which the ſcholars, in every college, may reſort. The Hollanders have a college here for their Roman catholic fellow-ſubjects: the Engliſh, one of Auguſtine monks; and the Iriſh, one of Dominicans, and another of Recollects. To give encouragement to learning, Pope Sextus IV. granted to the univerſity, A. D. 1483, the privilege of preſentation to all the livings in the Netherlands.

The church which belonged to the jeſuit's convent is admired for the elegance of its architecture; and the pulpit, made of oak, is ſuppoſed to be the moſt beautiful in the univerſe. The convent for Engliſh ladies is very capacious and elegant, and more richly endowed than any other in the Low Countries. The burghers of Louvain boaſt, that their city was never taken by force. In 1710, indeed, the French entered it by ſtratagem, but were ſoon repulſed with great loſs by the citizens. To reward their fidelity and bravery, Charles, then ſtyled king of Spain, and afterwards emperor, preſented them with a golden key, which is ſtill preſerved in the town-houſe, to commemorate the event.

2. The town of Tienen, on the Ghete, is ſeven miles eaſt of Louvain. It was formerly a very conſiderable city, but is now greatly decayed. Here are two collegiate churches, the canons of one of which are permitted to marry; but if they become widowers, they are not allowed to have a ſecond wife, unleſs they reſign their prebends.

3. The town of Gembloux is ſeated on the river Orne, ſix miles diſtant from Namur to the north-weſt, and twenty-one from Louvain to the ſouth. It ſtands upon a ſteep hill, encompaſſed on all ſides with precipices, except towards the eaſt, where a little hill hangs over it. It is conſiderable only by its abbey of St. Hubert, of the Benedictine order: the abbot is the firſt nobleman of Brabant.

Gembloux is famous in hiſtory by the victory which Don John of Auſtria gained near it, January 31, 1578, over the army of the States-General, commanded by Antony de Coignies, who loſt all his cannon, and was himſelf taken priſoner: this defeat was imputed to the abſence of the chief officers of the ſtate, who were then at Bruſſels, and to the jealouſy ſome others had conceived againſt the prince of Orange. King William, during a great part of his

his wars with France, took up his head quarters in this town.

Towards the north-weſt, and at the diſtance of about five miles from this city, ſtands an abbey of the Ciſtercian order, called the abbey of Villers, in a wood of the ſame name; and the abbey of Argenton, or Ciſtercian nuns, is ſituated at about three miles diſtance, towards Namur.

4. The town of Montaigno, in Flemiſh Scherpe-Heuvel, or Sharp-Mount, and in Latin Mons Auctus, is thus called from its ſituation upon the top of an hill: it ſtands between Dieſt and Sichem; and, though ſmall, is very regularly built, of an heptagon figure.

5. Seven miles from Tienen, on the Ghete, ſtands Leeuwe, a ſtrong town: it is in a marſhy ſituation, which renders it almoſt inacceſſible. The ſovereigns of the country uſed formerly to baniſh hither thoſe whom they had a mind to puniſh, as the air is extremely bad.

6. The little city of Dieſt ſtands upon the banks of the river Demer, thirteen miles diſtant from Louvain to the north-eaſt, and about forty miles from Bois-la-duc to the ſouth. The town is not large, but noted for the woollen cloths, hoſe, and other manufactures; as alſo by the excellent beer brewed here, which is ſold in all the neighbouring towns. This city, with its territory, has the title of a barony, which belonged to king William, and is claimed at preſent by ſeveral of his heirs. There are at Dieſt two collegiate churches, and ſeveral convents of friars and nuns. They keep a fair here for horſes, on every Aſh-Wedneſday.

7. The ſmall town of Landen is not very conſiderable in itſelf, but was rendered famous by a deſperate battle fought near it in the year 1693, between the confederates under the command of king William, and the French commanded by the dukes of Luxemburg, Villeroy, and Berwick, in which the latter was victorious.

8. The little town of Sichem, which belongs to the barony of Dieſt, ſtands between Aloſt and Dieſt. There is in that town a convent of regular canoneſſes of the order of St. Auguſtin. 9. Heverle, is a town with a ſtrong caſtle belonging to the duke of Aremberg and Arſchot. 10. Limale, is a fine borough town. 11. Ramilies is a ſmall village, near eleven miles from Namur, where, in the year 1706, the duke of Marlborough obtained a ſignal victory over the French. 12. Arſchot, on the Demer, capital of the duchy of the ſame name, ſituated ſeven miles from Louvain, is a ſmall, but ſtrongly-fortified town.

The principal places in the Bruſſels quarter of Brabant, are, 1. Bruſſels, which gives name to the territory. This city, though but ſecond in rank, is not only the capital of Brabant, but of the Netherlands in general. It is thirteen miles weſt of Louvain, and one hundred and ſeventy-two eaſt of London, ſituated on the brow of a hill, and watered by the little river Senne, latitude fifty degrees fifty-one minutes north; longitude two degrees thirty minutes weſt. The proſpect of it, at a diſtance, is admirable; but, on entering it, the irregularity of it is rather diſguſtful to a ſtranger. It is ſeven miles in circumference, has ſeven ſtrong gates, and is ſurrounded by a double brick wall, and deep ditches. It is exceedingly populous, and the houſes are very handſome. Here are ſeven beautiful ſquares; in particular, the great ſquare or market-place is one of the moſt noble in Europe; around it are the halls of the different trading companies, and the town-houſe. The latter occupies one quarter, and the fronts of the whole are embelliſhed with ſculptures, gilding, Latin inſcriptions, &c. The town-houſe, which is an elegant ſtructure, contains the apartments for the aſſembly of the ſtates of Brabant. They are ſpacious and ſuperb, finely adorned with tapeſtry in gilt frames, and many original paintings. On the top of the ſteeple, which is three hundred and ſixty-four feet high, is the ſtatue of St. Michael killing the dragon, of gilt copper, ſeventeen feet high, which ſerves for a weather-cock.

The public buildings in general, particularly the palaces and courts of the ſeveral princes, counts, and other perſons of diſtinction; together with the churches and cloiſters, are large and magnificent. Behind the Imperial palace, that ſtood in the higheſt part of the city, but was burnt down ſeveral years ago, is a park well-ſtocked with deer, and planted with trees like that of St. James's in London, for the inhabitants to walk in. At the farther end of it is a fine pleaſure-houſe, built by the emperor Charles V. after his abdication. Of the other palaces, thoſe of the prince de la Tour and Taxis, and of the Engliſh earl of Ayleſbury, are very fine; and of the gardens, thoſe of the duke of Bournonville are the moſt delightful. In all the palaces are collections of original paintings, by the moſt eminent maſters, both Italian and Flemiſh. The arſenal is well worth ſeeing, on account of the curious antique arms.

The opera-houſe was built in the year 1700, by the duke of Bavaria. This is one of the nobleſt and largeſt in the world, it being erected in the Italian manner, with rows of loges, or cloſets, moſt of them with chimneys in them, which the nobility generally take by the winter, for the conveniency of their families and friends, and keep the keys.

There are, in this city, twenty public fountains, adorned with ſtatues, at the corners of the moſt public ſtreets; and a famous canal that was cut from Willibrook, a village on the Scheld, fifteen miles diſtant from Bruſſels; it was finiſhed in 1601, by the celebrated architect George Rinaldi, and coſt the city one million eight hundred thouſand florins: The churches of this city are very magnificent; ſeven of theſe are parochial, and among them the church of St. Gedula, which is alſo collegiate, is the largeſt and fineſt.

Beſides the college of jeſuits, which has a very fine church, here are eleven monaſteries, and twenty-one nunneries; among which are two Engliſh, one of Dominican ladies, founded by cardinal Howard in the reign of Charles II. king of England, of which one of the houſe of Norfolk is always abbeſs, the other is of Benedictine nuns.

The foundation of pious maids, called the Beguinage, reſembles a little town, and is ſurrounded by a wall and ditch, and divided into pretty little ſtreets, where every Beguine has her own apartment. The number generally amounts to ſeven or eight hundred, and ſometimes more. They are governed by four elderly women, whom they chooſe out of their own body, and have a confeſſor, or chaplain, appointed by the archbiſhop of Antwerp. Their church lately built is a fine piece of architecture.

In this city is the mount of Piety, which is a public office for lending money upon pledges at a moderate intereſt, and was eſtabliſhed by the archduke Albert, and Iſabella his wife, in the year 1617. It is a vaſt building, like a monaſtery; and there are private paſſages for going in, without being ſeen from the public ſtreets.

The inhabitants of Bruſſels ſeem to have had a ſingular fondneſs for the number ſeven; for here are ſeven principal ſtreets that enter into the great market-place, in which are ſeven ſtately houſes; ſeven pariſh-churches; ſeven noble families, eminent for their antiquity and great privileges; ſeven midwives, ſworn and licenſed by the ſenate to viſit the poor as well as the rich, whenever called; ſeven public gates of the doric order, remarkable for leading to ſo many places of pleaſure or different exerciſes, namely, one for hunting, a ſecond for fiſhing, a third for fowling, a fourth leads to pleaſant fields, a fifth to paſture gounds, a ſixth to ſprings and vineyards, and a ſeventh to pleaſant gardens. This city is ſaid to have entertained at one time ſeven crowned heads, beſides the dukes of Savoy and Lorrain, with nine thouſand horſe belonging to their retinues.

The inns, or eating-houſes, at Bruſſels, are equal to any in the world; and a ſtranger has the advantage of dining any time between twelve and three, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than an Engliſh ſhilling. The wines here are alſo very good and cheap; and for an Engliſh ſix-pence every hour you may have a coach that will carry you wherever you pleaſe to order.

This city is the ſeat of the council of ſtate, the privy council, the council of finances, the war-councils, and the chamber of accompts of the chancery and feodal court of Brabant, the court of the grand-foreſter, and a particular chamber of accompts for the province of Brabant. Here is a ſtatue of gilt marble erected by the company of brewers to prince Charles of Lorrain, governor-general of the Auſtrian Netherlands. In the year 1695 this city ſuffered much by a French bombardment; in 1706, the allies made themſelves maſters of it; and the French in 1746. Its trade conſiſts in camblets, bone-lace, laces, and tapeſtries, manufactured here, and ſent all over Europe.

2. The city of Nivelle is fifteen miles diſtant from Bruſſels to the ſouth, and twelve from Charleroy to the north. It contains two collegiate and five parochial churches, and ſeveral convents and nunneries; alſo a chapter of canoneſſes, who muſt all be the daughters of princes or counts, or at leaſt of noblemen, by four deſcents both of the father and mother's ſide. The abbeſs is ſtyled princeſs of Nivelle, and is appointed by the ſovereign, who muſt chooſe one out of three canoneſſes named to him by the chapter. The abbeſs is ſpiritual and temporal lady of the city, and its diſtrict, in the latter of which are ſeventeen villages. A great quantity of fine linen is made here, equal to that of Cambray, and the place enjoys large privileges.

3. Vilverden; it is ſituated ſeven miles from Bruſſels, to the north. It is a poor, paltry town, but ſtrong both by nature and art. It ſtands on the canal of Bruſſels, has an old caſtle, in which are kept the archives of Brabant, and is the capital of a diſtrict, containing eighteen villages beſides. The famous William Tindal, who firſt tranſlated the New Teſtament into Engliſh, ſuffered martyrdom here, contrary to the law of nations, he being an Engliſh ſubject.

4. The village of Senef, ſtands about five miles to the ſouth of Nivelle. This place was famous for a battle fought near it in 1674, between the Dutch under the prince of Orange, and the French commanded by the prince of Condé; in which the French claimed the victory, but the Dutch kept the field: above fourteen thouſand men were killed on both ſides.

The moſt remarkable places in the Brabant quarter of Antwerp are, 1. Antwerp, called by the natives Antworpen, by the French Anvers, and in Latin Antwerpia or Andoverpum. It is the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name, and is ſeated on the Scheld, twenty-five miles north of Bruſſels. It is the third in rank in Brabant, extenſive, elegantly built, contains two hundred wide ſtreets, and twenty-two capacious ſquares. The houſes are lofty, built of free-ſtone, and have courts before, and gardens behind them. At one end of a noble ſtreet, called More-ſtreet, there is a brazen crucifix thirty-three feet in height. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the Stadthouſe, are very magnificent ſtructures.

The exchange for merchants has four ſpacious gates oppoſite to each other, and always open. The walks round it are ſupported by thirty-three pillars of blue marble, all carved with different figures, not two of them being alike. This ſtructure is ſaid to be one hundred and eighty feet long, and one hundred and forty broad. Underneath are vaults, or magazines, well ſtored with merchants goods; and above is an academy for painting, ſculpture, architecture, and the mathematics. The building of this exchange coſt the city of Antwerp three hundred thouſand crowns. From this ſtructure, which was the firſt of the kind in Europe, Sir Thomas Greſham took the hint of building the Royal Exchange in London, as did alſo the burghers of Amſterdam that of erecting theirs, which drove the merchants of Antwerp to turn their heads to jewelling, painting, and banking, which they have continued to this day, to the greateſt perfection.

This city is the ſee of a biſhop, who, as abbot of St. Bernard, is the ſecond prelate in Brabant. The biſhopric is of great extent, and the cathedral a moſt noble pile, with one of the fineſt ſteeples in the world. Here is a market, called the Friday's market, becauſe it is held every Friday, where all ſorts of houſhold goods, pictures, and jewels, are ſold by auction.

Here are four collegiate churches, three other pariſh-churches, four abbies; and about ſixty cloiſters of the firſt rank. The cathedral of Our Lady, which is alſo a parochial church, is a very grand pile, upwards of five hundred feet long, two hundred and thirty broad, and three hundred and ſixty high. Its ſpire is four hundred and ſixty-ſix feet in height, the croſs at the top one hundred and fifty-one, the diameter of the clock thirty feet, and its circumference ninety. In its belfry are thirty-three great bells, and two ſets of chimes.

On the banks of the river near the ramparts ſtands the noble and rich abbey of St. Michael, where all ſovereign princes lodge on their coming to this city. There are alſo nineteen nunneries in this city, among which is an Engliſh one of the order of St. Thereſa; but the nuns wear no linen, eat no fleſh, and lie upon ſtraw; even the grates have ſuch a diſmal appearance, that they give the place the reſemblance of a priſon.

In the Carmelite church is a large ſilver ſtatue of the Virgin Mary. As to the fortification of this city, it is environed with a fine wall, planted with rows of trees on each ſide, with walks between, broad enough for two coaches to go abreaſt, being alſo defended by a very ſtrong, large, regular citadel, in form of a pentagon, erected by the duke of Alva in 1568, which commands the town and the neighbouring country. The magiſtracy of this city is choſen only out of the ſeven patrician families, and conſiſts of two burgo-maſters, and eighteen echevins, beſides inferior magiſtrates. Among the privileges granted to it by its princes, there is one, by which every perſon born in it is a citizen, though both his parents were foreigners.

The duke of Parma, governor of the Netherlands for the king of Spain, took Antwerp in 1585, after a ſiege of twelve months, which was one of the moſt remarkable in hiſtory. He re-eſtabliſhed the Roman catholics, who had been but lately baniſhed the city, and reſtored it to the crown of Spain. It was ſeized by the French on the death of Charles II. in the year 1700; but though it was provided with a ſtrong garriſon, it ſurrendered to the duke of Marlborough in 1706, about a month after the memorable victory that great general obtained over the French at Ramillies. In ſhort, the barrier treaty between the emperor and the republic of the United Provinces was concluded here in 1715; and the French made themſelves maſters of this city in 1746, but reſtored it, together with Bruſſels, to the emperor, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The territories belonging to this city are very extenſive. The celebrated geographer Abraham Ortelius was born here.

2. The ſmall town of Lier, on the conflux of the Greater and Leſſer Nethe, and ten miles from Antwerp, is ſtrong both by art and nature. A paved road leads from hence to Antwerp. Here is a ſpacious market-place, where they keep a famous market for black cattle once every week, from St. John's day to St. Martin's. They brew an excellent ſort of white beer, called caveſſe, which is very much eſteemed all over the Netherlands: they alſo make lace, which is reckoned equal to that of Mechlin.

The chief church which is a collegiate one, is a fine building, adorned with an harmonious chime of bells. Here are ſeveral convents and nunneries; among the latter, is that of Engliſh bare-footed Carmelite nuns. The Carthuſians have a monaſtery, the largeſt in the Netherlands: the circumference of the walls, that incloſe the cells and kitchen-garden, is a full Engliſh mile, and the monks have a larger privilege granted them by the pope than the other monaſteries of that order.

3. Turnhout, twenty-one miles diſtant from Antwerp to the eaſt, is a ſmall city with the title of a lordſhip: it was built by Henry IV. duke of Brabant, about the year 1212. Here is a college dedicated to St. Peter, the chapter of which is compoſed of a dean and twelve canons. The regular canons of the priory of Corſendonk have here a college, where they teach polite literature.

II. The lordſhip of Mechlin is no more than eight miles in length, and about five in breadth. The town of Mechlin, ſituated on the Demer, is fifteen miles from Antwerp. It is pretty large, and well built, with broad, clean ſtreets, driving a conſiderable trade in corn, blankets, and thread; but their chief manufacture is of thoſe fine laces famous throughout all Europe. Here is a ſtately arſenal, and a noble hoſpital for wounded or ſuperannuated ſoldiers. The cathedral is a large and magnificent ſtructure. The clock upon the four ſides of the tower or ſteeple is one hundred and forty-four feet in circumference, each figure being above a yard long; and yet ſo high is the ſteeple, that, from the market-place, it ſeems but an ordinary clock. Beſides a great number of convents of men and maidens, there is in this city a large beguinage, containing generally ſeven hundred beguines, and ſometimes more, who make ſome of the fineſt Mechlin lace. The archbiſhop takes the title of primate of the Netherlands and abbot of Affligem, one half of the revenues of the abbey being appropriated to his ſee. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Antwerp, Ghent, Ypres, Bruges, and Ruremonde; and there are ſeventeen cities and four hundred and fifty-five villages within his archiepiſcopal juriſdiction. St. Rombant, who was an Iriſhman, and biſhop of Dublin, is patron of this city. It is the ſeat of a governor, a provincial court, and alſo of a parliament or ſovereign council, to which appeals lie from moſt of the courts of juſtice in the Auſtrian Netherlands; but there lies no appeal from it, except in the cauſes of the knights of the golden fleece, to the ſovereign of the order.

III. The duchy of Linſburg is ſurrounded by Juliers, Luxemburg, and Liege. The country is pleaſant, populous, and fruitful; abounds in cattle, mines of iron, lead, and calamy; and is well watered. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobility, clergy, and commons.

The principal places are, 1. Linſburg, which ſtands on an eminence, is well fortified, has one large ſtreet, two ſtrong gates, and a capacious ſuburb called Dahlem. 2. Roleduc, or Rodeleduc, is a ſmall town defended by a caſtle, and capital of a diſtrict. At about a mile diſtance from the city, ſtands the famous abbey of Roleduc, of the order of St. Auguſtin; it is called Cloſterrode by the people of that country. The abbot is temporal lord of the villages of Markſtein, Kerkenrode, and other places.

IV. The duchy of Luxemburg is bounded, on the north, by Liege; on the weſt, by Champagne; on the eaſt by Treves; and on the ſouth, by Lorrain. It is nearly ſquare, and extends about eighty miles each way. It lies in the centre of the foreſt of Ardenne. The air is pure, the land well watered, the ſoil fruitful, and the country

populous. Three different languages are ſpoken in this duchy, viz. German, French, and Walloon. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobles, and deputies, and the religion is Roman catholic.

The principal places are the following; viz. Luxemburg, the capital of the province, twenty-three miles from Triers to the ſouth-weſt. It is divided into Upper or Old Town, and Lower or New Town. The former is ſurrounded by rocks; the latter contains two ſuburbs. Here is a ſtrong caſtle, and regular fortifications. The city is governed by a richter, or judge, and ſeven echevins, or aldermen, who judge both in civil and criminal matters. The richter is choſen every year, on the eve of St. Andrew's feſtival; that office is held alternately by a citizen, and by one of the aldermen. The chief church here is that of St. Nicholas, a parochial one, but not very conſiderable. Here are alſo three convents of men, and as many of maidens. In this city are three other pariſhes, one of which belongs to the abbey of Munſter, of the Benedictine order, found by Conrade I. count of Luxemburg, in the year 1083.

2. The town of Arlon lies on an eminence, twelve miles from Luxemburg to the north-weſt, and was formerly a conſiderable place, well peopled and fortified, but hath ſince ſuffered by the wars, and been diſmantled. It derived its name from an altar ſacred to the moon, which the antient inhabitants worſhipped as a deity.

3. Baſtogne is ſituated in the county of Chiny, near the foreſt of Ardenne, twenty-eight miles diſtant from Luxemburg, to the north-weſt; and thirty-one from Limburg, almoſt to the ſouth. It is ſo well peopled, has ſuch a good trade, and is ſo well built, that the people of that country call it Paris in Ardenne; though it is conſiderably decayed from what it once was. There are in this city two convents of men, and one of maidens. It is the ſeat of a provoſtſhip, containing one hundred and forty-five villages or hamlets within its diſtrict.

4. Marche is a ſmall city, ſituated on the little river Marſette, on the borders of the county of Namur, and the biſhopric of Liege, ſeven miles diſtant from Rochefort to the north-eaſt, twenty-three from Liege to the ſouth-weſt, and fifty from Luxemburg to the north. It is the ſeat of a proveſtſhip, which has nineteen villages under its juriſdiction. The parochial church, which is dedicated to St. Remcalus, is a very fine building. Here is a convent of Carmelite monks, and another of nuns, of the ſame order, and a college of jeſuits, where they teach polite literature.

5. Chiny on the Semois, though at preſent a poor place, gives name to a county and provoſtſhip, containing thirteen cities, with a great number of villages. 6. Roche, or Roche-en-Ardenne, is ſituated twelve miles from Marche to the eaſt, and thirty-eight from Luxemburg to the north. This town is ſurrounded with ſtrong bulwarks, and broad ditches full of water, that come from the river Ourte, which runs acroſs the city; it is alſo defended by a caſtle built on rocks, and which commands the town. 7. Verton is a ſmall, well-fortified town. 8. Biedburg gives name to a diſtrict. 9. Epternmach on the Sour is twelve miles from Treves. 10. Grave Macheren, on the Moſelle, is famous for its Moſelle wine. 11. Igel contains a pyramidal pagan monument. 12. Dicknip is the capital of a provoſtſhip.

The following places are in the marquiſate of Le Pont D'Oye: 1. Rochefort, a ſmall fortified town, with a caſtle, ſurrounded by rocks, and ſituated ſixty-ſix miles north-weſt of Luxemburg. 2. St. Vit, the capital of a ſeigniory. 3. St. Huber, the ſeat of a very rich Benedictine abbey. 4. Veandew, the capital of a county, but very inconſiderable in other reſpects.

That part of the duchy of Gueldres, belonging to Auſtria, contains only the little cities of Elmpt and Swalm, with their villages and ſeigniories, and the ſtrong town of Ruremonde, at the conflux of the Roer with the Maeſe. It is twenty-five miles from Maeſtricht, is the largeſt town in Gueldres, and ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mechlin. There are many convents, and a charter-houſe in the town; and a toll is levied here.

SECT. II.

Containing a Deſcription of FLANDERS, *properly ſo called, with Diſtricts, Cities, and Towns, thereto belonging: alſo an Account of the Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, Religion, Cuſtoms, &c.*

THE province of Flanders, is bounded, on the weſt, by Artois; on the ſouth by Hennegau and Artois; on the eaſt, by Brabant; and, on the weſt, by Artois. It is ſeventy-five miles long, fifty-five miles broad, has a good air, and perhaps the moſt fruitful ſoil in Europe. The population is ſuch, that it looks like one continued city. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobles, clergy, and commons. The firſt claſs conſiſts of certain families, who have hereditary offices, or baronies; the ſecond includes the biſhops and abbots; and the third is formed of the deputies of cities and diſtricts, the burgo-maſters and penſioners. Moſt of the Flanderkins are fat, clumſy, and dull, but induſtrious, honeſt, and great lovers of liberty. The women are fair and virtuous, but not remarkable for wit, or the affectation of it. Both ſexes, however, are fond of public diverſions; and almoſt every city, town, or village, has a kermiſſe, or fair, in which public ſhows are exhibited. The manufactures conſiſt of ſilk, cotton, linen, lace, woollen, brocades, tapeſtries, and camblets. The principal rivers are the Scheld, Lys, Scharp, and Dender.

From the ninth century to 1369 this country had counts of its own, but at the above period, it went by marriage to the dukes of Burgundy; and afterwards, from them, by a ſubſequent marriage, to the houſe of Auſtria. France ſeized ſome of the ſouthern parts in 1667; and the ſtates-general, in 1715, obtained ſome part of the northern diſtricts. The arms of this country are, a lion, ſable, in a field, or.

The principal places in Auſtrian Flanders, are: 1. The city of Ghent, the capital of Flanders, called by the natives Gent, or Ghendt, by the French Gand, and in Latin Gandavum: it lies thirty-five miles to the north-weſt of Bruſſels, and thirty-three eaſt from Oſtend, in fifty-one degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and in the third degree thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. On account of the many running waters which unite near this city it has great advantages, both with reſpect to trade and ſtrength; for not only the Scheld receives the Lys in this town, but from hence to Damme runs the Livre, which is properly a canal, the digging of which was begun in the year 1228, and, beſides ſeveral rivulets, receives into it the Caele. The canal, which extends from hence to Bruges, and from thence to Oſtend, was begun in 1613, and is very remarkable. From another canal, which runs to the north, a branch extends from Rodenuyſen to Sas Van Ghent. Beſides theſe, here are ſeveral other canals and rivers. The city of Ghent is of conſiderable extent, its compaſs within the walls being computed at forty-five thouſand ſix hundred and forty Roman feet.

The cathedral, dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt, is a fine, large, and antient ſtructure. There are alſo a collegiate and ſix pariſh churches; two abbies for monks, two colleges of Jeſuits, ſeven other monaſteries, and what is called the Templehof, which belongs to the order of St. John, with twenty-two nunneries, two beguine-houſes, a ſeminary belonging to the biſhopric of Ghent, with ſeveral chapels and hoſpitals.

In this city are thirteen market-places, ſeven of which are large, particularly that called the Friday's-market is the moſt extenſive, and remarkable for a noble ſtatue of the Emperor Charles V. dreſſed in his imperial robes, and ſtanding on a pedeſtal in the middle of the ſquare. And upon a bridge built over the Lys ſtand two braſs ſtatues, repreſenting a man ready to cut off the head of another. The ſame figures are alſo painted in the town-houſe.

This city is the ſeat of the council of Flanders, from which an appeal lies to the grand council of Mechlin. The town-houſe is a double building, with two fronts, one of ancient architecture, and the other in the modern taſte, and very beautiful. The trade of Ghent principally conſiſts in cloths, ſtuffs, and ſilks, of which ſuch quantities are made here, that among the fifty companies of tradeſmen, thoſe concerned in theſe commodities are ſaid to form a third part. The magiſtracy conſiſts of burgomaſters, echevins or aldermen, and counſellors annually choſen from among the principal inhabitants: and theſe have at their head an high-bailiff. The inhabitants of this city are exceedingly fond of chimes or carillons, which are played with a kind of keys communicating with bells, as thoſe of the harpſichord and organ do with ſtrings and pipes.

The ſtates-general of the Netherlands, except thoſe of Luxemburg and Limburg, concluded, in 1576, the famous treaty, called the pacification of Ghent, the principal articles of which were, that the Spaniſh, and all other foreign troops, ſhould evacuate the Netherlands; that Holland and Zealand ſhould continue united with the other provinces; and that the Roman Catholic religion, and the antient privileges of the country, ſhould be maintained; but

but in 1584 they again ſubmitted to the king of Spain. This city, after ſeveral times changing its maſters, ſince the year 1678, when it was taken by the French, was at length in 1745, ceded to the emperor at the treaty of Aix-la Chapelle.

Ghent is a very conſiderable diſtrict, and contains the county of Aloſt, with its capital; Oudenard, celebrated for the glorious victory obtained near it over the French, in 1708, by the duke of Marlborough; the town and caſtellany of Courtray; the county of Waes; the town and lordſhip of Dendermonde; the towns of Bornheim, Furnes, Warneton, Dixmude, &c.

2. Bruges is ſeated in the thirty-firſt degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the third degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. Here are ſeveral canals, one of which leads to Oſtend, Newport, Furnes, and Dunkirk; and can carry veſſels of four hundred tons, which come up to the baſon of Bruges. The ſtreets of this city are large and ſtraight; it has alſo ſeveral fine ſquares, particularly the Friday's market-place, from whence ſix great ſtreets lead to ſix principal gates. At one end of this ſquare ſtands a fine ſteeple, five hundred and thirty-three ſteps high, with a curious chime of bells. Several rows of trees are planted in this ſquare.

Here is another ſquare called the burgh, from the caſtle of that name; it is ſurrounded with many fine buildings, as the town-houſe, which is a handſome Gothic ſtructure, adorned with the pictures of many earls and counteſſes of Flanders; the cathedral; the biſhops palace, and the chapel of the holy blood of our Saviour. The cathedral is a very ancient building, and has thirty-two canons. Here are alſo two other collegiate churches, one of which is dedicated to Our Lady, and has a chapter compoſed of a provoſt and twelve canons; the other is the church of St. Saviour, and has a chapter conſiſting of a dean and ſixteen canons; the former of theſe two laſt ſtructures is very beautiful, and has a fine ſteeple, ſo high that it may be ſeen at ſea in ſailing to Oſtend. Beſides the above, here are five parochial churches, fourteen chapels, a college of jeſuits, twelve monaſteries, and nineteen nunneries.

There is in this city a large monaſtery of the Carthuſians, and the circuit of their kitchen-gardens, cells, and little gardens, is about an Engliſh mile. The Carmelite church is one of the fineſt in the city, and has a beautiful monument of Henry Jermyn, lord Dover, a peer of England; but the moſt noble monument in the city is that of the Bernardines. The abbot's apartment is very magnificent, and thoſe of the monks very neat. Among the many nunneries in this city are two Engliſh, one of Auguſtine nuns, who are all ladies of high rank. The other Engliſh nunnery, called the Pelicans, is a ſtricter order, and the nuns wear a coarſer dreſs than the others.

Few cities provide ſo comfortably for the poor and orphans as Bruges; for here are ſeveral alms-houſes and hoſpitals for their maintenance, among which is one called the ſchool of the Orphans, founded in 1421, where one hundred and thirty orphan boys are educated and brought up to learning, or ſome trade, according to their genius or inclination.

A conſiderable trade is carried on here in worked cottons, fine woollen ſtuffs, linen and lace; and there are many perſons employed in manufacturing fuſtians and tapeſtries. Here are ſixty-eight companies of tradeſmen in various branches.

Since the cities of Antwerp and Amſterdam have enlarged their commerce, that of Bruges has been declining; ſo that it is far from being ſo populous as formerly. There are ſtill, however, in Bruges, ſeveral very rich merchants, who meet daily in the great market-place, which ever ſince the year 1715 has been their exchange.

Several courts are eſtabliſhed here for the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal affairs; the principal is that of the magiſtrates of Bruges, compoſed of two burgomaſters, twelve echevins or aldermen, twelve counſellors, ſix penſioners, and two treaſurers. Theſe have the government of the city, and adminiſter juſtice among the inhabitants. There is another court for the government of the liberty, which has a magiſtracy of its own, conſiſting of four burgomaſters, twenty-ſeven echevins, ſix penſionaries, and two treaſurers. The two laſt hold their employments for life. This court is held at Bruges in an old caſtle called the Burg or Fortreſs. In the hall where they meet are ſeveral good pictures, particularly the laſt judgment, by a diſciple of Rubens, named Backer.

3. Ypers or Ipres, in Latin Ipra, which is ſeated on the little river Ipre or Iperlee, in the fiftieth degree fifty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-one minutes eaſt longitude. The buildings make a pretty handſome appearance, though the fronts are of timber. Its public ſtructures are the cathedral of St. Martin, five pariſh churches, one college of jeſuits, ſix monaſteries, one epiſcopal ſeminary, eight nunneries, and ſome hoſpitals and alms-houſes. Here is alſo a ſchool for poor boys, and another for poor girls, where they are taught what trade they like beſt; and, when able to get their living, are ſent out with a certain ſum of money to ſet them up. One third part of this town conſiſts of churches, convents, and other religious houſes. It is the ſee of a biſhop, under the archbiſhop of Mechlin, and one of the barrier places which was ceded to the States-General in 1715.

4. Oſtend, in Latin Oſtenda, is called by the Flemings Ooſtende, and is ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree fourteen minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, in a marſhy ſoil, among a variety of canals; it being almoſt ſurrounded by two of the largeſt of them, into which ſhips of great burthen may enter with the tide. It is well fortified, and has a ſtrong rampart, a deep ditch, and eight regular baſtions; and the ſea may be let in round the town for a conſiderable extent of ground, by which means it is rendered almoſt impregnable. The city is alſo defended by ſeveral forts which encompaſs it. The buildings are but low, but are pretty uniform, and the ſtreets are ſtraight and regular. Its principal church is that of St. Peter. Here are ſeveral convents of friars and nuns, and an hoſpital founded by the citizens in 1403.

5. Newport, which is a ſtrong ſea-port town on the Iperlee, is one mile from the ſea, and nine from Oſtend. It contains ſeveral convents and monaſteries, particularly one of the Engliſh Carthuſian friars. The chief buſineſs of the inhabitants is rope-making, net-making, and fiſhing. The harbour is tolerably good; its ſtrength conſiſts in its ſluices, by which all the country round may be laid under water.

6. The city of Tournay is eleven miles ſouth-eaſt from l'Iſle. It is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, is a large trading place, and famous for ſeveral manufactories, particularly for admirable ſtockings; this is a biſhop's ſee; the cathedral church, and the abbey of St. Martin's, are very magnificent ſtructures. This place was ceded to the houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Utrecht.

II. The province of Hainault, or Hennegau, has Flanders to the north, Namur and Liege to the weſt; Brabant to the eaſt, and Champagne and Picardy to the ſouth. It is forty-eight miles long, forty-five broad, fruitful in paſturage and corn, breeds abundance of black cattle and ſheep, is well watered with many rivers and lakes, and abounds with timber, coals, iron, lead, marble, ſlate, &c. It is ſubject, in ſpirituals, to the archbiſhop of Cambray, and the biſhops of Liege and Arſas. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and commons. The arms are four lions in a field, or.

The principal places are, 1. Mons, the capital of Hainault, which is large and well fortified, twenty-ſeven miles ſouth of Bruſſels, and ſtands on the banks of the river Trouille. The public ſtructures are noble, the buildings in general handſome, and the ſtreets ſpacious. Polite literature is taught in two colleges; beſides which, here are ſeveral convents and nunneries, and an abbey. St. Waudrau, ſiſter to the celebrated St. Aldegonide, founded a chapter of canoneſſes here. They are thirteen in number, muſt prove their nobility by ſixteen deſcents, and are in the nomination of the ſovereign.

2. The city of St. Ghiſlain, or St. Guiſlain, ſtands on the river Haine, about five miles below Mons to the weſt, eight from Condé to the eaſt, thirteen from Mauberge to the north, and as many from Ath to the ſouth: it is pretty ſtrong by its ſituation on the banks of the river, and by the marſhes that ſurround it.

3. The city of Binch is ſituated on the river Haine, which has its ſpring in the neighbourhood. It is nine miles diſtant from Mons to the eaſt, and twenty-ſix from Bruſſels to the ſouth; is the capital of a provoſtſhip, which extends along the Scheld to the borders of the county of Namur, and contains fifty-one boroughs or villages, but no cities. This is an antient and pleaſant city, built in a fruitful country, which abounds in all ſorts of game, and the air is very wholeſome. Here is the caſtle of Marimont, which is now the hunting-ſeat of the governor of the Netherlands. This city was reſtored to the Spaniards by the peace of Nimeguen, ſince which time it has continued in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria.

4. The ſmall city of Soignies, ſituated on the banks of the

the river Senne, is nine miles distant from Mons to the north-east. Near this city is the little wood called the wood of Soignies. Here is a monastery of Benedictine monks, surrounded with walls, and now changed into a secular chapter, composed at present of a provost, a dean, a treasurer, and thirty canons; they are spiritual and temporal lords of the city, and appoint the bailiff of it. There are also in this city a convent, a nunnery, an hospital, and an house of the fathers of the oratory, established in 1629.

5. The town of Braine-le-Compte was so called to distinguish it from Braine-Laleus, and Wanter-Braine, two boroughs in Brabant: it is situated on the paved road, which was made in 1705, and is twelve miles distant from Mons to the north-east, and sixteen from Brussels to the south-west. In 1652, the king of Spain gave this city to the house of Aremberg, in exchange for the manor of Sevenbergen; so that the duke of Aremberg is now lord of this city, and of the castleward, which contains eleven villages. There was formerly a fortress on the spot where the parochial church now stands, and over against it an antient tower, but nothing now remains of them but the ruins.

The other places of inferior note are, 6. Roeux, a small neat town, eight miles from Mons. 7. Malplaquet a village about the same distance from the above city. In 1709 the French army, commanded by the marshals Villars and Boufflers, were attacked here in their triple entrenchments, and entirely defeated with great slaughter. 8. Ath, or Aeth, on the Dender, fourteen miles from Mons, is a strong, but handsome town. 9. Lecose, a small town. 10. Lessines, on the banks of the little river Dender, near the borders of Flanders, seventeen miles distant from Mons towards the north-west, and four from Aeth to the south. It is a fortified town, famous for its linen manufactory. 11. Chievres is a small open city, and a lordship, about nine miles distant from Mons towards the north-west, and four from Aeth to the south. 12. Hall, or Halle, on the Senne, seven miles from Brussels, is famous for an image of the virgin Mary, enshrined in gold, with a crown of the same on the head. In one hand is an image of our Saviour, and in the other a rose gilt. 13. The abbey of Bonne Esperance, or Good Hope, at a mile and a half distance from Binch: it is inhabited by monks of the order of the Præmonstratenses; and in this neighbourhood there is also an abbey of Cistercian nuns, called the abbey de l'olive, or of the olive. 14. Braine-le-Chateau is a village, which, in 1681, was raised to a principality, under the name of Tour and Taxis. 15. Ligne is a considerable village, which gives name to a principality. 16. Fontenoy is a village on the Scheld, where the French, under marshal Saxe, gained a victory over the allies in 1745. 17. Anguien, or Enghien, stands in a valley, and is fourteen miles distant from Mons to the north. The eldest son of the prince of Condé is now always stiled duke of Anguien. 18. The village of Steenkirk, or Steenkerken, is famous for the battle fought here, Aug. 3, 1692, between the army of the allies commanded by king William, and by Maximilian Emanuel, elector of Bavaria, governor of the Netherlands, and the French under the command of the duke of Luxemburg; in which the French claimed the victory, though they lost more men than the allies.

III. The district of Namur is surrounded on all sides by Brabant and Liege, except towards the west, where it is partly bounded by Hainault. It is thirty miles long, twenty-eight broad, well watered, and very fertile. The states consist of the clergy, nobles, and deputies of the town; but an appeal lies from the council of the province to the grand council of Mechlin. There are a lion, sable, in a field, or, with a dexter, fesse, drawn over the whole shield.

The principal places are, 1. Namur, the capital, at the conflux of the Maese and Sambre, over which there is a bridge. It is situated thirty miles from Brussels, and is one of the strongest towns in Europe, being defended by a formidable castle, more than a dozen forts, and other important fortifications. Besides the provincial council and town magistracy, a feudal court, called baillage, is held here, from which an appeal lies to the grand council at Mechlin. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Mechlin: the diocese contains eight cities, three hundred villages, and innumerable abbies, churches, religious houses, &c.

2. Charleroy, in Latin Caroloregium, is a small, but strong city and fortress, fifteen miles distant from Namur to the west, eighteen from Mons to the east, and twenty-six from Brussels to the south. It stands on a hill, near the conflux of the Sambre and the little river Pieton. It was formerly but a fine village, and sovereign lordship, called Charnoy, belonging to the prince of Isenghein. The marquis of Castel-Rodrigo, governor general of the Netherlands, made a city of it in 1666, fortified it, and called it Charleroy, after the name of his master Charles II. king of Spain. In the neighbourhood of this city stands the abbey of Soleilmont, consisting of nuns of the Cistercian order, founded in the year 1088 by Philip, count of Namur.

3. Charlemont, in latin Carolomontium, is eighteen miles distant from Charleroy to the south-east, and sixteen from Namur to the south. It stands on the top of a mountain, at the foot of which runs the river Maese. It was yielded to the French by the treaty of Nimeguen in 1678; but by the treaty of Utrecht the French were obliged to surrender it to the late emperor.

4. Fleurus, Flerus, or Fleurs, in latin Fleurus, is about six miles distant from Charleroy to the north-east, and eleven from Namur to the west. It is but a borough, but pretty considerable, since it sends deputies to the states. Here is also an abbey. Bat this place is chiefly famous for two battles fought in its neighbourhood; the first happened on August 30, 1622, between the Spaniards and the Germans; and the second on July 1, 1690, between the Germans and French.

5. Bouvines, Bovines, or Bovignes, in latin Bovinæ, or Boviniacum, is a small city on the left bank of the river Maese, over-against Dinant, twelve miles distant from Namur to the south. This is no strong place, and is considerable only for being a pass between the provinces of Namur and Luxemburg. There is but one parochial church in this city, and two convents; the one of Augustine monks, in which they teach philosophy, and another of nuns of St. Sepulchre.

Near Bouvines are to be seen the ruins of an antient city called Chevremont, which was very strong, the inhabitants of which made themselves famous by their robberies.

The small town of Walcourt is situated on the rivulet called the Hevre.

In addition to the several historical facts already taken notice of in describing the various districts, cities, and towns, in the Austrian Netherlands, it may be necessary also to observe, that formerly that part of Germany, which lies west of the Rhine, with the seventeen provinces, went under the general name of Gallia Belgica among the Romans. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths made themselves masters of these provinces, and divided them into a number of small governments, till at length they came into the possession of the house of Burgundy. Afterwards the emperor Charles V. as heir of the house of Burgundy, classed them as part of the empire under the title of circle of Burgundy; but the tyranny of his son Philip occasioned the inhabitants to throw off the yoke. The prince of Orange, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont, appeared at the head of the confederacy; the two latter, however, were taken and beheaded, but the former being elected stadtholder, retired into Holland, when that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty at Utrecht, for their mutual defence, in 1579; and, by the assistance of England, compelled Spain to acknowledge their independency; and about the year 1609, were deemed independent states by all Europe, under the title of the United Provinces. The Spaniards, however, remained possessed of the other ten provinces, till the great duke of Marlborough gained the battle of Ramilies in the year 1706; after which, Brussels, the capital, and most of the other provinces, acknowledged the emperor of Germany. These still continue in the possession of the house of Austria, except such parts as were conquered by the French in the continental war before last, and are usually comprehended under the general title of French Flanders, already described in our accounts of France.

CHAP. XV.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

HOLLAND, OR THE UNITED NETHERLANDS.

SECT. I.

Containing a General Account and Natural History of the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

ALL the ſeventeen united provinces are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Netherlands, or Low Countries, which is doubtleſs derived from their low ſituation. They are ſituated between two and ſeven degrees of eaſt longitude, and between fifty and fifty-three degrees thirty minutes north latitude. The extent from north to ſouth is three hundred and fifty miles; the breadth, in the wideſt part, from eaſt to weſt, is three hundred. The boundaries are, the circle of Weſtphalia, with the biſhoprics of Liege and Triers, and the duchies of Juliers and Cleves on the eaſt; the Britiſh ocean on the weſt, France on the ſouth, and the German ocean on the north.

Thoſe called the United Provinces, or the United Netherlands, of which we are here to treat, are, I. Holland. II. Zealand. III. Frieſland. IV. Groningen. V. Overyſſel. VI. Gelderland. VII. Utrecht. The principal of theſe ſeven provinces, and that which uſually gives appellation to the reſt is Holland. They are ſituated between three degrees twenty minutes, and ſeven degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and between fifty-one degrees thirty-five minutes, and fifty-three degrees forty minutes north latitude, are about one hundred and fifty miles in length, and nearly the ſame in breadth.

The low ſituation of this country near the ſea, together with the numerous bogs and marſhes, occaſions a damp air, and renders the whole unwholeſome. Rains and fogs are frequent; and the gout, ſcurvy, rheumatiſm, &c. are common and inveterate. The territory in general would be overwhelmed by the ſea, were it not for the dykes and dams, which exhibit aſtoniſhing proofs of human induſtry, and are ſtupendous works deſigned to repreſs the inundations of the ſea, and drain the waters from the land. The marſhes are aſtoniſhingly fertile, and feed abundance of cattle. The milk being exceedingly rich, great quantities of butter and cheeſe are made, not only for home conſumption, but for exportation. The breed of ſheep is good, and produces excellent wool. The other natural productions of the country are, tobacco, madder, turf, fruit, iron, &c.

All the provinces either lie open, or communicate with the north ſea, by means of the Zuyder ſea. This Zuyder ſea, or ſouth ſea, was formed originally by a branch of the Rhine, increaſed afterwards by a ſtream of the Vecht, and at length rendered very capacious by an inundation of the ſea, which happened in the thirteenth century.

The principal rivers are, the Rhine, Maeſe, Scheld, and Vecht. The former of theſe we have already deſcribed. The Maeſe, after dividing itſelf into two branches, and again uniting theſe, falls into the north ſea below Rotterdam. The Scheld, below Antwerp, divides itſelf into two branches, called the Weſtern and Eaſtern Scheld: the firſt ſeparating Flanders from Zealand, and the other running north by Bergen-op-zoom, and afterwards eaſt, between the iſlands of Beveland and Schonen, falls into the ſea a little below. The Vecht runs from eaſt to weſt through the province of Overyſſel, and falls into the Zuyder ſea. There are many ſmaller rivers that join theſe, and a vaſt number of canals; yet there are few good harbours in the provinces. The beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing. As to the harbour of Amſterdam, it is indeed one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe; but there is a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs, without being lightened or unloaded. There are no mountains in theſe provinces; and the only lake, properly ſo called, is that of Harlem. The provinces are extremely well cultivated, and very populous, eſpecially that of Holland, which, in this reſpect, perhaps has not its equal in the univerſe. The towns are very agreeable, being kept exceedingly clean, and having canals in the middle of the ſtreets, planted with trees. The number of inhabitants is computed at about two millions. The animals here are much the ſame as in England; but their horſes and horned cattle are of a much larger ſize. It is ſaid that neither oyſters nor herrings are to be found upon the coaſt; but they have ſeveral ſorts of other fiſh, both in their ſeas and rivers. Storks build and hatch in their chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following.

It has been remarked of the Seven United Provinces, that though they do not produce corn enough for the hundredth part of the inhabitants, yet they are conſidered as the granary of Europe; though here are no vineyards, yet more wine may be procured than in any other country in the world. Though woods are unknown, yet here are more carpenters and joiners than any where elſe; and, in fine, though the people have few ſtaple or native commodities, yet they import a great variety of merchandizes, and are as fully furniſhed with all the products of the world, both natural and artificial, as any nation whatever.

SECT. II.

Containing a Geographical Deſcription of the Provinces of HOLLAND, ZEALAND, and FRIESLAND; their Situation, Boundaries, and Extent; Cities, Towns, and Places; Rivers, Climate, Produce, Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, &c.

WE ſhall begin our ſurvey of theſe provinces with the principal, the name of which is frequently applied to the whole; namely, the province of Holland, which is bounded, on the ſouth, by Brabant; on the eaſt, by the provinces of Gelderland, Utretcht, the Zuyder ſea, and the north ſea; on the latter of which its whole weſtern frontiers lie. This is the largeſt of all the ſeven provinces, and, according to the computation of the celebrated John de Witt, contains four hundred thouſand acres; but later authors ſuppoſe that it contains four hundred and forty thouſand. Its ſituation is, in general, very low, and ſome part even lower than the ſea, from which it is ſecured by dykes and dams, and interſected by innumerable ditches and canals, through which the water is carried off at the time of ebb.

The air is foggy and unwholſome; however, the greateſt part of the province conſiſts of fine paſture lands, and therefore the principal employment of the country people is in making butter and cheeſe; for which purpoſe they keep a number of milch cows. The more ſouthern parts of the province, which lie near Zealand, and alſo the weſt lands, as they are called, are excellent corn countries. The middle part of the province conſiſts almoſt entirely of grounds covered with turf.

There are ſeveral large rivers common to the Netherlands in general, beſides which, there are ſome ſmaller ſtreams; as the Vecht, the Amſtel, the Zaan, and the Spaaren.

A NEW and Accurate MAP of the SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES Including the DUTCH NETHERLANDS, &c.



British Statute Miles. 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

NORTH SEA

GERMANY

FRANCE

PART OF ENGLAND

PART OF FRANCE

PICARDY

ARTOIS

STRAITS OF DOVER

Der Schelling I.
Flieland I.
Texel I.
Embden
FRISE
Leeuwarden
GRONINGEN
SEVEN PART OF UNITED PROVINCES
LAND OVER ISSEL
ZUYDER ZEE
GELDERLAND
UTRECHT
Amsterdam
Haerlem
Leyden
Delft
Rotterdam
Gouda
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nimeguen
Zutphen
Deventer
Lingen
Tuberg
Bentheim
Enschede
Oldenzaal
Coevorden
Hardenberg
Meppel
Steenwyk
Harderwyk
Elburg
Amersfort
Rhenen
Wageningen
Doesburg
Breevoort
Tiel
Bommel
Gorcum
Schoonhoven
Dort
Rotterdam
Briel
Goree
Helvoet Sluys
Schouwen I.
ZEE-LAND
Walcheren I.
Middleburg
Flushing
DUTCH BRABANT
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Bois le Duc
Helmont
Eyndhoven
Rynberg
Margate
Foreland
Blankenberg
Ostend
Nieuport
Dunkirk
Veurne
Gravelines
Calais
Boulogne
Sandgate
Dover
AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS
Sas de Ghent
Sluys
Ghent
Antwerp
Turnhout
Hamont
Ruremonde
Roer River
Rhine River
Burges
Dixmuyde
Dixmude
Dunkirk
Furnes
Dendermonde
Mechlin
Brecht
Herenthals
Louvain
Maestricht
Tongres
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Limburg
Verviers
Stavelot
Malmedy
Spaw
Huy
Namur
Bouillon
Dinant
Durbuy
Stavelot
Coblentz
Hermanst
Treves
Luxemburg
Arlon
Virton
Montmedy
Thionville
Sanson
Voig
Ching
Chiney
Charlemont
Rumigny
St Hubert
Neufchatel
Clervaux
Viandon
Hotton
Durbuy
Dinant
Bouchain
Valenciennes
Quesnoy
Maubeuge
Cambray
Arras
Douay
Condé
Lisle
Tournay
Engien
Mons
Ath
Soignies
Binch
Namur
Bonef
Huy
Liege
Tongres
Maestricht
Louvain
Brussels
Halle
Tubize
Oudenaken
Enghien
Ninove
Alost
Courtray
Menin
Ypres
Lille
Bethune
Aire
St Omer
Ardres
Calais
Gravelines
Dunkirk
Furnes
Dixmude
Ypres
Courtray
Menin
Lille
Douay
Arras
Bethune
Aire
St Omer
Ardres
Calais
Boulogne
Sandgate
Dover
Margate
Foreland
Blankenberg
Ostend
Nieuport
Sas de Ghent
Sluys
Ghent
Antwerp
Turnhout
Hamont
Ruremonde
Roer River
Rhine River
Meuse River
Sambre River
Scheldt River
Lys River
Aa River
Yser River
Dyle River
Demer River
Ourthe River
Sambre River
Meuse

Spaaren. In ſeveral parts of the country theſe rivers are joined by navigable canals, which afford a cheap communication between the ſeveral towns and villages of this populous province. The broad water, which paſſes by Amſterdam from the Zuyder ſea, and divides the province into South and North Holland, or into Holland and Weſt Frieſland, is called the Y, or, as it is pronounced, the Ey, and forms the Wykermeer at Beverwick.

Holland abounds in the moſt extraordinary improvements, and is amazingly populous, the number of its inhabitants being computed at one million two hundred thouſand. The buildings in the towns are moſtly of brick, and for handſome villages and cleanlineſs in their houſes, it exceeds every other country; but in North Holland, neatneſs is carried on to an aſtoniſhing pitch. In that province are villages in which the houſes, together with the rooms and furniture, are clean and bright beyond imagination. Their ſtreets too, being paved with brick, very carefully waſhed, and ſtrewed with fine white ſand, have a very decent appearance.

This province, though conſiſting of two parts, is under one joint regency, called the States of Holland and Weſt Frieſland, compoſed of the nobility and voting towns. The number of nobility admitted into the aſſembly of the States is not limited, and therefore not always the ſame. The nobility elect their ſeveral members by a majority of votes, but they ſeldom exceed ten. The voting towns, at the firſt foundation of the republic, were only the ſix following: Dort, Harlem, Delft, Leyden, Amſterdam, and Gouda: but William I. prince of Orange, added twelve more; ſo that at preſent they are eighteen, that is, eleven in South Holland, and ſeven in North Holland. The ſmalleſt of theſe cities has an equal voice in the provincial ſtates with Amſterdam, which pays almoſt half the charge of the whole province.

All the ſtates of Holland meet four times a year, in February, June, September, and November. In the three former ſeſſions they fill up the vacant employments in their diſpoſal, conſult about the common affairs of the province, and determine particular differences that may happen between the towns. In November they meet for raiſing ſuch ſupplies as may have been granted by their deputies to the States General, for the ſervice of the ſubſequent year. The reſolutions of the States are generally determined by a majority of voices; but in very important affairs they muſt be unanimous: ſo that the oppoſition of one of the ſmalleſt cities can prevent a reſolution being taken; in which caſe the aſſembly is adjourned for a day or two, that the deputies may have time to return for farther inſtructions to their reſpective cities.

The office of grand penſionary of Holland is occupied by a perſon of great dignity; he has no deciſive vote; he propoſes the ſubjects of debate to the aſſembly of the ſtates of that provence, collects the ſuffrages of the nineteen repreſentatives, pronounces the reſolutions, and dictates the terms in which they are to be regiſtered; he is alſo the conſtant deputy to the States General, and keeps the public regiſters and great ſeal of the province. He is elected by a majority of ſuffrages in the aſſembly of the ſtates; and his office is properly only for five years, at the expiration of which a new election muſt be obtained, or rather a confirmation of the former.

The court of the greateſt authority, next to the States of Holland, is the provincial council of ſtate, which, from the two parts of this province, is divided into two aſſemblies; that of South Holland conſiſts of ten repreſentatives, of which one always repreſents the nobility, and has the precedence of all the reſt. Theſe take cogniſance both of the revenue and military, and, when neceſſary, convene a general aſſembly of the ſtates of the province. The aſſembly of North Holland is compoſed of ſeven deputies of the towns of that part of the province. Theſe hold a joint aſſembly every year in the month of November, to ſettle, in conjunction with the deputies of the States General, the neceſſary funds to be levied for the ſervice of the army in the ſubſequent year.

There are two courts held at the Hague for the adminiſtration of juſtice, which are, the court of Holland, and the high council. The provinces of Holland and Zealand have always been ſo ſtrictly united, as to have but one common high court of juſtice, and accordingly the court of Holland is compoſed of a preſident, with eight counſellors of that province, and three for Zealand; a ſolicitor, two attornies, a regiſter, and ſix ſecretaries: Holland chuſes the preſident two years, and Zealand the third. The members of this court are excluded from being magiſtrates of cities, directors of trading companies, or enjoying any poſt, or any other ſalary than what is annexed to their office. The nobles of Holland, and the city magiſtrates, are ſubject to the juriſdiction of this court, which decides appeals from the judgments of the magiſtrates.

The provinces of Holland and Zealand have a high council compoſed of a preſident and ſix counſellors for Holland, and three for Zealand, a regiſter, and a ſubſtitute. This court judges definitively in all caſes brought before them by an appeal from the court of Holland, and gives judgment, from which, except by way of reviſion, there is no farther appeal.

Amſterdam has a ſenate conſiſting of thirty-ſix members, part of whom have the direction of political affairs, and others the adminiſtration of juſtice. The dignity of a ſenator is for life, unleſs forfeited by mal-adminiſtration. The ſenate has the power of filling up vacancies, and directing all other affairs, with a ſupreme and abſolute authority, independent of the people. They chooſe the burgomaſters and ſchepens, or aldermen of every city. Theſe firſt are always part of their own body; and, in order to become a burgo-maſter, it is neceſſary that a perſon ſhould firſt bear the office of a ſchepen. There are twelve burgomaſters in Amſterdam, four of whom have the adminiſtration of affairs, and are from thence called regent burgomaſters. Three of theſe are annually changed, and the fourth continues in office a ſecond year, to inſtruct thoſe who ſucceed to it; he likewiſe preſides for the firſt quarter, and then gives place to his colleagues, who preſide in the ſame manner three months alternately, till the expiration of the year.

The chief court of juſtice in every city is formed of the ſchepens or aldermen. There are nine in Amſterdam, ſeven of whom are annually elected, and two remain a ſecond year. Theſe adminiſter juſtice both in civil and criminal affairs; but, before they condemn a perſon to ſuffer death, they always conſult the burgo-maſters on the merits of the cauſe; but are not obliged to conform to their opinion, and ſometimes they give judgment contrary to it. Where the puniſhment is capital, not only the proof of the crime is required to be extremely evident, but the priſoner himſelf; for which purpoſe they employ the rack and other tortures; but this is never done, except when the evidence is ſo ſtrong againſt the criminal as to leave no room to queſtion his guilt; whence it is ſaid, that an innocent perſon is never put to the rack. There lies no appeal from the ſentence of this court, in criminal cauſes.

Beſides the above, there is another court, inferior to it, but worthy of being imitated by all Chriſtian nations, ſince it ſeems founded on the very ſpirit of Chriſtianity. This court conſiſts of eight or ten members, ſtiled peacemakers, who are generally young gentlemen of fortune, that muſt be houſe-keepers, and married. Their buſineſs is to make up all quarrels, and to prevent or diſſuade people from going to law. They, with one experienced magiſtrate, at their head, alſo take cognizance of civil cauſes amounting to a ſum not exceeding ſix hundred guilders or about fifty-five pounds ſterling. They proceed by way of citation: the creditor ſummonſes his debtor to appear, and, after the fact has been ſtated, and both ſides heard, the peace-makers determine what ought to be done, and order the parties to comply with it: but there lies an appeal to the ſchepens from the deciſion of this court.

Very large credit is given to all ſorts of perſons in Holland, and there never was any country where ſo few languiſh in priſon. Whenever any perſon acquaints the magiſtrates of his inability to pay his creditors, and lays before them an exact account of his circumſtances, they immediately order the commiſſioners of bankrupts to take poſſeſſion of his effects, and exempt his perſon from all arreſts for ſix weeks, which time is allowed him to compound with his creditors. In the mean time his books are laid before the commiſſioners to be examined, and all letters directed to him are delivered to them before he peruſes them. If his endeavours to compound with his creditors prove ineffectual, and his failure appears to be owing to loſſes and misfortunes, the commiſſioners, when the ſix weeks are expired, ſell his effects, and make a dividend, after which the magiſtrates exempt him from all claim, whether foreign or domeſtic; and when the failure is not fraudulent, it is not in the power of any or all of his creditors to hinder this.

Another ſtill more expeditious method of obtaining abſolute freedom in Holland, is, for the debtor to apply to the provincial high court of juſtice, repreſenting his condition, and ſurrendering all he has, upon oath; after which he is acquitted, as before, from all future claims, and may again engage in trade; but if the debtor here takes a falſe oath, the magiſtrates are authorized to puniſh him as they

they pleaſe, and even ſentence him to ſuffer death for the crime.

The eccleſiaſtical government of Holland is divided into two parts, each of which has its particular ſynod. The ſynod of South Holland is compoſed of eleven claſſes, under which are three hundred and thirty-one miniſters: the ſynod of North Holland has only ſix claſſes, in which are two hundred and twenty-one miniſters. Beſides theſe miniſters of the eſtabliſhed, there are aſſemblies of Engliſh preſbyterians at Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Dort, Leyden, and Harlem; and at Amſterdam is an Engliſh epiſcopal church. The remonſtrants amount to thirty congregations, and thirty-eight miniſters. The Lutherans compoſe nineteen congregations, and have twenty-ſeven preachers. Here is the metropolitan church of the Moravians, and alſo a Quaker's meeting. The Roman catholics have about two hundred and fifty churches, and two hundred and thirty-five prieſts, among which are about forty churches and ſixty prieſts of Janſoniſt principles.

The following are the moſt conſiderable cities and places in Holland, viz. 1. Dort, or Dordrecht, in Latin Dordracum, ſeated on an iſland in the Morwe, that was formed in 1421 by a terrible inundation, which deſtroyed no leſs than ſeventy-two villages, and about one hundred thouſand perſons. This city ſtands fifteen miles to the eaſt of Rotterdam; and its ſituation is naturally ſo ſtrong, that, though deſtitute of fortifications, it has never yet been taken. The number of houſes in 1732 amounted to three thouſand nine hundred and fifty-four. The harbour is very commodious, and its trade conſiderable, eſpecially in grain, Rheniſh and other wines; as alſo in timber, which, in ſummer-time, is brought from Germany down the Rhine and the Waal, and here ſawed in mills, of which there are great numbers about the city. This is the ſeat of the mintage for South Holland, and has a ſeminary.

2. The city of Harlem ſtands on the river Spaaren, which runs through it, and is the only paſſage for the many ſhips and other veſſels coming from Frieſland and other parts, in their way to the towns of Holland and Zealand. Harlem ſtands fourteen miles to the weſt of Amſterdam, and enjoys a communication with that city and Leyden, by means of two ſpacious canals. The houſes, which are neat brick buildings, in 1732 amounted to ſeven thouſand nine hundred and ſixty-three; but very few of them are built in the modern taſte, or make an elegant appearance. There are, in this city, four Dutch Calviniſt churches, one of French, one of Lutheran, and ſeveral maſs-houſes, the papiſts being here much more numerous than the proteſtants. Its manufactures of ſilk and linen, though ſtill conſiderable, are greatly declined. The bleaching of thread, and linen, for which this city is famous, employs a great number of hands.

The invention of printing is attributed by the inhabitants to Lawrence Coſter, of this city; on whoſe houſe, which ſtood about the middle of the town, was a Latin inſcription, that he invented it about the year 1440: a ſtatue was alſo erected to him on the ſame account; and in the town-houſe is kept, in a ſilver caſe, wrapped up in ſilk, the firſt book that Coſter printed. Here is an academy of ſciences, founded in 1751.

Several beautiful ſeats, and a wood cut out into delightful walks and viſtas, lie to the ſouth of the town.

3. The city of Leyden, in Latin Lugdunum Batavorum, is ſeated on the Rhine, in the fifty-ſecond degree fifteen minutes north latitude and in the fourth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, and, next to Amſterdam, is the largeſt and fineſt city in all Holland. The ſtreets are long, broad, neat, and adorned with beautiful canals. Here are ſome fine churches belonging to the Dutch Calviniſts, with a Lutheran, an Engliſh, a French, and a Mennonite meeting: as alſo ſeveral maſs-houſes, the papiſts conſtituting the majority of the inhabitants. The univerſity founded in 1575 by William I. prince of Orange, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands, and has a valuable library.

The celebrated city of Amſterdam, or Amſteldam, is ſituated in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree ninety minutes eaſt longitude, at the influx of the Y and the Amſtel, where is a ſluice, by means of which that river continues its courſe through the town. This is one of the greateſt trading towns in Europe, and the harbour is one of the largeſt and ſafeſt; and has this advantage, that the other towns of the province can eaſily ſend their goods thither, and receive returns; and with a fair wind it is but a few hours paſſage to or from all the ports of North Holland, Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Gelderland.

The ground hereabouts is naturally marſhy, and the buildings founded on oaken piles, which occaſioned the facetious Eraſmus to ſay, that in his country vaſt multitudes of people lived on the tops of trees. The middle of the town is interſected by a great number of navigable canals, which while they conduce to the pleaſantneſs and cleanlineſs of the place, are at the ſame time a great convenience to trade.

The city of Amſterdam forms a ſemicircle on the Y, and is fortified on the land ſide with ramparts and twenty-ſix regular baſtions, and on that ſide the neighbouring country may be laid under water. On the ſide next the Y it is ſecured by a double row of piles driven into the river, projecting ſome feet above the ſurface; but in ſome places openings are left for ſhips to paſs in and out, and in the night theſe openings are fenced with a boom. The Amſtel divides the town into two parts; and in 1732, when the houſes were numbered, they were found to amount to twenty-ſix thouſand eight hundred and thirty-five; but the inhabitants do not exceed two hundred thouſand.

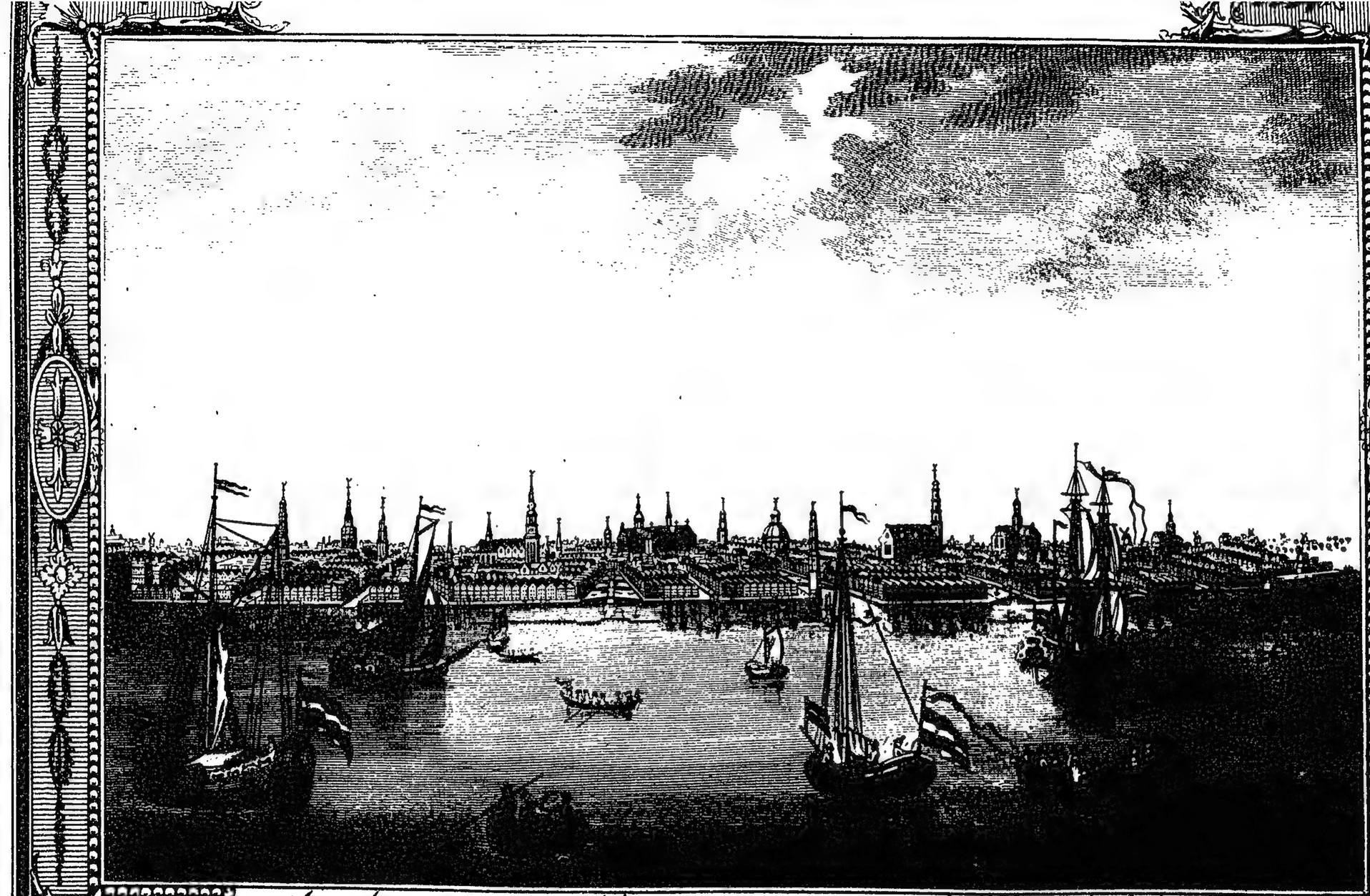
This city has ſeveral very fine gates, particularly that of Harlem, which is adorned on each ſide with large columns, and a lion's head on the top of each; in the middle is the city's preſent arms, and on the frieze of the inſide of the gate towards the town is the ancient coat, which was a ſhip without a rudder. On each ſide of this gate is a guard-houſe, one for the burghers, and the other for the ſoldiers of the garriſon. There are four other principal gates; before which is a bridge of ſeveral arches, with draw-bridges, and another ſtone gate, which is ſhut every night.

The ſtreets are, in general, extremely clean; but, except thoſe that have canals, they are much too narrow. They are, however, rendered leſs incommodious by the hired coaches being ſet on ſledges drawn by one horſe. Merchandiſe is alſo drawn on ſledges, which are not only the moſt uſeful vehicles for the inhabitants and their trade, but are calculated to preſerve the houſes, which, from their being built on piles, might in time be damaged in their foundations, by having a great number of wheel carriages. The principal ſtreets, or rather quays of the canals, are agreeably planted on each ſide with trees. The houſes are rather neat than elegant or commodious. The entrance of them is for the moſt part by ſteps, which riſe four or five feet from the ground; and the paſſage into the rooms, which runs very deep, is floored and pannelled with marble, which has an air of grandeur in miniature.

The town-houſe is the moſt diſtinguiſhed of all the buildings in Amſterdam. It is two hundred and eighty-two feet in front, two hundred and thirty-two deep, and one hundred and ſixteen high, excluſive of the cupola. It coſt three millions of guilders, or three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, when money was more valuable than it is now: which will be leſs ſurpriſing, if we conſider that it ſtands upon one hundred and thirty thouſand ſtrong wooden piles. This is a very grand and uſeful building, and yet it is neither elegant nor agreeable. It contains the offices and tribunals for the execution of the laws in the ſeveral branches of the military, as well as civil government. The inſide is ſaid to be very beautifully ornamented with marble, jaſper, ſculpture, and paintings. In ſome of their vaults, or cellars, are kept the treaſures of the celebrated bank of Amſterdam; in others are confined criminals under ſentence of death, and others again ſerve as apartments for officers of ſeveral claſſes. In the upper part is an arſenal, as it is called, though it is rather a collection of old faſhioned armour and weapons. Near the arſenal is the dock, which is above five hundred feet long. The chimes of the tower are incomparable, and it commands a fine proſpect of the city and its environs, as far as the Zuyder ſea.

Among the other public buildings are the admiralty and India-houſe, which are large and beautiful. On the harbour ſtands the arſenal for military ſtores both for ſea and land-ſervice. Among ſeveral things remarkable in this magazine, is a reſervoir on the top of the houſe capable of containing one thouſand ſix hundred tons of water, which, by means of leaden pipes, may be conveyed, in caſe of fire, to ſixteen different parts of the city.

There are eleven churches of Dutch Calviniſts in this city, two of which are parochial, with two of French, two of Engliſh, one of Arminians or Remonſtrants, two of Lutherans, and three of Mennonites. The Armenian Chriſtians have likewiſe a church here; but the papiſts have a greater number of places of worſhip than all the above-mentioned ſects put together, and in particular have twenty-four very large maſs houſes. The ſynagogue of



An Accurate View *of* AMSTERDAM, *the Capital of the*
Dutch Netherlands

Lodge sculp.



A perspective View of the New Drawbridge, Canal, & Great Orphan House, at the HAGUE, a celebrated Town in Holland.

the Portugueſe Jews is a ſpacious and ſtately building, of a quadrangular form, and the inſide is extremely neat: the other Jews have alſo their diſtinct ſynagogues. The number of poor houſes is conſiderable; their incomes, and their conveniencies and cleanlineſs are worthy of admiration. Here is an hoſpital for aged men and women, conſiſting of ſeveral buildings; a new edifice for aged people of both ſexes; the diaconie for old women, which is the moſt ſtately ſtructure of them all, and in which old men alſo receive a comfortable ſupport; with a receptacle for lunatics, and ſeveral orphan-houſes, as the eleemoſynary houſe, in which are frequently two thouſand children, the diaconie orphan-houſe, the burgher orphan-houſe, &c. Beſides the above, there is in this and moſt of the conſiderable cities in Holland, a public office, where all poor travellers, that give any ſatisfactory account of themſelves, may go and take a loaf, a penny, and a paſſport, by virtue of which they are received gratis into the boats that carry paſſengers and goods from one town to another.

In Amſterdam are alſo ſome houſes of correction, as the raſp-houſe, where felons raſp Brazil wood for three, four, ſeven, ten years, or for life, according to the nature of their crimes. When they are incorrigible, and too lazy to work, they are often put for an hour or two into a dungeon, where water comes in; ſo that they muſt be continually labouring at the pump, in order to avoid being drowned. Here are alſo ſome ſpin-houſes, where proſtitutes, and other women of bad character, are kept to ſpinning. Here are officers who take up all vagabonds, and convey them directly to houſes provided for that purpoſe, where they are forced to work, every man in his own buſineſs, in proportion to his ſtrength and ability. The poor who want work, and offer themſelves, are received here. All theſe foundations, and the good police of this city, have ſuch an effect, that there are no beggars in the ſtreets.

A charitable foundation is eſtabliſhed here, which is extremely remarkable. As perſons of all nations reſort hither, many of whom have not much to ſpend, and the taverns are generally very dear, they have ſpacious edifices, where all poor ſtrangers, of both ſexes, who are obliged to make any ſtay in this city, are received, neatly lodged, and have bed, board, and waſhing, for three days and nights, during which time if any of them fall ſick, they are removed into a neighbouring hoſpital; but after the expiration of three days, they muſt quit the place, and are not allowed to return for ſix weeks, on pain of being ſeverely puniſhed for ſo doing.

There are great numbers of artificers and manufacturers in Amſterdam: beſides which, this city is alone in poſſeſſion of half the immenſe trade which the Dutch carry on to the Eaſt Indies, and governs the whole. They alſo engroſs almoſt the whole northern trade carried on by the Dutch to Norway, and the countries ſituated near the Baltic. Their commerce with Spain and the Spaniſh Weſt Indies is very great, nor is it leſs conſiderable to the Levant, Italy, and Portugal.

The city of Rotterdam ſtands fourteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of the Hague, is in the fifty-ſecond degree ten minutes north latitude, and the fourth degree twenty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſeated on the Maeſe, here called the Merwe, which at this place receives the Rotter, after it has taken its courſe through the city. This river is very broad, and of a depth ſufficient to admit ſhips of tolerable burden; but if they draw above fifteen feet water, they are obliged to take the way of Helvoetſluys to Rotterdam. The canals within the town are ſo deep, that the largeſt ſhips come up and take in, or deliver their cargoes at the very doors of the warehouſes: accordingly, this city, next to Amſterdam, is the place of greateſt trade, eſpecially to England and Scotland. The mouth of the Merwe is five German miles to the weſt of Rotterdam, where it gradually becomes ſhallow by the gathering of the ſands. Its houſes, in 1732, were computed at ſix thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-one.

The fineſt ſtreet in Rotterdam is called the Haaringſliet: moſt of the houſes are noble ſtone buildings. The Boomties, or Boomquays-ſtreet, extends delightfully along the Merwe, (which is here near a mile and a half in breadth) upwards of half a mile in length. Here is a row of lofty trees, and the houſes reſemble palaces; on the other ſide runs the river, which has ſhips continually ſailing in or out, or lying at anchor. This place ſerves as a mall for people of condition, who in general reſort to it.

The chief of their public buildings are the bank, the Eaſt and Weſt-India houſes, the arſenal, and the Exchange; but, among others, we muſt not omit to mention the great bridge acroſs the Morwe, in the middle of which is a fine braſs ſtatue of the celebrated Eraſmus, who was a native of this city. The firſt admiralty college of the United Provinces, under the direction of twelve commiſſioners, has its ſeat here.

In this city are four churches belonging to the Dutch, one of French, and one of Engliſh preſbyterians, with an Engliſh epiſcopal church, whoſe miniſter has one hundred pounds ſterling per annum from the king of Great Britain, beſides ſurplice fees, ſaid to amount to two hundred pounds more; there are alſo a Scots and Lutheran church, the latter of which is new and handſome. The ſynagogue of the Portugueſe Jews is a very fine ſtructure, though not ſo magnificent as that in Amſterdam.

The Hague, or Gravenhage, is a moſt beautiful place, ſituated in a very delightful country, ten miles north-weſt of Rotterdam; but, from its having neither gates nor walls, is called a village. It is, however, ſurrounded by a moat, bordered with a walk of lofty and ſhady trees, and at the avenues of the town is paſſed by means of drawbridges. The ſtreets are broad, ſeveral of them are without canals, and the houſes are, for the moſt part, extremely well-built. The number of coaches belonging to the noblemen and gentlemen, and the gay appearance in point of dreſs, give a very different idea of life here from that in the trading cities. The people here are more polite and eaſy in their behaviour, than in other parts of Holland; the moſt conſiderable perſons in Europe meeting here, as well as the aſſembly of the ſtates general, which alſo draws hither the greateſt part of the people of the firſt diſtinction in the United Provinces.

The environs of the Hague are extremely delightful; and in its neighbourhood is a fine pleaſure-garden, in imitation of that of Vauxhall; on the eaſt ſide the town is bounded by beautiful meadows; the ſouth by ſplendid ſeats; on the weſt by ſand hills along the North Sea, on which ſide is a ſtraight avenue paved with brick, and a walk for paſſengers, planted with ſeveral rows of trees leading to the village of Scheveling, which is at two miles diſtance; and on the north is a delightful wood, in which the ſtadtholder has a ſeat known by the name of the Houſe in the Wood; two miles from which is the village of Ryſwick.

The towns and places of inferior note, in South Holland, are, 1. Gouda, ſeated on the ſmall river Gow; and the Yſſel, which about five miles lower, falls into the Maeſe. It is about five miles diſtant from Schoonhoven towards the north-weſt, and ſeven from Rotterdam to the north-eaſt. 2. Gorchum, on the other ſide of the Maeſe, and on the mouth of the little river Ling, which runs through it, and falls there into the Maeſe: it is a neat, well built city, ſtrongly fortified by art and nature. 2. Hoekelen, or Heukelen, on the river Ling, ſix miles above Gorcum. 3. Aſperen, a ſmall walled town, belonging to the family of the Boetſelaars. 4. Leerdam, a ſmall city with the title of county: it ſtands on the river Ling, three miles below Aſperen to the north-weſt, and ſeven above Gorcum to the north-eaſt. The celebrated Cornelius Janſenius was born here. 5. Schiedam, on the river Schie, a ſmall, but populous city. 6. Schoonhoven, at the conflux of the Leck and Vliet, and eleven miles from Rotterdam. 7. Briel, in the iſle of Voorn, near the mouth of the Maeſe: the celebrated admiral Van Tromp was born here. The iſland on which this town ſtands is twenty miles long, and ſix broad; the air is thick, and the ſoil fruitful. 8. Goree, on a ſmall iſland of the ſame name; it is about eight miles from Briel. 9. Naorden, a ſtrongly fortified town on the Zuyder ſea. 13. Muyden, a well-fortified town at the mouth of the Vecht, on the Zuyder ſea. 11. Nieuwpoort on the Leck. 12. Gertruydenburg. And 13. Der Khindert, all belong to the houſe of Naſſau. 14. Wezep. 15. Nieuwerſluice, on the Vecht. 16. Wooerden, on the Old Rhine.

In North Holland, the principal places are, 1. Monikendam, on the Zuyder ſea, about eight miles diſtant from Amſterdam to the north-eaſt. 2. Edam, near the Zuyder ſea. 3. Alkmaer, twenty-three miles north of Amſterdam: this is a beautiful village and pleaſant town, ſurrounded with gardens, walks, and meadows. 4. Hoorn, on a bay of the Zuyder ſea, twelve miles from Alkmaer to the eaſt, and ſeventeen from Amſterdam to the north: it is a pleaſant, rich, and large town, encompaſſed with ſo many dikes and canals, that it is reckoned impregnable. 5. Enchuyſen, on the Zuyder ſea, eleven miles from Hoorn to the north-eaſt, and twenty three from Alkmaer towards the eaſt: this is the firſt town that revolted from Spain, after the taking of Briel by the confederates. 6. Medenblick, on the Zuyder ſea, ſeven miles from Enchuyſen:

ſon; the neighbouring country abounds in excellent paſtures, where are bred a prodigious number of cattle. 7. Schagen, fourteen miles to the weſt of Medenblick. 8. Egmond, ſix miles from Alkmaer to the weſt. 9. Beverwick, ſeven miles farther to the ſouth of Egmont.

10. Broek is a large and handſome village of North Holland. The houſes are all built of boards; they ſeldom exceed one ſtory, and the roofs are tiled. The village is watered by canals, which are kept with the greateſt care, and all the ſtreets paved with bricks, which in ſome places are diſpoſed in the form of flowers, and are frequently waſhed. That theſe ornaments may not be defaced, or their cleanlineſs interrupted, the ſtreets are deſignedly made too narrow for carriages to paſs through. The cattle, inſtead of being admitted into the village, are kept by the meaner ſort of peaſants, who dwell among the paſtures, and all paſſengers muſt put up at the inns without the village. Not only the wooden furniture in the houſes, but the very broomſticks are painted, as are alſo the gates and rails in the meadows. The inhabitants either trade, or ſubſiſt on their eſtates, and among the latter are frequently many merchants, and tradeſmen of Amſterdam, who retire hither to enjoy in tranquillity the fortunes they have acquired by their induſtry.

A row of iſlands lie acroſs the mouth of the Zuyder ſea; the firſt of which, named the Texel, is disjoined from the north cape of North Holland, by a very narrow channel; nor are the diſtances between the reſt much larger.

The Texel is defended from the ſea by ſand-hills, and ſtrong banks; is about eight miles long, and five broad. This iſland contains ſeveral fine villages, and a large town on the eaſt ſide, called Bunk, which enjoys the privileges of a city. The inhabitants apply themſelves to agriculture, and herring-fiſhing; and the ſtates, becauſe of the importance of this place, which lies at the mouth of the Zuyder ſea; have built a ſtrong fortreſs here, where they keep always a good garriſon. Moſt of the ſoil is applied to feed ſheep, of which they have large flocks; and the cheeſe made of their milk vies with the Parmeſan.

The iſland of Flieland, or Vlieland, lies towards the north-eaſt of the Texel, and is about nine miles long, and but two broad: it has only two ſmall villages.

North-eaſt of Flieland lies Schelling, or Der Schelling, which is about ten miles long, and three broad. It has two villages with churches, and three without: the chief of them, containing above one thouſand houſes, was burnt, with one hundred merchant ſhips, by Sir Robert Holmes, with an Engliſh ſquadron, in 1666.

Theſe iſlands lying along the mouth of the Zuyder ſea, do, with ſeveral large banks of ſand, break the rage of the ocean, and form two good harbours at the Texel and Vlie, the firſt being a noted ſtation for ſhips bound to the ſouth, and the other for thoſe bound northward.

A number of little iſlands, called the Wierengen, from the great quantity of ſea-weed called Wier, lie more to the ſouth, on the coaſt of North Holland: the chief of them is five miles long and two broad, has ſeveral good villages, a rich ſoil, and their flocks of ſheep are very numerous.

II. The province of Zealand has Holland to the north, Flanders to the ſouth, Brabant to the eaſt, and the German ocean to the weſt. It conſiſts of iſlands, is guarded againſt the ſea by dykes, has a fruitful ſoil, but is without fuel, except what England and Scotland ſupply. The aſſembly of the ſtates conſiſts of ſeven members, is held at Middleburgh, and has the prince of Orange for its preſident. To the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, Zealand ſends four deputies, who hold their office for life. Two high courts of juſtice, a college of admiralty, and a chamber of accompts, are the principal tribunals. The clergy are divided into four claſſes, and make together ſixty-three miniſters. The province is populous and wealthy, but the air is not wholſome. Sheep are numerous, and the wool fine, and fiſh may be had in great plenty. The principal places in Zealand are,

1. Middleburg, the capital of Walcheren, and of the whole province, is a large, handſome, rich, and ſtrong town, which ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, to which ſituation it owes its name. A canal a mile and a half in length, affords this city a communication with the Weſt Scheld, and is capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips. Middleburg is fortified with a wall, ſtrengthened with thirteen baſtions. Here the ſtates of the province hold their meetings, as alſo the deputies who aſſemble in St. Nicholas's abbey. It is likewiſe the ſeat of the admiralty college, the mint, and the chamber of accompts.

Several fine ſquares and ſtately public buildings adorn this city, particularly the town-houſe, which is a noble pile, with a very high tower and clock, which laſt coſt an hundred and fifty thouſand guilders. It contains ſeven Calviniſt churches, with an academy, an Engliſh, French, Lutheran, Mennonite, and Popiſh church, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue. It is a place of great trade, particularly in wines.

2. Fluſhing, in Dutch Vliſſingeu, is a well-fortified town at the mouth of the Hondt, or Weſtern Scheld, and defends not only the paſſage into that river, but alſo that to the other iſles of Zealand, and even into Flanders by ſea. It lies eight miles to the ſouth of Middleburg. Its harbour, which is large and ſecure, lies between two moles, or dykes, and on the ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Walcheren, and two canals. The ſea runs quite up to the other end of the town; ſo that loaded veſſels come up to the very doors of the merchants. The houſes are in general well-built, and, beſides other fine ſtructures, the town-houſe is a magnificent and regular pile. In the town are three churches of Dutch Calviniſts, one of French, one of Engliſh, and one of Mennonites.

3. Weſt Capelle, lies on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, and is famous for the maritime laws uſed in the Seven Provinces, and called by its name. 4. Domburg, about ſix miles to the north-weſt of Middleburg, it enjoys large privileges. 5. Rammekens, four miles diſtant from Fluſhing to the eaſt, and as many from Middleburg to the ſouth, is a ſtrong fort, built by Mary queen of Hungary, and governeſs of the Low Countries, for Charles V. This was alſo one of the cautionary towns given to queen Elizabeth. 6. Arnemuydon, originally ſituated near the mouth of the Arne. 7. Hoak, a fort which commands the Veer Gat.

8. Veer, or Teer Veer, four miles from Middleburg, is well-fortified, and has a good trade, eſpecially to Scotland, the natives of which enjoy particular privileges here. The arſenal is the beſt furniſhed in the province, and the harbour a very good one. The Calviniſts alone are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion in this town; whence the Veres, antiently earls of Oxford, are ſaid to have derived both their origin and name.

South Beveland is the pleaſanteſt of all the Zealand iſlands, and contains the town of Ter-Goes, on the northern part of the iſland, not far from Eaſt Scheld. This is the only town in the iſland that ſends deputies to the ſtates: it is ſmall, but neatly built, ſtrongly fortified, and carries on a good trade.

The town of Monſter, or Borſelen, belongs to the Borſelen family, and is built near a place where a town formerly ſtood, which was deſtroyed by an inundation in the year 1732.

Kortgene, a ſmall village in North-Beveland, is the only place worth mentioning there.

The iſland of Schowen is ſeventeen miles long, about eight broad, tolerably fertile, has many rich farms and gentlemen's ſeats, and contains the town of Zirkſee, thirteen miles from Middleburg, which ſends deputies to the ſtates; and Broniverſhaven, a ſmall ſea-port town.

Duiveland iſle took its name from the great number of duives, or pigeons, which formerly abounded in it: there are only a few villages in it.

The iſland of Tholen is eight miles long, and four broad, but does not contain any place worth naming, except Tholen, which ſtands on the Earidracht, is well fortified, has a toll-houſe, and ſends deputies to the ſtates.

The iſland of St. Philip has only one village of the ſame name, which is not very conſiderable.

III. The province of Frieſland is bounded by the Flie to the weſt, by Groningen and Overyſſel to the eaſt, by the German ocean to the north, and by the Zuyder ſea to the ſouth. It is thirty-two miles long, twenty-ſeven broad, has a ſoil and air reſembling thoſe of Holland, rich paſtures that feed large quantities of cattle, ſheep, horſes, &c. and in the higher grounds are good corn lands. It produces turf and wood, has many lakes, and is guarded from the ſea by conſiderable dykes. Here are many canals which facilitate commerce; the inhabitants are chiefly Anabaptiſts; their language approaches the neareſt to the old Engliſh of any other in Europe. Several courts and chambers belong to this province, and the Calviniſt miniſters are two hundred and ſeven in number, divided into ſix claſſes, and holding ſynods annually and alternately. The aſſembly of the ſtates here conſiſts of about eighty-two perſons, who ſend five deputies to the aſſembly of the ſtates general. The linen manufactured here is the fineſt perhaps in the univerſe, and the woollen is much eſteemed.

1. Leuwarden, the capital of this province, is thirty-

eight

eight miles distance from Campen to the north, twenty-six from Groeningen to the west, about sixty from Amsterdam to the north-east, and seven from the German ocean to the south. It is the largest, richest, best built, and most populous of the province, though not so ancient as some others: it is the seat of the provincial states and the sovereign council, and the residence of the stadtholder. The streets are clean, the houses splendid, the bridges well paved, and the gardens pleasant. The churches, the governor's palace, that where the states meet, and the houses of the noblemen are fine structures. The figure of the city is an oblong square, encompassed with strong ramparts, a broad deep ditch, five bulwarks of earth, with a ditch each. It stands in a fruitful soil; and by its navigable canals, the largest of which runs to the ocean, they have a good trade with Hamburg, Bremen, Embden, and Holland; and are plentifully supplied with necessaries from the neighbouring countries. They have two hospitals; and the city is governed by good laws under three burgomasters, and nine aldermen.

2. The town of Francker, which is about ten miles from Leuwarden, and four from the Zuyder sea, is neither large nor fortified, but has an university, which was opened in the year 1585, and a physic-garden. The salaries of the professors are paid out of the revenues of the old monasteries; and the students, neither in this, nor the other universities of the provinces, pay any tax for their wine and beer. They make here great numbers of fine blue glazed tiles and bricks.

3. Harlingen, which is the largest town in the province next to Leuwarden, stands on the coast of the Zuyder sea, at the mouth of a large canal. The town is pretty well fortified towards the land, and the adjacent country may be easily laid under water. Its manufactures are salt, bricks, and tiles. The admiralty college of Friesland has its seat here.

4. The town of Dokkum, about eleven miles from Leuwarden, and about four or five from the north sea, with which it has a communication by a canal, called Dokkum Diep, through which the largest ships may pass at high water. A great deal of salt is made in this town, which stands in a fruitful country, abounding in corn, pasture, villages, and gentlemens seats.

5. The small town of Staveren, which stands on the banks of the Zuyder sea, within three leagues of West Friesland, was formerly a place of great trade, which hath much dwindled of late years. 6. Sneck, situated on a lake of the same name, which supplies it with plenty of fish, both for consumption and sale. 7. Stoten, a small town, almost surrounded with lakes. 8. Workum, a small town near the Zuyder sea. 9. Ylst, which sends deputies to the states. 10. Makkum. 11. Rinlopen, which has a harbour on the Zuyder sea.

12. The village of Molkweren, which is situated in a marshy ground. They speak here a particular language, which none of the other inhabitants of the country understand. It is a remainder, or dialect of the ancient Saxon; so that the people of the village, and the English, understand each other pretty well. The houses here are placed so irregular, that when a stranger comes into this village, he must have a guide to shew him the right way.

On the coast of Friesland are two little islands, called Ameland and Schiermonnigkoog, the former of which belongs to the prince of Orange, as a free, independent lordship. At Wykeb village, in the quarter of the Seven Forests, are interred the remains of the celebrated general Coehorn.

SECT. III.

Describing the Provinces of GRONINGEN, OVERYSSEL, GELDERLAND, and UTRECHT, with the Country of DREANTHE, the Generalité Lands, &c. with a particular Description of their respective Cities, Towns, and Rivers; also of the Trade, Manufactures, &c. of the Inhabitants.

IV. THE province of Groningen is bounded, on the east, by Munster; on the west, by Friesland; on the south, by Dreanthe; and on the north, by the German ocean. It is forty-seven miles long, and the greatest breadth is about thirty-three miles. The number of canals and dykes are very considerable; and the principal river is the Hunse. The states consist of the deputies; of the town of Groningen, and of the neighbouring country six deputies are sent to the states-general: the number of established clergy are one hundred and sixty ministers, divided into seven classes. The air and soil resemble those of Friesland.

The principal places are, 1. Groningen, the capital, twenty-seven miles from Leuwarden, fifty-eight from Deventer, twenty-four from Embden, eighty from Amsterdam, and twelve from the nearest shore of the German ocean, at the conflux of several rivulets, which form the Hunse and Fivel. Ships of considerable burden can come up to the city, in consequence of which it enjoys a pretty good trade. It was formerly very strong, but its fortifications are now much neglected. The university here was founded in 1615, and is well endowed out of the revenues of the antient monasteries. The town, which was formerly one of the Hanse, and has still great privileges, is large and populous, being the seat of the high colleges, and containing three spacious market-places, and twenty-seven streets, in which are many fine houses, besides churches, and other public structures. By the river Fivel, and the Eems, it has a communication with Westphalia. In 1672 it made such a gallant resistance against the bishop of Munster, that he is said to have lost ten thousand men before it. A considerable district, called the Gorecht, is under the jurisdiction of this city. Rodolphus Agricola, and Vesalius, two of the most learned men of the age in which they lived, were born here.

2. The town of Dam, or Damme, stands on the river, or channel, called Damsterdiep, about three miles from the mouth of the Eems to the south, and thirteen from Groningen to the south-west. Though this is an open place, it has all the privileges of a city, and sends deputies to the states of the province. It has suffered very much of late by inundations. The Imperialists, it is said, took this city by storm in 1536, when those of Gelderland were lords of it; and that it was agreed, that the walls should never be re-built, nor the town fortified.

3. The strong fortress of Winschoten stands near the Dollert, sixteen miles distant from Groningen to the south-east. It was taken and plundered by the troops of Munster in 1674.

4. The town of Delfzyl stands on the Damster-Diep, otherwise called Fivel, three miles from Dam to the north-east, at the mouth of the river Eems. It has a very good harbour, which, for situation, and other advantages, exceeds that of Embden. It is a place of such importance, that it was always well fortified by those who were in possession of it. The duke of Alva designed to have built a good city here, but was prevented by the wars, to which his bloody government gave rise. It is a strong place, surrounded with good ramparts, and seven bastions, and defended by a citadel encompassed by broad and deep ditches.

5. Twenty-eight miles from Groningen to the south-east stands Bortanger fort, in the middle of a large marsh, which is almost impassable, on the borders of the bishopric of Munster, and the county of Embden.

V. The province of Overyssel is bounded, on the east, by the county of Bentheim, and the bishopric of Munster; on the west by the Zuyder sea; on the south by Zutphen, and on the north by Friesland and Dreanthe. It has the name of Overyssel from its situation in respect of Holland, Utrecht, and part of Gelderland. Its greatest extent from north to south, including the territory of Dreanthe, is about fifty-seven miles, and from east to west about forty-three. The soil is in general far inferior to that of the other provinces, being full of sand, heaths, and marshes; yet in some places they have good corn lands and pasture. The states consist of the nobility, and the towns of Deventer, Campen, and Zwol, in which their annual assemblies are alternately held. Here are high tribunals and colleges, answering to those of the other provinces; and five deputies are commonly sent from hence to the assembly of the states-general. The clergy of the established religion, who are divided into four classes, making in all eighty-four ministers, hold their annual synods alternately in the chief towns. This province was long subject to the bishops of Utrecht, till bishop Henry of Bavaria transferred it to Charles V. and in 1580, it acceded to the union of Utrecht.

The principal places are, 1. Deventer, in the quarter of Salland, on the Yssel, over which it has a bridge of boats, eight miles from Zutphen, forty-four from Utrecht, and about eighteen from the Zuyder sea. This was formerly an imperial and Hanse town, and also, for a short time, a bishop's see. It is now a neat, populous, well built, and well fortified city, containing several churches belonging to different sects, a magnificent gymnasium, a mint,

and an iron foundery: five annual fairs are held here. They have a good trade, and along the river ſide is a fine quay, adorned with rows of trees.

2. The town of Campen, on the Yſſel, is ſtrong from its ſituation, and may be eaſily laid under water. This place was once a free imperial city, has ſtill a mint, but its trade is greatly decayed. The wooden bridge is a curious ſtructure, ſtanding upon vaſt piles. 3. Zwol, though not chief in dignity, is the handſomeſt and moſt wealthy town in the province, ſixteen miles north of Deventer. It is ſtrongly fortified, contains ſeveral churches and hoſpitals, an arſenal, a college, and a granary. The provincial ſtates meet here, at Deventer, and Campen alternately; and the celebrated Thomas à Kempis was prior of a monaſtery near this town. 4. Woollenhoven, on the Zuyder ſea. 5. Hoſſelt, a fortified town on the Blackwater. 6. Genemunden. 7. Amels, famed for its manufactures of fine linen.

VI. The province of Gelderland is called North-Gelderland, to diſtinguiſh it from Upper Gelderland, or Gelders, belonging to the king of Pruſſia. It is bounded, on the eaſt, by Munſter and Cleves; on the north by Overyſſell and the Zuyder ſea; on the ſouth by the Maeſe, which ſeparates it from Brabant; and, on the weſt, by Utrecht and Holland. It is forty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth, and upwards of forty from eaſt to weſt. The land lies higher, and the air is much clearer than in the maritime provinces, and the ſoil in moſt parts is fruitful. Gelderland is divided into three diſtricts, viz. Nimeguen, Zutphen and Arnheim, each of which has its diets and ſtates. Thoſe for the province are held twice a year, and nineteen deputies are ſent to the ſtates-general. Here are two hundred and eighty-five Calviniſt miniſters, four Lutheran, fourteen Roman Catholic, and three anabaptiſt congregations. This province is watered by the Rhine, and its three branches, the Yſſel, Leck, and Waal, ſeveral canals, &c.

The moſt remarkable places in the diſtrict of Nimeguen are, 1. Nimeguen, which ſtands on the Waal, nine miles from Cleves, and fifty-two from Amſterdam, and is the capital of the quarter to which it gives name. It is a large antient city, ſtrongly fortified, and pleaſantly ſituated where the Oppidum Batavorum is ſuppoſed by ſome to have ſtood. It was formerly an Imperial or Hanſe town. On the eaſt ſide of it ſtands an old caſtle, called the Falkenhof, where are pleaſant walks of lime-trees, and it contains ſeveral churches belonging to different ſects. The provincial ſtates, and thoſe of the diſtrict, aſſemble in the ſtadthouſe. This city carries on a good trade with the duchy of Cleves, and makes great profit by its white beer, which is much eſteemed throughout the provinces. In the town-houſe is kept the ſword with which the counts Egmont and Hoorn were beheaded by the duke of Alva's order. The turgrave, who reſides in the caſtle, is one of the chief nobles of the provinces, and preſides in its diets. In the higher part of the city there are three large ponds, fed from hidden ſprings; and through the whole there are many deep wells, which are obſerved to riſe and fall, as does the Maeſe, ſix miles diſtant from this city; whereas the Waal runs cloſe by it, but in a valley, towards which the deſcent is conſiderable.

2. The town of Bommel (the capital and only conſiderable place of an iſland of the ſame name, otherwiſe called Bommel-waert) ſtands on the river Waal, ten miles diſtant from Cuylenburg to the ſouth, and eight from Bolduc to the north. It is a pleaſant watered city, with broad and regular ſtreets. It is very ſtrong, being fortified with good curtains, baſtions, and towers, a double wall and double ditches. It ſtands in a low marſhy ground, which can be overflowed from the Waal and Maeſe. The town chuſe their own magiſtrates, under whoſe juriſdiction is the whole iſland of Bommel, in which are many good villages, and which is about thirteen miles long, and four miles broad, between the Waal and the Maeſe. This place ſurrendered to the French in 1672, who ſpent fourteen days in deſtroying its fortifications, carried off the artillery and ammunition, and obliged the town to pay thirty-ſix thouſand guilders to prevent its being burnt.

3. The ſmall city of Batenburg is ſituated on the northern bank of the Maeſe, twelve miles diſtant from Nimeguen towards the ſouth-weſt. It is the chief place of a little country or diſtrict, called Maas and Waal, becauſe it lies between theſe two rivers near their conflux. The town has the title of barony; and two brothers, lords of Batenburg, were beheaded at Bruſſels, in the year 1569, by the duke of Alva's orders. From that family the counts of Hoorn were alſo deſcended.

4. In this diſtrict is alſo the town of Tiel on the Waal, ſeventeen miles weſt of Nimeguen; it is ſtill populous, and hath a tolerable trade, but is much decayed from its priſtine ſplendor.

The village of Panderen is in the bailliage of Upper Betrewe, where begins the new canal, through which the Rhine at preſent paſſes. In the ſame bailliage ſtood formerly the Schenken-Schanze, a very ſtrong and ſpacious fort, built in 1586 by general Martin Schenk; and the Tolhaus, a caſtle where the dukes of Gelderland frequently reſided, and where veſſels ſtill pay toll, as they formerly did. The Betrewe is that tract of land lying between the Rhine and the Waal. It is called the Upper and Lower, or Eaſtern and Weſtern Betrewe, and divided into two bailliages.

In the ſecond diſtrict is the town of Zutphen, on the right bank of the Yſſel, giving name to a country, which conſtitutes another of the three quarters into which the province is divided. This place is large, and ſtrongly fortified, and has a bridge over the Yſſel, which divides the town into two parts. Here are ſeveral churches belonging to different ſects, with hoſpitals for the aged, ſick, orphans, and ſtrangers, and a gymnaſium. There are pleaſant walks about the town, eſpecially on the ramparts. The citizens are noted for their courteſy and politeneſs, to which the many gentlemen who live here greatly contribute. The great Sir Philip Sidney died of the wounds he received at the ſiege of this city; and Gerard Van Zutphen, maſter to the famous Thomas a Kempis, was born here. The whole neighbouring country may be laid under water by means of Borkel, a river which here joins the Yſſel.

In this diſtrict are alſo, Breedevoort on the borders of Munſter and Heerenburg, a town which gives name to a lordſhip; Doeſburg, a fortified town, at the conflux of the Old and New Yſſel; Deutichen, on the Old Yſſel, Lochem on the Borkel, Grol on the Slink, and Borkelo, on the Borkelo.

The third diſtrict of this province, called Arnheim, contains a town of the ſame name, which is not only the capital of this diſtrict, but of the whole province. It ſtands on the Rhine, at the foot of the Veluwe hills, ſix miles from Nimeguen, and forty-eight from Amſterdam, and is ſtrongly fortified. There is an antient palace, in which the dukes of Gelderland, and after them the ſtadtholders of the province, uſed to keep their court. The walls, being delightfully planted with lime-trees, make a pleaſant walk. In the great church are the monuments of ſeveral counts and dukes of Gelderland; and near the city is the village of Ooſterbeck, where the emperor Henry III. was born in 1627. This town has a commodious harbour, and is the ſeat of the ſupreme council of Gelderland, and the chamber of accounts. In that tract of land, called the Veluwe, is the lordſhip of Loo, belonging to the prince of Orange, and has a beautiful ſeat on it.

The other places of note in this diſtrict are, 1. Harderwyk, ſituated on the Zuyder ſea, twenty-ſix miles from Arnheim, and thirty from Amſterdam. Here is an univerſity, which, till 1648, was only a famous ſchool. The trade of the town is conſiderable, eſpecially in fiſh, of which its red herrings are much admired. The ſteeple of St. Mary's church, a moſt ſtately ſtructure, is ſo high, that it ſerves for a land-mark, being ſeen at a great diſtance, both by ſea and land. The provincial mint is in the city, the fortifications of which are in the antient manner. The celebrated lawyer Gerardus Voetius is ſaid to have been a native of this place. Prodigious quantities of blue-berries are gathered in the neighbouring woods, and carried to Amſterdam, and other towns. 2. Elburga, a ſmall town on the Zuyder ſea; whoſe ramparts, planted with lime-trees, form a delightful walk. Its inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by fiſhing, and catching wild ducks. 3. Wageningen, a ſmall town on the Rhine, with a commodious harbour: tobacco is much cultivated in the neighbourhood.

VII. The province of Utrecht is wholly ſurrounded by Holland and Gelderland, except a ſmall part which borders on the Zuyder ſea. The length is about thirty-two miles, the breadth about twenty. This country enjoys a good air, and in moſt parts the ſoil is fruitful. The rivers are, the Rhine, Leck, Vecht, and ſome ſmaller ſtreams. This province is divided into four quarters.

There are five cities in the province of Utrecht, and ſixty-five towns and villages. Its ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, the nobility, and the towns: indeed the former are merely nominal, and conſiſt of nobles and citizens of

the Calviniſt religion, and not of eccleſiaſtics. They are, however, elected from the chapters of the five churches at Utrecht, and ſtill in the aſſembly of the ſtates repreſent the antient clergy of the country. The college of the deputies of this province conſiſts of twelve members, each claſs of the ſtates ſending four commiſſioners, and the provincial court of juſtice is compoſed of a preſident, ſix ordinary and three extraordinary aſſeſſors.

The chief city, Utrecht, in latin Ultrajectum, and the capital of the province, ſtands in a delightful corn country, in the fifty-ſecond degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree ſeven minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſituated on the river Rhine, which here divides itſelf into two branches, called the Old and New Rhine, both of which traverſe the city through its whole length, after which they unite again. This city is pretty large, it being about an hour and a half's walk in circuit, and is alſo very populous, though it has no other defence than a wall on the old canal. The Dutch Calviniſts have ſeven churches, the principal of which is the cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, and ſtands in the centre of the city; but only conſiſts of the choir, the greateſt part of the old cathedral being deſtroyed by a terrible ſtorm in 1674, ſince which the tower has always remained ſeparate from the body of the church. The chapter belonging to this cathedral is compoſed of forty members, who purchaſe their places, for which they generally pay between ſix and ſeven thouſand guilders. The other chapter churches in this city are the Old Minſter, or that of St. Salvator, St. Mary's, St. Peter's, and St. John's. Over the church is a muſeum, which contains a variety of curioſities and antiquities. St. Peter's church has been aſſigned to the French Calviniſts, who conſtitute a numerous congregation. The Lutherans, the Remonſtrants, and the Mennonites, have each of them a church, whilſt the papiſts meet in houſes, of which they have ſeveral appropriated for that purpoſe. In this city alſo reſides the chief of the Janſeniſts in the Netherlands, who ſtiles himſelf archbiſhop of Utrecht, and is elected by the nominal chapter, which, including the dean, conſiſts of eight canons. The ſtates of the province meet in a building, called the ſtates chamber, which is alſo the ſeat of the other provincial colleges.

The memorable union was formed in this city between the Seven United Provinces, in the year 1579. In 1672 the French took this city without the leaſt reſiſtance, and in 1712 a congreſs of plenipotentiaries was opened here from all the ſtates in Europe, which terminated in a general peace about two years afterwards.

Amersfort, or Amersfoort, is ſituated fourteen miles to the north-eaſt of Utrecht, on the river Eems, which has its riſe in theſe parts from the confluence of ſeveral rivulets, and firſt receives that name here, where it becomes navigable. It is a ſtrong town, ſituated at the foot of a hill, in a pleaſant and fertile country. The buildings, particularly thoſe of the old town, are very neat. It has three churches, one of which is a large and ſtately ſtructure. The hoſpitals of Amersfort reſemble thoſe of the larger cities; and here is a public ſchool, where ſeveral perſons of eminence have had their education.

The town of Rhenen is ſituated on the Rhine, about ſeven miles above Wick-te-Overſtede to the eaſt, nineteen from Utrecht towards the ſouth-eaſt, and thirteen from Amersfort to the ſouth. Montfort, the chief place of a little diſtrict, is ſituated on the little river Yſſel, near the borders of the province of Holland, ten miles above Gauda to the eaſt, ſix from Utrecht towards the ſouth-weſt, and three from Oude-water to the ſouth-eaſt.

The country of Dreanthe is bounded, on the eaſt, by Munſter; on the north by Groningen; on the weſt by Frieſland, and on the ſouth by Bentheim and Overyſſel. It is tolerably fertile; the ſtates conſiſt of the nobles and freeholders; the aſſembly is annually held at Aſſen, but no deputies are ſent from thence to the ſtates-general. Aſſen, the capital, is ſmall, well built, and the ſeat of the high colleges; and Coeverden, though a ſmall town, is very ſtrongly fortified.

By the Generalité Lands are meant thoſe parts of the Netherlands that appertain to the united provinces in general. The hereditary ſtadtholder is governor of them all. The high tribunals are held at the Hague, Middleburg, and Veulo, and the eſtabliſhed religion is Calviniſm. Theſe lands conſiſt of part of the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, of the upper quarter of Gelderland, and part of Flanders.

The principal places in Brabant, belonging to the ſtates, are the following: 1. Bois le Duc, called in Latin Silva Ducis: it is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers Dommel and Aa, which, after their junction, are called the Dieſt. At about an hour's diſtance from hence, this river loſes itſelf in the Maeſe. The city is pretty large, and interſected by many canals; it has three churches belonging to the Dutch Calviniſts, with one of the French, one of Lutherans, and ten maſs-houſes; the majority of the people being of the Romiſh religion. The trade and ſhipping of Bois le Duc are conſiderable.

2. Twenty miles to the weſt of Breda is Bergen-op-zoom, or Bergen upon the Border, the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name; through it runs the rivulet or rather moat of Zoom. The ſouth ſide of the town ſtands on a ſmall eminence. It has been long celebrated as a ſtrong fortreſs; and its wall, which is about an hour's walk in circuit, is defended by five baſtions and ten horn-works. Beſides the other fortifications on the north ſide, a ſtrong line was drawn there in 1727, that has a communication with Moermont, Pinſen, and Rover forts, and the South or Water fort of five baſtions commands the entrances of the old and new harbour. The adjacent country may alſo be laid under water; and as long as Zealand continues clear of enemies, ſupplies and reinforcements may be thrown into it by means of the Scheld. It contains about eleven hundred houſes, with an old palace, called the Hof, that is at preſent the chamber of accounts; and the feudal court belonging to the marquiſate, are kept in it. Here is a Dutch Calviniſt church, and another divided into two partitions, which is aſſigned to the French Calviniſts and the Lutherans. The papiſts have likewiſe a chapel. This town was firſt walled in 1287. The ſtates general keep a good garriſon here, and the governor is always a perſon of diſtinguiſhed reputation.

3. Breda, the capital of the barony of the ſame name, is ſeated on the river Merk, which at this place receives the Aa. The latter of theſe two ſtreams being a little before increaſed by the Byloop, is here rendered navigable, and has a communication with the German ocean. Its fortifications, without very great improvements, are unable to ſtand a long ſiege, though the city itſelf is partly covered by a moraſs, and, by means of the Merk and Aa, the inhabitants are able to lay a part of the country under water. It conſiſts of about fifteen hundred houſes, is well built, and contains a regular caſtle encompaſſed with a moat; and fronting the entrance is a ſquare delightfully planted with trees. The great church, now in the hands of the Proteſtants, has ſeveral very fine monuments, and a handſome ſpire three hundred and ſixty-two feet high: the Dutch have alſo another church, and the French have one, as have likewiſe the Lutherans; but though the Roman catholics are more numerous, they are allowed only three chapels. The town-houſe is a large ſtructure, and there are four ſpacious market-places; but the commerce and woollen manufactures of this town are greatly declined.

4. The town of Maeſtricht, on the Maeſe, is ſituated twelve miles from Liege, and forty-eight from Bruſſels. The ſtates-general, to whom it was yielded up by the treaty of Munſter, are ſovereigns of it, jointly with the biſhop of Liege, as having ſucceeded to the rights of the dukes of Brabant. Here are many popiſh convents, and churches belonging to different ſects, and a ſtrong garriſon is maintained by the ſtates; the magiſtracy conſiſts partly of Calviniſts, and partly of Roman catholics, and the latter muſt be natives of the biſhopric of Liege; in a hill in the neighbourhood is a horizontal quarry full of long winding paſſages, in which, in time of war, the country people ſecure their cattle and valuable effects; forty thouſand men, it is ſaid, might lodge in it with great convenience. The town contains about three thouſand houſes, and thirteen thouſand inhabitants, beſides the garriſon. Here is a Calviniſt gymnaſium and grammar-ſchool, the maſters and profeſſors of which are paid by the ſtates; and, beſides other buildings, here is alſo a large college, a commandery of the teutonic order, a ſtately town-houſe, and governor's houſe.

The part of the duchy of Linſburg, which belongs to the ſtates-general, contains, 1. Valkenburg, the Falcon's mountain, or caſtle, which ſtands on the river Geul, and though but a ſmall open place, is the capital of a country. 2. Dalem, otherwiſe called St. Gravendal, a ſmall town on the river Berwine. The former of theſe places is exempted from all taxes by a particular privilege.

The ſtates general have the following places in the upper part of Gelderland, viz.

3. Venlo has its name from its ſituation among low meadows, which is the meaning of its name in Dutch. It ſtands on the right bank of the Maeſe, ſeven miles diſtant from Geldre to the ſouth, and ſeventeen from Ruremonde to the north. It is not well enough fortified to be able to hold out a long ſiege. Its rampart is about three miles in compaſs, and on the ſide of the Maeſe it conſiſts of a wall, formerly flanked with ſeveral towers, moſt of which have been demoliſhed.

The city of Venlo is of a ſquare figure, and pretty large, having two ſquares: the town-houſe ſtands in one, where they alſo keep a market three times a week; the other is the parade, and place of arms. There are between eight and nine hundred houſes here, and about four thouſand inhabitants, moſt of whom are Roman catholics, who enjoy the free and public exerciſe of their religion. The magiſtracy is compoſed of a ſchout, a burgomaſter, ſeven ſcheepen, three counſellors, and two ſecretaries. The burgo-maſter is changed annually by the ſtates general, and choſen among the ſcheepen from a nomination of three preſented to them by the counſellors.

4. Stevenſweert is a ſtrong fortreſs with ſeven baſtions. It ſtands in an iſland of the Maeſe, near the borders of the duchy of Cleves and the biſhoprick of Liege, three miles below Maeſyck, and nine above Ruremonde.

The following are alſo the principal places, of which the ſtates general are poſſeſſed in Flanders, viz.

1. Hulſt, a ſtrong fortified town, ſituated in a fruitful plain, which may be laid under water. The commodity it chiefly deals in is corn, having a canal, or harbour, which communicates with the Weſt Scheld. The forts and lines by which it is ſurrounded, render the approaches to it very difficult; but the air is none of the beſt, and moſt of the inhabitants are papiſts. It gives name to a bailliage of conſiderable extent. 2. Sluys, on the German ocean, the harbour of which is now almoſt choaked up. The fortifications are remarkably ſtrong; but the air is ſo bad, that the garriſon muſt be changed every year. All the other Dutch governors in Flanders are ſubordinate to the governor of this town. 3. Sas van Ghent is a ſmall but ſtrong town on the bay of the Weſt Scheld. Its name ſignifies the Sluice of Ghent; for the inhabitants having dug a canal from hence to that city, erected a ſluice here for keeping up the waters. About a mile from the town is a fort, called St. Anthony's, which was built for the defence of the ſluice. 4. Philippine, a ſmall, but well fortified town, on the weſtern arm of the Scheld, called Prackman-water. It had its name from Philip II. king of Spain, who cauſed it to be built. 5. Not far from Sheys is a fort, called St. Donnaas.

The iſland of Kadſand, or Catſand, is in this part of Flanders: this, as well as many other places, whoſe names begin with Cat, is ſuppoſed to have been ſo called from the Catti, who formerly inhabited part of the Netherlands. It lies over againſt Sluys, and is very fertile. Strong dykes have been erected, and are kept in repair at a vaſt expence, to defend it againſt the ſea, to which it is much expoſed in ſtormy weather. The Saltzburghers have a congregation in this diſtrict.

SECT. IV.

Of the Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Dreſs, Genius, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the DUTCH; their Religion, Conſtitution, Trade, Commerce, Revenues, Forces, &c.

THESE people are, in general, tall and ungain, having good complexions, and are ſtrong but aukward. The boors are heavy, and ſlow of underſtanding. Their ſeamen are a plain, blunt, rough, ſurly, and ill-mannered ſort of people. Their tradeſmen are ſomewhat ſharper, and make uſe of all their ſkill to circumvent thoſe they deal with. Every claſs of men are extremely frugal: all appetites and paſſions (avarice excepted) run lower and cooler here than in other countries. Their reſentment is uſually unmanly and ſavage. They are, however, patient, ſteady, wary, calm, and have ſeldom any difference with each other; but when they are irritated to quarrel, they grow exceedingly brutiſh.

Their dreſs is plain, and they change faſhions as rarely as the Spaniards. Their men wear coats without ſhape or plaits, with long pockets placed as high as the ribs. The womens dreſs is ſtill more ſingular, for their coats reach only to the middle of their legs. They are neat to exceſs in their houſes and furniture, and the ſtreets themſelves are kept amazingly clean. Mr. Hanway, in ſpeaking of the women, ſays, that the dirtieſt thing in a Dutchman's houſe is his wife. The pavement of the chambers is generally of marble.

The people of this country are divided into five claſſes; namely, boors or huſbandmen; ſeamen and watermen; merchants and tradeſmen; thoſe who have a competency; and, fifthly, gentlemen and officers. The poorer ſort live upon ſour milk, pulſe, and herbs; but people of a ſuperior ſtation imitate their neighbours, and aim at the moſt luxurious mode of living. They are addicted to drinking; and, when they treat their friends, do it ſumptuouſly, though they pinch themſelves for it a month afterwards. Their principal enjoyment is good eating and hard drinking. One of their winter amuſements is ſkaiting, in which they excel; ſo that in a hard froſt it is aſtoniſhing to ſee the crowds of both ſexes that paſs from place to place upon the ice, and dart along with amazing velocity. Many of the Dutch excel in painting and engraving, ſome have been good ſtatuaries, and a few have been remarkable for their wit and ingenuity, as Eraſmus, Grotius, &c.

The common mode of travelling in the United Provinces, and indeed throughout the Auſtrian and French Netherlands, is in treckſcoots, or draw-boats, which are large covered boats drawn by a horſe at the rate of three miles an hour, the fare of which does not amount to more than a penny a mile. The rate of theſe boats, and alſo of the poſt waggons, is fixed; and you are permitted to carry a portmanteau and proviſions, ſo that you are not under the neceſſity of expending any thing at public-houſes. The carriage of the baggage is not ſettled by law, therefore an agreement ought to be made, otherwiſe the driver will charge according to the dictates of his avarice; and the money muſt be paid him, if a previous bargain is not made.

At the inns and public-houſes on the road, a perſon is ſure to meet with clean linen and ſoft beds; but their bedſteads, or rather cabins, in the ſides of the walls, are placed ſo high, that a man may break his neck if he happens to fall out of them. Beſides, as there is no diſputing with a Dutch inn-keeper, either about the reckoning or any other particular, therefore a traveller muſt be content to lie in the ſame room with half a dozen people, or more, and be diſturbed all night long by ſome body or other, if the churl of a landlord pleaſes to have it ſo.

In the United Provinces, their eccleſiaſtical concerns are governed by a preſbytery, where all the miniſters are equal. The preſbytery, or conſiſtory, as they call it, is compoſed of all the miniſters of the town, and of the lay-elders, who are choſen amongſt the moſt eminent inhabitants, and even ſometimes among the magiſtrates. They take care of all the affairs of the church within the city or town, and have the government of the flock, according to the diſcipline eſtabliſhed by the national ſynod held at Dort in the year 1618. The deacons, who are laymen, have the care of the poor, and the diſpoſal of all the money deſigned for charitable uſes.

They have eccleſiaſtical aſſemblies called claſſes, compoſed of the deputies of five or ſix neighbouring churches, more or leſs, who ſend each a miniſter and an elder. Another eccleſiaſtical aſſembly is the provincial ſynod, of which there are two in Holland, one for South Holland, and the other for North Holland. The whole province being divided into a great many claſſes, each claſs ſends four deputies to their reſpective ſynods, two miniſters, and two elders. All the more important affairs of the church, all that regards the ſtate of religion in general, cenſures, and degradations, are managed by theſe ſynods.

With reſpect to their eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that, at the time of the Reformation, the inhabitants declared for Lutheraniſm, adhering only to the Auguſburg confeſſion; but in 1562, a different ſyſtem of articles, correſponding with thoſe of Geneva, was drawn up for the Netherland churches; at the union of Utrecht in 1579, the States agreed to maintain and defend it; and in 1651, the Calviniſt doctrines, as ſet forth by the ſynod of Dort, received the ſanction of the ſtates of each particular province. Hence the Calviniſts alone are admitted to any ſhare of the government, and deemed capable of holding the principal employments. The number of Calviniſt miniſters in the Seven United Provinces, and the countries belonging to them, amount to one thouſand five hundred and ſeventy. However, in matters of religion, an univerſal toleration is allowed.

Beſides the eſtabliſhed religion, the different ſects are, 1. The papiſts, who have three hundred and fifty churches in the United Provinces: they are computed to make one third of the inhabitants, and are admitted only to military employments.



Vanlew pinxt.

Roberts sculpt.

NATIVES of HOLLAND,

with their Diversions during the Winter Season.

employments. 2. The Lutherans, whoſe places of worſhip have all the appearance of churches: they are incapable of holding poſts and employments. 3. The Remonſtrants, ſo denominated from a remonſtrance which they preſented to the aſſembly of the ſtates in 1610, are alſo called Arminians, from the learned Jacob Arminius, who taught the doctrine of univerſal redemption: there are thirty-four congregations of this ſociety, which is rather on the decline. 4. The Mennoniſts, or baptiſts, are divided into various ſects, the principal of which are the Flemiſchers and Waſſerlanders: they have about one hundred and eighty-ſix congregations. 5. The Rheinburghers, or collegiants, who are not very numerous. 6. The Quakers, who are few in number. 7. The Moravians, who form a conſiderable body. 8. The Armenian Chriſtians, who in many reſpects reſemble thoſe of the Greek church. 9. The Jews, tolerated here ever ſince the year 1619, have many rights and privileges, but are excluded from moſt trades at Amſterdam, &c. There are ſeveral other ſects that have no ſettled congregations.

The principal cities, as alſo the nobles, ſend deputies to the States General. Thus the number of the repreſentatives are very conſiderable, and all are maintained at the expence of their reſpective provinces; the deputies of Holland being allowed four florins a day, and thoſe of the other ſtates ſix. But whatever be the number of the deputies from each province, be they nobles or commoners, they have altogether but one voice; and therefore in the aſſembly of the States General there are but ſeven voices. Beſides this, being properly the aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the ſeven ſovereignties which compoſe the ſtates of the United Provinces, their power is limited either expreſsly or tacitly by this inſtruction: "Not to ſuffer the leaſt wound to be given to the ſovereignty of that province which deputes them." The States General, however, not only make peace or war in their own name, but ſend and receive ambaſſadors and other public miniſters. The commander in chief, and all other military officers, take an oath of fidelity to them; and, during a war, ſome of their members, or of the council of ſtate, follow the army, ſit in the council of war, and without their conſent nothing of importance can be undertaken. In time of war the States likewiſe grant licences and protections. Thus the States General appear at firſt view to be the ſovereigns of the country: but moſt of theſe deputies are appointed only for a few years; and though they have the power of debating on the moſt important affairs that may tend to ſecure or promote the preſervation and happineſs of the ſtate, yet they have not power to conclude any point of great conſequence, without previouſly communicating it to their reſpective provinces, and receiving their expreſs conſent. This renders the reſolutions of the republic very tedious and dilatory.

The provinces preſide weekly in their turn, in the aſſembly of the States General, beginning with Gelderland, who had the precedency before the union; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Groningen. He who is firſt named in the deputation of his province preſides, and is from thence called the Preſident of the Week. He propoſes the ſubject to be debated, and collects the votes of the aſſembly, upon which he forms his concluſion, dictates to the regiſter, and afterwards ſigns the reſolution. Their meetings are always held at the Hague; and they ſit throughout the whole year without adjournment.

The ſtadtholder is the principal officer in this country, for he is at the ſame time governor-general of the Seven United Provinces, captain-general, and grand-admiral; but his power is extremely limited.

The States aſſume the title of High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; and in public addreſſes they are ſtyled their High Mightineſſes. Their arms are, gules, a lion rampant, holding in one paw a ſword, and in the other a bundle of ſeven arrows; beneath the ſhield, which is ſurmounted with a ducal coronet, the motto CONCORDIA RES PARVÆ CRESCUNT is inſcribed.

The Dutch council of ſtate conſiſts of twelve deputies of the ſeveral provinces; and their office is either triennial, or during the pleaſure of their principals. In this council the deputies of Holland have the greateſt weight, that province being poſſeſſed of three votes, while none of the others have more than two, and ſome of them only one. The preſidentſhip indeed is held alternately by the twelve members, each in their week. The council of ſtate aſſembles every day in the ſame court with the States General. The principal affairs which come under the deliberation of this council, are, thoſe of the army and revenue; and in conjunction with the deputies of the States General, they alſo provide every thing neceſſary for the defence of the country, both in time of peace and war. The title of this council is Noble and Mighty Lords. The treaſurer-general is alſo honoured with this title, as being aſſeſſor in the council of ſtate, and may deliver his opinion; but has no definitive voice. In this council the receiver-general has a ſeat.

The general chamber of accounts is compoſed of fourteen deputies, each province ſending two. Their chief employment is to receive, ſtate, and balance the accounts of the ſeveral provinces. The members of this chamber are alſo ſtyled Noble and Mighty Lords. The general chamber of finances is ſubordinate to the former, and conſiſts of four commiſſioners and a ſecretary. The mint-office conſiſts of three counſellors, aſſiſted by a mint-maſter-general, a general aſſay-maſter, and an under ſecretary. All theſe ſeveral colleges meet at the Hague.

The proceedings of the ſeveral courts, for the adminiſtration of juſtice, are regulated by the particular laws of the reſpective towns and provinces where they are tried, the edicts of the ſtates and the civil law.

The inhabitants of the United Provinces, and thoſe of the conquered lands, have been rendered liable to many taxes, by the long and ſevere wars which the republic has ſuſtained, and the number of them, eſpecially in Holland, where they are always the heavieſt, is ſo great, that a certain great writer aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation is the air they breathe. The principal ordinary taxes are the duties on exports and imports, levied by the admiralty offices, and appropriated to defray the expences of the navy. The taxes on houſes, lands, horned cattle, &c. and on the purchaſe-money of all immoveables, under which are comprehended veſſels of above eighty tons burthen, for which the fortieth penny is paid; and this alone in Holland annually brings in above ſeven hundred thouſand golden florins. The twentieth penny levied on inheritances in the collateral and aſcending line. A poll-tax, which obtains only in ſome provinces. The exciſe on all kinds of proviſions, neceſſaries, and liquors; and here the money levied on bread and beer is eſteemed at above one-third, that on wine at ſomewhat leſs, and that on turf for firing alſo at one third. There is likewiſe a duty on horſes, coaches, and ſervants. The duty on the ſtampt paper, uſed in all their ſeveral inſtruments, contracts, and bonds, is ſaid to produce annually above four hundred thouſand golden florins.

Their land-forces, in time of peace, ſeldom exceed forty thouſand, and very often fall ſhort of that number. They employ a great many foreigners, eſpecially Swiſs and Scots, in their ſervice; and, in time of war, hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field-marſhal general. In 1756 the expences of the army amounted only to nine millions ſeven hundred and ſixty-five thouſand and four guilders. No nation in the world can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vaſt quantities of timber prepared for building of ſhips, and alſo great numbers of ſhip-carpenters and mariners: however, in times of peace, they uſually have no more than thirty in commiſſion, for the protection of their trade in the Mediterranean, and to convey their homeward-bound Eaſt Indiamen, and other fleets.

The monopoly of the ſpice-trade has been in the hands of the Dutch Eaſt-India company much above a century; hence it is, perhaps, the moſt opulent trading company in the univerſe. Though the United Provinces of themſelves produce very few things, yet all the commodities and products of the globe may be procured here. The Dutch alſo acquire great riches by their herring, cod, and whale-fiſheries; by their manufactures of linen, paper, earthenware, &c. and by ſhip-building. The fiſhery in the ſeveral ſtreams, rivers, and lakes of this country, though very conſiderable, ſerves only for home conſumption; but that of the North-ſea is of vaſt produce, and divided into the leſſer and greater. The former is that carried on along the coaſt, eſpecially on the Dogger-bank, between England and Jutland, on which are caught cod, haddock, turbots, whitings, ſoals, and other ſea-fiſh. The cod caught here is either carried freſh and alive to market to the neareſt towns of the Netherlands, or is ſalted at ſea, and thus forms a branch both of domeſtic and foreign commerce. The great fiſhery is that of herrings, from which the Dutch reap immenſe profits: for though it cannot, as formerly, be termed the golden mine of Holland, yet it ſtill affords a comfortable ſubſiſtence to at leaſt thirty thouſand ſix hundred families.

The ſeaſon for catching the herrings along the coaſts of Scotland,

Scotland and England, is from the twenty-fourth of June to the twenty-fifth of November. The veſſels employed in this fiſhery are termed buſſes, and carry from twenty-five to thirty laſts, which one with another ſell for about one hundred and twenty guilders.

Every province has the right of coinage, but all the pieces muſt be of a ſimilar intrinſic value; the following is an exact account of the Dutch gold and ſilver coin: their gold coin are, the ryder, valued at one pound five ſhillings and ſix-pence. The half ryder, twelve ſhillings and nine pence. The double ducat, nineteen ſhillings and one penny. The ducat, nine ſhillings and ſix pence half-penny. The ſilver coin are, the three guilder piece, five ſhillings and five pence half-penny; rix-dollar, four ſhillings and ſix-pence halfpenny; dollar, two ſhillings and eight pence halfpenny; twenty-eight ſtiver piece, two ſhillings and ſix-pence; ſix-ſtiver piece, ſix-pence halfpenny; pieces of five ſtiver and a half, ſix-pence halfpenny; two-ſtiver pieces, eleven of which make two ſhillings: ſilver pieces, eleven of which make one ſhilling. The ſmalleſt coin, or doit, is worth about half a farthing; and Engliſh, French, and German coin, paſs for their intrinſic value in this country.

CHAP. XVI.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

SWITZERLAND.

SECT. I.

Of the Boundaries and Situation, Natural Hiſtory, and Geographical Deſcription of the Country, with an Account of the Cities, Towns, and remarkable Places; the Inhabitants, their Trade, Manufactures, Manners, Cuſtoms, Government, Laws, Religion, &c.

THIS country is bounded by Burgundy, Sandgace, and the country of Gooe, weſt; Savoy, the Milaneſe, and Venetian territories, ſouth; Swabia, north; and Tyrol and Auſtria, eaſt, and lies between the ſixth and eleventh degree of eaſt longitude, and the forty-fifth and forty-eighth degree of north latitude, being two hundred and ſixty-miles long, and one hundred broad. It contains many ſtupendous mountains, whoſe inacceſſible and craggy ſummits are continually covered with ſnow, and the vallies are filled with lakes, or rivers and ſtreams that are repleniſhed by waters from the rocks. The weather is ſometimes wintry on the one ſide of a mountain, and reſembles the ſummer on the other. Prodigious quantities of ice and ſnow fall down and diſſolve in the winter, and dreadful inundations are frequent. There are, indeed, ſome fertile ſpots, but the principal part is dreary. The country is well-watered, produces ſome minerals, and abounds in cattle, ſheep, chamois and other goats, horſes, Alpine mice, wild-fowl, &c. it is not very populous; and the popiſh cantons are no leſs ſo than the proteſtant.

Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, or republics; which are, I. Bern. II. Zurich. III. Lucern. IV. Uri. V. Schweitz. VI. Underwald. VII. Zug. VIII. Glacis. IX. Baſil. X. Friburg. XI. Solothurn. XII. Schaffhauſen. XIII. Appenzel.

I. The canton of Bern, which is the richeſt, largeſt, and moſt fruitful, is one hundred and eighty miles long, and thirty broad. It is well watered by rivers, and contains ſeveral lakes. The principal of theſe is that of Geneva, the length of which is about eighteen leagues, and the greateſt breadth between three and four. The depth in ſome places is near four hundred fathom, in others not above forty. The Rhone enters it at the eaſt end, near Bouveret, and iſſues out again at the weſt, cloſe by Geneva. In ſummer its waters are much ſwelled by the melting of the ſnow on the mountains. The prevailing religion is Calviniſm, and miniſters are here kept in greater dependence on the civil power, than in any other of the cantons. The prevailing language here is the German; though people of condition ſpeak French and Italian.

The capital city, of the ſame name, is almoſt ſurrounded by the river Aar. The houſes are moſtly built of white free-ſtone, and, in the principal ſtreets, have piazzas, or arches, under them, for the convenience of walking dry in wet weather. Moſt of the ſtreets of Bern are paved with flints, and traverſed by a canal lined with free-ſtone, which is brought from a conſiderable diſtance, and is very uſeful in carrying off the filth of the city, extinguiſhing fire, and other purpoſes.

The city is large, ſtanding almoſt in the middle of the canton, and containing ſeveral churches, of which one is called the Great Church; and the firſt miniſter thereof is the dean, who is the head of the city clergy. Here are likewiſe a college, public library, muſeum, granaries, guildhall, arſenal, ſeveral hoſpitals, a handſome ſtone-bridge, a platform with a fine proſpect, &c.

The great council, in which alſo the ſovereignty of the cantons is veſted, conſiſts, when full, of two hundred and twenty-nine, but is generally much ſhort of that number, eighty or more often dying before their places are filled up. The leſſer council ſenate, or, as it is called, the daily council, (becauſe it meets every day, Sundays and holidays excepted) conſiſts of twenty-ſeven members, including the two prætors, or advoyers, the four tribunes of the people, the two treaſurers, and the two heim-lichers, or ſecreſy-men, ſo called, becauſe to them all ſecrets relative to the ſtate are diſcovered. The vacancies that happen in theſe two colleges are mutually filled up by the members of the great and little councils.

The village of Haſzli gives name to a territory or valley of conſiderable extent, in which are fine woods of beech and pine, excellent roots, wild fowl of all kinds, chamois and other mountain animals; together with mines, particularly of lead and iron, and fine cryſtals. The inhabitants of this diſtrict put themſelves under the ſovereignty of Bern in 1333, but with a reſerve of their antient rights and uſages. They have a particular dialect of their own.

The country called the Pais de Vaud, is twenty-four leagues in length from Geneva to Morat, being bounded on the weſt, by the county of Gex and Franche-Compté; and, on the ſouth, by the Valais and Savoy. Its capital, Lauſanne, which is the ſecond city of the whole canton, ſtands one mile from the lake.

Here is a college, founded in 1537, for the inſtruction of youth intended for the miniſtry. The cogniſance of criminal affairs belongs entirely to one quarter of the town, called St. Francis, and in that is one ſtreet, of which we are told, that if any of the inhabitants are guilty of a capital crime, the others have the ſole power of condemning or acquitting them. The whole town conſiſts of ſteep aſcents and deſcents, and takes its name from its ſituation betwixt the brooks Laws and Anna. In the college here, Theodore Beza tranſlated the pſalms into French verſe, and the firſt profeſſor of law eſtabliſhed in it, was the late learned Barbeyrac, who died a profeſſor in one of the Dutch univerſities. This place gives name to a bailiwic, the bailiff of which reſides in the caſtle, which was formerly the biſhop's palace, and has ſome juriſdiction in the town.

II. The canton of Zurich, though it ranks as the firſt, is inferior to that of Bern in extent, power, and wealth. It is ſituated to the eaſt of the free bailiwics, and extends

ſixty miles in length, and forty-eight in breadth. With reſpect to its face and appearance, this canton is an epitome of, and repreſents all the others. Of the bailiwics into which it is divided, eighteen are called the inward, and eighteen the outward. Over each of the former there are two bailiffs, who hold their employments during life, officiate by turns, and reſide in the city, viſiting their bailiwics only at certain times for the holding of courts. In the latter the bailiffs reſide conſtantly, and hold their office only for ſix, nine, or at moſt twelve years. Here are alſo twenty ſecularized convents that are called bailliages, but without any juriſdiction annexed to them. The reformation was introduced here in 1517: religious matters are under the juriſdiction of an eccleſiaſtical council and ſynod, and the canton contains ten deaneries, with one hundred and fifty miniſters. Its quota, for the national defence, is one thouſand four hundred men; it nominates one of the two commanders in chief, and has a revenue of about one hundred and fifty thouſand crowns per annum.

The capital city, Zurich, gives name to the canton: it ſtands in a pleaſant country, near where the river Aar iſſues from the lake that derives its name from the town, twenty-three miles from Schaffhauſen. After having been ruined by Attila the Hunn, it was reſtored by Thuricus, ſon of Theodoric, king of the Goths, from whom it took the name of the Thuricum, corrupted afterwards into that of Zurich. The river divides it into two parts, and has two bridges over it. It is fortified in the modern way, and has wide ditches, faced with free-ſtone. There are five arſenals in it, well ſtored with arms and artillery; an academy or college, having fifteen profeſſors; a muſeum, or chamber of rarities; a ſtately town-houſe, the pillars in the front of which are of black marble, ſtreaked with white; here is alſo a town library. The ſovereignty and adminiſtration of all affairs are lodged in the greater and leſſer council, out of which are choſen the city officers, as the councils are out of the thirteen companies of burghers. There are ſeveral other colleges, each of which has its particular department. Here are a great variety of ſilk, woollen, linen, cotton, and other manufactures, this being the place of the greateſt trade in all Switzerland.

The ſtreets of Zurich are neat, and the houſes well built, but not magnificent. The college here hath produced ſome learned men, particularly Zuinglius, (who began the reformation here in 1517) and Bullinger. The hoſpitals are very neat, and well endowed. The cathedral is large and collegiate, and the miniſters here all preach covered. The neighbouring lake is about twenty-four miles in length, and near three in breadth.

No perſons, whatever their rank or office may be, are exempted from the ſumptuary laws. The burgo-maſters, who are the ſame as the advoyers at Bern, have the title of Excellence. If a burgher goes out of town, or a peaſant enters it, without a ſword, they are liable to be fined. The unmarried women here are diſtinguiſhed from the married by a particular knot of ribbands on their heads, and the men are generally dreſſed in black; for the young only are allowed to wear coloured ſtuffs, and thoſe quite plain, gold, ſilver, and jewels being prohibited, and luxury and vanity of every kind carefully guarded againſt. When they go to church, the men all wear bands, and, when in mourning, bonnets made of paſte-board covered with crape. Both men and women are ſo fond of muſic, that moſt of them can play on ſome inſtrument.

III. The canton of Lucern, the moſt powerful of the popiſh cantons, is about forty-eight miles long, and thirty-two broad. The mountainous parts abound with ſheep and cattle, and the level diſtricts are fruitful in corn. Pilate's hill, in this country, is one of the higheſt in Switzerland, and has a lake on the top. Lucern acceded to the Helvetic alliance in the year 1322. Its government is ariſtocratical, and its chief revenue ariſes from the eſtates of the extinct nobility.

The chief place is Lucern, from which it has its name, ſtanding on a branch of the Four Foreſt-towns lake, called alſo the lake of Lucern, where the Ruz iſſues from it, twenty-two miles from Zurich. It is a conſiderable thoroughfare to Italy, and contains an arſenal, a magnificent college and town-houſe, ſeveral convents, with a cathedral or collegiate church, in which is an organ ſo large, that an ordinary man may creep into the greater pipes. The town is ſuppoſed to have had its name from Lucerna, or a lantern, ſet up here to direct paſſengers on the lake in the night. The government of the town and canton is veſted in a great and a little council, choſen out of the burghers. The catholic cantons uſually have their particular diet here. Both town and canton are in the dioceſe of Conſtance. A nuncio from the pope uſually reſides here.

IV. The fourth canton is Uri, which is ſixty miles long, and twenty broad, abounds with mountains, the chief of which, called St. Gotthardſberg, is the higheſt in Switzerland, if not in Europe. A road runs through it to Italy: it extends twenty-four miles, and is practicable not only to horſes, but carriages. In one part of this mountain, near the highway, is a capuchin convent, in which two fathers conſtantly attend, and, for a ſmall conſideration, accommodate travellers with whatever they want. Many thouſand head of cattle graze on this and the other mountains here in ſummer, and great quantities of cheeſe are made on them. The vales between theſe mountains are exceedingly hot in ſummer, and yield great crops of graſs; and among them moſt beautiful cryſtals are found. The inhabitants are a hardy, vigorous, and brave people, but noted for their blind zeal and bigotry. Moſt part of the income of this ſtate ariſes from the impoſts on goods carried between Italy and Germany, and the annual penſions they receive from the kings of France and Spain. They have no wine, little corn, and few or no manufactures, but plenty of wood, fiſh, black cattle, butter and cheeſe, with which they purchaſe what neceſſaries they want.

The number of people in this canton is computed at about twenty thouſand in number, of which thoſe of better faſhion live by the flocks and herds they keep in their grounds, and the meaner ſort by attending theſe herds, or hawking and pedling German and Italian wares. The government here is democratical, as in all other inferior cantons, where they have hardly any towns, but live diſperſed in villages. In eccleſiaſtical matters, they are ſubject to the biſhops of Conſtance, Coire, or Como. The landes gemeine, or general aſſembly of the cantons, is held annually on the firſt Sunday in May, where every male, above ſixteen, has a vote.

The two following are the only remarkable places in this canton, viz. Altorf, i. e. the old village, which is a well built town, being the ſeat of the government, and the place where moſt of the gentry reſide. It contains an arſenal, a granary, an handſome town-houſe, with a houſe for cutting and poliſhing cryſtal, three churches, and two convents. 2. Urſerenthal, or Urſeren Valley, which is about nine miles in length, and one in breadth, and yields good paſturage. In eccleſiaſtical matters, the inhabitants are ſubject to the biſhop of Coire. They are a free people, and rather allies than ſubjects of the canton of Uri.

V. The canton of Scheveitz is about thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. The land, for the moſt part, is paſture ground, yielding little corn, and no wine; but they have plenty of fiſh from their lakes and rivers, with black cattle, game, butter, and cheeſe. With reſpect to their government and religion, they are much the ſame as thoſe of Uri; and its inhabitants too, like thoſe of that canton, are hardy, bold, and vigorous. They are ſubject, in ſpirituals, to the biſhop of Conſtance.

The principal places in this canton, or under its ſovereignty, are, 1. Scheveitz, which gives name to it, and is its capital, and the ſeat of the regency. It is ſituated ten miles from Lucern, in a pleaſant valley, and contains, beſides a pariſh church, three convents, a town-houſe, a mine, an hoſpital, an arſenal, and ſeveral handſome private houſes. 2. Einſidlen, a ſmall town near the river Meuſe, ten miles north-eaſt from Scheveitz. Here is a rich Benedictine abbey, the abbot of which has the title of prince, and is lord of the town and its territory, under the ſovereignty, or rather the protection of the canton. The treaſure of the abbey is of immenſe value. The church of Our Lady is embelliſhed with maſterly paintings, with gildings, and moſt delicate ſtucco work.

VI. The canton of Underwald is divided by a foreſt into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Ober and Underwald, i. e. above and below the foreſt; but it bears only the name of the latter. It extends about eighteen miles from north to ſouth, and fifteen from eaſt to weſt. Here are fine paſtures, fruits, woods, and cattle, with lakes, mineral ſprings, and quarries of marble. The two parts make two communities, which have each their reſpective chief, diet, council, ſeal, banner, and officers; but as they both conſtitute only one canton, they have alſo a common council. Both are of the popiſh religion, and in the dioceſe of Conſtance.

VII. The canton of Zug is ſmall, reaching about twelve miles either way; but it is very populous and fruitful, yielding wine, wheat, cheſnuts, and other fruits, and its mountains produce excellent paſture. It lies in the dioceſe of Conſtance, and its government is democratical. There are two lakes in it, abounding with fiſh, particularly

large carp, pike, and a ſpecies of trout called rotels; and the woods produce great plenty of game. The inhabitants are all ſtaunch Roman Catholics.

The only place in this canton worth mentioning is Zug, which gives name to it, and is its capital. It is a ſtrong, neat town, containing a priory and two convents, and ſtands on the eaſt ſide of a lake of the ſame name, about ſeven miles long.

VIII. The canton of Glaris, or Glarus, is ſurrounded on all ſides, except towards the north, with lofty mountains, one of which, called Todiberg, is almoſt impaſſable. The principal valley extends from north to ſouth above twenty miles, and is ſaid to be very ſubject to earthquakes. The other vales yield good paſturage, but little corn or pulſe. Vaſt numbers of horſes, black cattle, goats, and ſheep, graze both on the mountains, and in the vallies, and great quantities of butter and cheeſe are made in both. The mountains yield alſo wood, ſlate, cryſtal, mineral waters, and baths; and the rivers and lakes abound with fiſh. The government, like that of the preceding petty cantons, is democratical; but the greater part of the inhabitants are proteſtants. Beſides the general diet of both religions, held annually in a field without the town of Glaris, there are particular diets of each religion held alſo annually; that of the Calviniſts at a ſmall town, called Schumden, and that of the papiſts in a field between Netſtall and Naffels. Here, as in the other democratical cantons, beſides the diets, is a council of regency, with ſeveral courts of juſtice for civil, criminal, and eccleſiaſtical affairs. The towns in this canton are very inconſiderable.

IX. The canton of Baſil, which is twenty miles in length, and about eighteen in breadth, contains twenty-ſeven pariſhes, and ſeven bailiwicks; and its inhabitants are all proteſtants. The lower parts of it are fruitful in paſture, corn, and wine, but the mountains are very barren. There are many medicinal ſprings and baths in it, and the air is wholſome and temperate. Its government is ariſtocratical, and its revenues ariſe chiefly from ſecularized abbies, and impoſts on goods carried through the country to and from France, Italy, and Germany. Both men and women, for the moſt part, wear the French dreſs; but the language commonly ſpoken is High Dutch, though the French alſo is much uſed.

Baſil, which gives name to the canton, is the capital city. It is the largeſt in all Switzerland, having two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and ſix market-places, or ſquares. Its environs are exceeding beautiful, conſiſting of a fine level track of fields and meadows. The city is divided into two parts by the Rhine, over which there is a handſome bridge. It is fortified with walls, moats, towers, and baſtions, and contains ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral, which is an old gothic ſtructure; a commandery of the order of St John, and another of the teutonic order; a public granary and arſenal, a ſtately town-houſe, an univerſity, which was founded in 1459, and has a curious phyſic-garden, library, and muſeum, a gymnaſium, a ſtately palace belonging to the margrave of Baden-Dourlach, beſides a chamber of curioſities, ſeveral hoſpitals, &c.

St. Peter's ſquare, planted with elm and lime-trees, makes a pleaſant walk; but a ſpot regularly planted with trees, cloſe by the river, and near the minſter, makes ſtill a finer, it commanding a moſt beautiful and extenſive proſpect. Trade ſtill flouriſhes here, eſpecially in ſilk, ribbands, and wines; and the police is under excellent regulations. The two Buxtorffs, father and ſon, and the famous painter Holbein, were natives of this place. The celebrated Eraſmus died here in 1536, in the ſeventieth year of his age, and was buried in the great church.

X. The canton of Friburg, which is near forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, is partly mountainous, and partly level; and, beſides ſome mines, yields plenty of paſturage, grain, fruit, cattle, and cheeſe. It is divided into three inner bailiwics, and ſixteen outer, beſides the territory of the city. The inhabitants are chiefly papiſts, and the language principally German.

The only place of note in this canton is Friburg, which gives name to it, and ſtands among rocks, in a valley, on the river Saone, ſix leagues ſouthward from Bern. Here are ſeveral churches, convents, and hoſpitals, with a handſome college, a mint, a granary, an arſenal, a commandery of St. John, and a council-houſe, which ſtands on a rock, and commands a grand proſpect. The government reſembles that of Bern, except that here it is confined to ſeventy families or patricians, excluſive of all others. The town is tolerably fortified.

XI. The canton of Solothurn is ſituated on the river Aar; is about twelve miles long, and ten broad; and is tolerably fertile, yielding corn, wine, and fruits, and contains fine woods and paſtures. The government is ariſtocratical; and the religion profeſſed in it is the Roman catholic, except in one bailiwic.

The principal place in this canton is Solothurn, which gives name to it, and is ſituated in a pleaſant, fertile country. The government is much the ſame as that of Bern and Friburg, and the language chiefly ſpoken is French. Here are a collegiate church, a large college, a well furniſhed arſenal, and two convents.

XII. The canton of Scaffhauſen, which lies entirely on the German ſide of the Rhine, is the moſt northern of all the Swiſs cantons. It is about twenty miles long, and twelve broad; and is in general fertile, yielding corn, fruit, paſture, plenty of fiſh, mineral ſprings, and a good red wine. The inhabitants are Calviniſts, and the government ariſtocratical.

The only town in this canton, that merits deſcription, is, Schaffhauſen, which is pleaſantly ſituated on a plain on the Rhine, and is very handſome, the ſtreets being broad, and the houſes magnificent. Here are ſeveral handſome churches, an arſenal, an academy, a noble cabinet of rarities, and a good fortreſs. The city carries on a conſiderable trade by the Rhine, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge.

XIII. The canton of Appenzel is about thirty miles long, and twenty broad. It yields good paſturage, and conſequently is not deſtitute of cattle, milk, butter, or cheeſe. Conſiderable quantities alſo of wheat, rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, flax, and wine, are produced in it; beſides a great deal of fruit, wood, and turf, with mineral waters, and warm baths. There are many mountains in the canton, the higheſt of which is that called the Holieſantis, or the Hohe-meſzmer, which commands a proſpect of prodigious extent. There are alſo ſeveral lakes and rivers. Of the twenty-three pariſhes in the canton, four are popiſh, and nineteen proteſtant. In ſpirituals, the papiſts are ſubject to the biſhop of Conſtance, but the proteſtants to their own conſiſtory. The inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by their manufactories of linen, crape, fuſtian, and thread, or by bleaching, and the ſale of their cattle, butter, cheeſe, horſes, wood, and coal.

The firſt eight of theſe cantons are called the old ones, becauſe they were, for the ſpace of one hundred and thirty years, the only members of the Helvetic body.

We ſhall now proceed to divide the ſeveral bailiwics that belong in common to certain cantons; which are as follow:

I. Thergau, whoſe name is derived from the river Thur that runs through it. It is very large and populous, and, though ſomewhat mountainous, is in general tolerably fertile. About one third of its inhabitants are papiſts, and the reſt calviniſts. The eight old cantons, who are ſovereigns of it, alternately appoint a bailiff every two years.

The chief places of note in it are, 1. Frauenfeld, the capital, which ſtands on the river Mark, eleven miles weſt of Conſtance. The bailiff reſides here in a caſtle, on a rock, at one end of the town; and here the deputies of the eight cantons meet to audit the annual accounts of their common bailiwics. 2. Diſſenhoſen, a conſiderable town on the Rhine, over which it has a bridge. It enjoys great privileges; for the bailiffs have no authority in it, or its precinct; but appeals, in civil cauſes, lie from it to the cantons, or their deputies. Both papiſts and proteſtants compoſe the magiſtracy of this bailiwic.

II. Rheinthal is about twenty miles long, and five where broadeſt, and is fruitful both in corn and wine, eſpecially the latter. Here is a cryſtal pit, in which a vaſt deal of yellow, brown, and white tranſparent cryſtal is found. Moſt of the inhabitants are proteſtants, and their miniſters are always taken from the academy at Zurich. The ſovereignty of this bailiwic belongs to nine cantons, viz. Bern, Zurich, Lucern, Schweitz, Glaris, Uri, Underwald, Zug, and Appenzel, who alternately appoint a bailiff every two years; but the abbot of St. Gall has not only a ſhare of the juriſdiction, but a great revenue from it. It is divided into five communities, each of which has two chiefs or ammons, of whom the canton nominates one, and the abbot the other. The towns are too inconſiderable to merit particular deſcription.

III. Sargans is about twenty-four miles in length, and about ſix in breadth. Its mountains feed great numbers of cattle, and its vallies produce corn and fruit. This bailiwic, which is divided into the Upper and Lower Sargans, belongs to the eight old cantons, who ſend a bailiff to it in their turns. The inhabitants are partly papiſts,

papiſts, and partly proteſtants. The latter have their miniſters from the academy at Zurich, and the former under the biſhop of Coire. The principal place is Pfeffers, a rich benedictine abbey, whoſe abbot is a prince of the empire. About a mile and half from the convent is a famous hot bath belonging to the abbey, the water of which is hot in the ſecond degree, and good for many diſtempers, being impregnated with ſpirit of ſulphur, nitre, vitriol, and metals of various kinds.

IV. Gaſter is chiefly mountainous, notwithſtanding which it is far from being unfruitful. This diſtrict has a diet held every two years, and a council, with two courts of juſtice, one for civil, and another for criminal cauſes, in all which the bailiff preſides. The chief places here are Wiſen and Scharris. In the latter there is an abbey for ladies, the abbeſs of which is reckoned a princeſs of the empire, and is obliged to live a ſingle life, though her nuns, if they chuſe it, may marry. The inhabitants of this bailiwic are all papiſts, under the biſhop of Coire and Conſtance.

V. Utznach bailiwic was purchaſed in 1469, by the cantons of Schweitz and Glaris, by whom a bailiff is appointed alternately every two years; but when it is the turn of the latter, he is nominated by the papiſts alone, of whoſe religion moſt of the inhabitants are.

VI. Gambs is a very ſmall and inconſiderable bailiwic; is ſubject to the ſame cantons, and enjoys much the ſame privileges as the two former.

VII. Rapperſchweil town, with its diſtrict, lie thirteen miles ſouth-weſt of Zurich, on the lake, towards Chur. It is a tolerable good town, well fortified, and has a ſtrong caſtle. The wooden bridge, which extends from hence to a point of land in the lake, is ſaid to be very near two miles in length; yet it is entirely open, there not being any rails on either ſide. The inhabitants, who are Roman Catholics, and under the ſovereignty of Zurich and Bern, ſtill enjoy their antient privileges.

VIII. Baden, which in general is a fertile diſtrict, yields plenty of fruit and grain, and in ſome places it produces wine and iron. It is well watered by three navigable rivers, the Limmar, the Reuſz, and the Aar, which abound with fiſh. The cantons of Bern appoint a bailiff ſucceſſively, each for ſeven years, and then Glaris for two. Moſt of its inhabitants are papiſts.

The only remarkable place in this bailiwic is Baden, which gives name to it, and is its capital: it is ſituated on the Limmar, and is otherwiſe called Upper Baden, to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name in Swabia. In its neighbourhood are ſeveral hot baths, the waters of which are good for various diſorders. The inhabitants are partly proteſtants, and partly papiſts. Here are two caſtles, one of which is the reſidence of the bailiff; a bridge over the river, but without rails, a council-houſe, and ſeveral churches and convents.

IX. Thoſe territories called the Free Amts or Provinces, are divided into Upper and Lower, in both of which the ſoil is very fruitful, and the inhabitants all Roman Catholics, under the biſhop of Conſtance. The only place in them worth mentioning is Muri, an opulent and celebrated Benedictine abbey, on the river Bunz, the abbot of which, who is immediately under the pope, is alſo a prince of the empire.

The towns of Brangarten and Mellingon are under the joint ſovereignty of Zurich, Bern, and Glaris; the former of which carries on a good trade, eſpecially in the manufacture of paper; but the latter is too inſignificant to merit deſcription.

The remaining four common bailiwics in Switzerland, viz. Schwarzenburg, Morat, Grandſon, and Eſchalons, are under the joint ſovereignty of Bern and Friburg. The inhabitants of the laſt are a mixture of proteſtants and papiſts; but thoſe of the three firſt are proteſtants.

At the foot of the Alps, in Italy, lie the Italian bailiwics, which are ſeven in number, namely, Ballenz, Riviera or Poleſe, Valle di Bregno, Lauis, Lugganes, Myathal or Val Maggia, and Mendin. They are all mountainous, and tolerably fertile: the inhabitants ſpeak the Italian language, and are all papiſts.

Emgelberg abbey and the borough of Gerſau are under the protection of the four foreſt towns of Lucern, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden.

The allies of the Swiſs are united to the cantons by a ſolemn league, in conſequence of which they have a vote in their aſſemblies. Theſe are as follow:

St. Gall, an abbey, whoſe abbot is ſovereign of that called the patrimony of St. Gall, ſituated between Zurich and the lake of Conſtance. The abbey, which is of the Benedictine order, is very ſpacious, and contains a palace, a conventual church, and a library. The number of monks is ſixty, by and from among whom the abbot is choſen, who is immediately ſubject to the pope, and is a prince of the empire; but he has no ſeat nor vote in the diet thereof, nor furniſhes any quota or tax, though he takes the inveſtiture of his territories, and the regalia, from the emperor. He has the diſpoſal of all benefices in his territories, and the nomination of all judges and officers. As an ally of the cantons, his deputies have a ſeat and voice in the general diets and meetings of the confederacy.

In the Upper Thurgau, near the river Steinach, is ſituated the town of St. Gall, which is large and populous, and its inhabitants are all Calviniſts. The government is ariſtocratical. Here are ſeveral churches, a gymnaſium, a public library, a town-houſe, an alms-houſe, and an arſenal. The town was formerly ſubject to the abbot, but it is now a republic, and ſends deputies to the general diet.

Beil, a town ſituated on the lake to which it gives name, is under the ſovereignty of the biſhop of Baſil, who, on his acceſſion to the regency, ſigns an inſtrument by which he engages to maintain the inhabitants in all their rights and liberties. This town has a vote in all the general diets of the cantons.

The Griſon Leagues territory is divided into three parts, viz. 1. The Griſon or Grey League. 2. The League of the Houſe of God. And, 3. The Ten Juriſdictions. The length of the whole is about ſeventy miles, and the breadth ſixty. It is in general a mountainous country, but produces moſt of the neceſſaries of life. Each of the Leagues is ſub-divided into ſeveral leſſer communities, which are ſo many democracies, every male above ſixteen having a ſhare in the government of the community, and a vote in the election of magiſtrates. Deputies from the ſeveral communities conſtitute the General Diet of the Griſon Leagues, which meets annually and alternately, at the capital of each League, but they can conclude nothing without the conſent of their conſtituents. About two thirds of the inhabitants are Calviniſts, and the reſt papiſts.

1. That called the Griſon or Grey League is divided into eight diſtricts, called councils, and twenty-three communities, of which eighteen are popiſh. Theſe diſtricts contain ſeveral ſmall villages, which are too inconſiderable to merit particular attention.

2. The moſt conſiderable of the three is the League of the Houſe of God, which contains ſome very high mountains. The chief of this diſtrict has the title of preſident, and is elected annually. It is divided into two great communities, and thoſe again into twenty-one ſmaller, called Juriſdictions.

The place of chief note here is Coire, or Chur, the capital not only of the League, but of the whole republic. It is tolerably large and populous, and its neighbourhood is beautifully diverſified with hills, plains, vineyards, corn fields, and orchards. Here are ſeveral churches, an arſenal, a college, a grammar-ſchool, a granary, and a town-houſe, in which is held, once in three years, the general diet, and alſo the extraordinary diets, and the congreſſes. The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and has a revenue of one thouſand pounds ſterling per annum.

3. The League of the Ten Juriſdictions, which is the ſmalleſt of the three, is divided into ſeven communities, out of which the chief is annually choſen by turns. To make up the Ten Juriſdictions, three of the great communications are ſub-divided each into two. The greater part of the inhabitants are proteſtants; and the language ſpoken in general is the German. The country conſiſts, for the moſt part, of rugged mountains, yielding neither corn nor fruit, except on the banks of the Rhine, and a few other places, but abounding in horſes, cattle, fiſh, milk, butter, and cheeſe, of all which there is a conſiderable exportation.

Thoſe territories or countries which are ſubject to the three Griſon Leagues lie at the foot of the Alps, near the entrance of Italy, and conſiſt of the Valteline, and the countries of Boinio and Chiavenna, all of which are very fertile. The language is a corrupt Italian, and the religion popery. Theſe places do not contain any thing remarkable.

Haldenſtein barony is under the protection of the Griſon League, and takes its name from the village of Haldenſtein, which has a palace in it, and a ſmall caſtle. The Calviniſt religion prevails throughout this barony.

Valais, another ally of the Swiſs cantons, is a valley among the Alps ſurrounded by lofty mountains. This country

country is exceedingly fertile, producing moſt kinds of grain, and a great variety of the choiceſt fruits. It abounds alſo in cattle, game, and veniſon. It is divided into the Upper and Lower: but the inhabitants of the latter are vaſſals to the former. The government is much the ſame as that of the Griſons, and the religion popery. Not only the German, French, and Italian, but alſo the Latin is ſpoken here, and that too by the common people.

Muhlhauſen is a large, well-built, and populous town; and is adorned with ſeveral churches, and other good ſtructures. The inhabitants are Calviniſts. This town ſends no deputy to the general diet, though it is in alliance with the proteſtant cantons.

Geneva, which is a famous republic, conſiſts of the city and a ſmall territory. The former is ſituated on an iſland on the Rhone, ſixty-five miles from Bern, ſeventy-five from Lyons, and one hundred and ſix from Turin. It is a large, handſome, and well-fortified city. The Treille is a moſt beautiful place: it is planted with linden-trees, and commands a fine proſpect of ſeveral ranges of mountains and rocks riſing behind each other, ſome of which are covered with vineyards and herbage. Immediately below the city the Rhone is joined by the Arve. Over the former of theſe rivers are four bridges. Of the ſix churches, the cathedral of St. Peter is the principal, in which is a monument to the memory of Henry duke of Roham. The ſervice in ſome of theſe churches is in French, in others Italian, and in others German. In all the ſtreets are fountains and canals to ſupply the inhabitants with water, which is raiſed by engines from the river Rhone.

The town-hall is a ſtately free-ſtone edifice, ſituated on an eminence, the aſcent to which is without any ſteps, ſo that a perſon may not only walk, but ride from the top to the bottom. Here is an arſenal, which is ſaid to contain arms for twelve thouſand men; and an univerſity, which has twelve profeſſors belonging to it, with a very valuable library. The library belonging to the city is well furniſhed with excellent books, beſides a curious collection of medals and petrifactions, and ſome antient and valuable manuſcripts.

The trade of the city is very conſiderable, it being a great thoroughfare, and having a variety of manufactories, with a number of induſtrious and ingenious artificers, particularly in the watch-making branch. At the general hoſpital, beſides the city poor, indigent travellers are maintained for one day, and then diſmiſſed, with ſome money in their pockets, to proceed on their journey. The government is much like that of Zurich and Bern. The number of burghers is about one thouſand five hundred, and the principal magiſtrates are the four ſyndics. Here are no leſs than four councils, viz. the general council of the citizens and burghers, the council of two hundred, that of ſixty, and that of twenty-five. Of the laſt, two perſons of the ſame family cannot be members at the ſame time. The religion of moſt of the inhabitants is Calviniſm.

No marriages are permitted here, unleſs both parties are of the proteſtant religion. A woman of forty years of age muſt not marry a man of leſs than thirty; if ſhe exceeds forty, her huſband muſt be at leaſt thirty-five; nor muſt a man above ſixty marry a woman who is not at leaſt thirty. A widow muſt not alter her condition in leſs than ſix months after her huſband's deceaſe. A very ſingular cuſtom prevails in Geneva, and is peculiar to it: the parents form ſocieties for their children at a very early period of their lives. Their ſocieties conſiſt of ten or a dozen, or more children of the ſame ſex, and nearly of the ſame age and ſituation in life. They aſſemble once a week in the houſes of the different parents, who entertain the company by turns with tea, coffee, biſcuits, and fruit, and then leave the young aſſembly to the freedom of their own converſation. This connection is ſtrictly kept up through life, whatever alterations may take place in the ſituations or circumſtances of the individuals; and although they ſhould afterwards form new or preferable intimacies, they never entirely abandon their ſociety: to the lateſt periods of their lives, they contrive to paſs a few evenings every year with the companions of their youthful and earlieſt friendſhip.

The lake, to which the city gives name, reſembles a half-moon, whoſe convex ſide lies towards Switzerland. The territories of five ſtates border upon it; viz. the kingdom of France, the duchy of Savoy, the republic of Geneva, the canton of Bern, and the biſhoprick of Sion.

4

SECT. II.

Of the Character, Perſons, military Forces, Government, Language, Religion, Manufactures, Revenues, Revolutions, &c. of the SWISS.

THE inhabitants of Switzerland are allowed to have a national character equal to that of any people in Europe. They are brave, honeſt, hardy, ſincere, friendly, and humane. Their perſons are tall, robuſt, and well made, but their complexions are very indifferent. The women are genteel, ſenſible, modeſt, and agreeable.

The cantons never keep any ſtanding troops, except for a few garriſons, but the militia is the beſt regulated of any in Europe. Every male from ſixteen to ſixty is enrolled, and near one third of them regimented. They are allowed to engage in the ſervice of foreign princes for any time they think proper, at the expiration of which they are at liberty to return home. Hence Switzerland is never unprovided with experienced officers and brave ſoldiers.

We have already, in our deſcription of the ſeveral cantons, taken notice of their reſpective governments, and ſhall therefore only add, in this place, that the commonwealths of Switzerland endeavour to ſuppreſs every thing that may introduce vanity and luxury; they prohibit gaming, balls, and all extravagances of dreſs; and their magiſtrates, in their public aſſemblies, appear in the plaineſt garb imaginable, to ſet an example to the reſt. Perſons of different qualities, are diſtinguiſhed by their ornaments; but they are ſuch as may be purchaſed at a moderate price.

The German language is generally ſpoken here, in which alſo all public affairs are tranſacted: but in thoſe parts of the country that border on Italy and France, a corrupt French or Italian prevails. Calviniſm and popery are the two predominant religions.

Their principal manufactures are ſnuff and tobacco, linen of ſeveral ſorts, lace, thread, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, neckcloths, cotton ſtuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, ſilks of ſeveral ſorts, gold and ſilver brocades, a variety of woollen manufactures, hats, paper, leather of all ſorts, earthen wares, porcelain, toys, watches, clocks, and other hardwares, &c. The trade of Switzerland is greatly promoted by many navigable lakes and rivers. In ſome of the above manufactures, and in cheeſe, butter, ſheep, horſes, black cattle, hides and ſkins, the exports are conſiderable; and as the imports are chiefly grain and ſalt, with ſome American and Aſiatic goods, the balance of trade is probably much on their ſide.

In general, the public revenues are very inconſiderable, and ariſe chiefly from the uſual regalia appropriated every where to the ſovereign, the demeſnes and public granaries, voluntary contributions, the ſale of ſalt, and a land-tax: in the proteſtant cantons, from the church lands alſo that were ſeized at the reformation; except in Zurich, Bern, Bazil, and Schaffhauſen, where the people are more induſtrious, have a greater trade, and are richer than in the others, they only defray the ordinary charges.

The people of this country were antiently called Helvetii. After they were defeated by Marius, they retired into their own country, where they lived peaceably till the time of Julius Cæſar, who obliged them again to ſubmit to the Roman yoke, under which they continued till the declenſion of that empire, when they became a part of the kingdom of Burgundy. After that, they fell under the dominion of the Franks; then of the Germans; but being oppreſſed by the latter, they threw off the yoke, and erected ſeveral ſtates or republics, which were recognized as free and independent at the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648, at the ſame time as the United Provinces were declared independent by Spain. The five popiſh cantons of Lucern, Switz, Zug, and Underwald, have never had a good underſtanding with the cantons of Zurich and Bern, ſince their yielding up theſe territories. On the contrary, they ſeem ready to call in the French, or any other power to aſſiſt them, to be revenged of their enemies, without regarding what the conſequences may be to their own country. This proved to be the caſe with reſpect to Geneva, where, in April 1782, the citizens took up arms, overpowered the republic guard, and, having taken poſſeſſion of the arſenal and magazines, carried off and impriſoned the magiſtrates. But this inſurrection, which at firſt appeared very formidable, was in the following June ſuppreſſed without bloodſhed, by the united efforts of the kings of France and Sardinia and the canton of Bern, who aſſembled a body of twelve thouſand men, and obliged the repreſentants to ſurrender; whereupon the peace of the republic was reſtored.

CHAP.


New & Correct MAP of
ITALY
from the latest
IMPROVEMENTS
and Regulated by
ASTRONOMICAL
Observations.
Part of
TURKEY
in
EUROPE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULPH OF VENICE or ADRIATIC SEA
PART OF AFRICA
PART OF SWITZERLAND
PART OF GERMANY
FRANCE
SAVOY
MILAND
PIEDMONT
GENOA
TUSCANY
CHURCH
CORSICA I.
SARDINIA ISLAND
SICILY
CROATIA
Gulph of Lyons
Gulph of Manfredonia.
Gulph of Squillace
Cephalonia I.
Corfu I.
MOREA
Italian & British Statute Miles

CHAP. XVII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

ITALY.

Comprehending the ſeveral KINGDOMS, STATES, and TERRITORIES thereunto belonging.

SECT. I.

Situation and Boundaries, with the Natural and Geographical Hiſtory and Deſcription of ITALY; alſo a particular Account of the Popedom or Eccleſiaſtical State, and the ſeveral Cities, Towns, and Places therein contained.

ITALY is acknowledged, by the moſt reſpectable and antient hiſtorians, to have been once the miſtreſs of the world, the chief of empires, the ſeat of the Muſes, the nurſery of arts, and the centre of opulence; but at preſent retains only the ſhadow and remnants of its priſtine power and grandeur. This country is ſituated between the ſeventh and tenth degrees of eaſt longitude, and thirty-ſeventh and forty-ſixth degrees of north latitude, being about ſix hundred miles in length, and in ſome places near four hundred broad; but in other parts the breadth does not exceed twenty-five miles. Its form reſembles that of a boot. It is bounded, on the north, by France, Switzerland, and Germany; on the eaſt, by the Adriatic; and on the ſouth and weſt, by the Mediterranean ſea.

The dominions in Italy, ſubject to ſeveral princes and ſovereigns, are as follow: I. The Popedom; II. Naples; III. Piedmont; IV. Milan; V. Montſerrat; VI. Modena; VII. Parma and Placentia; VIII. Mantua; IX. Genoa; X. Venice; which we ſhall treat of in the order here laid down, after giving the natural hiſtory of the country.

Italy well merits the appellation which it has obtained, viz. the Garden of Europe. The air is very different, according to the different ſituations of the ſeveral countries contained in it. In thoſe on the north of the Apennines it is more temperate, but in thoſe on the ſouth generally warm. The air of the Campania of Rome and of the Ferrareſe, is unhealthful, which is owing to the lands not being duly cultivated, nor the marſhes drained: that of the other parts is generally pure, dry, and healthy. In ſummer, the heat is generally very great in the kingdom of Naples, and would be almoſt intolerable, were it not ſomewhat alleviated by the ſea-breezes.

The ſoil is, in general, very fertile, being watered by a great number of rivers, the principal of which are the Po, which riſes in Piedmont, and diſembogues itſelf into the Adriatic: the Tyber, which has its ſource in the Apennines, waters Rome, and diſcharges itſelf into the Tuſcan ſea; the Adiga, Arno, Adda, &c. beſides which, and ſome other rivers, great numbers of lakes are ſpread throughout the whole country, which produces a variety of wines, and the beſt oil in Europe, excellent ſilk in abundance, corn of all ſorts, but not in ſuch plenty as in ſome other parts; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, raiſins, ſugar, mulberry-trees without number, figs, peaches, nectarines, apricots, pears, apples, filberds, cheſnuts, &c. Moſt of theſe fruits were at firſt imported by the Romans from Aſia Minor, Greece, Africa, and Syria, and were not the natural products of the ſoil. The tender plants are covered in winter on the north ſide of the Apennines, but on the ſouth ſide they have no need of it. This country alſo yields good paſture, and abounds with cattle, ſheep, goats, buffaloes, wild boars, mules, and horſes. The foreſts are well ſtored with game of various kinds.

The Apennines and Alps are the principal mountains; the former run the whole length of the country from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; the latter extend from the river Var, near Nice, to the Adriatic. The mountains yield not only mines of iron, lead, allum, ſulphur, marble of all ſorts, alabaſter, jaſper, porphyry, &c. but alſo gold and ſilver, with a great variety of aromatic herbs, trees, ſhrubs, and ever-greens, as thyme, lavender, laurel, and bays, wild olive-trees, tamarinds, juniper, oaks, pines, &c.

The eccleſiaſtical ſtate, or popedom, ſituated in the middle of Italy, is two hundred and forty miles long, but its breadth greatly varies. The ſoil, in general, is excellent, but badly cultivated, the people being remarkably idle, and groſsly ſuperſtitious. The tyranny of the government, the pride of the prelacy, the numerous herds of monks and friars, and the natural indolence of the people, have greatly depopulated and impoveriſhed one of the moſt fertile ſpots in the univerſe. The ſpiritual power of the pope received a great blow by the Reformation; but, though far ſhort of what it formerly was, it is ſtill very conſiderable.

The Roman pontiff ſtill poſſeſſes his temporal dominions. The Campania of Rome is under his immediate government, but the other provinces are governed by legates and vice-legates, and there is a commander in chief of the pope's forces in every province. The pope is choſen by the cardinals in the conclave, who are ſeventy in number when complete, and conſiſt of three claſſes, namely, cardinal-biſhops, prieſts, and deacons: the cardinal that is choſen pope muſt be an Italian, and at leaſt fifty-five years of age: the cardinals conſider themſelves as on a footing with crowned heads, and have the title of Eminentiſſimi. The pope holds a conſiſtory of them on eccleſiaſtical affairs; but the cardinals do not meddle with his civil government. The pope's chief miniſter is the cardinal-patron, who amaſſes an immenſe eſtate, if the reign be of long duration.

The pope's revenue, as a temporal prince, is, one million of pounds ſterling, ariſing principally from the monopoly of corn and duties on wine: but, independent of this, he receives conſiderable ſums for indulgences, diſpenſations, canonizations, &c. He has a conſiderable body of regular troops tolerably well cloathed and paid; his life-guards are forty Swiſs, ſeventy-five cuiraſſiers, and the ſame number of light horſe: his fleet, however, is but deſpicable, conſiſting only of a few gallies. It is computed that the monks and regular clergy ſcattered through the pope's and other countries, who are at his abſolute devotion, amount to two millions, and the revenues which ſupport them are eſtimated at twenty millions of pounds ſterling.

Bologna was once a republic, and afterwards annexed to the papal dominions. This territory contains only one place worthy of deſcription; namely, Bologna, its capital, the ſecond city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and the ſee of an archbiſhop.

The city of Bologna is waſhed by the river Savona, and interſected by the river Reno. The latter has a canal which communicates with the Po, and is uſeful for the conveyance of various commodities. A brick wall adorned with towers defends it, and the people carry on a few manufactories. All kinds of proviſions are in great plenty, and the inns the beſt in Italy. The women enjoy as much liberty here as in any city of Italy; thoſe of the higheſt rank dreſs entirely after the French mode.

In the centre of this city, like a maſt in a ſhip, ſtands a very high tower, called Degli Aſinelli, from Gerardo Aſinelli, who built it in 1109: the height is three hundred and ſeventy-one feet. Near it is a leaning tower, called Gariſenda, but not ſo high as the other. The pa-

lace where the governor reſides, and the courts of juſtice are held, ſtands in the great market-place, and is two hundred and eight common paces in length. There are in Bologna, a great many convents, fine palaces, and churches, adorned with a variety of fine paintings, ſculptures, &c. The church of St. Petronius is the largeſt; the emperor Charles V. was crowned in it, in the year 1530. From Bologna runs a covered walk to the nunnery of Madonna de St. Lucca, three Italian miles from the city.

The duchy of Ferrara was annexed to the eccleſiaſtical ſtate in 1597. The principal place in it is Ferrara, one hundred and ninety miles from Rome. This town is regularly built, has a citadel, caſtle, ſtately cathedral, and ſome other churches and convents.

The fertile province of Romagna was given to the ſee of Rome by Pepin, king of France. The chief places are, 1. Rovena, thirty-eight miles eaſt of Bologna, now a decayed city, but formerly the moſt celebrated of all the ſea-ports. In the large market-place are two lofty pillars of granate, on which are the ſtatues of St. Victor and St. Apollinaris; and alſo a braſs ſtatue of pope Alexander VII. ſitting, the uſual attitude of the pope in all ſtatues and public monuments. The cathedral is a ſtately old fabric, adorned with four rows of marble pillars, a roof of Moſaic work, and a pavement of porphyry of various colours. The church of St. Vitalis, and others, are alſo very beautiful.

2. The town of Rimini, the antient Ariminum, on the Adriatic, is now greatly declined, though ſome remains of its antient ſplendor are ſtill to be ſeen. Without the town, towards Peſauro, is a triumphal arch, built by Auguſtus, all of marble, the front of which is decorated with two beautiful corinthian pillars, and two buſts. Behind the capuchins convent are ſome remains of an amphitheatre; and over the Marecchia is a ſtately bridge of marble, built or repaired by Auguſtus and Tiberius. The ſplendid library of count Gabalonga is well worth a traveller's notice. Here was formerly an excellent harbour lined with marble, but it is now, in a great meaſure, choaked up with ſand.

Urbino is one of the leaſt fertile dutchies in Italy, and does not contain any remarkable place except Urbino, celebrated for having given birth to Polydore Virgil, the hiſtorian, and Raphael the celebrated painter.

Ancona, on the Adriatic, has a groſs air, but fertile ſoil. This marquiſate contains Ancona, ſituated as above; and, though a biſhop's ſee, is but a mean place. The harbour is commodious, but the traffic inconſiderable. The exchange is handſome, and near the harbour is a triumphal arch erected in honour of the emperor Trajan. The Jews live in a particular ward, have a ſynagogue, and are obliged to wear a piece of red cloth in their hats.

The ſmall city of Loretto, fifteen miles from Ancona, is the ſee of a biſhop. Its name is derived from Lauretta, the lady in whoſe field the ſanta caſa was firſt pitched. The circumſtance which renders this city the moſt remarkably famous, is, the ſanta caſa, or holy houſe, which it is ſaid the virgin Mary dwelt in at Nazareth. This houſe, according to the Roman legend in the thirteenth century, was conveyed hither by angels, but has been many times ſince repaired. It is at preſent thirty-one and three-quarter feet long, thirteen one quarter feet broad, and eighteen three quarter feet wide. It has two doors for the people, and one for the clergy, and is built of bricks of unequal ſizes. On it is a ſmall tower, with two little bells, which are only rung in ſtormy weather. On the weſt ſide is the window where the angel is ſaid to have entered the houſe, and the place where the Virgin was then ſitting is ſeparated from the reſt by a ſilver baluſtrade. The images of the Virgin and Infant are made of cedar, and richly ornamented; particularly on their heads are triple crowns of gold, ſuperbly decorated with diamonds, pearls, &c. To give a particular detail of all the votive pieces and jewels, in the holy houſe and treaſury, would fill a volume: let it ſuffice to ſay, that they are of immenſe value.

Perugia territory contains the lake near which Hannibal defeated the Romans under the conſul Flaminius; and the town of Perugia is only noted for having been once taken by the Goths, after they had beſieged it ſeven days.

Orvieto territory contains a town of the ſame name, which a well, cut into a rock two hundred and fifty cubits deep, ſupplies with water.

Spoleto is ſixty-five miles long and forty-ſeven broad, and is tolerably fertile. This dutchy contains Spoleto, antiently one of the moſt celebrated municipal towns in Italy, and even now the capital of the dutchy. It is ſeventy miles north of Rome; and has a famous aqueduct, by which water is conveyed to the city and caſtle from mount St. Francis, over a valley.

The town of Terni is pretty well built and inhabited, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſituated about twenty-two miles ſouth from Spoleto. Not far from hence is the famous caſcade formed by the fall of the river Velino, which ruſhes down a precipice one hundred yards high: the ruins of an antient theatre are ſtill viſible here.

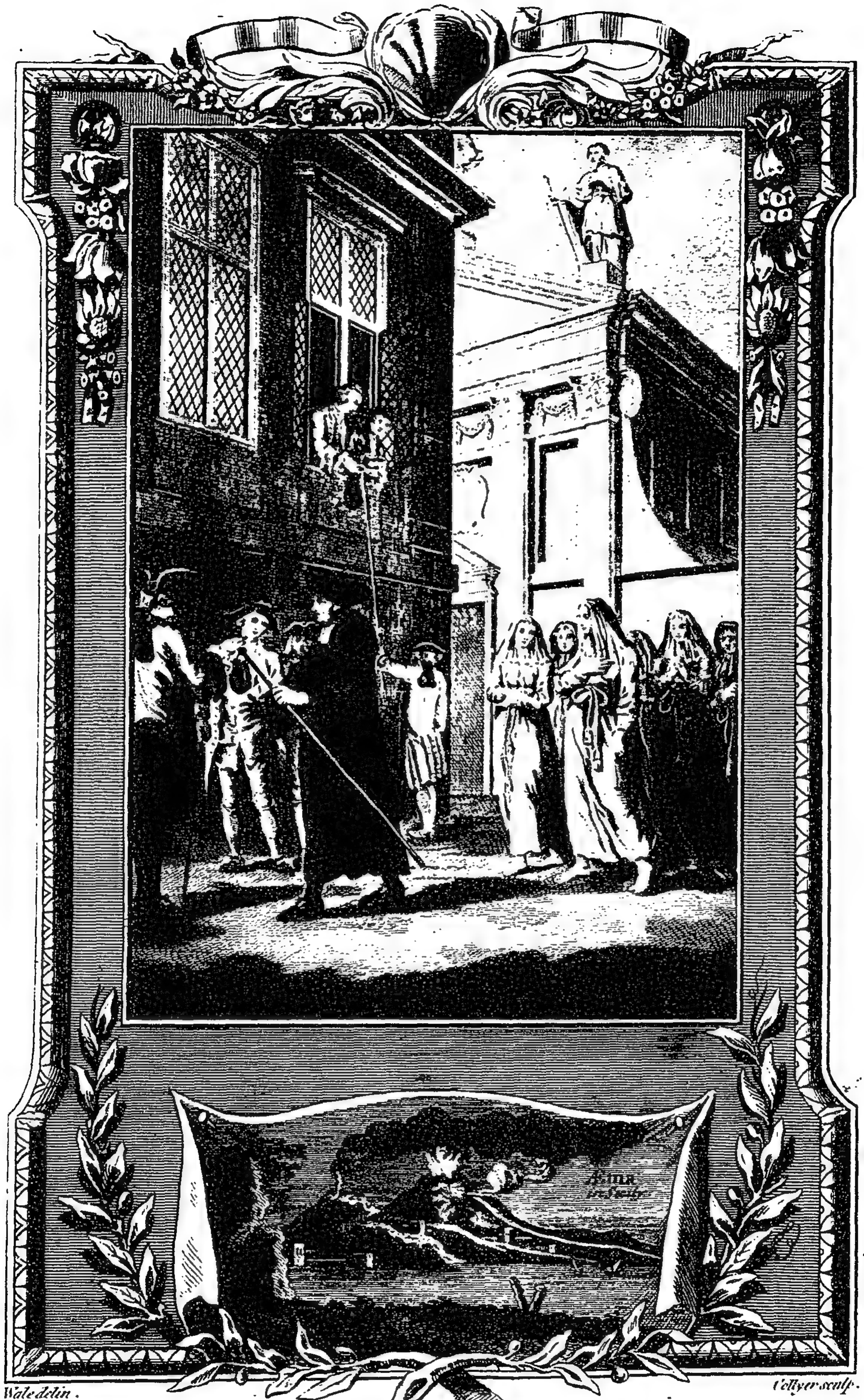
St. Peter's Patrimony is ſo called from a pretended grant of it made by Conſtantine the Great to Sylveſter biſhop of Rome, in 324, for the maintenance of the church of St. Peter, and its biſhops: but this grant, in fact, is ſaid to have been made by the counteſs Matilda, in the year 1077.

The principal places in this Patrimony, are, Viterbo, the capital, thirty-three miles north-weſt of Rome. It is pretty large, well built, and contains a great number of churches and convents; but that of the inhabitants is but ſmall, conſidering its extent. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is immediately under the pope. The number of the inhabitants is ſaid to be about ſixteen thouſand, a conſiderable part of which conſiſts of prieſts and monks of all orders. Not far from the town is a warm mineral ſpring. Here are two academies of wits, the one called Gli oſtinati, and the other Gli ardenti.

The territory called Campagna di Roma, antiently Latium, has many lakes, and a rich but uncultivated ſoil, and contains Rome, the capital and ſeat of the Roman empire, and now the head of the Roman Catholic religion. One may walk quite round the city in three or four hours at moſt, the circumference being reckoned about thirteen Italian miles. With regard to the number of inhabitants, modern Rome is greatly inferior to the antient. In external ſplendor the modern is ſuppoſed to ſurpaſs the antient Rome. The neighbouring country appears almoſt like a deſart, through the indolence and ſuperſtition of the inhabitants.

A ſmall part of this city is ſeparated from the other by the Tyber, and is therefore called Traſtevere, or beyond the Tyber. There are ſeveral bridges over the river, a great number of towers on the walls, and twenty gates. The Tyber is ſubject to frequent inundations, by which it often does great damage. Rome is well paved, but not well lighted, nor kept very clean. Two-thirds of the houſes are the property of the churches, convents, and alms-houſes. Proteſtants are not obliged to kneel at the elevation of the hoſt, or at meeting the euchariſt in the ſtreets; and they may have fleſh meat always at the inns, even during Lent. Here are a great many academies for promoting arts and ſciences, beſides the univerſity. The carnival is only during the eight days before Lent, and there are no ſuch ſcenes of riot as at Venice. To maintain good order, a body of three hundred halberdiers, under their colonel, attend. Very little trade is carried on in Rome, though great ſums are ſpent by travellers. The remains of Rome's antient grandeur conſiſt of ſtatues, coloſſuſſes, temples, palaces, theatres, naumachias, triumphal arches, cirques, columns, obeliſks, fountains, aqueducts, mauſoleums, thermæ, or hot-baths, and other ſtructures. Of modern buildings, the ſplendid churches and palaces are the moſt remarkable. Next to the ſtatues, there is nothing more ſurpriſing than the amazing variety of antient pillars of ſo many kinds of marble.

The city of Rome abounds with a variety of magnificent ſtructures, both antient and modern; the principal of which are as follow: the churches of St. Peter and St. Martin; the aqueducts and fountains; the vatican, and the other palaces; the campidolio, where the Roman ſenate reſides; the pila miliaria of fine marble; the equeſtrian braſs ſtatue of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; the marble monument of the emperor Alexander Severus; marble buſts of the emperors and their conſorts; three brick arches of the temple of peace, built by the emperor Veſpaſian, and that of Concord; the coliſco, or amphitheatre, built by the emperor Veſpaſian; the triumphal arch of Septimus Severus, of Titus, of Galienus, and the temple of Antoninus; ſome parts of the cloaca Maxima; the columna Antonina, repreſenting the principal actions of Marcus Aurelius; the columna Trajani, or Trajan's pillar; ſome fragments of the Baſilica, or palace of Antoninus Pius, now the cuſtom-houſe, and of Narva's forum; the mauſoleum of Auguſtus, in the Strada Pontifici; the remains of the emperor Severus's tomb without St. John's gate; the pyramid of Caius Ceſtus, near St. Paul's gate; the porphyry coffin of St. Helen, and the original ſtatue of Conſtantine the Great; an Egyptian obeliſk, near the church of St. Maria Maggiore; the ſtately remains of Dioclefian's baths; the celebrated pantheon;

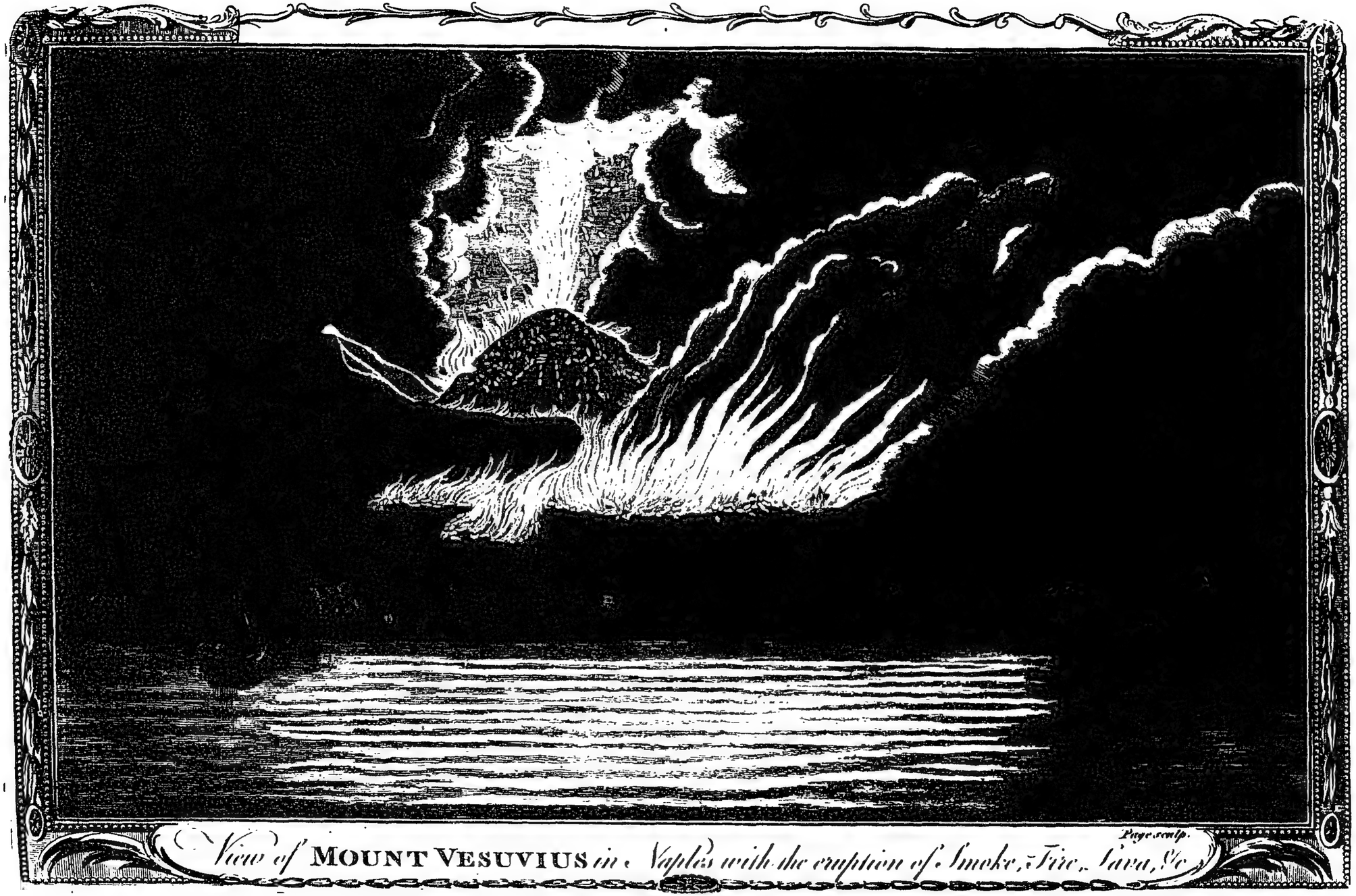


Wale delin. Collyer sculp.

A Publick Procession of Penitent Prostitutes at NAPLES.



The beautiful WATERFALL at TIVOLI, in ITALY.



Page. sculp.

View of MOUNT VESUVIUS *in* Naples *with the eruption of Smoke, Fire, Lava, &c.*

theon; the obeliſks of Seſoſtris and Auguſtus by the Clementine college; the church of St. Paulo fuori della Mura, ſaid to have been built by Conſtantine the Great; the mauſoleum of Adrian; Marcellus's theatre; the Tarneſe Hercules, of white marble, of a Coloſſean ſize and exquiſite workmanſhip, in a court of the Farneſe palace, and an admirable group cut out of one block of marble, in another court of the ſame palace.

No city in the world equals Rome for the multiplicity of fine fountains, noble edifices, antiquities, curioſities, paintings, ſtatues, ſculptures, &c. The catacombs were places where the Chriſtians, who never burned their dead, and ſuch of the Pagan Romans, whoſe friends could not afford the expence of burning, were buried; they are long, narrow alleys, ſcarcely broad enough for two perſons to go abreaſt, but ſufficiently high for the talleſt man to ſtand upright. They extend a prodigious way under ground. On each ſide are three holes or cavities, each of which will contain the coffin of a full-grown perſon. Oſtia, the antient part of Rome, being twelve miles ſouth thereof, is at preſent a mean village: this is owing to the channel becoming dry, from the Tyber's having changed its courſe.

About twenty-three miles eaſt of Rome, on the brow of a hill, ſtands Tivoli, which is now but a mean place, but is the ſee of a biſhop, holding immediately of the pope. In its neighbourhood are many remains of Roman villas, ſome quarries of free-ſtone, and the caſcade or water-fall of the river Tiverone, formerly Anio, which makes an aſtoniſhing noiſe. Near it is alſo the Lago di Bagni, or Solfatara, whence the river Solfatara iſſues. The water of the lake and river are ſtrongly impregnated with ſulphur, and pretty hot, eſpecially towards the bottom.

St. Marino, which is a ſmall republic, conſiſts only of a mountain, and contains about five thouſand inhabitants. The mountain yields good wine, but they have no other than rain or ſnow water. The founder of the republic was a Dalmatian, and a maſon, who upwards of one thouſand three hundred years ago turned hermit, and retired to this mountain. Here his devotion and auſterity, and in conſequence of that, his reputation for ſanctity were ſuch, that the princeſs of the country made him a preſent of the mountain, on which many, out of veneration for the ſaint, ſoon after took up their abode. Thus was the foundation laid of the town and republic, which ſtill bears the name of the ſaint, whoſe aſhes and ſtatue it contains.

SECT. II.

Containing Deſcriptions of NAPLES, PIEDMONT, MILAN, MONTSERRAT, and the other States of ITALY; with an Account of their Cities, Remarkable Places, Structures, Antiquities, &c.

NAPLES is the largeſt kingdom or ſtate in Italy. It was formerly called Sicily on this ſide the Pharo of Meſſina, whence the king, who likewiſe poſſeſſes Sicily, is called King of the Two Sicilies. Towards the north-eaſt it is bounded by the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and in all other parts by the Mediterranean and Adriatic ſeas. Its length is two hundred and eighty miles, but its breadth not above one hundred and twenty where broadeſt. The air is hot, and the ſoil fertile; but the number of inſects, reptiles, &c, and the frequent earthquakes, render the country unpleaſant and even dangerous to the inhabitants.

This is an hereditary monarchy. The high colleges are, the council of ſtate, the privy-council, the treaſury, the Sicily council, the council of war, &c. This kingdom is a papal fief; and the king, in acknowledgment of the pope's feudal right, ſends him every year a white palfry, and a purſe of ſix thouſand ducats. The title of the king's eldeſt ſon is prince of Calabria. The higher nobles conſiſt of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and barons. The general aſſemby of the States, conſiſting of the nobility and commons, is ſummoned every two years, to meet at the capital, to deliberate on the cuſtomary free gift to the ſovereign.

Naples, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated in the province called Terra di Lavora, which is the richeſt and beſt inhabited in the whole kingdom, and comprehends a part of the antient Campania Felix, or the Happy. This city is advantageouſly ſituated, having a beautiful country on one ſide, and a noble bay of the Mediterranean on the other, with an excellent harbour. The circumference, including the ſuburbs, is eighteen Italian miles, and the number of the inhabitants four hundred thouſand. The houſes are of ſtone, flat rooſed, and in general lofty and uniform; but many of them have balconies, with lattice windows. The ſtreets are well paved, but they are not lighted at night, and, in the day-time are diſfigured in many places by ſtalls, on which proviſions are expoſed to ſale.

There are, in this city, ſeveral magnificent churches, convents, fountains, and palaces of the nobility, many of whom conſtantly reſide here. The cathedral, though gothic, is a very grand, ſplendid edifice. It is uſual to walk on the tops of the houſes in the evenings, and to breathe the ſweet, cool air, after a hot ſultry day. Here are ſwarms of monks and nuns of all ſorts to ſuch a degree, that there are no leſs than nineteen convents of the Dominicans alone, eighteen of the Franciſcans, eight of the Auguſtines, and in proportion of the reſt. In the cathedral the head and blood of St. Januarius, the tutelary ſaint of Naples, are kept, the latter in two glaſs or cryſtal vials. The nunnery for ladies of quality is ſaid to be the largeſt in the whole world, containing no leſs than three hundred and fifty nuns, beſides ſervants.

The climate here is ſo mild and warm, even in winter, that plenty of green peas, artichokes, aſparagus, and other vegetables, may be had ſo early as the beginning of the new year, and even all the winter. The fortifications of the city are very ſtrong both by ſea and land. The bay is one of the fineſt in the world, being of a round figure, and thirty miles in diameter. The walls of the city conſiſt of hard, black, quarry ſtones, called piperno. There are five piazzas or ſquares in the city, appropriated to the nobility, viz. Capuana, Nido, Montagna, Porto, and Porta Nova. Of all the palaces, that of the king is not only the moſt magnificent, but alſo in the beſt ſtyle of architecture. Here is an univerſity and two academies; the one called Gli Ardenti, and the other Gli Otioſi. The mount of Piety, or the office for advancing money to the poor, on pledges, at a low intereſt, or without any, has an income of upwards of fifty thouſand ducats. The arſenal contains arms for fifty thouſand men. Many of the common people prefer begging or robbing to labour, yet ſome manufactures are carried on. Luxury here is reſtrained by ſumptuary laws, and the women are more cloſely confined than in any other city of Italy. Inſtead of ice, vaſt quantities of ſnow are uſed for cooling their liquors, not ſo much as water being drank without it. Water is conveyed to the city from the foot of mount Veſuvius by means of an aqueduct.

Five miles from Naples ſtands the celebrated mount Veſuvius. The ſouth and weſt ſides, as well as the tops, are covered with black cinders and aſhes, though ſome of the other declivities produce ſeveral ſorts of wine. It is about three miles from the foot of the mountain to the ſummit, but the aſcent is very toilſome. The neighbouring peaſants, for a trifling reward, ſerve as guides to, and aſſiſt travellers in climbing up: they wear leather belts, which ſtrangers take hold of, in order to render the aſcent more eaſy. A ſtream of lava often iſſues from the volcano, conſiſting of melted metal, ſulphur, minerals, &c. It runs like a river, bears all before it, and does incredible miſchief. As we approach the volcano, if the mountain is actually belching out matter, the aſhes grow hotter and hotter; at the ſame time a horrid noiſe is heard, like the exploſion of a whole battery of cannon, and a rumbling under foot, like the continual boiling of a large cauldron. Not a tree or ſhrub is to be ſeen on the top of the mountain: the hollow, whence the eruptions iſſue, is very large, and goes ſhelving down on all ſides. When the mountain is quiet, this hollow may be ſafely looked into; but even then it is generally filled with ſmoke. During the eruptions, it is filled with glowing and melted matter, which, as it boils over in any part, runs down the ſides of the mountain like a torrent. At theſe times alſo vaſt quantities of aſhes, cinders, and huge ſtones are thrown out.

Not far from this mountain is the village of Portici, where is a royal palace, with an amazing collection of antiquities, moſtly dug out of the ruins of the antient city of Heraclea, or Herculaneum, which ſtood near the ſpot, and was deſtroyed partly by an earthquake, and partly by an eruption of mount Veſuvius. Several volumes, giving accounts of theſe antiquities, have been publiſhed, and the people ſtill continue to dig for more.

The grotto of Pauſilippo is a broad, ſtraight, ſubterraneous road, hewn through a mountain. Two holes on each ſide admit air and light. This cave is one hundred feet high at the entrance, but diminiſhes afterwards; and the whole, which is paved with broad ſtones, is about half a mile long. At coming out, the road leads to the lake

Agano, which is circular, and a mile in circumference. In the midſt are the ſudatories of St. Germano, being ſtone apartments, where the hot ſteams which ariſe produce a profuſe perſpiration: hence they are much frequented in various diſorders.

The town of Puzzuolo, or Puteoli, tho' formerly a flouriſhing city, is now reduced only to an inconſiderable place. It is, however, the ſee of a biſhop; and the cathedral, which was formerly a pagan temple, is built of large blocks of marble. Puteoli glories in being the place where the firſt Chriſtian community in Italy was formed; for we are told that St. Paul, in his journey to Rome, found brethren in it. Here is a very commodious harbour, in which are fourteen piers, or pillars, riſing above the ſurface of the water. The earth of Puteoli has this peculiar property, that it hardens in the water, and, after lying in it ſome time, looks more like ſtone than earth. In the neighbourhood are what the antients called the Elyſian Fields, from the ſweetneſs of the climate, the verdure and fertility of the ſoil, &c. But its former beauties are all defaced, as the whole place is now covered with buſhes, briars, ruins, &c.

The city of Salerno, capital of the principality on this ſide the Apennines, is ſituated on the gulph to which it gives name, about twenty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt from Naples. It is well fortified, has a pretty good harbour and caſtle, but little trade: here, however, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, with an univerſity, and ſeveral annual fairs, which are much reſorted to, and very profitable to it.

About twenty miles to the ſouth of Salerno lies Campaccio, near which are the ruins of the antient city of Pœſtum, or Poſſidonia. Here are the remains of a theatre, amphitheatre, and three temples. The walls of this place ſtill remain: they are compoſed of very large cubical ſtones, and are in ſome parts no leſs than eighteen feet thick.

The city of Otranto, antiently called Hydruntum, is well fortified, and the ſee of an archbiſhop: it ſtands on an iſland at the mouth of the Adriatic, which is joined by a bridge to another iſland, and that by a bridge to the continent. It gives name to, and is the capital of a province, which with thoſe of Bari and Capitanata, conſtitute the country of Apulia, a tract in general flat, dry, and ſandy.

Piedmont, which is part of the antient Lombardy, has its name from its ſituation at the foot of the Alps, being about one hundred and fifty miles long, and ninety-four broad. There is a moſt extenſive and romantic proſpect from the mountain Rochemelon, which takes a whole day to aſcend. Annually, on the 5th of Auguſt, vaſt crowds go to hear maſs ſaid before a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary on the ſummit. The inhabitants, and even horſes and dogs, are ſubject to the ſame kind of wens in the throat as the people in Savoy. This is a very fruitful country, and the Piedmonteſe ſilk is deemed the beſt in Italy.

At the conflux of the Po and Doria ſtands Turin, the capital of Piedmont. It is ſmall, but ſtrong, and very populous. Within the city are forty-eight churches and convents, and ſome very fine ſtreets, particularly Rue Neuve and Rue de Po, which are deemed the moſt elegant in Europe. Here are likewiſe many fine ſquares, ſeveral magnificent palaces, beſides that of the king, a ſuperb opera-houſe, an arſenal, royal printing-houſe, an univerſity, which is a quadrangle, and one of the fineſt buildings in the city. The king's palace, for the beauty of its apartments, the richneſs of the furniture, the elegant paintings, cabinet of curioſities, and library, is ſcarcely to be paralleled. The chapel of the Holy Sunday, built of blackiſh marble, is particularly admired.

The city conſiſts of the Old and New. In the Old the ſtreets are crooked and narrow, but have ſome handſome houſes in them, and, in both the Old and New, are exceedingly clean and neat. From a canal cut from the river Doria, water is conveyed by an aqueduct into the city, and afterwards diſtributed at pleaſure through every ſtreet. Here is a fine citadel, an univerſity, library, and a great many charitable foundations. There are many beautiful villas, convents, and other buildings in the neighbourhood of Turin. Of the villas, thoſe belonging to the royal family are, Valentine, now neglected; Montcalier, Rivoli, and Stupinice; La Vigne de la Reine, and La Venerie, which has a very fine chapel and gardens, with a little town near it.

The town of Suſa, on the Doria, contains a triumphal arch, erected in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar. This place is ſurrounded by a wall, and has a ſtrong garriſon; and about a quarter of a league from it ſtands Fort Brunette, which perhaps cannot be paralleled in the whole world, having been hewn out of a rock with all its out-works. The paſſages in the rock are ſo large, that waggons and heavy cannon, drawn by ſeveral horſes, may paſs over it from place to place.

The ſmall ſea-port town of Nice is ſituated near the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the Paulon. The fortifications were entirely deſtroyed by the French in 1708. It gives name to a diſtrict, called the county of Nice, in which is alſo Villa Franca, a ſmall fortified town, two or three miles to the eaſt of Nice, with a harbour on the ſea, and two caſtles; and Capo de S. Oſpitio, a very ſtrong town on the ſea, and a free port. Nice has an indifferent harbour, is a free port, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Ambrun in Dauphine.

The duchy of Montſerrat, or Montferrat, is a duchy ſituated weſt of Milan. It is ſixty-two miles long, forty-eight broad, and very fertile. It contains a few fortifications, not in the leaſt remarkable; the principal of them, Caſal on the Po, forty-two miles eaſt of Turin, is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Milan. Montferrat and Piedmont both belong to the king of Sardinia; as does

The duchy of Savoy, ſituated between France, Piedmont, and the lake of Geneva, being near ninety miles long, and ſeventy broad. It lies among the Alps, and conſequently is mountainous and ſterile. The roads over the Alps are diſagreeable and dangerous, eſpecially as huge maſſes of ſnow, called by the Italians avalanches, and fragments of rocks, frequently roll down in them from the impending precipices. The way of travelling is either in ſledges, chairs, or on the backs of mules: in ſome places the path on the brink of the precipices is ſo narrow, that there is but juſt room for a ſingle perſon to paſs. It begins to ſnow on theſe mountains commonly about the beginning of October. In the months of July, Auguſt, and September, many of them yield very fine graſs, with a great variety of flowers and herbs; and others box-wood, walnuts, cheſnuts, and pines. The air here, even in July and Auguſt, is exceeding cold. The heir apparent to the crown of Sardinia has always the title of duke of Savoy, and prince of Piedmont.

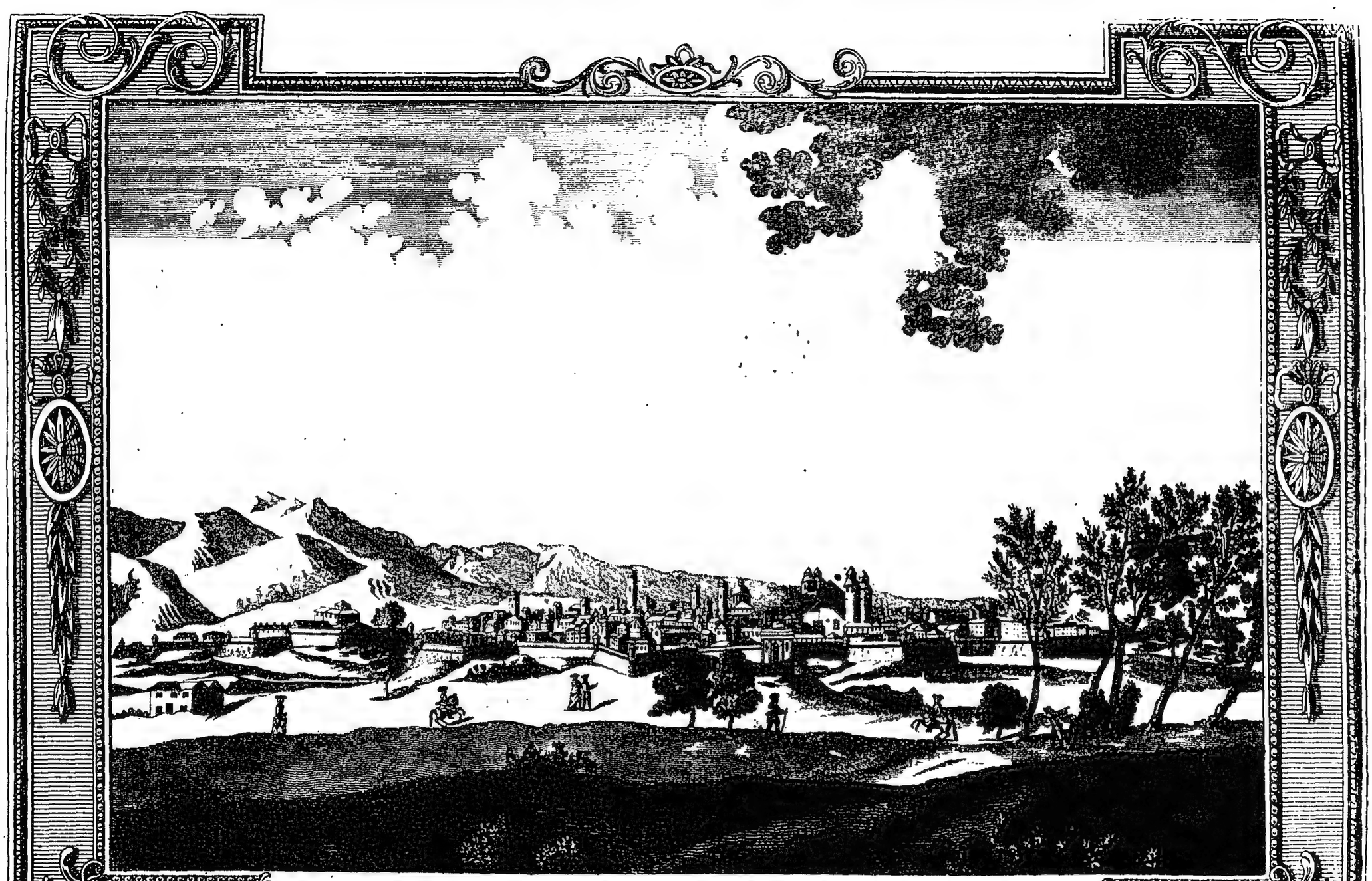
A corrupt French is ſpoken by the lower claſs of people in Savoy: but the inhabitants, in their diſpoſitions, reſemble the Germans more than the French. Great numbers of the mountaineers of both ſexes, are deformed, and particularly diſfigured with wens in the throat, which, as they are not painful, is the only inconvenience that attends them.

The town of Chamberry, the capital of the duchy, is ſituated on the river Leiſe, in a pleaſant valley in Savoy Proper, twenty-ſeven miles north-eaſt of Grenoble. It is walled, and the ſeat of the high court of Savoy, but not very large, nor of any great antiquity. Here are ſeveral handſome ſquares, a great number of monaſteries, a ſtately ducal palace, or caſtle, ſeveral palaces of the nobility, and a collegiate church, the head of which is ſtiled dean of Savoy; but ſince the dukes removed their reſidence to Turin, the town has loſt much of its antient ſplendor.

The ſmall town of Aix is ſituated about two leagues from Chamberry. The hot baths here are free to all, paying only the attendant, or rubber, a trifle: the water of them is clear, and of a greeniſh colour: no fiſh or any animal will live in them. Some remains of a Roman triumphal arch are to be ſeen here.

The province of Milan, which is one of the fineſt in Italy, lies to the north of the Apennine mountains, being near one hundred and ten miles long, and about one hundred broad. It is fertile and well watered, containing, beſides ſeveral rivers, ſome lakes, particularly Lago Maggiore, or the Greater Lake, which contains the Baromean iſlands, viz. Itolo Bella and Itolo Madre, the beauty of which almoſt exceeds imagination: art and nature ſeem to have vied with each other in embelliſhing them. In each of them is a palace with beautiful gardens, belonging to the Baromean family. The water of the lake is clear, and of a greeniſh colour, and abounds with fiſh. The hills with which it is ſurrounded, being planted with vines and cheſnut-trees, and interſperſed with ſummer-houſes, preſent a moſt charming landſcape.

The principal place in thoſe diſtricts, which belong to the king of Sardinia, is, Aleſſandria, ſurnamed De la Paglia, from the inhabitants uſing ſtubble for fuel, inſtead of wood. It ſtands upon the Tanaro, is well fortified, and contains above twelve thouſand inhabitants. Here is a fine opera-houſe: it is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan, and two annual fairs are held



General View *of* TURIN, *the Capital of* Piedmont *in* Italy.

here in April and October. The town had the name of Aleſſandria from pope Alexander III. in honour of whom it was built, anno 1178.

The following places are contained in the Auſtrian diſtrict of the duchy of Milan, viz. 1. Milan, the capital, two hundred and ſixty miles north-weſt from Rome. This is a large walled city, with a rampart and citadel to defend it. The latter contains a foundery and arſenal, and the governor is independent of the governor of the Milaneſe. This city is governed by a preſident, and council of ſixty doctors of law, who are all nobles. It contains many reſpectable families. The cathedral is a vaſt pile, all of marble; and though ſomething has been doing for near four hundred years towards the outward or inward ornaments thereof, it is not yet finiſhed. Of the great number of ſtatues about it, that of St. Bartholomew, juſt flayed alive, with his ſkin hanging over his ſhoulders, and of Adam and Eve over the main portal, are the fineſt. The pillars, ſupporting the roof of the church, are all of marble, and the windows finely painted. This church contains a treaſure of great value, particularly a ſhrine of rock cryſtal, in which the body of St. Charles Boromeo is depoſited. The other churches, moſt worthy a ſtranger's notice, are thoſe of St. Alexander, St. Jerom, St. Giovanni di Caſorotti della paſſione, and St. Ambroſe, in the laſt of which lie the bodies of that ſaint, and of the kings Pepin and Bernard. In the Ambroſian college, founded by Frederic Boromeo, ſixteen profeſſors teach gratis. In the ſame college is alſo an academy of painting, with a muſeum, and a library, containing a vaſt number of printed books and manuſcripts. The ſeminary for ſciences, the college of the nobles, the Helvetian college, and the mathematical academy, are noble foundations, and ſtately buildings. Of the hoſpitals, the moſt remarkable are the Lazaretto, and that called the Great Hoſpital. In a void ſpace in one of the ſtreets of Milan, where ſtood the houſe of a barber, who had conſpired, with the commiſſary of health, to poiſon his fellow-citizens, is erected a pillar, called Colonna Infame (the infamous pillar) with an inſcription to perpetuate the memory of the execrable deſign. The city contains near two hundred and fifty thouſand inhabitants, and has been beſieged forty, taken twenty, and demoliſhed four times, yet it hath always recovered itſelf. Here are, beſides the churches, many palaces, convents, hoſpitals, &c. The polite people take the air on the ramparts, where they have the proſpect of the country on one ſide, and the ramparts on the other. The environs of this city, being adorned with beautiful ſeats, gardens, orchards, &c. are very pleaſant.

2. The city of Pavia is ſituated on the Teſſino, over which it hath a ſtone bridge of ſix arches, is old, ſpacious, and but thinly inhabited. It was formerly the capital of Lombardy, is an epiſcopal ſee, and badly fortified. Here is an univerſity, conſiſting of ſeven colleges. Not far from the city is a very magnificent Carthuſian monaſtery, called Certoſa, founded by John Galeazzo Viſconti, who died in the year 1494, and has an elegant monument of white marble erected to his memory in the church, the front of which is alſo of white marble, and the ſculptures of exquiſite workmanſhip. The park, in which the convent ſtands, is of great extent, and contains ſeveral large towns within it. The monks wear white garments, and are very hoſpitable: they ſing the ſacred offices in ſo ſlow and ſolemn a manner, that they conſtantly ſpend fourteen hours every day in the choir.

3. The town of Cremona on the Po is the ſee of a biſhop, and ſtrongly fortified. It has a bridge of boats over the river, an univerſity, a ſuperb cathedral, many other churches, convents, chapels, and other buildings.

The duchies of Parma and Placentia, which are united, lie to the north of Genoa, and belong to the crown of Spain. They are fertile and well watered, contain various minerals, and have ſome manufactures in them.

The city of Parma, which gives name to one of the diſtricts, is large and populous; it is ſituated on the river Parma, from which it derives its name, and by which it is divided into two parts, connected together by ſeveral bridges. It is four miles in circumference, and contains between forty and fifty thouſand inhabitants, with many fine ſtreets and houſes. The ducal palace conſiſts of three courts, two of which are new. Here is an univerſity, founded in 1599; and an academy, in 1601. The large theatre here, built by Renatus I. in 1618, is famous throughout Europe: it will contain upwards of ſeven thouſand ſpectators.

The other duchy, namely, Placentia, conſiſts of a large city near the Po. It contains many churches and convents, and about twenty-eight thouſand inhabitants. The citadel is ſtrong, but the other fortifications are inconſiderable. It had its name from its delightful ſituation in the midſt of a ſpacious fertile plain, where the paſtures are extremely rich. Here is an univerſity, a ducal palace, and a ſtately cathedral, with a fine church, called St. Maria in Campagna. The main ſtreet, ſtiled Stradona, is a very fine one. The biſhop of this city is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan. The Via Æmilia begins here, and extends as far as Rimini, on the Adriatic. There are ſome ſalt ſprings in the neighbourhood of this city.

Guaſtalla, which is a ſmall duchy, likewiſe belongs to Spain, is twelve miles long, and five broad, but contains no place worth mentioning, except Guaſtalla, which gives name to it, and is a ſmall fortified town on the river Croſtolo This duchy likewiſe belongs to Spain.

The duchy of Modena is ſituated eaſt of Parma, extends fifty-ſix miles in length, and is from twenty-four to thirty-ſix broad. The duke is a vaſſal of the empire. This country is well watered, and abounds with many neceſſaries of life, has in it many minerals, petrifactions, &c.

The city of Modena, the capital, is large, populous, and well fortified, but not handſome. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a large, unwieldy cathedral. The ducal palace is a very noble edifice, in which, among the other fine pictures, the birth of Chriſt, by Correggio, called la Notte Felice, is much celebrated. The only manufacture, for which this city is noted, is that of maſks, of which great numbers are exported. The tutelary ſaint of it is named Geminianus.

The city of Mirandola ſtands about twenty-four miles north-eaſt from Modena: this is a ſtrong, but not very large place, with a citadel. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and the capital of the principality to which it gives name, and which for a long time belonged to the noble family of Pico. Of this family and city was the famed Picus de Mirandola, whoſe works are well known among the learned; and being printed in a large and ſmall character, give name to the two ſizes of letter called double and ſingle pica uſed by printers.

Maſſa and Carrara, two little principalities, are contiguous to one another, and very fruitful. They both have their names from their capitals, and lie on the Tuſcan ſea. Maſſa, ſituated on the river Frigido, about three miles from the ſea, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Piſa, and has a ducal palace. Carrara is a ſmall neat town on the little river Lavenza, four miles from Maſſa, and as many from the ſea, at the foot of ſome high mountains, which yield a fine ſort of marble, from which the duke derives a conſiderable income.

The diſtrict of Mantua, which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, is ſurrounded by the popedom, Venice, Milan, and Modena. It is about ſixty miles long, but not above ſeven broad; is fertile, and well watered.

The capital city, Mantua, is very antient, having been founded prior to Rome. It is ſituated in a marſh, which renders it naturally ſtrong, but at the ſame time renders the air unwholſome. The bridges are guarded by forts. The walls are four miles in circuit, and the number of the inhabitants (excluſive of the imperial garriſon, and about five thouſand Jews, who live in a diſtinct quarter, and have ſeveral ſynagogues) about ſixteen thouſand. Here are a great many convents and churches, with ſome fine ſquares, ſtreets, and houſes; but the city is much declined from what it was when it had dukes of its own. The riding-ſchool has not its equal; and the courſe is alſo well contrived. The ducal palace is old, and now much neglected, but the church belonging to it has a vaſt collection of riches, gold and ſilver crucifixes, ſtatues, and ſome good pictures. Mantua is an epiſcopal ſee, dependent on the pope. The cathedral, of which Julio Romano was the architect, contains ſome fine paintings, particularly a night-piece by Paul Veroneſe.

We are now come to the republic of Venice, which roſe from a very ſmall beginning to great conſequence. That cluſter of iſlands, where the city of Venice now ſtands, was originally inhabited only by fiſhermen; but, when Italy was invaded firſt by Alaric the Goth, and afterwards by Attila the Hunn, great numbers of the people fled thither for ſhelter with all their wealth. From that time a city gradually roſe, grew powerful from its ſituation, and opulent from commerce. A republic was formed, trade furniſhed the people with riches, riches gave birth to ambition; ambition urged them to conqueſt, and conqueſt procured them additional territories both in Europe and

Aſia. Thus by rapid ſtrides they roſe to great importance; but arriving at the zenith of their glory, they with almoſt equal velocity began to decline.

After many revolutions, an ariſtocratical form of government was at length eſtabliſhed in Venice. The nobles, who aſſumed the ſupreme authority, are about two thouſand in number, have each the title of Excellency, and wear as a mark of diſtinction black furred gowns reaching to their heels, with long caps and perriwigs. Some of the nobles, however, are ſo extremely poor, as to be obliged to beg of thoſe who are more opulent.

At the head of the government is the doge, whoſe office was once hereditary, and power abſolute; but the former is now elective, and the latter very much circumſcribed; in ſhort, this governor has little more than the ſhadow of greatneſs, and has been juſtly defined to be in habit and ſtate a king, in authority a counſellor, in the city a priſoner, and out of it a private perſon: he is as much ſubject to the laws as the meaneſt perſon; and when he dies there is no public mourning. But though the power of the doge is very ſmall, his ſtate and retinue are very ſplendid: his title is that of Serenity, and his office is for life. The yearly revenue of his office is about four thouſand pounds, and though he may be depoſed, he cannot reſign his dignity.

The principal Venetian order of knighthood is that of St. Mark, the badge of which is a large golden medal dependent from the breaſt. The order of Conſtantine knights wear a croſs hanging from a gold chain. The Inquiſition is under great reſtrictions here.

The naval power of the Venetians is the greateſt in Italy, as they can equip a formidable fleet. The army conſiſts of between twenty and thirty thouſand men, principally Swiſs and Dalmatians; and the commander in chief, ſtiled Capitano, is always a foreigner of diſtinction. The ordinary revenues of the ſtate, ariſing chiefly from the cuſtoms and duties on ſalt, amount annually to about one million two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling.

Several iſlands, and a ſmall part of the continent, compoſe the duchy (or dagado) of Venice; which contain the capital city of Venice, which is alſo the ſeat of the republic. It is ſituated four miles from any part of the Terra Firma, betwixt the city and which are many ſhallows, when, at low water, the bottom may be touched with a pole; but all poſſible care is taken to prevent their becoming dry land. The city is divided into many canals, on which the gondoliers, or boatmen, ply in their black gondolas, or boats. The ſtreets are clean, but narrow and crooked.

The moſt remarkable places in the city are the ducal palace, the ſquare, and church of St. Mark, who is the tutelar ſaint of Venice, the mint, public library, grand arſenal, ſeveral of the palaces of the nobles, churches, convents, and hoſpitals. In theſe laſt is a prodigious collection of the fineſt paintings; Venice, in this reſpect, ſurpaſſing even Rome itſelf. In the doge's palace, all the high colleges hold their aſſemblies. In this palace is a ſmall arſenal, furniſhed with arms againſt any ſudden inſurrection of the people, together with a ſtate priſon, a great many exquiſite paintings, and ſeveral curioſities. One ſide of it is towards St. Mark's ſquare; and the lower gallery on that ſide, with the hall under the new procuratie facing it, are called the Broglio, where the nobility, and none elſe, at leaſt while they are preſent, are allowed to walk.

St. Mark's ſquare is the zecca or mint; from zecca, the golden coin called zecchino takes its name. One of the ſmalleſt pieces of money at Venice is called gazetta; and the firſt newſpapers were from thence ſtyled Gazettes.

The grand arſenal, rope-walk, foundery, and ſalt-petre works here, deſerve a traveller's notice. Cloſe to the Rialto is the bank. There are two academies for painting at Venice, where the diſciples draw from the life.

The German factory contains about five hundred rooms, and is the general magazine for all goods that either come from, or are to be ſent to Germany. The Venetian trade, though on the decline, is ſtill conſiderable, particularly that of plate and other kinds of glaſs. Independent of what is called the city, many ſcattered and circumjacent iſlands are covered with buildings; among theſe, is Murano, which contains the celebrated glaſs manufactory: here, is alſo a palace, adorned with a gallery of admirable paintings, belonging to the Cornaro family.

The diverſions of the Venetians are chiefly maſquerading, eſpecially during the carnival, and other feſtivals; ridotos, operas, plays, which are generally wretched performances, and concerts of vocal and inſtrumental muſic. During their feſtivals, debauchery, riot, and licentiouſneſs, are carried to the greateſt height. The grand ſcene of all the ſhows and follies of the feſtivals, is the ſquare of St. Mark, in which bulls are ſometimes baited.

The marriage of the doge to the ſea, on Aſcenſion-day, being one of their greateſt ſolemnities, we ſhall here preſent our readers with a particular deſcription of it: On Aſcenſion-day, the doge, or in caſe of his illneſs, the vice-doge, who is always one of the ſix conſiglieri, performs the annual ceremony of marrying the Adriatic ſea in a barge called the bucentaur, which is pompouſly gilt and carved. At about ten in the morning, the ſignal being given by the firing of great guns, and ringing of bells, he goes on board this veſſel, and accompanied by ſeveral thouſand barks and gondolas, a great number of gallies finely ornamented, and the ſplendid yachts of foreign ambaſſadors, is rowed out to ſea, about two hundred paces towards the iſlands of St. Lido and St. Eraſmo. The patriarch and dignified clergy come on board the bucentaur, and preſent the doge and ſignora, as they paſs, with noſegays or artificial flowers, which, at their return, they make preſents of to their acquaintance. The doge, at his putting off and return, is ſaluted by the cannon of a fort on the Lido, and by thoſe on the iſland Eraſmo, and with the ſmall arms of the ſoldiers, who are drawn up along the Lido ſhore. The iſlands lie about two Italian miles from the city; and an eminence on the iſland of Lido affords a diſtinct view of this pompous proceſſion, and of the vaſt number of boats, &c. which cover the ſurface of the water, and make a beautiful appearance. In the mean time ſeveral hymns are performed on board the bucentaur, by the band of muſic belonging to St. Mark's church, and ſeveral prayers appointed for the occaſion are read or ſung, till the doge has paſſed the two forts of Lido and St. Eraſmo; and then he proceeds a little farther towards the Lido ſhore, the ſtern of his barge being turned towards the main ſea. Here the patriarch pours into the ſea ſome holy water, which is ſaid to have the virtue of preventing and allaying ſtorms. After this the doge, through an aperture near his ſeat, drops into the ſea a gold ring of a few dollars value, ſaying, in Latin, "We eſpouſe thee, O ſea, in token "of our real and perpetual dominion over thee." After this all return, and the doge with his company is ſet aſhore near the church of St. Nicholas, in the iſland of St. Lido, where the patriarch in perſon celebrates a ſolemn maſs. In the evening the principal members of the council, and all who waited upon the doge in the bucentaur, are entertained at the ducal palace.

Padua territory is thirty-five miles long, twenty-eight broad, and exceeding fertile. The capital, of the ſame name, is one of the richeſt and moſt flouriſhing cities of Italy, yet it has not much of its antient ſplendor. It is ſituated on the Brenta, thirty-four miles eaſt of Venice, and has many churches, hoſpitals, and convents; but the ſtreets are narrow and dirty. The univerſity, which was formerly in great repute, for ſome time has been on the decline, but the phyſic-garden is ſtill conſiderable. The Franciſcan church and chapel of St. Antony are ſplendid beyond imagination. This city is the ſee of a biſhop; in the podeſta's palace is the library, and in the old caſtle, an arſenal and granary. The territory is ſubject to violent ſtorms; but the air is healthful.

The territory of Veroneſe is very fertile, but contains only one place worth mentioning; viz. Verona, on the Adige, a large, ſtrong city, in a fine ſituation. Over the river are four bridges, of which that one which leads to the caſtle is much admired. The caſtles are three in number, the ſtreets narrow and dirty, the houſes mean. The beſt ſtreet in the city is that called the Corſo, where horſe and foot races are ſometimes run. The largeſt ſquare is that called Piazza d'Armi, where the annual fairs were formerly kept, in April and Autumn. Here are ſeveral academies for the improvement of muſic, polite exerciſes, &c. an elegant theatre, and a Roman amphitheatre in fine preſervation. The wine of this country is admirable, and the territory well watered, fertile, and healthy.

The city of Vicenza, which is large, contains about thirty thouſand inhabitants. Over the principal river are ſeveral bridges; without the city is a triumphal arch built by Palladio; but the city walls are gone to decay. There are a great many elegant buildings within it, particularly in the piazza before the council-houſe; for, beſides the cathedral, and other churches, and the convents, which are numerous, there are ſeveral hoſpitals, and ſome fine palaces. The council-houſe is a ſtately fabric, and ſo is the Monte della Pieta; in the latter of which is a fine library. Here

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are ſtill to be ſeen ſome remains of a Roman amphitheatre, of a noble aqueduct, and ſeveral magnificent hot baths. The circumjacent territory is extremely fertile.

Breſciano, which is alſo a tolerably fertile and well watered territory, contains no place worth obſerving but Breſcia, which gives name to it, and is its capital, ſtanding in a pleaſant plain near the little river Garza. The caſtle ſtands on a rock, and commands the whole town, and the arſenal is well furniſhed with warlike ſtores. This town is not above three miles in circuit, but is very populous, and drives a conſiderable trade in fire-arms, ſwords, knives, and other cutlery wares.

Bergamaſco is in general barren, though well watered, and the inhabitants are ſubject to the ſame kinds of wens in the throat as the Savoyards. Bergama, a ſtrongly fortified town at the foot of the Alps, is the only place in it.

The town of Crema, in the territory of Cremano, which is fruitful and pleaſant, is ſituated on the Serio, being ſtrong, handſome, the ſee of a biſhop, and famed for a linen manufactory. Rovigo, a ſmall fertile diſtrict, contains a town of the ſame name that is thinly inhabited; and Adria, which formerly gave name to the Adriatic, is a biſhop's ſee.

The diſtrict of Marca Trevigniana is ſo fertile, as to have obtained the name of a Continental Garden. Treviſo, the capital, ſtands on the river Site, where it joins the Peaveſella. This is a biſhop's ſee, has given birth to many great perſonages, and contains at preſent ſome noble families. It is an antient, but ſtrong; a neat, but not populous place.

The territory called Patria del Friuli is the northern verge of Italy, and belongs partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Auſtrians. It is very fertile, but does not contain any conſiderable place, except the city of Udino, on the river or canal La Roia. It hath a fine caſtle, with ſeveral handſome churches, palaces, and convents; beſides a college for law, and an academy for martial exerciſes.

The peninſula of Iſtria, on the Adriatic, belongs partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Auſtrians. The air is unwholſome; but the territory, though hilly, is fruitful.

The ſtrong town of Capo de Iſtria is ſituated on an iſland in the gulf, ſo near the continent as to be joined by a bridge. It is the ſee of a biſhop, contains many convents, and its trade in ſalt is very conſiderable.

The little republic of Lucca, on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, is a miniature portrait of Venice. It is not thirty miles in circumference, but is fertile and populous. The inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to upwards of one hundred and twenty thouſand, are very induſtrious, but extremely jealous of the Tuſcans, by whom they are almoſt ſurrounded. The forces of the republic amount, in time of peace, to about ſix hundred men, including the doge or gonfaloniers guard of Switzers, which conſiſts of ſeventy-ſix men; but there are above thirty thouſand in the territory of Lucca capable of bearing arms. The government is veſted in two councils, of which one is called the council of ſtate, and the other the great council, the executive being in the former, conſiſting of nine members beſides the doge, who continue in office only two months, and, during that time, have apartments in the palace of the republic, and are maintained at the public expence. The annual revenue amounts to about eighty thouſand pounds ſterling.

Lucca, the capital, and the only place in this territory worth deſcribing, is about three Italian miles in circumference, and well fortified. The walls afford very pleaſant walks, being planted with rows of trees. The number of inhabitants is about forty thouſand. The houſes are for the moſt part well built, and the ſtreets broad and well paved, but irregular. Several manufactories, particularly of ſilk, are carried on, and the fineſt oil in Italy is made here. This is the ſee of a biſhop. The cathedral is a large Gothic ſtructure, dedicated to St. Martin.

The republic of Genoa is greatly degenerated from its former ſplendor; but, among other misfortunes, the revolt of Corſica ſeems to have been the greateſt. The government is ariſtocratical. The doge or duke is choſen only for two years, and muſt be fifty years of age at the time of his election. The legiſlative power is lodged in the great council, conſiſting of four hundred members, of which four parts in five muſt be unanimous. The adminiſtration is veſted in a doge and a proper council. The doge has a guard of two hundred men. The great council make laws and raiſe money, the leſſer declare war, proclaim peace, and form alliances. The military is inconſiderable, the navy deſpicable, and the revenue at preſent ſmall.

The territories belonging to the Genoeſe are one hundred and ſixty miles in length, and about twenty-five in breadth. They extend along that part of the Mediterranean called the gulf of Genoa. They are tolerably fertile, pretty well watered, and divided into two diſtricts, viz. the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts.

The eaſtern coaſt contains Genoa, the capital, which ſtands near the Mediterranean ſea. As it is partly ſituated on a declivity, it appears to great advantage from the ſea. It is defended on the land-ſide by a double wall. The new and Balbi ſtreets conſiſt each of a double row of magnificent palaces; the other ſtreets are crooked and narrow; but the ſuburb of San Pietra d'Arena contains many noble buildings. Here are ſeveral palaces, churches, convents, hoſpitals, &c. many of which are ſuperbly built of marble. The fineſt of the churches are thoſe of the Annunciation, St. Mary Carignan, St. Dominic, and St. Martha. In the cathedral is a diſh made of a ſingle emerald. All the inhabitants here, except the principal ladies who are carried in chairs, walk on foot, on account of the narrowneſs or ſteepneſs of the ſtreets. The fortifications of the city towards the ſea are remarkably ſtrong. There are two fine ſtone-bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Biſagno, the firſt whereof waſhes the weſt, and the other the eaſt ſide of the city, within which there is alſo a ſurpriſing ſtone-bridge, joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being ſafe, but no care or expence have been ſpared to render it as ſafe and commodious as poſſible.

The principal places on the weſtern coaſt are as follow, viz. 1. Savona, which, next to Genoa, is the moſt conſiderable city of the ſtates. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan; has a ſtrong caſtle, is well fortified, and famed for the fineſt ſweetmeats. Here alſo is a conſiderable ſilk manufactory; and there was once a good harbour, until it was partly choaked up, by order of the republic, that it might not hurt the trade of Genoa. 2. St. Remo, a ſmall town on the ſea, with a good harbour, ſeventeen miles eaſt of Nice. The town in Latin is called Fanum Romuli. There are many plantations of palm-trees about it, with olives, lemons, pomegranates, and other fine fruits.

The ſmall principality of Monaco lies between the Genoeſe territories and the county of Nice. The only place worth mentioning here, is that which gives name to the principality, viz. Monaco, antiently called Herculis Monæci Portus, from a temple of Hercules, that ſtood here. It is eight miles eaſt of Nice, and ſix weſt of Vintimiglia, and, though ſmall, is ſtrong both by nature and art, having a good harbour, with a caſtle and garriſon, paid and officered by the king of France; and in this town the prince uſually reſides. The income amounts to near five hundred thouſand French livres.

The duchy of Tuſcany is encompaſſed by that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuſcan ſea, Modena, Lucca, and the popedom. It is one hundred and ſixteen miles long, eighteen broad, well watered, mountainous in ſome parts, but fertile in others. The only order of knighthood here is that of St. Stephen, inſtituted in 1554; the duke is always grand maſter, and the badge of the order is an octangular red croſs, with a golden border worn on the breaſt. The great duke is an abſolute prince. His forces, however, ſeldom conſiſt of more than three regiments of foot and two of dragoons, and his navy is made up of only a few gallies and galleaſſes.

The city of Florence, the capital of the duchy, is ſituated on the Arno, twenty-ſix miles ſouth of Venice. It gives name to a populous and fertile diſtrict. Here are four ſtone-bridges over the Arno; the number of churches, palaces, hoſpitals, and convents, is great, but the ſtreets are crooked and narrow. The palaces here are inferior to thoſe of Rome, and moſt of the windows are only made of paper. The chapel for the interment of the great dukes in the church of St. Lozenzo, is hardly to be paralleled. Here is an academy for the improvement of the Tuſcan language, called Della Cruſca; another for agriculture, and another for riding. The principal trade, beſides oil, wine, fruits, and other produce of the country, conſiſts in wrought ſilks, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The nobility and gentry do not think it below them to trade; they even ſell their wine by retail out of doors, but not in their houſes; at the ſame time they deem it a great diſparagement to educate their children in the profeſſion of phyſic. They write the Italian here very well; but their pronunciation is guttural, and diſagreeable.

Florence is adorned with ſeven fountains, ſix columns, two pyramids, and about one hundred and ſixty ſtatues. Moſt of the Florentines are ſhort ſighted; and hence the Florentini cicchi, or blind Florentines, has paſſed into a proverbial

proverbial jeſt. The great piazza or ſquare is very ſpacious and magnificent, with a noble fountain in the midſt of it. The arſenal is a ſtately building, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of weapons of war, kept in very good order. The cathedral is a very magnificent edifice, the whole outſide being of poliſhed marble, and enriched with the moſt exquiſite architecture and ſculpture. The celebrated Campanile, or ſquare ſteeple, which is one hundred and eighty feet high, all of fine marble, of ſeveral colours, and curiouſly wrought, ſtands hard by the church.

The city of Piſa, on the Arno, has ſeveral handſome ſtreets and houſes; but graſs grows in many of the latter. The univerſity is in a flouriſhing condition, and the exchange is magnificent, but little frequented. The great duke's gallies are built, and commonly ſtationed here. This city is the principal reſidence of the order of St. Stephen, and the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral, a large gothic pile, contains a great number of excellent paintings, and other curioſities. The echo of the baptiſtry exceeds that near Milan, though the repetitions are not quite ſo diſtinct.

This city has, for its defence, a moat, walls, a caſtle, fort, and a citadel; the laſt of which is a modern work. Hard by the cathedral is the city burying-ground, called Il Campo Santo, and in that the famous leaning tower, the inclination of which is ſo great, that a plumb line let down from the top touches the ground at the diſtance of near fifteen feet from the bottom. The phyſic garden is very ſpacious, contains a great number of plants, and is decorated with waterworks: over the door leading into it are theſe words, "Hic Argus, ſed non Briareus eſto;" i. e. "Employ the eyes of Argus, but not the hands of Briareus." A neceſſary caution in many places. The Arno is a conſiderable breadth, and has three bridges over it, one of them marble: it falls into the ſea two leagues below the town.

The city of Leghorn, thirty miles ſouth-weſt from Florence, in the territory of Piſa, makes a handſome appearance. The harbour is too ſhallow for large ſhips. It is fortified, but wants good water, which muſt be brought from Piſa. The port, conſiſting of two havens, one for the duke's gallies, and the other for merchant ſhips, is ſurrounded with a double mole above a mile and a half in length, and defended, together with the town, by a good citadel and twelve forts. The walks on the ramparts are very agreeable. There is good anchorage in the road, but ſhips riding there are much expoſed to the weather, and the Barbary corſairs. The light-houſe ſtands on a rock in the ſea, near which is the Lazaretto, where quarantine is performed. The number of the inhabitants is about forty thouſand, and one half of theſe Jews, who live in a particular quarter, but without any mark of diſtinction, and have a fine ſynagogue. The Turks, who are not ſlaves, alſo live in a particular quarter, as do the licenſed proteſtants, Roman Catholics, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, Mahometans, and even the Engliſh factory are indulged in the public exerciſe of their religion; but other proteſtants muſt be ſatisfied with private. Leghorn is the ſee of a biſhop, and reſidence of a governor, has a fine ducal palace, and a noble cathedral. The power of the inquiſition is limited to eccleſiaſtical matters, and Roman Catholics.

The large and antient city of Sienna ſtands thirty-eight miles ſouth of Florence. It has a fertile pleaſant territory of near ſixty-five miles ſquare. The city is clean, neat, and healthy, but not populous. The inhabitants are polite, and ſpeak the Italian language in its utmoſt purity. The walls are adorned with many high towers of brick, and the ſtreets paved with bricks ſet edge-ways. Here is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and the cathedral is a very magnificent gothic pile. Fronting the cathedral is a ſpacious and well-endowed hoſpital, founded by a ſhoemaker, who is interred in the church, and as a reward for his liberality, hath been canonized. Over the ſtatue erected to his memory is this appoſite inſcription, "Sutor ultra crepidam;" "The ſhoemaker went beyond his laſt." The arms of this city are Romulus and Remus ſucking a wolf, for it pretends to have been a colony founded by theſe two brothers.

SECT. III.

Of the Perſons, Character and Diſpoſition, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the ITALIANS; with the Antient and Modern Hiſtory of ITALY.

HAVING, in our deſcriptions of the various ſtates of Italy, alſo mentioned many particulars relative to the cuſtoms, manners, religion, forces, revenues, &c. of the Italians; we need only add the following remarks; viz. That the inhabitants are uſually well-proportioned, though their complexions are none of the beſt. As to dreſs, they follow the faſhions of the countries on which they border, or to which they are ſubject, namely, thoſe of France, Spain, and Germany. With reſpect to their genius and taſte in architecture, painting, carving, and muſic, they excel greatly, and leave the other nations of Europe far behind them; but their muſic ſeems too ſoft and effeminate to deſerve all the praiſe beſtowed on it; and their houſes are far inferior to thoſe of England, in reſpect of convenience. No country hath produced better politicians, hiſtorians, poets, painters, and ſculptors, ſince the revival of the arts and ſciences, excluſive of thoſe of antient times. They are affable, courteous, ingenious, ſober, and ready-witted; but at the ſame time jealous, vindictive, laſcivious, ceremonious, and ſuperſtitious. The Italians, in their tempers, ſeem to be a good medium between the French and Spaniards, neither ſo gay and volatile as the one, nor ſo grave and ſolemn as the other. With reſpect to their diet, boiled ſnails, ſerved up with oil and pepper, or fried in oil, and the hinder parts of frogs, are reckoned dainty diſhes. Kites, jackdaws, hawks, and magpies, are alſo eaten, not only by the common people, but the better ſort. Wine is drank here both in ſummer and winter, cooled by ice or ſnow. The women admire yellow hair, as the Roman ladies and courteſans formerly did. They alſo uſe paint and waſhes, both for their hands and faces.

The Roman Catholic religion predominates here. They reckon the day from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet, as the Athenians did of old. The Italian language is corrupted Latin; but ſince the revival of arts in Italy, it hath been ſo much refined, that it is now deemed elegant, ſoft, and ſmooth. The pureſt Italian is ſpoken in Tuſcany. The exports are chiefly wine, oil, perfumes, fruits, and ſilks. Travellers alſo expend large ſums of money in Italy, in purchaſing pictures, curioſities, antiquities, relics, &c.

In thoſe early ages, when the Romans firſt began to extend their territories, Italy, like moſt other countries, was parcelled out into a great number of ſmall ſtates, who were all gradually ſubdued by the Romans. On the declenſion of the Roman empire, the Huns, Goths, Vandals, Heruli, and other northern nations, paſſed the Alps, and ſeized on the greateſt part of it, which was overturned by Charlemagne, who founded a new empire in the weſt. The ſucceſſors of Charlemagne claimed, and for ſome time poſſeſſed, the ſovereignty of Italy; but their civil wars at home ſoon gave an opportunity to their governors either to aſſume or purchaſe the ſovereignty of the ſeveral ſtates they governed.

In proceſs of time, Savoy and Piedmont fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia, by virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718. Victor Amadeus, the preſent king, was born in 1726; and in 1773 ſucceeded his father Charles Emanuel.

After going through ſeveral hands, the Milaneſe was at length poſſeſſed by the emperor Charles V, about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, by the Imperialiſts, in 1706. Theſe were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743, but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it reverted to the houſe of Auſtria, who has appointed a viceroy to govern it.

Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was fortified, as a fief of the empire to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtella was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma. The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the dutchy having been annexed to the holy ſee in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent Catholic majeſty, obtained that dutchy, which, with that of Placentia, is now held by his nephew.

In antient times, the Venetians were the moſt formidable power in Europe. They conquered Conſtantinople itſelf in 1193, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. The Turks, by degrees, took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent, and they loſt the Morea ſo late as the year 1715.

For a conſiderable time, the Genoeſe diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but

were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and Imperialiſts. They are, at preſent, poſſeſſed of a revenue barely ſufficient to maintain their dignity.

Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies till the year 1240, when the famous diſtinction of the Gwelphs, partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the Imperial governments in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom, and the family of Medici, long before they were declared princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the father of his country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendants, Coſmo, (the great patron of the arts) the title of great duke of Tuſcany, in 1750, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſtin de Medicis, in 1773, who left no iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law the duke of Lorrain, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, brother to the preſent emperor, is now grand duke, and the country aſſumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade; and, in order to prevent the depredations of the infidels, ſeveral ſhips of conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts.

Naples, or Sicily, has undergone many viciſſitudes of government, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives. Chriſtians and Saracens conquered it by turns. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and, by their connections with the Greeks eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhed in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, when they annexed it to the dominions of that monarchy.

By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of the Two Sicilies. This was followed by a very bloody campaign; but the farther effuſion of human blood was ſtopped by a peace between France and the Emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon Ferdinand III. who is now the reigning king of the Two Sicilies.

The power of the papacy is now evidently at a low ebb. The order of jeſuits, who are not improperly ſtiled his janiſſaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other popiſh countries. The pontiff himſelf is treated by Roman catholic princes with little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. The preſent emperor has alſo lately given a great check in his dominions to the papal tyranny. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe; and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom. The preſent pope, John Angelo Braſchi, who aſſumed the name of Pius VI. was born in 1717, and elected to the pontifical chair in 1775.

CHAP. XVIII.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

HUNGARY.

THIS country includes ſeveral provinces, which are incorporated with it; namely, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia. Hungary, (which received its name from the Hunns, a Scythian nation, who poſſeſſed themſelves of it in the ninth century) lies between the eighteenth and twenty-ſecond degree eaſt longitude, and the forty-fifth and forty-ninth degree north latitude, is three hundred miles long, and two hundred broad; has Servia ſouth; the Carpathian mountains, north; Walachia and Tranſylvania, eaſt; Moravia, Stiria, and Auſtria, weſt. The northern parts are mountainous and barren, but wholſome; the ſouthern diſtricts are level, and fertile, but unwholſome. The mountains contain a great variety of minerals, and even diamonds. Corn is very plentiful; and the Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, exceed all in Europe. Horſes, cattle, fiſh, and all kinds of vegetables abound, as do wild beaſts and various kinds of game. The low lands, excluſive of rivers, are watered by ſeveral lakes. We have already taken notice of the principal mountains and rivers, in our account of Germany and Poland.

The province of Hungary is divided into Upper and Lower. The former contains, 1. Zemplin, on the Bodrogh, which gives name to a county that contains ſeveral conſiderable towns, and many vineyards that yield excellent wine, particularly that which takes its name from Tokay, a conſiderable town, pleaſantly ſituated near the conflux of the Theis and Bodrogh. The wine called Tokay grows only on one mountain; but that of the neighbourhood, which uſually paſſes under the ſame name, is little inferior to it.

2. The caſtle of Skepus gives name to a county of great extent, abounding in ſome parts with fruitful corn fields, rich paſtures, pulſe, and flax, and in others with woods and mountains, ſome of which are among the loftieſt of the Carpathian chain. The county of Skepus affords no wine, but there are ſome iron and copper mines in it.

3. The city of Erlau is alſo a biſhop's ſee, forty-five miles north-eaſt of Buda, has a caſtle and warm bath, and in the neighbourhood are vineyards.

4. The city of Great Varadin, or Waradin, is ſituated on the river Koros, in the county of Bihar, one hundred and ten miles eaſt of Buda: it is well fortified, and the ſee of a biſhop. It has a ſtrong caſtle on the eaſt ſide. The royal free town of Debretzen, which is large and populous, is alſo in the county of Bihar.

5. On the river Beg, ſtands the ſtrong town of Temes-Var, which is the capital of the Bannat, or territory to which it gives name, and which (one ſmall diſtrict excepted, which was ceded to the Turks, at the treaty of Belgrade, in 1739) belongs entirely to the emperor. Beſides others of leſs note, there is a ſtrong town in the Bannat, called Lugos, ſituated among mountains.

The principal places in Lower Hungary are, 1. Nitra, on a river of the ſame name; it is a well peopled, but mean-built town, with a biſhop, whoſe palace and cathedral are in the caſtle.

2. Leopoldſtadt, a ſtrongly fortified place on the Wag, and the only town in theſe parts which could make head againſt an enemy in caſe of a ſiege.

3. The town of Preſburg, the capital of the kingdom, called by the inhabitants Poſony and Preſporen, is ſituated on the Danube, about forty-ſix miles eaſt from Vienna. The caſtle, in which the regalia are kept, ſtands on a hill above the town. Here the ſtates aſſemble, and in the cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, the ſovereign is crowned. The town is not very large, nor well built, but is very antient, pleaſantly ſituated, and enjoys a good air. Its fortifications are only a double wall and ditch. Beſides the cathedral, there are ſeveral other popiſh and one Lutheran church, with a jeſuit's college, three convents, and two hoſpitals. It gives name to a county, and is the reſidence of the archbiſhop of Gran, who is legatus natus of the papal ſee, prince of the holy Roman empire, and alſo primate, chief ſecretary, and chancellor of the kingdom.

4. The caſtle of Lepto-Ujvar-Hradek gives name to a county every where full of mountains and rocks, higher than thoſe of the Alps; one in particular, called Beni-kova, is three thouſand paces perpendicular in height. They abound in metals, minerals, and medicinal ſprings, with caverns, in which are many curious figures in drop-ſtone. The birds who fly over ſome of theſe mineral ſprings are ſuffocated by the exhalations ariſing from them.

5. The royal free town of Gran, thirty-five miles from Preſburg, and nine-two from Vienna, is ſituated on the Danube, where it is joined by the river Gran. The town is well fortified, gives name to a county, and has a caſtle on a high rock, in which is the cathedral. Here are ſome natural warm baths. The neighbouring country is very pleaſant and fruitful, and yields excellent wine.

In this diſtrict are two towns of the name of Buda, the Old and the New. Old Buda is but a poor, mean place, but the New is a royal free town, ſtanding on the Danube, ſeventy-five miles from Preſburg, and one hundred and ſix from Vienna. It is well fortified, and was the capital of the kingdom and reſidence of the king, until it was ſeized by the Turks in 1529, in whoſe hands it continued till 1689.

The neighbouring country yields a good red wine, and excellent melons. Hard by the town is the iſland of St. Andrew, in the Danube, eight miles long, and eight broad: and near it, on the banks of the river, is the town of St. Andrew, which makes a better figure than Buda itſelf. A few miles alſo below Buda is another iſland, called Eſepel, which formerly belonged to Prince Eugene, who had a ſeat in the neighbourhood, where he often reſided.

The principal mine town in Hungary is Schemnitz, chiefly inhabited by proteſtants. The gold and ſilver mines ſtill produce a conſiderable quantity of ore (though ſhort of what they did formerly) and about one thouſand workmen are employed in them.

The town of Cremnitz, the capital of the county of Beps, contains a mint; but the mines are almoſt exhauſted.

The Hungarians are fierce, cruel, proud, and revengeful; better ſoldiers than merchants, and huntſmen than ſcholars. The nobility affect pomp, gluttony, and drunkenneſs. The men are ſtrong and well made; they ſhave their beards, leave whiſkers on the upper lip, wear furs on the head, a cloſe-bodied coat girt with a ſaſh, and a ſhort cloak buckled under the arm, in order to leave the right hand at liberty. The horſe, who carry a broad-ſword and battle-axe, are called Huſſars, and the foot are named Heydukes. Here are five languages ſpoken, viz. the Hungarian, Sclavonian, Walachian, German, and Latin. The trade of the country is in the hands of the Jews and Greeks. Though not above a fourth part of the people are Roman catholics, yet that religion is the eſtabliſhed one; but proteſtants, and particularly thoſe of the Greek church are tolerated, and Jews are doubly taxed.

The crown of Hungary has been in poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians ever ſince 1527, and it was finally ſettled on the heirs male of the houſe of Auſtria in 1687; and, in 1723, in caſe of their failure, on the female heir. The ordinary revenue of the kingdom exceeds a million ſterling, ariſing from the mines, duties on cattle, royal demeſnes, ſalt-works, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, &c. The fortifications and garriſons, conſtantly maintained on the frontiers againſt the Turks, are a great expence to the government. Hungary can eaſily bring into the field one hundred thouſand men, regulars and militia; for there are fifty thouſand in actual pay, and the provinces furniſh the other fifty thouſand on an emergency.

The province of Tranſylvania, ſituated to the ſouth of Hungary, being about one hundred and ſixty miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad. Its mountains yield ſilver, iron, lead, copper, quickſilver, rock-ſalt, cinnabar, ſulphur, vitriol, ſalt-petre, antimony, red ochre, iſinglaſs, and other minerals, and ſome are cloathed with vines. Many petrifying, ſalt, and medicinal ſprings, cold and hot, with a great variety of plants, are alſo found among them. The fields and vallies are rich and fertile, yielding corn, pulſe, and fruits; and the foreſts abound with buffaloes, elks, ſtags, wild goats, bears, foxes, martins, lynxes, ermines, beavers, wild aſſes, wolves, bees, &c. Vaſt numbers alſo of black cattle and horſes are bred here. Of the latter there is a wild ſort, with manes hanging down to the ground. The principal rivers are, the Szamos, the Maros, and the Aluta. The inhabitants are of ſeveral ſorts, as Hungarians, Saxons, Walachians, Armenians, Bulgarians, Greeks, Raſcians or Servians, and a people of Tartar origin. Here are alſo Jews and Zigduns, or gypſies, as in Hungary. The proteſtants are much more numerous than the Roman catholics. The ſtates, like thoſe of Hungary, conſiſt of the prelates or clergy, nobility, gentry, and royal towns.

The province of Sclavonia extends from the Adriatic to the Black Sea. This country has Carniola on the weſt, the Danube on the eaſt, the Save on the ſouth, and the Drave on the north; it extends about three hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, and ſeventy from north to ſouth, where broadeſt. It takes its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation, who, about the time of the emperor Juſtinian, poſſeſſed themſelves of this and the neighbouring countries The inhabitants are a mixture of Sclavonians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Venetians, Turks, Servians or Raſcians, and Hungarians. The only religion publicly tolerated is the Roman catholic; yet there are many of the Greek church. Like Tyrol, it pays ten thouſand pounds ſubſidy to the emperor. The air is pleaſant and temperate, the face of the country level, and the ſoil fruitful in corn, wine and paſture.

The principal place is Eſſek, a conſiderable town on the Drave, eighty-ſeven miles north-weſt from Belgrade. It was remarkable once for a wooden bridge, erected by the Turks over the Danube and ſome moraſſes, which was near eight miles in length, and thirty yards in breadth, with rails on each ſide, watch-towers at every quarter of a mile's diſtance, and ſtairs leading down to the marſhes: but in the late wars between the Imperialiſts and Turks, who uſed to invade Hungary, this bridge was deſtroyed by the former.

The province of Croatia, ſituated weſt of Sclavonia, is eighty miles long and ſeventy broad. The Croats, who inhabit this country, derive their origin from the Sclavi, and ſpeak the Sclavonian language. Here is one biſhopric, but not any univerſity or ſeminary; and the towns are not worthy of deſcription. The ſoil, where cultivated, is fruitful in wine and oil, and many other products. Both horſe and foot are good ſoldiers, eſpecially the former, ſerving for much the ſame purpoſe as the huzzars, pandours, and other irregular troops.

The province of Dalmatia belongs to the Venetians, Auſtrians, Turks, and Raguſans; that is, the former have the maritime places, and the three other powers the reſt. The language is Sclavonian, the religion Romiſh; the mountains are clad with olives, vines, myrtles, and ſheep, and lined with gold, ſilver, and other ores; and the plains are fertile. Here and in Carniola is a people called Uſcocks, whoſe language is Walachian, and their religion reſembles that of the Greeks: they are a rough, ſavage race, much addicted to rapine, and noted for their agility, ſkipping like goats from rock to rock.

The capital of Venetian Dalmatia is Lara, the ſee of an archbiſhop. It ſtands one hundred and fifty miles from Venice, on a ſmall peninſula or iſland; for it is ſeparated from the land only by a deep ditch, into which the ſea flows at high water under a draw-bridge. Here is a capacious harbour, and alſo a citadel, in which the proveditor or governor of Dalmatia reſides, and the town is otherwiſe ſo well fortified, that it is deemed impregnable.

The ſmall republic of Raguſa much reſembles Venice in its conſtitution, the government being almoſt entirely in the hands of the nobles. The chief magiſtrate is ſtiled rector, anſwering to the Venetian doge, except that he is changed every month. Here alſo are ſeveral councils, of which that of the pregadi has the chief direction of affairs. To guard the city againſt contagious diſtempers, here is a board of health, conſiſting of five nobles. They are ſo jealous of their neighbours, that the gates of the city are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. Their chief protector is the grand ſignior, to whom they pay an annual tribute of twenty thouſand zequins. The only place of any note in their territory is that from which the republic takes its name, which was antiently called Epidaurus. At preſent it is a ſmall, but well-built town, ſtanding on the ſea coaſt, in a wholſome air, but barren ſoil and having a good harbour, with ſeveral manufactories, and a conſiderable trade. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and ſome ſmall fertile iſlands in the Adriatic belong to it.

CHAP.



A General Perspective View of CONSTANTINOPLE, the Capital of the Turkish Empire.

CHAP. XIX.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

TURKEY IN EUROPE;

Comprehending the DANUBIAN PROVINCES and GREECE.

THE Danubian provinces, which conſtitute a part of the Ottoman empire, are bounded by Aſia on the eaſt, the Adriatic ſea on the weſt, the Hungarian provinces on the north, and the Mediterranean on the ſouth. They are ſix hundred miles long, four hundred and twenty broad, have a fertile ſoil, which is badly cultivated, and a wholſome air at all times, except when the plague rages. It is divided into ſix provinces; namely, I. Romania. II. Bulgaria. III. Servia. IV Boſnia. V. Moldavia. VI. Walachia.

The province of Romania, the antient Thrace, is about two hundred and eighty miles in length, and one hundred and eighty in breadth. The whole is well watered; the mountainous parts are cold, and only the level ones, towards the ſea, are warm and fertile. It is governed by a beglerbeg, who is the chief in Europe, and three ſangiacs.

The principal city is Conſtantinople, the capital of the whole Ottoman empire, and the reſidence of the grand ſeignior. This city is admirably ſituated on a point of land, which is waſhed by the ſea of Marmora to the ſouth, and by the Boſphorus to the eaſt and north; hence it hath not only a fine proſpect, but a communication by water with various parts of the empire. It was antiently called Byzantium, afterwards Conſtantinople, from Conſtantine the Great, and ſometimes the Porte, on account of its being the fineſt port in Europe. It ſtands in forty-one degrees north latitude, and twenty-four degrees forty minutes eaſt longitude, at the diſtance of one thouſand four hundred and thirty-five miles ſouth-eaſt from London. It is ſeparated from Aſia by a canal, is of a triangular form, and, including the ſuburbs, covers a great deal of ground. The ſtreets are badly paved, narrow, and dark; the houſes built of wood and mortar, low and mean; and the fortifications old, decayed, and unimportant. Here are twenty-two gates, ſix towards the land, the reſt towards the ſea. The innumerable bagnios, bazars, ſeraglios, and moſques, with their minorets, make a fine appearance at a diſtance. The moſques, of which there are ſeveral called royal, are handſome buildings, in detached ſituations, ſurrounded by lofty trees, and adorned by fountains. Near the harbour ſtands the ſeraglio, which is a collection of royal buildings, a mile and a half in circumference; below the palace are the gardens, from whence the coaſt of Leſſer Aſia preſents a fine proſpect. The hall of Andrerice, for foreign ambaſſadors, is amazingly magnificent, and contains a moſt ſuperb throne: not only this hall, but the grand ſeignior's and women's apartments, the mint, infirmary, kitchens, ſtables, treaſury, great council-chamber, &c. are within the compaſs of the ſeraglio. Annually forty thouſand cart loads of wood and forty thouſand oxen are conſumed in it for fuel and food. The moſt magnificent moſque is that of St. Sophia, which ſtands oppoſite to the great gate of the ſeraglio upon an eminence, from whence there is a gentle deſcent to the ſea-ſhore. The floors are covered with carpets; and there is a marble pulpit in every one of them, from whence the Mollas ſometimes preach to the people. Here are ſeveral Greek and Armenian, a few Roman Catholic, and one Lutheran church.

Fires are very frequent in this city; and it may not be improper to give a particular account of a moſt deſtructive one which happened on the ſecond of Auguſt, 1782, and deſcribed in the London Gazette.

"It broke out about ten o'clock at night, in the quarter called Gibali, ſituated towards the middle of the harbour, which a high north wind extended to ſuch a degree, as to baffle, for ſome time, the efforts made to ſuppreſs it. This conflagration, the greateſt perhaps that ever happened, continued during ſixty-two hours without intermiſſion, with ſuch fury, that one of the largeſt palaces, the habitation of the Aga of the Janiſſaries, diſappeared in leſs than ten minutes. The flames proceeded from ſea to ſea, and burned even the interior of the ſeven towers, at the oppoſite extremity of the city. In this direction the fire raged three miles in length, through the richeſt and beſt inhabited ſtreets, on a front ſometimes a mile broad, and ſometimes leſs, according to the regular hilly ſituation of the city. In ſome places it extended in different directions; ſo that at one time there appeared no leſs than eleven diſtinct conflagrations, moſt of which ceaſed only at the ſea-ſide, after conſuming the very wharfs. It is impoſſible to eſtimate the loſſes of all kinds occaſioned by this calamity; but it is certain, that numbers of people periſhed in the flames, and that many were driven by them into the ſea, and unfortunately drowned. Amongſt other public edifices, all the chambers of the janiſſaries, upwards of fifty moſques, three hundred corn mills, and two hundred public ovens, have been deſtroyed."

The Atmeidan, where horſe-races were antiently run, is ſtill put to the ſame uſe as it was formerly, for here the Turks throw the gerit or dart riding full ſpeed at the mark. The ſquare is of the ſame dimenſions it was formerly, viz. four hundred paces long, and one hundred broad; but moſt of the fine ſtatues and obeliſks which were in it are deſtroyed: one grand obeliſk, conſiſting of one piece of granite marble, ſtill remains entire, being fifty feet high, and ending in a point.

At the ſouth end of the city is the caſtle of ſeven, or rather eight towers, for an eighth hath been lately added, the whole ſerving as a ſtate priſon. In the markets for live cattle, ſlaves of all ages and ſexes are ſold, and theſe are generally called Chriſtians; but where any of the girls have a good ſhare of beauty that may recommend them to men of figure, they are kept in handſome lodgings by their maſters, and provided with good cloaths, and whatever elſe may recommend them to the purchaſers, and procure a good price.

This city, including gardens, ſuburbs, &c. is very extenſive in circumference, and the inhabitants exceeding numerous, conſiſting not only of Turks, but of a great number of Greeks and other Chriſtians, Armenians, Jews, &c. but the plague often makes dreadful havock amongſt them. The environs are pleaſant; and greater liberty is experienced in the ſuburbs of Galata than any other part of the Ottoman empire, as even taverns are tolerated. Pera is another ſuburb near Galata, where ambaſſadors and miniſters of foreign princes reſide; and the beſt buildings belonging to Conſtantinople are hereabout.

Scutari is a large populous town, to which the merchants of Perſia and other eaſtern countries reſort, and ſupply the city of Conſtantinople with whatever the eaſt affords.

The city of Adrianople, the ſecond in this empire, is about eight miles in circumference; the antient name was Oreſtes, but it received its modern name from the emperor Adrian, who rebuilt it after it had been deſtroyed by an earthquake. Here are ſeveral grand moſques; but the private houſes are meanly built.

The town of Philippopoli received its name from king Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. There is an old wall about the town, which is at preſent not a place of any great ſtrength. It is ſituated in an extenſive plain near the river Mariza, two hundred miles north-weſt of Conſtantinople; is inhabited chiefly by Chriſtians of the Greek communion, and is the ſee of one of their archbiſhops.

On the Thracian Cherſoneſe ſtands the port town of Gallipoli, being one hundred miles ſouth-weſt of Conſtantinople. This was the firſt town the Turks made themſelves maſters of in Europe, anno 1358: there are in it about ten thouſand Turks, four thouſand Chriſtians, and great numbers of Jews.

There is an old caſtle in Romania on the European ſide of the Helleſpont, uſually called Seſtos: it lies in twenty-ſeven degrees eaſt longitude, and forty north latitude. All ſhips bound to Conſtantinople are taken account of by the Turks at this caſtle, and the oppoſite one in Aſia.

The once great city of Heraclea, which formerly ſtood in the mid-way

mid-way between Conſtantinople and Gallipoli, exhibit at preſent little more than the ruins of it.

The province of Bulgaria, which is ſeparated from Romania by mount Hæmus, is two hundred and eighty miles long, and one hundred and eighty broad. It is governed by the beglerbeg of Rumelia, with four ſubordinate ſangiacs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Turks, Greeks, and Jews, who ſpeak a dialect of the Sclavonian language. The country is well watered, and though in general moutainous, has ſome fertile ſpots, abounds in cattle, contains a few iron mines, and ſome medicinal ſprings. The principal place is Sophia, a populous town on the Bojane, two hundred and ſeventy miles north-weſt of Conſtantinople. It has an unwholſome air, and is a great thoroughfare, without fortifications.

The province of Servia, antiently called Myſia Superior, from its lying higher up the Danube, has the rivers Save and Danube on the north: it is two hundred and fifty miles in length, and upwards of one hundred in breadth from north to ſouth. Belgrade, the capital city, is ſituated at the conflux of the Danube and Save, three hundred and forty miles ſouth-eaſt of Vienna. This was lately a large, beautiful city, ſtrongly fortified, defended by one of the ſtrongeſt caſtles in Europe, and inhabited by Chriſtians.

The laſt mentioned province, namely, Boſnia, part of the antient Illyricum, is bounded by the river Save, which divides it from Sclavonia on the north, by Servia on the eaſt, by Dalmatia on the ſouth, and by Croatia on the weſt, the river Unna running through it from north to ſouth, and dividing the Imperial from the Turkiſh territories. The chief town is Boſnia Seraio, one hundred and twenty miles weſt of Belgrade, on the frontiers of Turkey, in nineteen degrees of eaſt longitude, and fifty-four degrees of north latitude.

The province of Moldavia takes its name from the Moldau, which runs through it. It is ſituated on the eaſt of Tranſylvania, is about two hundred and forty miles long, but the breadth varies conſiderably. This is in general a barren ſpot, and the inhabitants are a mixture of various neighbouring nations. The principal places are Jaſſy, the capital and reſidence of the waywode, being ſituated on the Pruth, eighty miles north-weſt of Bauder, and Choczim on the Dineſter, near the borders of Padolia: this latter is a place of great ſtrength.

We have already, in the former part of this work, deſcribed the principal parts of Tartary in Aſia, and the different tribes among them. There are, however, a ſmall number, in proportion to the others, in Europe, whoſe places of reſidence, when they think proper to fix, are as follow:

1. The town of Beſſanabia, or Budziack, which borders on the Black Sea. The inhabitants are called White Hordes: they rove from place to place, live on the fleſh of horſes, oxen, cheeſe, milk, particularly that of mares, &c. The chief place is Bender, which, in the Turkiſh language, ſignifies a ſtrong paſs. Charles XII. of Sweden, after his defeat at Pultowa, reſided here.

2. The town of Oczakow, which is inhabited only near the ſea, and along the banks of the rivers, and the country between the Don and Nieper is poſſeſſed by the Nogay Tartars, who are dependent partly on the khan of the Crim Tartars, and partly on Ruſſia. Their food is horſe fleſh, and their religion Mahometaniſm; but they are ſaid greatly to exceed the moſt civilized Chriſtians in hoſpitality.

The reader will find a particular account of the Crim, Leſgee, Ubeck Tartars, &c. in p. 112, 113, 114, of this work, to which he is referred.

Greece is ſituated to the north of the Mediterranean, being four hundred miles in length, and two hundred and forty in breadth. The air is temperate, but fluctuating; the ſoil fruitful, but uncultivated, and the religion Chriſtianity, but debaſed by the ignorance of its profeſſors. The head of the Greek church is the patriarch of Conſtantinople, who is choſen by the neighbouring archbiſhop and metropolitans, and confirmed by the grand ſeignior; and the other patriarchs are thoſe of Jeruſalem, Antioch, and Alexandria.

There are four diſtinct provinces in Greece; namely, I. Macedonia. II. Albania. III. Theſſaly. IV. Lividia, or Achaia.

The province of Macedonia is ſituated on the weſt of the Archipelago, has a ſharp, clear, and wholſome air, and produces corn, wine, and oil. It is well watered, but mountainous: mount Athos, in particular, is covered with hermitages, and upwards of twenty convents. The only conſiderable place is the town called Karais, which is ſurrounded by walls, flanked with towers, and planted with artillery: this is the reſidence of the Turkiſh aga.

The populous town of Salonici, or Theſſalonica, is ſituated at the bottom of a bay of the Egean ſea, to which it gives name, lying in twenty-four degrees eaſt longitude, and forty-one degrees north latitude. Here St. Paul preached, and we have ſtill two of his epiſtles, written to the Theſſalonians.

The province of Albania, which comprehends Illyricum and Epirus, is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of Venice, being one hundred and ninety miles long, and ninety-ſix broad. The ſoil is fertile, but little cultivated, the inhabitants robuſt but ignorant, and they are of the Greek perſuaſion, but ſuperſtitious. The principal places are, Scutari, a place of conſiderable trade, eighteen miles north-eaſt of the gulf of Venice and Durazzo, thirty-five miles ſouth of Scutari.

Lower Albania, or Epirus, is exceedingly fruitful, and the inhabitants are well adapted for a military life. The towns are inconſiderable, being almoſt totally decayed.

The province of Theſſaly, now Janna, is bounded by Epirus, on the weſt; by Macedon, on the north; by Achaia, on the ſouth; and by the Archipelago, on the eaſt. The chief town is Lariſſa, called Aſſabarba by the Turks, about fifty miles weſt of the iſland of Eubœa, or Negropont: it is ſituated on the river Peneus, having Mount Olympus on the north, and the plains of Theſſaly on the ſouth; a moſt delightful abode. It is a large populous city.

The province of Lividia, or Achaia, to the ſouth of Epirus, is one hundred and thirty miles long, but not above thirty-ſix broad. It is fruitful, though mountainous, being well watered. The principal place is Sentines, the antient Athens, ſituate near the bay of Engia, about forty miles eaſt of the iſthmus of Corinth. It ſtands almoſt in the middle of a plain, being a barren, but healthful ſoil, the river Iliſſus almoſt ſurrounding it; after which it continues its courſe by the hill called the Muſeum, and from thence runs through a wood of olives, ſix miles in length: the preſent town lies on the north-weſt ſide of the caſtle, extending a mile and a half through the plain, and is about four miles in circumference, but no wall about it. This is now a deſpicable place; and though the ſciences do not flouriſh here as formerly, the inhabitants are ſtill eſteemed a polite, ingenious people: their number is about ten thouſand, of which three fourths are Chriſtians of the Greek church. The habit of the modern Athenians is a black veſt with a looſe coat over it, lined with furs, and their cap reſembles the crown of a hat; on their legs they wear eaſy black boots, which ſit in wrinkles, but never ſhoes or ſlippers, as the Turks do. The women wear coloured gowns, uſually red or blue, which reach down to their feet, and over them a ſhort veſt of ſilk.

The town of Lepanto, the antient Naupactus, is ſituated near the north ſhore of the entrance of the gulf of Lepanto. It is ſurrounded by fruitful fields and vineyards, producing corn, rice, olives, oranges, lemons, and citrons, in great plenty; the wine is eſteemed the beſt in Greece.

The antient port-town of Livadia is ſituated on the gulf of Lepanto, twenty miles north-weſt of Corinth, and communicates its name to this province. The inhabitants conſiſt of Turks and Greek Chriſtians: and it is at preſent a populous trading town.

The Morea, or Peloponneſus, is a large peninſula joined to the continent of Greece by the iſthmus of Corinth. It is one hundred and twenty miles long, and one hundred and fifteen broad, tolerably fertile, except in the mountainous parts, and is in general well watered.

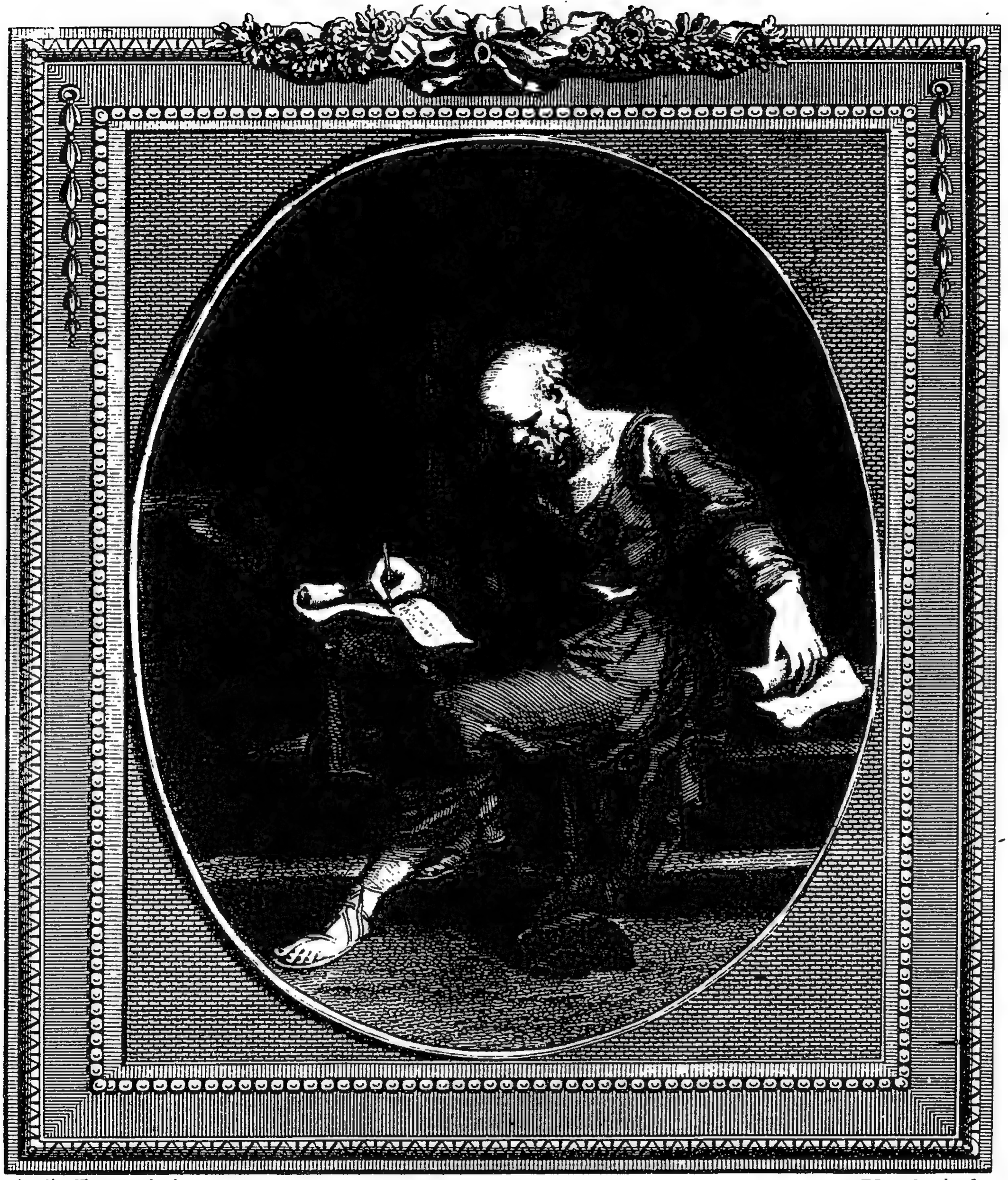
The principal places are as follow: 1. Corinth, the modern Gereme, ſituated between the bays of Lepanto and Engia, fifty miles weſt of Athens. The buildings are not now contiguous, but intermixed with fields and gardens, which make it look like a village; the caſtle is ſituated on a high ſteep rock above it, of very difficult acceſs. The country about it abounds with corn, wine, and oil. The narroweſt part of the iſthmus is about ſix miles over; and on a mount there, called Oneius, were antiently celebrated the iſthmian games; there are ſtill the ruins of a town upon it, and of temples dedicated to the Sun, Neptune, Diana, Pluto, Ceres, and Bacchus, and ſome remains of the walls built by the Lacedemonians croſs the iſthmus from ſea to ſea, to ſecure the Peloponneſian peninſula from the incurſions of invaders.

The town of Patras, eight miles weſt of Corinth, is the ſee of an archbiſhop. It is at preſent a place of ſome trade. Chiarenza, thirty-two miles ſouth-weſt of Patras, is thought to have been the antient Cylleni; and Lacedemon, or Sparta, now named Miſitra, antiently the capital of Laconia, is ſituated on the banks of the river Eurotas, forty miles ſouth of Napoli di Romania.

The town of Napoli di Romania, is ſituated thirty-ſix miles ſouth of Corinth: it is a ſtrong place with a good harbour, and has a conſiderable trade.

The city of Olympia ſtands in the famous Olympian plains, on which were celebrated the Olympic games. This city is likewiſe famed for its magnificent temple of Jupiter Olympus; in which was a famous ſtatue of that god ſeventy-five feet high, reckoned one of the ſeven wonders of the world.

CHAP.



Angelica Kauffman inv.t *F. Bartolozzi sculp.*

The celebrated Moral Philosopher **SOCRATES** *while under sentence of Death at* **ATHENS**, *composing an Hymn to Apollo.*

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ADRIATICUM MARE

MARE

Taulantii

Paeonia

Pelagonia

Macedonia

Sinus Thermaicus

MACEDONIA

Lyncestis

Cyrrhestae

Deuretae

Pieria

Orestis

Chaonia

EPIRUS

THESSALIA

Magnesia

Athamanes

Molossi

Sinus Tarentinus

ITALIA

Brundusium

Tarentum

Hydruntum

Thessalonica

Philippi

Amphipolis

Neapolis

Thasus

Stagira

Athos M.

Olynthus

Torone

Sinus Toronaeus

Pallene

Berea

Pella

Strymonicus Sinus

Samothracia

Lemnos

Imbros

Hellespontus

Cyzicenus

Langsacus

Dardania

Mysia Minor

Troas

Olympeni

Bithynia

Azanitis

Paeonia

Mysia

Lydia

Maeonia

Caria

Lycia

Phrygia Major

Phrygia Minor

Pisidia

Pamphylia

Rhodus

Icarium Mare

Mare Creticum

Mare Myrtoum

Aegaeum Mare

Ionium Mare

Sicilia

Peloponnesus

Achaia Propria

Argolis

Laconia

Messenia

Sinus Argolicus

Sinus Laconicus

Sinus Messenius

Sinus Corinthiacus

Sinus Crissaeus

Megaris

Attica

Boeotia

Phocis

Locris

Aetolia

Acarnania

Corcyra

Ithaca

Cephallenia

Zacynthus

Strophades

Creta

Cythera

Melos

Thera

Rhodus

Lesbos

Chios

Samos

Icaria

Patmos

Cos

Cnidus

Halicarnassus

Miletus

Ephesus

Smyrna

Sardis

Philadelphia

Pergamus

Troja

Abydus

Cyprus

Carpathus

Creta

Cydonia

Gortyna

Lebena

Phaestus

Hierapytna

Dictynnaeum Prom.

Criumetopon Prom.

Malea Prom.

Taenarum Prom.

Acritas Prom.

Pachynus Prom.

Lilybaeum

Panormus

Syracusae

Catana

Messana

Rhegium

Tarentum

Brundusium

Hydruntum

Corcyra

Ithaca

Cephallenia

Zacynthus

Strophades

Creta

Cythera

Melos

Thera

Rhodus

Lesbos

Chios

Samos

Icaria

Patmos

Cos

Cnidus

Halicarnassus

Miletus

Ephesus

Smyrna

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Cyprus

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Dictynnaeum Prom.

Criumetopon Prom.

Malea Prom.

Taenarum Prom.

Acritas Prom.

Pachynus Prom.

Lilybaeum

Panormus

Syracusae

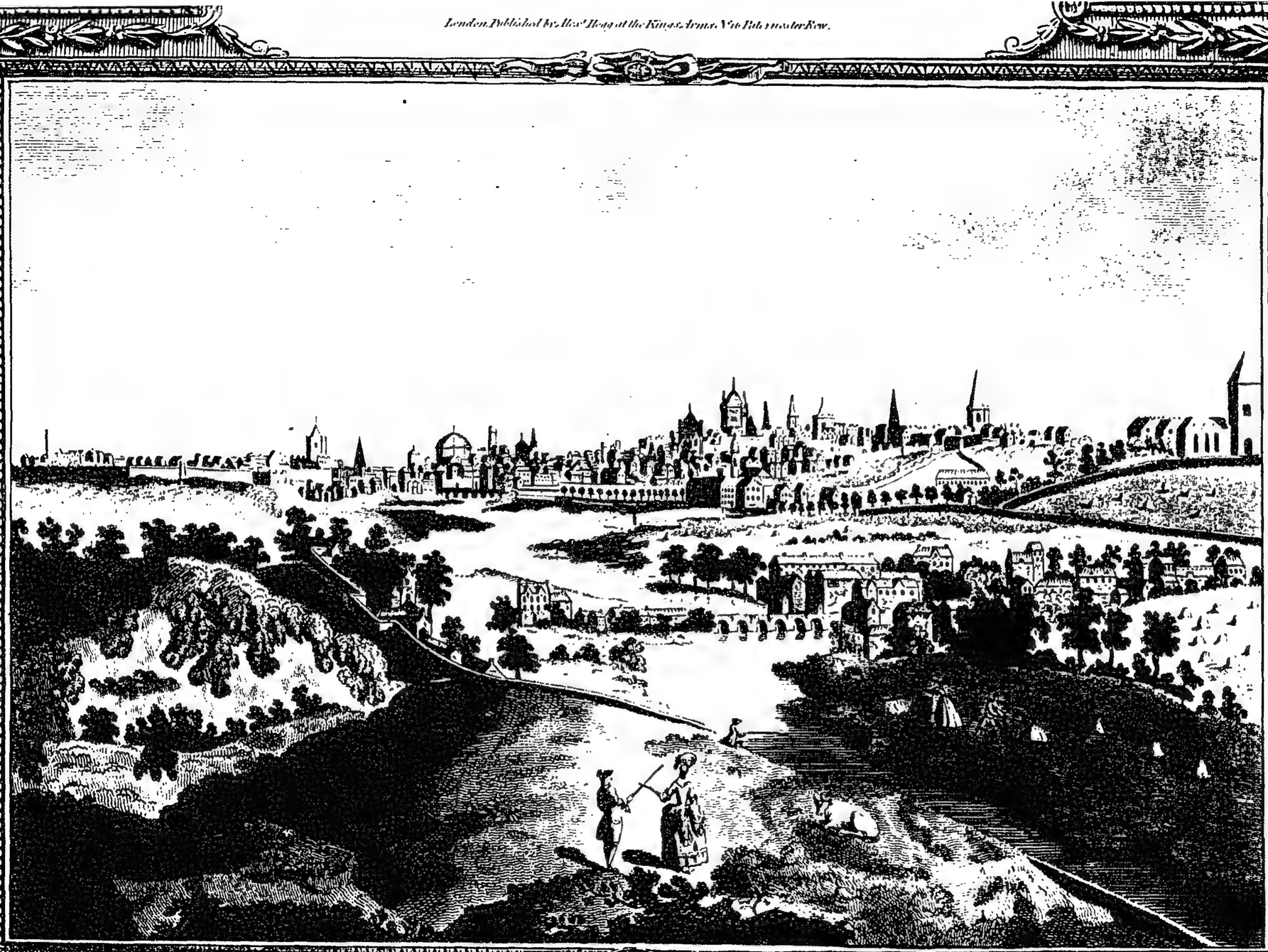
Catana

Messana

Rhegium

A CORRECT MAP of ANTIENT GREECE.

London Published by Iles Hogg at the Kings Arms Nº 60 Paternoster Row.



A Prospect of DUBLIN, the Capital of Ireland

Curr. sculp

A New and Correct MAP of ENGLAND & WALES

From the latest & best IMPROVEMENTS

EXPLANATION

Cities are distinguished by Roman Capitals as ..... CARLILE
County Towns in Italic Capitals as IPSWICH
Borough Towns as ..... Windsor

Market Towns ....
Gr.t Post Roads ....
Cross Roads ....

British Statute Miles

SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
IRISH SEA
ST GEORGES CHANNEL
GERMAN OCEAN
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Edinburgh
Berwick
Holy I.
Farne Is
Sunderland Pt
Alnmouth
Warkworth
Coquet I.
Castle Eden
Hartlepool
Tees Mouth
Scarborough
Bridlington
Flamborough Hd
Spurn Hd
Lincoln
Yarmouth
Lowestoft
Harwich
Blackwater R.
Thames R.
N. Foreland
Sandwich
Dover
Rye
Winchelsea
Hastings
Portsmouth
St Albans Hd
I. of Wight
Portland I.
Weymouth
Falmouth
Penzance
Lands End
Scilly
Falls Light House
Start Pt
Dartmouth
Plymouth
Torbay
Exeter
Bristol
Milford Haven
St Davids Hd
Cardigan Bay
Aberystwith
Holy Head
Anglesey I.
Dublin
Dublin B.
Isle of Man
Ramsey
Douglas
Strangford Lough
Belfast
Carrickfergus
Larne
Donaghadee
Portpatrick
Mull of Galloway
Whitehaven
Workington
Cockermouth
Carlisle
Penrith
Appleby
Kendal
Lancaster
Preston
Liverpool
Manchester
Chester
Wrexham
Shrewsbury
Worcester
Gloucester
Hereford
Ludlow
Leominster
Oxford
Reading
Windsor
Salisbury
Southampton
Winchester
Basingstoke
Andover
Guildford
Dorking
Kingston
London
Chelmsford
Colchester
Ipswich
Woodbridge
Bury
Thetford
Lynn
Norwich
Yarmouth
Lowestoft
Beccles
Aldeburgh
Harwich
Maldon
Canterbury
Ashford
Rochester
Maidstone
Tunbridge
Lewes
Brighthelmstone
Arundel
Chichester
Petworth
Midhurst
Horsham
Reigate
Godalming
Farnham
Alton
Odiham
Basingstoke
Newbury
Hungerford
Marlborough
Devizes
Warminster
Frome
Wells
Bridgewater
Taunton
Barnstaple
Bideford
Launceston
Truro
Falmouth
Helston
Penzance
Redruth
St Ives
Padstow
Tavistock
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Totnes
Ashburton
Exeter
Honiton
Bridport
Dorchester
Poole
Christchurch
Lymington
Newport
Cowes
Ryde
Yarmouth
Guernsey I.
Sark I.
Jersey I.
Alderney I.
Casquets
Pt de la Hogue
Cherbourg
Barfleur
I. de Bas
FRANCE

6 Long W. from London 5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3

CHAP. XX.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE

EUROPEAN ISLANDS.

SECT. I.

Containing a general Geographical Survey of the Island of GREAT BRITAIN; with a particular Account of the Mountains, Forests, Lakes, Rivers, Medicinal Springs, Minerals, Vegetables, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, Insects, and Reptiles therein contained; and also the Cities, Towns, and Places, remarkable Productions, &c. with a Description of the Inhabitants, their Manners, Customs, Religion, Trade, Manufactures, &c.

THE island of Great Britain, which on many accounts is the most respectable in Europe, is situated in the western ocean, between fifty and fifty-nine degrees north latitude, and between one degree forty-two minutes and six degrees longitude, being six hundred and twenty-five miles long, and three hundred and thirty-eight broad, where widest. The whole island consists of two grand divisions, viz. South Britain, or England and Wales; and North Britain, or Scotland. The former of these, namely, South Britain, which we shall first treat of, is bounded, on the north, by the river Tweed, which separates it from Scotland; on the west, by the Irish sea, which divides it from Ireland; on the south, by the British channel, which separates it from France; and, on the east, by the German ocean.

The air is in general healthy, the soil fertile, the face of the country beautifully diversified, the prospects admirable, and the lands well cultivated. The shores, by nature, form innumerable bays, creeks, harbours, &c. The circumjacent sea and intersecting rivers furnish a great plenty of various kinds of fish.

In many parts of England, the eye is delighted with an enchanting variety of gently swelling hills, level plains, corn fields, meadow grounds, wood and water, intermingled in the most agreeable manner. The champain country is parcelled out into beautiful inclosures, surrounded with quickset hedges, intermixed with stately oaks and elms. The farm-houses, scattered about in great numbers all over the face of the kingdom, appear large, neat, and convenient, in the midst of their offices or outhouses. The uncultivated part of the ground is cloathed with a continual green; and the lands in general display the perfection of agriculture. The seats of noblemen and gentlemen exhibit on every side a most delightful scene: flourishing cities, populous villages, and thriving towns, abound in every part of the kingdom, which in beauty, opulence, and cultivation, excels all the states in Europe.

We shall now proceed to describe the face of the country, and its various animal, vegetable, mineral, and medicinal productions.

The chief mountains in England are, as follow: The Peak, in Derbyshire; Endle, in Lancashire; Wolds, in Yorkshire; Cheviot, on the Scots borders; Chiltern hills, in Buckinghamshire; Malvern, in Worcestershire; Cotswold, in Gloucestershire; Wrekin, in Shropshire; Skiddow, in Cumberland; and Penlumnon and Snowden in Wales. The most celebrated of these mountains is the Peak in Derbyshire, which is rather a cluster of mountains than a single one; the principal of these is Mam-Tor.

There are above threescore forests in England; the principal of which are Windsor, Epping, Dean, Sherwood, New Forest, and Exmoor; the whole kingdom, indeed, being almost throughout shaded by trees and plantations, appears like one extensive forest.

The lakes in this country are, Soham, Whittlesea, and Ramsey Mere, in the isle of Ely and county of Cambridge; Winander Mere, in Westmoreland; Derwent Waters, in Lancashire; and Hull's Water, on the borders of Cumberland. The lakes Soham, Whittlesea, and Ramsey, in rainy weather, overflow the fens, and, joining, become one lake of vast extent.

The rivers in England (which, considering the extent of the country, are very numerous) not only fertilize the ground, but conduce to the improvement and prosperity of commerce. They are as follow; viz. The Thames, which is the chief river in the kingdom, being formed by the junction of the Thame and the Isis. The others are, the Medway, Severn, Trent, Tyne, Tees, Eden, Avon, Ribble, Mersey, Ouse, Humber, Loddon, Colne, Lea, Dee, Dove, Tweed, and Churn. The Thames rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, receives the Churn, and runs north-east to Lechlade, in Wiltshire, where it unites with the Colne, and becomes navigable. Thence continuing its course north-easterly, it is swelled by the Windrush; enters Oxford, where it receives the Charwell, then turning south to Abingdon, proceeds to Dorchester, where it is joined by the Thame. Thus increased, it takes an eastward direction, passes by Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, Windsor, Kingston, and Richmond, in its way to London, which having washed, divides the county of Kent from Essex, and widening as it approaches the Ocean, falls into the sea at the Nore, being navigable from its mouth to London-Bridge, for large ships.

Few countries abound more with medicinal springs, than England, which will appear by the following alphabetical list of them;

Actin Wells, Middlesex.
Alford, Somersetshire.
Ancliff, Lancashire.
Astrop, Northamptonshire.
Barnet, Hertfordshire.
Bath, Somersetshire.
Bristol, ditto.
Brosely, Salop.
Broughton, Yorkshire.
Burnly, Lancashire.
Buxton, Derbyshire.
Caergile, Flintshire.
Carlton, Lancashire.
Cawthorp, Lincolnshire.
Chadington, Oxon.
Cheltenham, Gloucestershire.
Chippenham, Wilts.
Clifton, Oxon.
Cobham, Surrey.
Codsall, Staffordshire.
Colurian, Cornwall.
Comner, Bedfordshire.
Crickle, Lancashire.
Crof, Yorkshire.
Doddington, Oxon.
Dog and Duck, Surrey.
Dulwich, Kent.
Epsom, Surrey.
Erasmus's Well, Staffordshire.
Euny Well, Cornwall.
Gainsborough, Lincolnshire.
Hampstead, Middlesex.
Handbridge, Lancashire.
Harrowgate, Yorkshire.
Hartlepool, Durham.
Heigh, Lancashire.
Holt, Wilts.
Holywell, Cornwall.
Jessop's Well, Surrey.
Ilmington, Warwickshire.
Inglewhite, Lancashire.
Kinalton, Nottinghamshire.
King's Cliff, Northamptonshire
King's Sutton, ditto.
Kirkley Thower Westmorland
Knaresborough, Yorkshire.
Landridod, Radnorshire.
Lemington, Warwickshire.
Lincomb, Somersetshire.
Madern, Cornwall.
Malton, Yorkshire.
Matlock, Derbyshire.
Moreton, Shropshire.
Nevil Holt, Leicestershire.
Newton Dale, Yorkshire.
Northall, Herts.
Nottingham, Dorsetshire.
Orston, Northamptonshire.
Pancras, Middlesex.
Pitchford, Salop.
Queen's Camel, Somersetshire.
Road, Wilts.
Rougham, Lancashire.
Scarborough, Yorkshire.
Shadwell, Middlesex.
Shapmore, Westmorland.
Stanger, Cumberland.
Strenfield, Lincolnshire.
Stretham, Surrey.
Swansey, Wales.
Sydenham, Kent.
Thetford, Norfolk.
Tilbury, Essex.
Tunbridge, Kent.
Tunbridge Wells, New, Middlesex.
Upminster, Essex.
West Ashton, Wilts.
Westwood, Derbyshire.
Whaley, Lancashire.
Witham, Essex.
Whiggleswerth, Yorkshire.
Willoughbridge, Staffordshire.

The minerals are, tin, lead, copper, iron, free-stone, marble, coal, fullers earth, black lead, allum, and salt. The most considerable mineral is tin; and Cornwall, for producing it, has been famous ever since the Phœnicians traded to Great Britain. Northumberland and Cheshire produce a great deal of alum and salt; and the kingdom abounds with fuller's earth, which is of great use in the cloth manufactory. Free-stone is

plentiful in Derbyſhire, and marble in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. Immenſe quantities of coals are dug out of the pits in Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and the biſhopric of Durham.

With reſpect to the ſoil in England, it is in general a rich clay, though in many places it conſiſts of gravel and ſand, and there is a variety of moulds and marls in different parts of the country. Its vegetable produce is, corn, rye, oats, peas, beans, vetches, hops, horſe-beans, flax, clover, hemp, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſaintfoin, lucern, graſs, artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, kidney-beans, ſpinach, beets, cellery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, leeks, onions, chalots, ſallading of all kinds, ſaffron, wood, apples, pears, cherries, apricots, nectarines, grapes, plums of various ſpecies, raſberries, ſtrawberries, gooſeberries, mulberries, blackberries, currants, nuts of various ſorts, and muſhrooms.

The corn which grows in England excels that of all the countries in Europe. The arable lands are computed to produce thirty-five millions of buſhels of wheat annually, a conſiderable part of which, after favourable ſeaſons, is exported. The Engliſh wheat-ear is, by the beſt judges, preferred to the foreign ortolan for flavour and delicacy. Near as much barley is made into malt, partly for beer and ale, and partly for diſtilling Engliſh ſpirits and Geneva. The ſpontaneous herbs are innumerable. Engliſh oak is the beſt in the univerſe; beſides which, here is plenty of aſh, elm, beech, poplar, walnut-tree, maple, ſycamore, alder, hornbeam, ſallow, willow, hazle, and birch. The gardeners of this country, who are the moſt expert in the whole world, can, by means of hot-beds and fire-walls, raiſe any exotic plant, and produce the moſt delicate fruits that grow within the tropics.

The Engliſh quadrupeds are, black cattle, ſheep, ſwine, horſes, aſſes, dogs, foxes, ſquirrels, ferrets, weazles, lizards, newts, otters, badgers, hedge hogs, pole cats, rats, mice, moles, rabbets, hares, deer, ſtags, &c. Their oxen are large and fat, and the beef has a delicious flavour. The ſheep are large, and even more valuable for their fleece than their fleſh, as above twelve millions of fleeces are annually ſhorn and manufactured in the kingdom. The horſes for the ſaddle and chace are finely proportioned and full of mettle; thoſe for the draught are amazingly ſtrong; and the war horſes have abundance of ſpirit. Among the animals peculiar to England, we muſt not omit to mention the maſtiffs and bull-dogs, whoſe ſpirit is ſo great, that they will ſingly attack any animal whatever; but when they are tranſported to any other country, this ſurpriſing ſpirit degenerates greatly.

The feathered tribe in England is very numerous, having great quantities of poultry, wild fowls, and birds; ſuch as turkeys, peacocks, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, tame pigeons, wood pigeons, wild ducks, wild geeſe, buſtards, teals, wigeons, plovers, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quails, landrails, ſnipes, hawks, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws, jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, wrens, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmaller birds common to other countries.

The Engliſh game cock is remarkable for his courage; but, like the maſtiff and bull-dog, loſes it, if carried to any other country.

In the ſeas ſurrounding this iſland, there is great plenty of cod, mackerel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkait, ſoals, ſhrimps, oyſters, lobſters, and crabs. And the rivers afford abundance of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barbles, gudgeons, roach, dace, mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, cray-fiſh, and char. The laſt-mentioned is a very delicate fiſh, found in the freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland. The coaſt is ſeldom viſited by whales, but there are great numbers of porpoiſes tumbling about in the channel; and upon the rocks at the extremity of the iſland there are many ſeals.

Among the inſects and reptiles in this country may be reckoned adders, vipers, ſnakes, worms, bees, waſps, ants, crickets, gnats, flies of various kinds, graſshoppers, and many other ſpecies of inſects and vermin common to other European countries. Many inſects are of the tranſmigrating kind, changing from one ſpecies to another; examples of which are found in the caterpillar, moth, and butterfly.

England is at preſent divided into ſix circuits, namely, the home circuit, the Norfolk circuit, the Oxford circuit, the midland circuit, the weſtern circuit, and the northern circuit. Each of theſe comprises a certain number of counties. The home circuit includes Eſſex, Hertford, Kent, Surrey and Suſſex. In the Norfolk circuit, we reckon Buckinghamſhire, Bedfordſhire, Huntingdonſhire, Cambridgeſhire, Suffolk, and Norfolk. The Oxford circuit comprehends Oxford, Berkſhire, Glouceſterſhire, Worceſterſhire, Monmouthſhire, Herefordſhire, Salop, and Staffordſhire. In the midland circuit, we find Warwickſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Derbyſhire, Nottinghamſhire, Lincolnſhire, Rutlandſhire, and Northamptonſhire. The weſtern circuit includes Hampſhire, Wiltſhire, Dorſetſhire, Somerſetſhire, Devonſhire, and Cornwall. The northern circuit comprehends Yorkſhire, the biſhopric of Durham, Northumberland, Lancaſhire, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland. Middleſex being the ſeat of the ſupreme courts of juſtice, and Cheſhire a county palatine, they are, on thoſe accounts, not included in any circuit.

Wales, which is a principality from whence the heir apparent derives his title, is divided into four circuits, called the north-eaſt circuit, the north-weſt circuit, the ſouth-eaſt circuit, and the ſouth-weſt circuit. In the north-eaſt, are contained the counties of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery: in the north-weſt, thoſe of Angleſey, Carnarvon, and Merioneth: in the ſouth-eaſt, are the counties of Radnor, Brecon and Glamorgan: in the ſouth-weſt, Pembrokeſhire, Cardiganſhire, and Caermarthenſhire.

In England, we number forty counties, containing twenty-five cities, one hundred and ſeventy-two boroughs, and eight cinque-ports, which are, Dover, Haſtings, Hythe, Romney, Rye, Sandwich, Seaford, and Winchelſea.

In deſcribing the ſituation of, and the principal places in, each county in England, we ſhall begin with the moſt weſterly, namely, Cornwall, which in ſhape reſembles what it implies, that is, a horn. It abounds in tin and lead, produces mundic, which affords copper as good as the Swediſh; is famous for the beſt kind of ſlate tiles, and furniſhes the builder with moor-ſtone, which reſembles Egyptian granite, when it is ſufficiently poliſhed.

The town of Launceſton is the moſt antient and chief in the county. Launceſton caſtle was formerly a very ſtrong place, and thence obtained the name of Caſtle-Terrible; the round hill on which it ſtands being environed with a triple wall. It was built by William de Merton, earl of Cornwall, ſoon after the Conqueſt. It is ſo much decayed, that no part of it, except that which ſerves for the county gaol, is uſed at preſent.

The town of Falmouth, where the river Fall runs into the Engliſh channel, is two hundred and ſixty-three miles from London. This is the richeſt and beſt trading town in the county. The harbour is ſo commodious, that ſhips of the greateſt burden come up to its quay. It is guarded by the caſtles of St. Mawes and Pendennis; the latter of which, ſtanding on a peninſula, is large and well fortified, and was built by Henry VIII. for the defence of Falmouth harbour. There is ſufficient ſhelter in many creeks for the whole royal navy to ride ſecure from any winds. The town is well built, and its trade of late greatly increaſed.

The town of Penzance, which is the fartheſt place in the weſt of England, is well built and populous, and has many ſhips belonging to it; veins of lead, tin, and copper, to the utmoſt extremity of low-water mark, are ſeen here.

The county of Devon, which joins Cornwall to the eaſtward, is naturally ſterile, but rendered fertile in many parts by art. The following are the principal places contained in it; viz.

The city of Exeter, capital of the county, and one of the principal cities in the kingdom. It is ſituated on a riſing ground watered by the river Ex, has ſix gates, and, with the ſuburbs, is two miles in circumference. The cathedral, called St. Peter's, is a magnificent and curious fabric, vaulted throughout, three hundred and ninety feet in length, and ſeventy-four in breadth, and has a ring of ten bells, reckoned the largeſt in England. Its bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houſes on both ſides towards the ends. It has four principal ſtreets, the chief of which is called High-ſtreet, all centering in the middle of the city, which is well ſupplied with water.

The town of Totneſs ſtands on the river Dart. Here is a ſpacious church with a fine tower, a town-hall, and a ſchool-houſe. Its chief trade is the woollen manufacture; but it has more gentlemen than tradeſmen of note. There is a fine bridge over the river, which abounds with delicate trout and other good fiſh. It is diverting to ſee them catch ſalmon-peele here, with a ſpaniel trained to drive them into a ſhove-net: ſometimes a man will take up twenty ſalmon at a time, from fourteen to twenty inches long, for which they aſk only two-pence a piece.

The town of Plymouth is ſituate two hundred and ſixteen miles from London, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into the channel: it was antiently no more than a fiſhing-town, but is now the largeſt in the ſhire, contains near as many inhabitants as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port, which is one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in England. It conſiſts of two harbours, capable of containing one thouſand ſail of ſhips; defended by ſeveral forts, particularly a ſtrong citadel of large extent, containing a grand magazine full of ſtores, and five regular baſtions. It is very convenient

A New CHART of the ENGLISH CHANNEL drawn from the Best Authorities

ENGLAND

THE CHANNEL

FRANCE

ATLANTIC OCEAN

THE CHOPS

London

Paris

FLANDERS

HAMPSHIRE

DORSETSHIRE

Isle Wight

Scilly Is.

Guernsey

Jersey

BRITTANY

Brest Harb.

Scale of Sea Leagues.

A New Chart of the COASTS of FRANCE & SPAIN from L'Orient to Gibralter, drawn from the Best Authorities.

BRITTANY

BAY OF BISCAY

ASTURIAS

BISCAY

GALICIA

PORTUGAL

Madrid

ANDALUSIA

ALGARVE

Gibralter

Straits of Gibralter

Scale of Sea Leagues.

The MARINERS COMPASS.

Geographical Terms & Figures exemplified & explained: to facilitate the Study of Geography.

Promontory

Mountains

Bay

Town

Village

Rocks above Water

Castle or Fort

Rocks under Water

City

River

Harbour

Marsh

Cape Point or Headland

Wood

Lake

Straights

Islands

Peninsula

Isthmus

SEA

convenient for homeward-bound ſhips to provide themſelves with pilots up the channel, and is alſo the general rendezvous of ſhips outward-bound.

There is alſo a royal dock-yard, for building and repairing ſhips, about two miles up the mouth of the river Tamar, which is an inlet of the ſea, diſtinguiſhed from Catwater by the name of Hamoaze, and commanded by the caſtle on St. Nicholas iſland. Here is a charity-ſchool, four hoſpitals, and a work-houſe. Off the entrance of the bay lies the edy-ſtone rock, which is covered at high water, and on which there is a light-houſe.

The town of Dartmouth includes in it what was formerly called three towns, Cliſton, Dartmouth, and Hardneſs. It ſtands on the ſide of a craggy hill, is about a mile long, the ſtreets very irregular, and the houſes generally high, ſo that it ſeems crowded. The harbour is eſteemed good, and five hundred ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe in the baſon, which is not only defended by three caſtles, but upon occaſion the entrance of it may be ſhut up with a chain. Dartmouth caſtle is very antient. The mother-church is called Townſtall, and is ſituated on a hill three quarters of a mile diſtant from the town. The tower of the church is ſixty-nine feet high, and is of good uſe as a ſea-mark.

The county of Dorſet, ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt of Devonſhire, is, like the two laſt, a maritime county. It abounds in corn, cattle, ſheep, &c. and is one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile countries in the kingdom.

The chief or ſhire town is Dorcheſter, which was the moſt conſiderable ſtation of the Romans in thoſe parts; they had a camp near it with five trenches, incloſing ten acres, the veſtiges of which are ſtill viſible at a place called Maiden caſtle, about a mile from the town. It is ſituated on an aſcent, on the banks of the river Frome. The Ikening ſtreet of the Romans is plainly traced here; and the foundations of the old Roman wall appear quite round the town, except toward the eaſt, where the ditch is filled up, and a ſtreet built upon it; yet the place is ſtill called the Walls. St. Peter's, Trinity, and All-Saints churches, and the ſhire hall, are the principal buildings in the town.

The town of Portland, oppoſite to Weymouth, was formerly an iſland, and ſtill retains that name, though now only a peninſula. It is ſcarcely ſeven miles in circumference, and but thinly inhabited. In a lake in this iſland is a ſwannery, containing ſeven or eight thouſand ſwans. The land here is high, and by means of dangerous rocks, is acceſſible only on the north ſide, where it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle built by Henry VIII. and by another ſince erected on the oppoſite ſhore, called Sandsfoot-caſtle. The inland parts are famous for quarries of the fineſt and moſt durable free ſtone, with which were erected St. Paul's church, Weſtminſter bridge, &c. The beſt tobacco-pipe clay in England is found in Purbeck, which, like Portland, is improperly called an iſland.

The county of Somerſet, ſituated to the north-eaſt of Devonſhire, is a very fertile country, and more celebrated for its mineral waters than any other county in England. It gives the title of earl, and ſends eighteen members to parliament.

The city of Briſtol, twelve miles from Bath, is the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. Though it lay in two counties, before it was made a county of itſelf, which was in the reign of Edward III. it was by the parliament rolls reckoned in Somerſetſhire. The cathedral was formerly the collegiate church of St. Auguſtine's monaſtery, which, when diſſolved by Henry VIII. and erected into the ſee of a biſhop, he applied its revenues to the maintenance of a biſhop, dean, prebendaries, and other eccleſiaſtics. There are in this city eighteen churches; the chief is St. Mary Radcliff's, without the walls, built in the reign of Henry VI. by William Cannings, alderman of this city. This is a magnificent ſtructure in the gothic taſte; the workmanſhip ſo exquiſite, the roof ſo artificially vaulted with ſtone, and the tower ſo high, as to render it the fineſt pariſh church in the kingdom. Here are three excellent market-places, beſides a fiſh-market, near twenty hoſpitals and other benevolent foundations; a guildhall, a council, a tholſey, or exchange, which is the completeſt in Europe, two fine quays, ſeveral docks, a corn-market, and three gates, which are the only ones remaining out of fourteen, the antient number: beſides the above, here are a ſtately bridge over the Avon, a ſquare (larger than any one in London, Lincoln's-inn-ſquare excepted), and a cuſtom-houſe.

According to a late ſurvey, this city, which with the ſuburbs lies compact, being almoſt as broad as long, is about ſix miles in circumference, on the Glouceſter ſide, and three miles on the Somerſet ſide, which in the whole makes nine miles in circumference. The houſes are cloſe and crouded, eſpecially towards the bridge, and the heart of the city, where many of them are five or ſix ſtories high. The aſcent to St. Michael's hill is ſo ſteep, that upwards of one hundred ſteps are laid in the way to the ſummit of it.

This city has amazingly increaſed of late yeaas in the extent and elegance of its buildings. The firſt improvement was the erection of Queen-ſquare, begun in 1729, in the centre of which is a garden, and an obeliſk ſeventy feet high, in honour of his late royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales.

The territory of Cheddar is famed for the fineſt cheeſe in the world, except the Parmeſan, and is twenty-three miles in compaſs, abounding with paſture. There are ſuch plantations of apple-trees in this pariſh, that three thouſand hogſheads of cyder have been made in one ſeaſon. It is common for three or four dairies here to join their milk, and to make what they call a Cheddar-cheeſe.

Ten miles from Bath is ſituated Frome Selwood, which though a town longer than ſome cities, has only one church. More wire-cards are made here than in any other town in Britain, and the woollen manufacture is reckoned more conſiderable here than in any other part of England.

To the north-eaſt of the county of Somerſet is ſituated Wiltſhire: this is rather an unfertile county, but abounds in ſheep. The principal place is Saliſbury, or New Sarum, an epiſcopal ſee, and a large well-built pleaſant city, near which four rivers join their ſtreams, and flow through every ſtreet. The cathedral is conſidered as the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom, particularly for its lofty ſtone ſpire.

The county of Hants, or Hampſhire, is ſituated to the north-eaſt of Dorſetſhire, and is famous for hogs, ſheep, and timber. It ſends twenty-ſix members to parliament.

The principal places are, 1. Wincheſter, on the Itching: it reſembles an amphitheatre, and is ſurrounded by chalk-hills. The cathedral is venerable and large, but not elegant. Here are ſix other churches, two hoſpitals, a college, ſeveral public ſchools, &c. On St. Catherine's hill, near the city, are the remains of a camp; and on the weſt was a caſtle, where the Weſt Saxon kings kept their court.

2. The town of Southampton, twelve miles from Wincheſter, ſtands between two large rivers, the Itching and the Teſe, that fall here into that called Southampton water. The approach to this town, from the London road, is extremely pleaſant. It has a wall almoſt round it of a hard kind of ſtone. Henry VI. made it a county of itſelf, which renders it independent of the lord lieutenant. The chief ſtreet has one large quay; and one other called Weſt quay.

3. The town of Portſmouth, the great key of England, is regularly fortified, and ſtands at the entrance of a creek, on the iſland of Portſea. It is alſo defended by South ſea caſtle, Blockhouſe caſtle, and a chain that goes acroſs the harbour from the round tower to the oppoſite ſhore. This is the narroweſt point of entrance to a large and ſafe harbour. Here is one very magnificent church, having on the top of the ſteeple a ſhip for a weather-cock. The dock-yard is extremely convenient, capable of docking twenty-five or thirty ſhips in a fortnight. In the dock is likewiſe a royal academy. The common, as it is called, is the reſidence chiefly of the artificers and officers of the dock, but at this time has more houſes and inhabitants than the town itſelf.

To the north of Hampſhire is ſituated Berkſhire, which has a fertile ſoil, and contains as follows;

1. The antient and pleaſant town of Windſor, ſituated near the Thames, twenty miles from London. It has a fine caſtle built by the Conqueror. Edward III. who was born here, enlarged and beautified it; built the royal palace and chapel, together with St. George's hall and its chapel, and inſtituted here the order of the garter. Queen Elizabeth added the noble terrace, faced with free-ſtone ramparts, like thoſe of a fortified city, which is ſcarcely to be equalled in Europe. St. George's hall is eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe. The royal chapel is beautifully adorned with curious paintings. The round-tower is built like an amphitheatre, very high, with elegant apartments. On the north ſide is St. George's, or the chapel of the Garter, one of the moſt elegant gothic ſtructures in the univerſe.

Near the town are two parks, the greateſt about fourteen miles, and the leſſer about three miles in circumference, ſtocked with all kinds of game, and laviſhly embelliſhed by the hand of nature. In the foreſt, which is thirty miles round, are ſeveral ſeats; particularly Cranbourn lodge, which ſtands on the top of a hill, and has a view not only of Windſor and the adjacent parks, but of London and its environs.

2. The town of Reading, which is the principal in the county, ſtands on the banks of the river Thames, near the influx of the Kennet, and has three pariſh churches, built of flint and ſquare ſtone; an hoſpital was founded here, and liberally endowed, by archbiſhop Laud.

The county of Surrey, ſituated to the ſouth of Middleſex, is

is a pleaſant, healthy, fertile country. The principal place (excluſive of the borough of Southwark) is Guildford, a large well-built town, on the river Wey, which is navigable from hence to the Thames. Not far from the river are the ruinous walls of an old caſtle, this place having in the Saxon times been a royal villa, where many of our kings kept their feſtivals. Here are three pariſh churches, of which that belonging to the upper pariſh has been lately rebuilt in a magnificent manner. Here are alms-houſes liberally endowed, and the remains of a once famous manufactory of cloth. In the neighbourhood are the walls of what was formerly called St. Catherine's chapel, built with a ſort of tile, which, when broken, has the appearance of iron, and the cement of them is in a manner impenetrable.

The other town, namely Richmond, is remarkable for its beautiful ſituation and royal palace, in which are many curious paintings by the moſt eminent maſters. Queen Caroline took great delight here; and his preſent majeſty has made great improvements in the gardens of this delightful place. The town runs up the hill a full mile to the park, with ſmall gardens declining all the way to the Thames, over which a very neat bridge has been lately erected.

The county of Suſſex, lying near the ſea, is ſituated to the ſouth of Surrey, and abounds in ſheep, wool, &c. It ſends twenty-eight members to Parliament. The chief place is Chicheſter, built on a plain near an arm of the ſea. It is a very neat, ſmall city, walled about in a circular form; with four gates opening to the four principal ſtreets, which meet in the centre, where is a beautiful croſs. All the ſpace or quarter between the weſt and ſouth gates is taken up with the cathedral, the biſhop's palace, the dean's, prebendaries, and vicars' houſes. The church itſelf is not very large, but very neat, with a high ſtone ſpire of an octagonal form, which for the beauty of its architecture is greatly eſteemed.

The county of Kent is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Middleſex, and abounds in hops, wood, and fruit. It ſends eighteen members to parliament.

The principal places are, 1. Canterbury, the chief city in the county, and the metropolitan ſee of all England. The cathedral is a noble pile of Gothic architecture, and had, before the Reformation, thirty-ſeven altars. Seven kings have been interred in this church; and St. Auguſtine, with the ſeven archbiſhops that ſucceeded him, lie in one vault. Here was the ſhrine of Thomas à Becket, ſo famous for its riches preſented by votaries and pilgrims from moſt parts of the univerſe. There are ſix wards, denominated from its ſix gates; fifteen pariſh-churches, and ſeven hoſpitals in this city.

2. The town of Rocheſter lies in a valley on the eaſt ſide of the river Medway, and, except Canterbury, is the oldeſt ſee in England. Its cathedral is ſaid to have been built by Ethelbert king of Kent. Here is a ſtone bridge, conſiſting of twenty-five arches, which is eſteemed one of the fineſt in England. Rocheſter appears to have been a Roman ſtation, from the Roman Watling-ſtreet running through the town.

3. Tunbridge, or the town of Bridges; ſo called from the river Ton, and four other ſtreams of the Medway, which riſe in the Weald, over each of which is a ſtone-bridge. Tunbridge Wells, much frequented on account of their mineral waters, are five miles from the town, up to which the river Medway is made navigable.

4. The town of Margate, or St. John's, is ſituated on the north ſide of the iſle of Thanet, and is a member of the town and port of Dover, to which it is ſubject in all matters of civil juriſdiction. The principal ſtreet is near a mile in length, and built on an eaſy aſcent, by which means the upper part is clean and dry, but the lower end much otherwiſe. The pier is maintained and preſerved by certain payments for all goods and commodities ſhipped or landed. The bathing-rooms are not large, but convenient. Three of theſe rooms employ eleven machines till near the time of high water, which, at the ebb of the tide, ſometimes runs two or three hundred yards into the bay.

The county of Middleſex, which takes its name from its ſituation between the kingdoms of the antient Eaſt, Weſt, and South Saxons, is exceedingly fertile, ſends eighteen members to parliament, and contains the following places, viz.

The city of London, the metropolis of Great Britain; it is ſuppoſed to have been founded about the time of Claudius, in the year 42. It had formerly ſeven gates by land, namely, Ludgate, Aldgate, Cripplegate, Newgate, Alderſgate, Moorgate, and Biſhopſgate; all of which have been ſome time taken down. On the ſide of the Thames there were Dowgate and Billingſgate, long ſince demoliſhed, as well as the Poſtern-gate near the Tower, and the greateſt part of the walls. In the year 1670 there was a gate erected called Temple-bar, which is ſtill ſtanding, and determines the bounds of the city weſtward.

This celebrated city has undergone great calamities of various kinds, but the two laſt were moſt remarkable, namely, the plague in 1665, which ſwept away ſixty-eight thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſix perſons; and the fire in 1666, which burnt down thirteen thouſand two hundred dwelling houſes: in memory of this laſt there is an obeliſk erected, called the Monument, near the place where it began, which is one of the moſt remarkable ſtructures in the city. To the two above calamities, we may add the high wind in 1703, which did incredible miſchief to the city and its environs, and alſo to the ſhipping in the Thames.

The Tower of London is ſurrounded by a wall, and partly by a deep ditch, which incloſes ſeveral ſtreets, beſides the Tower, properly ſo called: this contains the great artillery, a magazine of ſmall arms for ſixty thouſand men, and the large horſe-armoury, among which are fifteen figures of kings on horſeback. The circumference of the whole is about a mile. There is one pariſh-church in it, which is under the command of a conſtable and lieutenant. In this fortreſs are kept the jewels and ornaments of the crown, as well as the other regalia, the mint for coining money, and the menagerie for foreign birds and beaſts.

The cuſtom-houſe ſtands in Thames-ſtreet near the Tower: it is a large ſtately ſtructure, where the king's cuſtoms are received for all goods imported and exported. There is a delightful proſpect of a grove of ſhips, laden with commodities of various kinds oppoſite to this place, as well as a great way down the river. London bridge is erected a little to the weſt of the cuſtom-houſe.

The Exciſe-office, in Broadſtreet, has been lately erected on the ſpot where Greſham college formerly ſtood, the latter of which was provided with profeſſors, appointed to read lectures there in the different faculties, which is now done in a convenient apartment over the Royal Exchange. Greſham college was formerly the muſeum of the Royal Society, and had a fine library belonging to it.

In 1732 the Bank of Engand began to be erected, and was finiſhed in two years; ſoon after which a marble ſtatue of William III. was ſet up in the hall. This is a noble and commodious ſtone building.

On the north ſide of Cornhill ſtands the Royal Exchange, which is generally allowed to be the fineſt ſtructure of the kind in Europe. It was firſt built by Sir Thomas Greſham in the years 1566 and 1567; but being burnt down in 1666, it was rebuilt in a more elegant manner with Portland ſtone, was finiſhed in 1669, and coſt ſixty-ſix thouſand pounds. The quadrangle within is one hundred and forty-four feet long, and one hundred and ſeventeen broad; on the outſide of the walls, are piazzas, and over them twenty-four niches, twenty of which are filled with the ſtatues of the kings and queens of England. In the middle of the area is the ſtatue of Charles II. in a Roman habit. The tower and turret of the lantern is one hundred and ſeventy-eight feet high, and makes a good appearance.

The Maſion-houſe, in which the lord mayor reſides, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the Royal Exchange; it was founded in the year 1739. It is a magnificent ſtructure, but its ſize, weight, and confined ſituation greatly diminiſh its dignity.

The church of St. Mary le Bow in Cheapſide is admired for its ſteeple, and has a fine ring of bells; and that of Walbrook, behind the Manſion, for its architecture, which is extremely curious and maſterly.

On the north-ſide of Cheapſide, at the top of King-ſtreet, ſtands Guildhall, the town-houſe of the city. The great hall is one hundred and fifty-three feet long, fifty broad, and fifty-eight high, and will hold near ſeven thouſand people. It is embelliſhed with the pictures of ſeveral Engliſh monarchs, particularly thoſe of their preſent majeſties, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed perſonages; a ſtatue has lately been erected there to the memory of the late earl of Chatham. And nearly adjoining to the before-mentioned building ſtands Blackwell-hall, famous for being the greateſt market in the world for woollen cloth.

Sion college ſtands near London-wall: here is a library appropriated to the uſe of the London clergy. There are alms-houſes belonging to it for ten poor men, and as many women, to each of whom ſix pounds per annum is allowed.

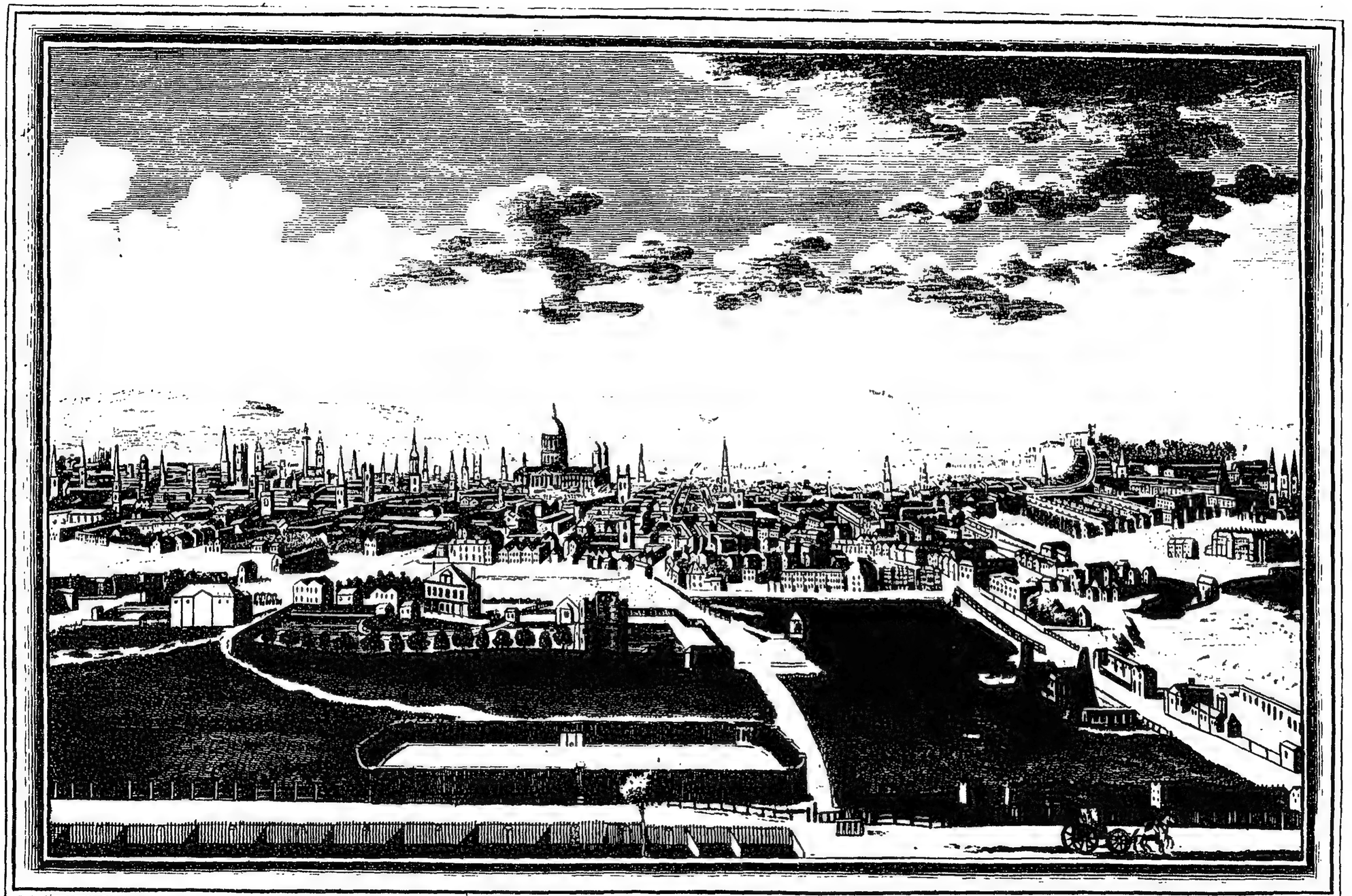
The cathedral of St. Paul, near Cheapſide, is allowed to be the fineſt proteſtant church in the world, and was built after model invented by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. Its length, from eaſt to weſt, is four hundred and ſixty-three feet, and including the portico, five hundred, and its height three hundred and forty-four feet from the ground to the top of the croſs.

The College of Phyſicians, though obſcurely ſituated on the weſt ſide of Warwick-lane, is nevertheleſs a handſome ſtructure.

In the Old Bailey ſtands Surgeons-hall, which is a handſome building, adjoining to which are the ſeſſions-houſe, and Newgate, the county gaol.

The noble building, called Chriſt's hoſpital, behind the north

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A General View of LONDON, the Capital of England — Taken from an eminence near Islington.

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north ſide of Newgate-ſtreet, was formerly a houſe of the Grey Friars, and was founded by Edward VI. for the entertainment and education of the poor children of citizens of both ſexes. A mathematical ſchool was founded here in 1673, and a writing-ſchool in 1694, and by means of a great many noble benefactions the charity has been otherwiſe greatly increaſed.

On the ſouth ſide of St. Paul's are Doctors Commons, conſiſting of ſeveral handſome courts, where the judges of admiralty, court of delegates, court of arches, &c. meet. Near it is the Herald's college, to which belong three kings at arms, namely, Garter, Clarencieux, and Norroy, with ſix heralds, four purſuivants, and eight proctors. It is a ſpacious building with convenient apartments, a good library relating to heraldry, and the coats of arms of all the families of note in England are kept here.

The Inner and Middle Temple, near Temple-bar, are both inns of court for the ſtudy of the law. The Temple church was founded at firſt by the Knights Templars in 1185, and it is now one of the moſt beautiful gothic ſtructures in England. There are twelve other inns of court in the city, which are adapted to the like purpoſes.

There is a handſome ſtone bridge over the Thames at Black-friars; in the road near to which is Bridewell, uſed as an hoſpital, manufactory, and houſe of correction; and on the eaſt ſide of Fleet-market is a priſon for debtors, called the Fleet. There is alſo another priſon for the like purpoſe in St. George's fields, called the King's Bench; near to which is New Bridewell, a large building adapted for the puniſhment of vagrants, &c. In June, 1780, the King's Bench and Fleet Priſons, great part of Newgate, the toll-houſe on Black-friars bridge, &c. were burnt by the rioters.

There are ſeveral excellent foundations in London and its environs. Among theſe are, St. Bartholomew's hoſpital, near Weſt Smithfield, the ſmall pox hoſpitals, in Cold-bath fields and near Battle-bridge Wells, the lying-in hoſpital in Brownlow-ſtreet, Long-acre, another in the City Road, and a third near Weſtminſter-bridge, St. Thomas's and Guy's hoſpitals in Southwark, St. George's and the Lock near Hyde Park Corner, the Middleſex hoſpital in Tottenham-court road, the London hoſpital at Mile-End, and the Magdalen, for the reformation of proſtitutes, in St. George's fields. To theſe muſt be added, Bedlam or Bethlem hoſpital for inſane people in Lower Moorfields (united with Bridewell) and St. Luke's for the ſame purpoſe in Upper Moorfields; alſo the magnificent ſtructure called the Foundling hoſpital, in Lamb's-conduit fields.

The city of Weſtminſter, contiguous to London, is by ſome reckoned part of it, though under a diſtinct government, has long been famous for the palaces of the Engliſh monarchs, the ſeat of the law tribunals, and the high court of parliament. The name is derived from its abbey, formerly called a minſter, and its ſituation weſt of St. Paul's cathedral. The abbey is a truly venerable pile of building, in the gothic taſte, where moſt of the Engliſh monarchs have been crowned and buried. It was founded before the year 850, but the preſent fabric was erected by Henry III. It is four hundred and eighty-nine feet in length, and ſixty-ſix in breadth at the weſt end; but the croſs aiſle is one hundred and eighty-nine feet broad, and the height of the middle roof ninety-two feet. At the eaſt end is the chapel of Henry VII. which is ſo ingeniouſly wrought, that Leland calls it the miracle of the world. The ſcreen, or fence, is entirely braſs, and within are the figures of Henry VII. and his queen of ſolid braſs, gilt. The abbey abounds with magnificent monuments, many of which are erected to the memory of noble and royal perſonages; of ſuch as have diſtinguiſhed themſelves for their military or naval atchievements, their knowledge in the various ſciences, or other excellent qualifications either in a public or private capacity.

Weſtminſter-hall, near the abbey, is one of the largeſt rooms in Europe: but its roof is not ſupported by pillars. Here the law-courts are kept, and adjoining are the two houſes of lords and commons.

Weſtminſter-bridge, univerſally acknowledged to be a maſter-piece of art, is ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from the hall.

There are ſeveral magnificent ſquares in Weſtminſter, as thoſe of Hanover, Berkeley, Groſvenor, Cavendiſh, and a new one called Portman-ſquare. To the eaſt of this laſt is Portland-place, a new ſtreet, the buildings in which are ſaid to be ſuperior in grandeur to any in Europe. Beſides the above ſquares, there are St. James's, Soho, Leiceſter, Golden, and Bloomſbury; to which may be added the magnificent ſquare called Lincoln's-inn-fields, and ſeveral others of leſs note, both in and out of the city.

There are in London ninety-ſeven pariſhes within the walls, ſixteen without, nineteen in the out pariſhes of Middleſex, and eleven in the city and liberties of Weſtminſter. The number of meeting-houſes, for proteſtant diſſenters, of all denominations, is upwards of one hundred; beſides which, there are three Jews ſynagogues. The public ſchools are, that of St. Paul, Merchant Taylors in Suffolk-lane, near Cannon-ſtreet, and the Charter-houſe in London; the royal ſchool, and St. Martin's ſchool, near the King's Mews, in Weſtminſter.

With reſpect to the trading part of the city of London, it is commonly divided into eighty-nine companies; but ſome can hardly be called ſo, becauſe they have neither charters, halls, nor liveries. Of theſe there are twelve principal, of one of which the lord mayor is uſually free: they are as follow; the mercers, grocers, drapers, fiſhmongers, goldſmiths, ſkinners, merchant-taylors, haberdaſhers, ſalters, ironmongers, vintners, and cloth-workers. The lord mayor, twenty-ſix aldermen, two hundred and thirty-ſix common councilmen, a recorder, two ſheriffs, a chamberlain, a common ſerjeant, and a town-clerk, are the city magiſtrates.

A high ſteward, a head bailiff, a high conſtable, and fourteen burgeſſes, are the principal magiſtrates and officers for the government of the city and liberty of Weſtminſter.

Vauxhall, Ranelagh, the Pantheon, two play-houſes, the opera-houſe, and the theatre royal in the hay-market, are the principal places of public amuſement.

Beſides the clergy, the moſt learned bodies of men are, the Royal Society, the College of Phyſicians, the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. and the Society of Antiquaries. The fineſt repoſitory of rarities is that called Sir Hans Sloane's Muſeum, kept in Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bloomſbury, and purchaſed by the parliament for the inſpection and uſe of the public.

London, Weſtminſter, and Southwark, are ſeated on the banks of the Thames; and from Radcliff-croſs in the eaſt to Northumberland houſe in the weſt there is a gradual aſcent to the principal ſtreets. The common fuel is pit-coal, uſually called ſea-coal, of which there are conſumed upwards of ſix hundred thouſand chaldrons every year. The number of hackney coaches is one thouſand, but the ſedan chairs are not ſo numerous.

It is computed that London is ſix hundred and ninety meaſured miles north by weſt of Madrid, ſeven hundred and fifty north-weſt of Rome, ſix hundred and ſixty weſt-north-weſt of Vienna, two hundred and twenty-five north-weſt of Paris, one hundred and ninety weſt-ſouth-weſt of Amſterdam, four hundred ſouth-eaſt of Edinburgh, and three hundred and thirty-four ſouth-eaſt of Dublin.

The county of Eſſex, ſituated to the eaſt of Middleſex, is extremely fertile, and abounds in cattle, corn, paſtures, ſaffron, &c. Its chief town is Colcheſter, a large and populous place on the river Coln, which paſſes through it, and is made navigable for ſmall craft up to the Hithe, a long ſtreet, which may be called the Wapping of Colcheſter, where there is a convenient quay; and at Wivenhoe, within three miles of it, is a good cuſtom-houſe. This, and all the towns round it, are noted for making of baize, of which great quantities are exported. For the ſupport of this trade, there is a corporation, called governors of the Dutch bay-hall: this town is alſo noted for excellent oyſters. It is reckoned to be about three miles in circumference, has ten pariſh churches, and five meeting-houſes. It had antiently a wall and a ſtrong caſtle, built by Edward, ſon to king Alfred, about the year 912.

The town of Chelmsford ſtands in a beautiful plain, having the little river Chelmer running through it, over which there is a bridge. This is called the ſhire or county town, and is a large, populous place, almoſt in the centre of the county, and its ſituation renders it the moſt frequented.

The county of Hertford (or Hartfordſhire, which received its name from the great number of harts with which it formerly abounded) is ſituated weſtward of Eſſex, is particularly fertile in corn and wood. The ſhire town is Hertford, which, however, is inferior in opulence to either Ware or St. Alban's. The town was in ſome note in the time of the Romans, who called it Durocobriva, or Red Ford, from the red gravel at the Ford. The Eaſt Saxon kings formerly kept their courts here. Its churches are All Saints and St. Andrew's.

The county of Bedford lies north-weſt of Hertfordſhire, is fruitful in corn and paſture. The principal town of the ſame name is a clean, well built, populous place. Here are five churches, of which the chief, and indeed the principal ornament of the town, is St. Paul's, which had once a college of prebendaries. The priory, now belonging to the earl of Aſhburnham, was founded before the Norman conqueſt for ſecular canons. The buildings of this town are pretty good, and the ſtreets broad. The north and ſouth parts are joined by a ſtone bridge over the Ouſe.

The county of Buckingham, or Buckinghamſhire, is both pleaſant and fruitful, abounds particularly in phyſical plants. The county town, Buckingham, ſtands in a low ground, encompaſſed on all ſides, except the north, with the river Ouſe.

The caſtle, now in ruins, was built in the middle of it, and divides it into two parts. In the north part ſtands the town-hall, a very handſome, convenient ſtructure. It is a populous town, and has three ſtone bridges over the Ouſe. Its church, which is in the weſt part of the town, is very large, and, when the ſpire was ſtanding, might be reckoned the beſt in the county. In 1698 it was in part blown down, and never ſince re-built. Earl Temple has lately made a new road from this town to his celebrated ſeat at Stowe: it runs in a ſtrait line about two miles up to the Corinthian arch, which, however, ſometimes diſappears, owing to the riſing and falling of the ground. The lace manufacture is the principal buſineſs here, as well as in other parts of the county.

The county of Oxford, which is pleaſant, healthful, and fertile, is ſituated to the weſt of Buckinghamſhire. The city, which bears the ſame name, ſtands on the conflux of the Charwell and Iſis: the name ſeems to be derived from a Saxon word, which ſignifies a ford for the paſſage of oxen. It enjoys a ſweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful proſpect. The private buildings are neat, the public ones ſumptuous, and the river navigable for barges: but that which gives it a conſequence above all other places in this kingdom, is the oldeſt and moſt noble univerſity in Europe, having been a ſeminary for learning upwards of eight hundred years. It is governed by a chancellor, vice-chancellor, and other officers, and contains twenty colleges, five halls, a ſtately pile called the ſchools, wherein exerciſes for the ſeveral degrees are performed; the theatre, the moſt magnificent building of the kind in the world; the Clarendon printing-houſe, which likewiſe ſurpaſſes every thing of a ſimilar nature; the muſeum, containing a chemical laboratory, a repoſitory of natural and artificial curioſities and antiquities, a library, phyſic-garden, &c.

The county of Glouceſter, or Glouceſterſhire, lies to the weſtward of Oxfordſhire, is tolerably pleaſant, but indifferently fertile. The city of Glouceſter is well built, clean, and healthy, ſecured by the river on the one ſide, a branch of which brings up veſſels of a conſiderable burden to its walls. It has a beautiful cathedral, five churches, and is well provided with hoſpitals. There is an elegant ſtone bridge over the river, with a quay or wharf, and a cuſtom-houſe; abundance of croſſes and ſtatues of the kings of England are diſperſed in different parts of the city, and large remains of monarchies. Under the bridge is a curious machine, which raiſes water to ſupply the town, which they alſo procure from Robin Hood's Well, a mile or two out of the town. The cathedral is an antient but magnificent fabric, and has a tower, which is one of the neateſt and moſt curious pieces of architecture in England; and a whiſpering place, as in the cupola of St. Paul's. It has beautiful cloiſters, and twelve chapels in it, with the arms and monuments of great perſons. Its town-hall for the aſſizes is called the Booth-hall.

The county of Monmouth, which was formerly part of Wales, is the moſt weſtern Engliſh county towards ſouth Wales. The town of Monmouth, twelve miles from Hereford, and one hundred and twenty-five from London, has its name from the mouth of the river Minway, on which it is ſituated, ſtanding on a pleaſant ſpot between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge. The place carries on a conſiderable traffic with Briſtol by means of the Wye. It has a ſtately church, the eaſt end of which is curiouſly built. The town is in a manner ſurrounded by water, there being another river, the Trothy, over which it has alſo a bridge.

The county of Hereford is one of the moſt fertile in the kingdom, and particularly celebrated for its cyder. The only city in this county, called after its name, has a good ſtone bridge of eight arches over the Wye, and is encompaſſed with rivers on all ſides but the weſt. Its name ſignifies the ford of an army, it having been for ſeveral hundred years the head quarters of the Saxons before the conqueſt, and of the Engliſh afterwards; who were ſtationed here, to keep the Welſh in awe. Before the civil wars, it had ſix, but now only four churches. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, and contains monuments of its antient prelates. The biſhop's caſtle, the cloſe with the dignitaries houſes, and the college of the vicars and choriſters, are pleaſantly ſituated. It is a large, but not very populous city.

The county of Worceſter, north-eaſt of Herefordſhire, is well watered, and very fruitful. The capital city, Worceſter, is ſituated near the Severn, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge. The chief manufactures of the place are broad cloth, gloves, and porcelain, which is a compoſition of a middle nature between fine earth and glaſs. The public buildings make a grand appearance, eſpecially the guildhall and the workhouſe. It had formerly a caſtle and walls, with three gates, and five watch towers, all long ſince deſtroyed. The cathedral (the model of that at Bruſſels,) is a large edifice, but not very elegant, except the choir of the chapel, on the ſouth ſide, which is of curious workmanſhip. A handſome library belongs to the cathedral, ſupported by one ſingle pillar in the middle. Here are the monuments of king John, prince Arthur, brother to Henry VIII. the counteſs of Saliſbury, and other illuſtrious perſons. Beſides the cathedral, there are eleven pariſh churches. The ſtreets are broad and well paved; the foregate ſtreet is regular and beautiful; the hoſpitals deſerve notice, eſpecially that noble one erected by Robert Berkley, of Spetchy, who laid out two thouſand pounds in the building, and four thouſand pounds in endowing it for twelve poor men: there are, beſides this, ſix or ſeven others. Here is a good water houſe and quay. The Severn, though generally rapid elſewhere, glides by Worceſter very gently. The remarkable battle in 1641, when Charles I. was defeated by Cromwell, was fought near the ſouth gate of the city, where bones of the ſlain are frequently dug up.

The county of Warwick to the eaſt of Worceſterſhire, is particularly famous for its iron works, and very fertile.

The city of Coventry is united with Litchfield, in Staffordſhire, as a biſhoprick. It is large and populous, but the buildings are old; and ſome of them which are built with timber, project out ſo much, that in the narrow ſtreets the tops of the oppoſite houſes almoſt touch. The chief churches are St. Michael's and Trinity. The proteſtant diſſenters are a conſiderable body here. The town-houſe is worth ſeeing, the windows being of painted glaſs, repreſenting ſome of the old kings, &c. who have been benefactors to the city. Its chief manufactures are tammies, and the weaving of ribbands.

The county town is Warwick, ſituated on the banks of the Avon, on a ſpot remarkably rocky. It is a very antient place, and may be approached four ways, anſwering to the points of the compaſs, and cut through rocks. Theſe lead to four ſtreets which meet in the centre of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is ſupplied with water by pipes from ſprings half a mile off, and has a noble ſtone bridge of twelve arches over the Avon. Here is a caſtle, the principal ornament of the place, ſtrong both by art and nature; the rock on which it ſtands is forty feet from the river; but on the north ſide it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is above fifty feet perpendicular from the Avon, there is a proſpect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Van Dyke, not inferior to ſome of the royal palaces.

The town of Birmingham is very large and populous; the upper part of it ſtands dry on the ſide of a hill, but the lower is watery, and inhabited by the meaner ſort of people. They are employed here in the iron works, in which they are ſuch ingenious artificers, that their performances in the ſmall wares of iron and ſteel are admired both at home and abroad. It is much improved of late years, both in public and private buildings. Near this town is a ſeat belonging to Sir Liſter Holt, Bart. but converted into public gardens, with an organ and other muſic, in imitation of Vauxhall, which appellation it bears at preſent.

The county of Northampton, eaſt of Warwickſhire, has leſs waſte ground than any other county, and conſequently is exceedingly rich and fertile. It gives the title of earl, and ſends nine members to parliament. The town of the ſame name, ſtands upon the Nen, over which it has two bridges. The buildings were handſome, and the place large, (having ſeven pariſh churches within the walls, and two without) when it was reduced to aſhes by a dreadful fire in 1675. Liberal contributions from all parts of the kingdom reſtored it in a great meaſure to its original ſize; and for neatneſs, beauty, and ſituation, few towns equal it. It has four churches, of which the great one, viz. Allhallows, is a handſome edifice, with a handſome portico of twelve lofty Ionic columns, and a ſtatue of king Charles II. on the baluſtrade. It ſtands near the centre of the town, and at the meeting of four ſpacious ſtreets. The market place is one of the fineſt in Europe. The horſe market is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England. Its moſt conſiderable manufacture is ſhoes, of which great numbers are exported; the next to that ſtockings. The walls are two thouſand one hundred and twenty paces in compaſs. Among the public buildings, which all make a grand appearance, the George inn looks more like a palace, and as ſoon as it was finiſhed at the expence of two thouſand pounds, the owner John Dryden, generouſly gave it to the poor. A county hoſpital is built here after the manner of the infirmaries of London, Briſtol, Bath, &c. and the river Nen has lately been made navigable up to the town. The ſeſſions and aſſize houſe, is a very beautiful building of the Corinthian order.

The city of Peterborough, which is of great antiquity, is ſeated on the river Nen, over which there is a bridge, which leads into Huntingdonſhire, and is in the eaſtern angle of Northamptonſhire, ſeventy-ſix miles north by weſt of London. It has many good houſes, the ſtreets are handſome and well built, and the market place is pretty ſpacious. The cathedral is the fineſt gothic building in England.

The town of Wellingborough, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks

banks of the ſame river, ſixty-five miles from London, is large, well built, and populous, with a handſome church, and free ſchool: it has a pretty good trade.

The county of Huntingdon, to the eaſt of Northampton-ſhire, is a great corn and paſture county, and abounds in fiſh and wild fowl. The town of Huntingdon, near the Ouſe, over which there is a ſtone bridge, is the conſtant place for the aſſize, as well as the county gaol, and is a populous trading place, conſiſting chiefly of one large ſtreet well built, with a handſome market place, and a good grammar ſchool. There are ſeveral beautiful meadows on the banks of the river. The bridge or rather bridges, with the cauſeway, are ornaments as well as benefits to the town; near the weſt ſide is Hinchinbroke, which gives the title of viſcount to earl Sandwich's eldeſt ſon.

The town of St. Neots, in this county, is well built, and fifty-ſix miles north north weſt of London, it is ſeated on the Ouſe, has a handſome church, and a conſiderable market.

The town of St. Ives, fifty-ſeven miles north-weſt of London, is a large and handſome place. It has one large church, two diſſenting meetings, a popiſh chapel, with about five hundred dwelling-houſes. The ſtreets are pretty wide and tolerably well paved.

The principal rivers in this county are the Nen and Ouſe.

The county of Cambridge, including the iſle of Ely, is ſituated to the weſt of Suffolk, and in general is very fertile, and produces great quantities of corn, particularly barley. The principal river is the Ouſe, which runs from the eaſt to the north-weſt, and receives the Cam, near Thetford.

The town of Cambridge, the capital of the county, is ſo called from its ſituation on the banks of the Cam, which form ſeveral iſlands on the weſt ſide, and divides the town into two parts, which are joined by a large ſtone bridge. It is very antient, being well known in the time of the Romans, by the name of Camboritum. William the Conqueror built a caſtle here, of which the gate-houſe is ſtill ſtanding, and uſed for the county gaol. The town is divided into ten wards, has fourteen pariſh churches, contains upwards of twelve hundred houſes, for the moſt part irregularly built, and about ſix thouſand inhabitants. The univerſity, which is a corporation of itſelf, contains twelve colleges and four halls; it is governed by a chancellor, vice chancellor, a commiſſary, high ſteward, and two proctors; there is alſo a librarian, regiſter, &c.

The antient city of Ely, is ſituated in the fenny country, called the iſle of Ely; and being ſurrounded by the Ouſe and other ſtreams, is unhealthy, though it ſtands on a riſing ground. It was made an epiſcopal ſee by Henry I. The cathedral and the biſhop's palace are its chief ornaments; the former has a remarkable dome and lantern, ſuppoſed to be the only work of its kind in Europe, and was a monaſtery in the Saxons' time. Here are about ſix hundred good houſes, and one good ſtreet well paved. The aſſizes are alternately held here and at Wiſbech.

The town of Newmarket, which is handſome and well built, conſiſts of one long ſtreet, the north ſide of which is in Suffolk, is famous for horſe-races, and prodigiouſly frequented by perſons of all ranks. The town is not modern, as the name imports; for it was of note in the time of Edward III. but being burnt down in 1683, was afterwards rebuilt. Beſides the pariſh-church of St. Mary, there is alſo a ſmall church, All-ſaints, which is, properly ſpeaking, only a chapel of eaſe to Wood-Ditton, in Cambridgeſhire. It is a healthy place, and on a ſpacious heath, which is the fineſt courſe in England. Here are ſeveral very wide, ſteep, and long ditches, which were cut by the Eaſt Angles, to keep out the Mercians; one of which runs many miles over the heath, and being a ſtupendous work, much ſuperior to the reſt, has obtained the name of the Devil's Ditch.

The county of Suffolk, ſituated on the ſea coaſt, weſt of the German ocean, has but an indifferent ſoil, that near the ſhore being ſandy and full of heaths, yet abounds in rye, peas, and hemp, with numerous flocks of ſheep. The principal rivers are the Waveney, the Deben, the Orwell, by ſome called the Gipping, and the Stour. The chief town is

Ipſwich, ſixty-eight miles to the north-eaſt of London. It was antiently in a flouriſhing ſtate, as appears from the great number of ſhips that belonged to it, when its harbour was more commodious, and twenty-one churches, of which now only twelve remain. The tide riſes here twelve, ſometimes fourteen feet. The town is populous, about a mile long, and ſomething more in breadth, forming a ſort of half-moon on the bank of the river, over which it has a good bridge of ſtone. It is a corporation; and its chief manufactures are linen and woollen. Here is a convenient quay and cuſtom-houſe, and no place in Britain is thought to be ſo well qualified for the Greenland fiſhery, ſince the ſame wind which carries a ſhip out of the harbour is quite fair to the Greenland ſeas. The town, which contains about four thouſand houſes, contains twelve pariſh-churches, a town-hall, a county-hall, two hoſpitals, a free-ſchool, &c. is governed by a bailiff, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common council-men.

The county of Norfolk, which is alſo a maritime place, to the north of Suffolk, is exceedingly fruitful, and deemed an epitome of the whole kingdom. The principal rivers are the Ouſe, Waveney and Yare.

The city of Norwich, one hundred miles north-eaſt by north of London, is large, and ſituated near the conflux of the rivers Venſder and Yare. It ſtands on the ſide of a hill, and is near two miles in length, and one in breadth. Though the place is irregular, yet all the buildings are neat and handſome. It has twelve gates, and ſix bridges over the Yare; thirty-ſix churches, beſides the cathedral, and chapels and meeting-houſes of all denominations. The roof of the cathedral, a large, venerable, and handſome ſtructure, is adorned with the hiſtory of the bible. The choir is large and ſpacious, and the ſteeple higher than that at Grantham, but lower than that at Saliſbury. Here are two churches for the Dutch and Flemings, who enjoy ſingular privileges. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, twelve aldermen, two ſheriffs, and twenty-one common council men.

The ſea-port town of Yarmouth, one hundred miles north-eaſt of London, and ſeated on the river Yare, is well built, and very populous, at the mouth of the Ouſe.

Lynn Regis, or King's Lynn, one hundred and two miles north-eaſt of London, is a handſome, large, and well built town, at the mouth of the Ouſe.

The county of Lincoln, a large and plentiful maritime place, is ſituated to the weſt of the German ocean, and divided into three parts, viz. Holland, Keſteven, and Lindſey. This laſt diviſion, which is the largeſt, contains,

The city of Lincoln, one hundred and thirty-five miles from London, built on the ſide of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham, in three ſmall channels, over which are ſeveral bridges. The cathedral was eſteemed the glory of Lincoln; for its magnificence and elevation is ſuch, that the monks concluded it would mortify the devil to look at it; and hence an envious look, by a proverbial expreſſion, is compared to the devil looking over Lincoln. In the centre of the old caſtle, which was built by the Romans, and repaired by the Saxons, is a modern ſtructure where the aſſizes are held. The city is a county of itſelf, and has extenſive power and privileges. On the Down of Lincoln is ſometimes ſeen, that rare bird called the buſtard; the circumjacent country is very rich and agreeable; the noble tract of Lincoln heath extending like Saliſbury plain, above fifty miles. The cathedral was ſucceſſively brought to perfection by ſeveral of its biſhops. Here is the fineſt and largeſt bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln, near five ton weight, containing four hundred and twenty-four gallons, ale meaſure, and is near twenty-three feet in circumference. This city is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, two ſheriffs, &c. whoſe juriſdiction extends twenty miles round it.

The town of Boſton, on the river Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln, and one hundred and twenty miles north of London. It was formerly made a ſtaple for wool, and the merchants of Hans towns fixed their guild here; it is a pleaſant, well built town, and has a good foreign and inland trade. Its church is reckoned the largeſt pariſh church without croſs aiſles in all the world: it is three hundred feet long within the walls, one hundred feet wide, handſomely ceiled with Iriſh oak, ſupported by tall and ſlender pillars; it has three hundred and ſixty-five ſteps, fifty-two windows, and twelve pillars, anſwerable to the days, weeks, and months of the year. The tower or ſteeple, is famous for its height and workmanſhip, being two hundred and eighty-two feet high. It has a beautiful octagon lantern on the top, which is ſeen near forty miles every way, but eſpecially on the ſea as far as the entrance of the dangerous channels called Lynn-deeps and Boſton-deeps, ſo that it is the guide to mariners, as well as the wonder of travellers, and is a magnificent ſpecimen of a fine Gothic taſte. The town has a commodious haven, and is plentifully ſupplied with freſh water by pipes from a pond, incloſed in the great common called the Weſt Fen. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, twelve aldermen, eighteen common council-men, &c.

In the diviſion of Keſteven is the town of Stamford, on the Welland, which is navigable for barges. It is finely ſituated on the declivity of a hill, and has a ſtone bridge of five arches. Here is a handſome town hall, and ſix pariſh-churches, with ſeveral good ſtreets and fine ſtructures. The trade is very conſiderable in malt, coals, and free-ſtone. The inhabitants are numerous and rich.

The borough town of Grantham, one hundred and ten miles from London, ſituate on the river Witham, has abundance of good inns of great reſort. It is well built: here is a fine large church, with a handſome ſpire of ſtone two hundred and eighty feet high; which, by a deception of the ſight, ſeems to ſtand awry. A good free-ſchool was built and endowed here by Dr. Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, and a native of this town; and here the celebrated Sir Iſaac Newton received his

first education. It is governed by an alderman, two juſtices of the peace, a recorder, coroner, &c.

The county of Rutland, to the ſouth-weſt of Lincolnſhire, is the ſmalleſt county in England, but contains more parks than any other; and it is as fertile as pleaſant. The county town is Oakham, where the aſſize is held: it is ſituated in the little but rich vale of Catmos, ninety-four miles from London; is indifferently well built, but famous for its market, fairs, caſtle, hoſpitals, and free-ſchools. This town is remarkable for an antient cuſtom, ſtill obſerved, that every peer of the realm, the firſt time he comes through this town, ſhall give a horſe-ſhoe to nail upon the caſtle-gate; and if he refuſes, the bailiff of the manor has power to ſtop his coach, and take the ſhoe. This is now called the order of the horſe-ſhoe; and it is common for the donor to have a large one made with his name ſtamped on it, and often gilt. One over the judges ſeat, in the aſſize hall, is of curious workmanſhip. Here is a church dedicated to All Saints, which is a handſome ſtructure with a lofty ſpire; alſo a free-ſchool, and an hoſpital.

The village of Uppingham is a pretty compact well built place; has a very good free-ſchool, and an hoſpital: it is ſeated on an eminence, eighty-ſeven miles from London.

The county of Leiceſter, ſituated on the weſt of Rutland-ſhire, is a plentiful and extenſive place. Its chief rivers are the Avon, Soar, Anker, and Welland. It gives the title of earl, and ſends four members to Parliament.

The principal and county town, Leiceſter, and the only one ſending members to Parliament, is the largeſt, beſt built, and moſt populous in the ſhire, having ſix pariſhes and five churches. The freemen are exempt from toll in all markets in England. St. Margaret's church is a noble and elegant ſtructure, and famous for a ring of ſix of the moſt tuneable bells in the kingdom. In St. Martin's church is an epitaph on one Heyric, who died in 1589, aged ſeventy-ſix, lived in one houſe with his wife fifty-two years, though ſometimes twenty in a family; and the widow, who lived to be ninety-ſeven, ſaw, before her death, in December 1611, of her children, grand children, and great grand children, to the number of one hundred and forty-three. There is an exquiſite piece of workmanſhip in the high ſtreet, in form of our Saviour's croſs. The hoſpital built by Henry Plantagenet, duke of Lancaſter, is ſupported by ſome revenues of the duchy of Lancaſter, ſo as to be capable of maintaining one hundred aged perſons decently: it was rebuilt in 1776, at his Majeſty's expence. Here is another near the abbey, for ſix widows. The inhabitants have greatly improved in the manufacture of ſtockings wove in frames, and are thought to return in that article ſixty thouſand pounds per annum.

The county of Derby, ſituated to the weſt of Nottingham-ſhire, is barren on its ſurface, owing to the great number of hills, mountains, &c. but rich within the bowels of thoſe eminences. The peak is in the north-weſt part. It gives the title of earl, and ſends four members to Parliament.

The ſeven wonders of the Peak are, 1. Poole's-hole; 2. Mam-Tor, or the Mother Rock; 3. The Devil's arſe; 4. Tides-Well, or Weeden-Well; 5. Buxton-Wells; 6. Elden-hole. 7. Chatſworth-houſe and gardens. One of the moſt extraordinary of which is Poole's hole, a ſtupendous cavern, at the foot of a great mountain. The entrance is ſo low and narrow, that you muſt ſtoop to get in; but it ſoon opens into a wide and lofty concavity, that has ſome reſemblance to a Gothic cathedral, which reaches above a quarter of a mile in length. Water drops every where from the roof and ſides, and being of a petrifying quality, it encruſts all the ſtones with long cryſtals, in various forms, which, by the help of a ſtrong imagination, are ſhewn you as lions, lanthorns, organs, a flitch of bacon, &c. At length you come to the queen of Scots' pillar, which is the boundary of moſt people's curioſity, and was ſo named by that unhappy princeſs, when ſhe viſited this place. It is compoſed of a clear bright ſtone, like alabaſter, or rather like that kind of ſpar which is found about lead. A ſtream of water runs along the middle of this cavern among the fallen rocks, with an hideous noiſe. On the left hand is a ſort of chamber, where they ſay Poole, a famous robber, lived, and whoſe kitchen and bed-chamber they ſhew you, after you have crept ten yards on your hands and knees. What appears moſt extraordinary is, the ſurpriſing height of the arch, which Dr. Leigh compares to fret-work, organ, and choir-work, beſpangled with ſtars, which dazzle the eyes, and look extremely beautiful from the reflection of the lights.

The town of Derby, which is the capital, is ſo called from having been a park or ſhelter for deer: it ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river Derwent, over which it has a neat ſtone-bridge of five arches. The ſouth ſide is watered by a little rivulet called Mortin-brook, which has nine bridges over it. The moſt remarkable church in Derby is All-ſaints, or All-hallows, having a beautiful Gothic ſquare tower ſixty yards high, with four pinnacles. This town depends chiefly on a retail trade; alſo in buying and ſelling corn, in making malt, and brewing ale, of both which great quantities are ſent to London. The town is governed by a mayor, nine aldermen, and other officers. The rebels came as far as this town in 1745, and then returned back into Scotland.

The county of York, which is the largeſt in the kingdom, contains a variety of ſoils, gives the title of duke, ſends thirty members to parliament, and is divided into the eaſt, weſt, and north ridings; on account of their ſituation.

The city of York, is the ſecond in the kingdom: its chief magiſtrate has the title of lord-mayor. The cathedral is built in the gothic ſtile, and by ſome thought to be the fineſt in England, if not to excel any in Italy. It is dedicated to St. Peter. The windows are adorned with glaſs, exquiſitely painted with ſcripture hiſtory, and other moſt curious figures, in one hundred and ſeventeen partitions. In the ſouth tower there is a fine peal of twelve bells. The nave of this church, which is bigger than any except St. Peter's at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher than that of St. Paul's. The aſcent from it through the choir to the altar is by ſix ſteps. The entrance of the middle nave of the church, at the weſt door, is under the largeſt gothic arch in Europe, which binds and ſupports the two towers. At the ſouth end of the croſs aile is a circular window, called the marigold window, from its glaſs being ſtained of that colour; and a large one at the north end, conſiſting of five lights reaching almoſt from bottom to top, and erected, as they ſay, at the charge of five maiden ſiſters. The painting repreſents embroidery.

The city is in a pleaſant ſituation, and divided into four wards, containing twenty-eight pariſhes, and walled, but not fortified with artillery. The river Ouſe from the north paſſes through it, and divides it into two parts, joined together by a ſtone-bridge of five arches, of which the middleſt is reckoned, for height, breadth, and architecture, to be equal to the Rialto at Venice, though not to that at Blenheim. The great council-chamber, the exchequer, the ſheriff's court, and the two city priſons, are kept upon this bridge. The river brings large veſſels to the quay, though at ſixty miles diſtance from the ocean. It has four large well built gates, and five poſterns. The other moſt remarkable ſtructures are the guildhall, which is longer, and in ſome reſpects ſuperior to that of London. Near it is the ſtatue of king Edgar, who rebuilt the city and St. Antony's hall, in which there is one room big enough to hold moſt of the inferior tradeſmen of the city. The market-houſe in the ſtreet called the Pavement, is a curious piece of architecture, ſupported by twelve pillars of the Tuſcan order; and there is another ſtill larger in a ſquare, called Thurſday market. In this city are ſeventeen churches; of which All-hallows has the fineſt gothic ſteeple perhaps in England. The city belongs to neither of the ridings, but enjoys its own liberty, and has a juriſdiction over thirty-ſix villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood.

The town of Hull, or Kingſton upon Hull, is large, cloſe built, and exceeding populous. It has two churches, one called Trinity or High-Church; the other St. Mary's, or Low Church; the former is a ſpacious, beautiful building, the pillars of which are remarkably ſmall, and had, before the Reformation, twelve chantries, in one of which is now a neat library. Here are ſeveral meeting-houſes, an exchange built in 1621, a cuſtom-houſe, and an engine for making ſalt-water freſh. Here is a free-ſchool, with a hall over it belonging to the merchants, who have founded an hoſpital called Trinity-houſe, in which are maintained many diſtreſſed ſeamen and their widows. The rigid diſcipline beggars meet with here, makes Hull tremendous to them: all foreign poor are whipped out, and the poor of the town are ſet to work. They have a cant litany among them, viz. from Hell, Hull, and Hallifax, good Lord deliver us.

The town of Scarborough is large, built in the form of a creſcent, on the ſide of a ſteep hill. It has a commodious quay, but little trade. The pier is maintained by a duty upon coals; and the mariners have erected an hoſpital for widows and poor ſeamen, which is maintained by a rate on veſſels, and deductions out of ſeamen's wages. From the middle of November herrings are taken here in great numbers. Beſides herrings, they catch ling, cod-fiſh, haddock, turbot, and other fiſh in great plenty, and ſometimes whiting and mackerel. The ſpa-well is at the foot of an exceeding high cliff, riſing perpendicularly out of the earth like a boiling-pot, near the level of high-water-mark in ſpring-tides, with which it is often overflowed. It is never dry, and in an hour yields twenty-four gallons of water, which is purgative and diuretic. Here is good accommodation, beſides aſſemblies and public balls. The reſort of company is prodigious to this place of gaiety, where, with numbers, health is the pretence, but the end diſſipation. It ſends two members to parliament, and is two hundred and four miles north of London.

This county alſo contains the market towns of Leeds and Halifax, both in the Weſt Riding.

The county or biſhoprick of Durham, ſituated to the north of Yorkſhire, is very rich in coals, though the ſoil is not very fertile. The principal rivers are the Tees, the Wear, the Tame, and the Tyne.

The capital town, of the ſame name, is ſituated on an hill, has a cathedral, which is an old, but magnificent pile. Beſides the cathedral, here are ſix pariſh churches. Southward of the cathedral, is the college. Above the college-gate is the exchequer; and at the weſt, the gueſt-hall, for the entertainment of ſtrangers. On the north-ſide of the college ſchool is a houſe for the maſter, and between the church-yard and caſtle an open area, called the palace-green; to the weſt of which is the ſhire-hall, where the aſſizes and ſeſſions are held for the county; and near it a library. On the eaſt is an hoſpital built and endowed by biſhop Coſin; on the north ſide is a caſtle, now the biſhop's palace, built by William the Conqueror, the outward gate-houſe of which is at preſent the county gaol. The other principal public buildings are, the toll-booth near St. Nicholas's church, the croſs and conduit in the market-place, and the two bridges over the Wear.

In this county are alſo the town of Darlington, and the ſea-port town of Sunderland.

The county of Cumberland, ſouth-weſt of Northumberland, has a piercing, yet wholſome air, but is not very fertile: the land is for the moſt part hilly.

The capital city, Carliſle, is ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Eden, Peterill, and Cauda; it is a ſea port, but without ſhips, merchants, or trade; has but two pariſh churches, St. Cuthbert's and St. Mary's; the latter ſtands differently from any pariſh church in England, viz. in the body of the cathedral, which is in the middle of the city, incloſed by a wall; the eaſt part of the cathedral, which is neweſt, is a fine piece of workmanſhip; the lower or weſt part ſuffered much in the civil wars, when this city was beſieged. The choir of the cathedral is an exact piece of architecture, has a ſtately eaſt window forty feet high, and thirty feet broad, adorned with pillars of curious workmanſhip. The roof is elegantly vaulted with wood, and embelliſhed with the arms of France and England; the Percy's, Lucy's, Warren's, &c. This town is the key of England on the weſt ſea, as Berwick upon Tweed is on the eaſt ſea: it has a bridge over the Eden, which is but a little way from Scotland, the ſouth part of which indents into England, at leaſt fifty miles further than it does at Berwick.

The town of Whitehaven, is ſo called from the white cliffs that are near it, and ſhelter the harbour from tempeſts: is is populous, and has been greatly improved by Sir James Lowther, who was at a vaſt expence to make the harbour more commodious, and to beautify the town, the trade of which chiefly conſiſts in ſalt and coal. Some of the coal-mines here are ſunk to the depth of one hundred and thirty fathoms, and are extended under the ſea to places where there is above them ſufficient depth of water for ſhips of large burden. They carry on a good trade to Ireland, Scotland, Cheſter, &c.

The town of Penrith, or Perith, two hundred and eighty-two miles from London, has a very good market for all ſorts of commodities and cattle: the church is a large and handſome ſtructure.

The county of Weſtmoreland is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Cumberland, has a healthy, but ſharp air, is very mountainous, and has many barren parts in it. The principal rivers are the Eden, the Lone, and the Ken. It gives the title of earl, and ſends four members to parliament.

The chief town is Appleby, which though neither rich nor beautiful, is, by its ſituation in the midſt of pleaſant fields, and on the banks of the river Eden, which almoſt encompaſſes it, rendered very agreeable. Here is an hoſpital for a governeſs, and twelve other widows, called the mother and twelve ſiſters. This place has of late years gone greatly to decay, conſiſting at preſent of only one broad ſtreet of mean houſes: however, it ſtill keeps the aſſizes and ſeſſions, and at the upper part is the caſtle. The church ſtands at the lower end of the town; and they have likewiſe erected a town-houſe.

The town of Kendal, two hundred and fifty-ſix miles north-weſt of London, is ſeated in a valley, among hills, on the weſt ſide of the river Can or Ken, over which there are two ſtone bridges, and one of wood, which leads to the caſtle, now in ruins. The church is a ſpacious ſtructure, ſupported by five rows of pillars, and twelve chapels of eaſe belong to it. The free-ſchool ſtands on the ſide of the church-yard, and is well endowed, having exhibitions to Queen's college in Oxford. It is noted for its manufactures of cottons, druggets, hats, and ſtockings.

Here is alſo the town of Lonſdale, or Kirby-Lonſdale, ſeated on the Lone.

The maritime county of Lancaſter is ſituated to the eaſtward of the Iriſh ſea; is famous for its manufactures. It gives the title of duke, and ſends twelve member to parliament.

The ſhire town, Lancaſter, has its name from the river Lone, on the ſide of which it is ſituated, near its mouth, and gives name to the whole county: it is the antient Longovicum mentioned in the itinerary. Here are frequently found the coins of Roman emperors, eſpecially where the Benedictine friars had a cloiſter, which they ſay was the area of an antient city burnt to the ground in 1322 by the Scots. This town has lately much improved in commerce, being a populous, thriving corporation, with a tolerable harbour and cuſtom-houſe. The county-aſſizes are held in the caſtle, which is one of the faireſt monuments of antiquity in England.

The town of Liverpool, though not very antient, is neat and populous; and the moſt flouriſhing ſea-port in theſe parts, nearly equal to the city of Briſtol. The inhabitants carry on an incredible trade, with very large ſtocks, to all the northern and ſouthern parts of the world. They import almoſt all kinds of foreign goods, have a large inland trade; and, with Briſtol, ſhare in that to Ireland and Wales. It is alſo the moſt convenient and moſt frequented paſſage to Ireland, ſtanding at the mouth of the Merſey river, or Liverpool water. Here are four churches, many ſpacious clean ſtreets, an elegant town-houſe, an admirable wet dock with iron flood-gates, a ſtately cuſtom-houſe, a neat play-houſe, &c. The harbour is defended, on the ſouth ſide, by a caſtle, and, on the weſt, by a tower, on the Merſey.

Manchester is a very large and populous town, ſeated between the Ilk and Irwell, is one hundred and eighty-one miles north north-weſt of London. This is a place of great antiquity; and carries on a very extenſive trade in cottons, tickings, velvets, &c. It has a collegiate church, and two modern ones. This town has alſo a ſpacious market-place, exchange, college, hoſpital, free-ſchool, and library. The choir of the collegiate church is remarkable for its curious carved work, and a famous clock that ſhews the age of the moon. The chief magiſtrate is a conſtable, or headborough. The town gives the title of duke to the noble and antient family of Montague.

Other towns of inferior note in this county are, Warrington, on the river Merſey; Preſton, on the north ſide of the Ribble; and Wigan, on the river Douglas.

To the ſouth of Lancaſhire lies Cheſhire, which has a ſerene air and good ſoil, and is famous for its cheeſe; the land being fitter for paſture than corn. The principal rivers are the Merſey, the Wever, and the Dee.

The city of Cheſter, called alſo Weſt Cheſter, is large and well built, full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by its proximity to the Severn and Ireland, drive a conſiderable trade; it has ſeveral fairs in the year for cattle, Iriſh linen, cloths, hardware, hops, drapery, and Manchester goods. It is a place of great antiquity, and of a quadrangular form; the walls are near two miles in circumference; and there are four gates, towards the four cardinal points. It has a ſtrong caſtle, in which is the ſhire-hall, where all the cauſes belonging to the county palatine are determined. By the bridge is a handſome water-houſe; and the principal ſtreets are adorned with piazzas, under which are the tradeſmen's ſhops. It contains ten pariſh-churches beſides the cathedral; is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and twenty-four aldermen; ſends two members to parliament, and is a biſhop's ſee.

In this county are likewiſe the towns of Namptwich, Middlewich, Northwich, and Macclesfield.

The county of Stafford, lying on the ſouth-eaſt of Cheſhire, is a rich, though not fertile place.

The ſhire-town, Stafford, where the aſſizes, and alſo the quarter ſeſſions are held, is one hundred and thirty-two miles from London. It ſtands low on the river Sow, over which it has a good bridge. Here are two handſome churches, a free-ſchool, and a ſpacious market-place, in which ſtands the ſhire-hall: it is well built and paved: and much increaſed of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufactories of cloth. The old cuſtom of Borough Engliſh is ſtill kept up here. The buildings are for the moſt part of ſtone and ſlate, and ſome of them in the modern taſte.

The town of Litchfield is large and neat, and, when joined to Coventry, is a biſhopric. The cathedral, which ſtands in the cloſe, was begun in 1148; and is now a noble ſtructure, being walled like a caſtle, and, ſtanding on an eminence, is ſeen at the diſtance of ten miles.

The town of Wolverhampton ſtands upon a high ground, and is a populous well built town, and the ſtreets are well paved. It has an antient collegiate church, annexed to the deanery of Windſor; and a very handſome chapel, with a preſbyterian and a quakers meeting-houſe. It is chiefly noted for its iron manufactory, conſiſting of locks, hinges, buckles, cork-ſcrews, &c. The town is chiefly ſupplied with water from four weak ſprings called Pudding-well, Horſe-well, Waſhing-well, and

Meal-well. The healthy ſtate of this place is aſcribed to its high and dry ſituation.

Shropſhire lies ſouth of Cheſhire, and is tolerably fertile. It contains the following places; viz.

The town of Shrewſbury on the Severn; it has two fine bridges over that river, which ſurrounds it, except on the north ſide, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, and renders it a peninſula. It has a free grammar-ſchool; and contains five pariſh churches, beſides a chapel, two of which are handſome ſtructures, adorned with large ſpire ſteeples; here are good ſtreets, and handſome houſes well inhabited: it is ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, through which there are three gates, and on the eaſt and weſt two good ſtone bridges. This place is the common mart between England and Wales, to which all ſorts of Welch commodities are brought. It is a corporation with the title of an earldom, ſends two members to parliament, and is governed by a mayor, an alderman, a recorder, twenty-four common-councilmen, and a town-clerk. The town is nearly two miles long, and moſtly broad.

The following Table will exhibit at one view many curious and neceſſary particulars reſpecting the ſeveral counties in England, the frequent repetition of which might have proved diſguſting.

A TABLE, containing the Modern and Antient Names of the Counties or Shires in England; the Titles they give; their Length, Breadth, Circumference, Cities and Towns, Diſtances from London, Market Towns, the Number of Members they ſend to Parliament; and the Number of Pariſhes and Acres contained in each.

Modern Names.	Antient Names.	Title.	Leng.	Bred.	Circumf.	Chief City or Towns.	Diſt. fr. Lond.	Market Towns.	Parliam. Men.	Numb. Pariſh.	Number of Acres.
Bedfordſhire	Bedfordia	D.	22	15	73	Bedford	50	10	4	124	260,000
Berkſhire	Readingum	E.	39	29	120	Reading	40	12	9	140	527,000
Buckinghamſhire	Buckinghamia	E.	39	18	138	Buckingham	57	14	14	185	441,000
Cambridgeſhire	Camboritum	E.	40	25	130	Cambridge	52	8	6	163	570,000
	Elia					Ely	68				
Cheſhire	Deva	E.	45	25	130	Cheſter	182	12	4	86	720,000
Cornwall	Lanſtaphadonia	D.	78	42	150	Launceſton	214	27	44	171	960,000
						Truro	257				
Cumberland	Luguvallum	D.	55	38	168	Carliſle	298	14	6	58	1,040,000
Derbyſhire	Derbia	E.	40	30	130	Derby	126	11	4	106	680,000
Devonſhire	Iſca Danmoniorum	D.	69	66	200	Exeter	173	40	26	394	1,920,000
	Plimuta					Plymouth	216				
Dorſetſhire	Dunium	D.	50	40	150	Dorcheſter	120	22	20	248	772,000
Durham	Dunellum		39	35	107	Durham	257	8	4	52	610,000
Eſſex	Colonia	E.	47	43	150	Colcheſter	51	22	8	415	1,249,000
	Canonium					Chelmsford	28				
Glouceſterſhire	Clerum	D.	56	22	156	Glouceſter	100	27	8	280	800,000
Hampſhire	Venta Belgarum		64	36	150	Wincheſter	63	18	26	253	1,312,000
	Clauſentum					Southampton	75				
Herefordſhire	Herefordia	E.	35	30	108	Hereford	130	8	8	176	660,000
Hertfordſhire	Hertfordia	E.	36	28	130	Hertford	21	18	6	120	451,000
Huntingdonſhire	Huntingdonia	E.	24	18	67	Huntingdon	59	6	4	79	240,000
Kent	Durovernum		56	36	166	Canterbury	56	28	18	408	1,248,000
	Roffa					Rocheſter	30				
Lancaſhire	Longovicus	D.	57	32	170	Lancaſter	235	27	14	60	1,150,000
	Mancumium					Mancheſter	182				
Leiceſterſhire	Rhagæ	E.	30	25	96	Leiceſter	99	13	4	200	560,000
Lincolnſhire	Lindum	E.	60	35	180	Lincoln	132	39	12	688	1,740,000
Middleſex	Londinum	E.	24	18	95	London	0	5	18	143	247,000
	Weſtmonaſterium					Weſtminſter	1				
Monmouthſhire	Monumetia	D.	29	20	84	Monmouth	125	8	3	127	
Norfolk	Norvicum	D.	57	35	140	Norwich	109	32	12	660	1,148,000
	Gartianorum					Yarmouth	123				
Northampton	Petroburgum	E.	55	26	125	Peterborough	81	11	9	330	550,000
	Antona Borealis					Northampton	66				
Northumberland	Gabroſentum	D.	50	40	150	Newcaſtle	271	11	8	46	1,370,000
Nottinghamſhire	Nottinghamia	E.	43	24	110	Nottingham	126	9	8	168	560,000
Oxfordſhire	Oxonium	E.	42	26	130	Oxford	54	15	9	280	534,000
Rutlandſhire	Uxocona	D.	15	10	40	Oakham	96	2	2	48	11,000
Shropſhire	Salopia		40	33	134	Shrewſbury	155	15	12	170	890,000
	Ludloa					Ludlow	138				
Somerſetſhire	Briſtolium	E.	60	50	200	Briſtol	117	30	18	385	1,075,000
	Aquæ Calidæ					Bath	108				
Staffordſhire	Lichfeldia	E.	40	26	140	Litchfield	118	18	10	150	810,000
	Staffordia					Stafford	135				
Suffolk	Gippevicum	E.	48	24	146	Ipſwich	69	32	16	575	995,000
	Villa Fauſtini					Bury	70				
Surrey	Neomagus	E.	34	21	112	Guildford	29	11	14	140	592,000
	Regiopolis					Kingſton	12				
Suſſex	Ciceſtria	E.	65	29	170	Chicheſter	61	18	28	312	
Warwickſhire	Præſidium	E.	33	26	122	Warwick	93	14	6	158	670,000
	Coventria					Coventry	91				
Weſtmorland	Concangium	E.	30	24	120	Kendal	257	8	4	64	510,000
Wiltſhire	Sorbiodunum	E.	40	30	142	Saliſbury	82	23	34	304	
						Wilton	85				
Worceſterſhire	Bannogenium		36	28	130	Worceſter	111	11	9	152	540,000
Yorkſhire	Eboracum	D.	114	80	360	York	197	49	30	563	3,770,000
	Richmondia					Richmond	230				

The other part of South Britain called Wales, or the principality of Wales, was in the year 870, divided by Roderic, king of Wales, into three parts, that his three ſons might equally ſucceed him. Theſe diviſions were called South Wales, North Wales, and Powis Land; but the latter diviſion was ſoon ſwallowed up by the two former. Wales formerly conſiſted of fourteen counties, including Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, but theſe having been ſince annexed to England, the principality now conſiſts of only twelve counties, each of which has the privilege of ſending to parliament a knight, and every ſhire town a burgeſs.

This principality is bounded on all ſides by the ſea and the Severn, except on the eaſt, where it joins to the counties of Cheſter, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth, being one hundred and

and thirteen miles long, and ninety broad, where wideſt. The country, though for the moſt part mountainous, is not altogether unfruitful, as the vallies abound in corn, the ſeas and rivers with fiſh, and the hills, excluſive of the metals and minerals they contain, feed great numbers of black cattle, ſheep, deer, goats, and other animals.

There are twelve counties or ſhires in Wales; namely, I. Radnorſhire; II. Brecknockſhire; III. Glamorganſhire; IV. Carmarthenſhire; V. Pembrokeſhire; VI. Cardiganſhire; VII. Montgomeryſhire; VIII. Merionethſhire; IX. Carnarvonſhire; X. Denbighſhire; XI. Flintſhire; XII. Angleſea: this laſt we ſhall give an account of, when we come to deſcribe the iſlands belonging to Great Britain.

The county of Radnor, to the ſouth-weſt of Shropſhire, is tolerably fertile. The chief commodities are ſheep and horſes: the principal place is New Radnor, one hundred and fifty-ſeven miles from London, is a very antient borough, well built for theſe parts, but chiefly thatched houſes. It was called Radnor by the Engliſh, from Rhaiadr Gwy, or the cataract of the river Wye, near the town of Rhaiadr. It ſtands in a fruitful valley, at the bottom of a hill, where abundance of ſheep are fed. It is twenty miles in length, eighteen in breadth, has five pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

The county of Brecknock, to the ſouth of Radnorſhire, has a ſharp but wholſome air, is very mountainous, and abounds with black cattle, veniſon, goats, wild fowls, &c.

The town of Brecknock, or Brecon, one hundred and fifty-nine miles from London, is the capital, and almoſt the centre of the county. It is a compact, well-built town, in which the aſſizes are held: it ſtands at the confluence of the rivers Hondby and Uſk, over which it has a good ſtone bridge; is well inhabited, and has ſome ſhare in the woollen manufacture. The ruins of its caſtle, built by Bernard de Newmarch, in the reign of William Rufus, remain; its markets are well ſupplied with cattle, corn, and other proviſions. Brecknock priory was founded in the reign of Henry I. by Bernard de Newmarch. It is now a pariſh church, and ſtill a moſt magnificent building, ſituated on an eminence, and built in the form of a croſs. In the centre of the croſs an embattled tower riſes about ninety feet, and lies open to the church above the roof. There is ſtill remaining, in the priory houſe, the refectory or dining-room.

The county of Glamorgan, ſituated north of the Briſtol channel, is tolerably fertile towards the ſouthern parts. It is forty-five miles long, and twenty-one broad, has eighteen pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

The town of Cardiff, one hundred and ſixty-one miles from London, is the capital, where the aſſizes are alſo held. It has a bridge over the Taff, in which ſmall veſſels may come up, and lade or unlade there. This is a large, well-built town, conſiſting of two pariſhes, and reckoned the moſt beautiful in all South Wales; it has a good trade with Briſtol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, ſheep, horſes, ſwine, &c.

The antient town of Swanſea, two hundred and two miles from London, is large, clean, and well built; drives the greateſt trade of any in the county, eſpecially in coals: holds a correſpondence with Briſtol; and has a good harbour, where ſometimes one hundred ſhips at a time come in for coals and culm. The town ſtands on the river Twy, and its markets are well furniſhed with all neceſſaries. Here are the remains of an antient caſtle, built about the year 1113 by Henry Beaumont, earl of Warwick.

The county of Carmarthen, ſituated north-weſt of Glamorganſhire, has a milder air, and is more fruitful than moſt of the Welſh counties. It is forty-ſeven miles long, and twenty-ſeven broad, has eight pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

The capital town, Carmarthen, two hundred and four miles from London, is ſituated on the river Twy, over which it has a ſtone bridge, and is a place venerable for its antiquity. It is a very polite, induſtrious, thriving, and populous town, of great reſort, and drives a very conſiderable trade. This place was antiently reckoned the capital of Wales.

The county of Pembroke is encompaſſed around by St. George's channel, except on the eaſt ſide, where it joins to Carmarthenſhire, and on the north-eaſt to Cardiganſhire. It is a fruitful country, being thirty-three miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth, contains one hundred and forty-five pariſhes, and ſends three members to parliament.

The county town is Pembroke, two hundred and thirty-four miles from London, and ſtands at the innermoſt eaſtern creek of Milford-haven. It has two handſome bridges over the two points of it. Here are the remains of an antient caſtle on a rock, in which Henry VII. was born, and under it is a vault noted for a ſtrange echo, called the Wogan, and ſuppoſed to have been originally a ſtore room for the garriſon. It was built by Arnulph de Montgomery, in the reign of Henry I. It has two pariſhes, and a cuſtom-houſe: it is well frequented, not only by gentlemen, but likewiſe by ſeveral merchants and tradeſmen, ſome of whom have well-built houſes here.

The town of Haverford-weſt, two hundred and thirty-ſix miles from London, ſtands on the north ſide of a hill, but is a very neat, well built, ſtrong, populous, and trading town, having a fine ſtone bridge, plentiful markets, a commodious quay for ſhips of burden, and a cuſtom-houſe. There are three pariſh-churches in the town, beſides one, called Prengeſt, in the out parts.

The harbour called Milford-haven has ſixteen creeks, five bays, and thirteen roads, in which one thouſand ſail of ſhips may ride ſecurely. It is the beſt harbour in the three kingdoms, there being no manner of danger in ſailing in or out of it with the tide, and almoſt any wind, by night as well as by day; and a ſhip in diſtreſs may run aſhore on ſoft ooze, and there lie ſafe. The ſpring tide riſes in the harbour thirty-ſix feet, and the neap about twenty-ſix.

The county of Cardigan, ſituated north-eaſt of St. George's channel, is for the moſt part barren, but contains ſome valuable mines. It is forty miles long, and eighteen broad, contains ſixty-four pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

The principal town, of the ſame name, two hundred and twenty-two miles from London, is pleaſantly ſituated at the mouth of the Twy, over which it has a good ſtone bridge leading into Pembrokeſhire. It is a large, antient, and populous borough, and carries on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially to Ireland, the tide flowing up to the town. The church is a handſome ſtructure, and the caſtle, though in a ruinous condition, is ſtill in being.

The county of Montgomery, one hundred and ſixty-one miles from London, is ſituated in a very healthy air, on the eaſy aſcent of a rocky hill, having beneath it a pleaſant valley, through which the Severn winds its courſe. The town is large, though the buildings, except a few belonging to wealthy families, are but indifferent.

Six miles from Montgomery ſtands the corporate town of Welſh-pool, which is large and well built, ſituated on a lake in a fruitful valley, where is a good manufactory of flannel. There is a caſtle, belonging to the earl of Powis, on the ſouth ſide.

To the eaſt of St. George's channel is Merionethſhire, which is a mountainous, barren, bleak, unhealthy country, and the inhabitants are more remarkable for idleneſs and incontinency than any other of the Welſh people. It is thirty-five miles in length, twenty-five in breadth, has forty-ſeven pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

The town of Harlech, in this county, is ~~one~~ two hundred and thirty-nine miles from London, ſituated on a rock near the ſea, where there is a harbour for ſhips. It is a mean town, thinly inhabited, but has a garriſon for the ſecurity of the coaſt, and an old, decayed, and uſeleſs caſtle, originally a ſtrong fort of the antient Britons. In the year 1694 the country about Harlech was annoyed above eight months with a fiery exhalation, of a curd colour, which aroſe from the ſea, and was ſeen only in the night.

The town of Dolgelly, thirty-ſix miles from Welſh-pool, is ſituated in a woody valley by the Avon, at the foot of the great mountain Idris, which is computed to be near three miles high, and one of the loftieſt mountains in Britain. Here is a good market for Welſh cottons, and a tolerable inn for travellers.

The county of Carnarvon, ſituated ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Angleſea, is very mountainous, but abounds in cattle, ſheep, goats, and other animals. It is forty miles long, and twenty broad, has ſixty-eight pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament.

Carnarvon, the principal town, two hundred and fifty-one miles from London, is ſituated on the channel that ſeparates this ſhire from the iſle of Angleſea, and was built by the command of Edward I. out of the ruins of the city Sagontium, which ſtood a little below it. The town has a beautiful proſpect of the iſle of Angleſea, and is pretty ſtrong both by nature and art.

The county of Denbigh, to the ſouth-weſt of Flintſhire, is for the moſt part mountainous and barren, though there are a few fertile ſpots in it. Its length is thirty-one miles, and breadth ſeventeen, contains fifty-ſeven pariſhes, and returns two members to the Britiſh parliament.

The town of Denbigh, two hundred and ten miles from London, on the banks of the Iſtrio, is a handſome, large, and populous place; was at firſt built on a ſteep rock, but in proceſs of time has been removed to the bottom of it. It ſtands on a branch of the Clwyd, has a good trade, and is by ſome eſteemed the beſt town in North Wales. It has a good market for corn, cattle, and other proviſions; and two churches.

Weſt of Cheſhire, is the county of Flint, which contains ſome mines, but the ſoil is in many places barren.

The ſhire-town, Flint, one hundred and ninety-five miles from London, ſtands on an arm of the river Dee; it had formerly

merly a caſtle, the ruins of which are ſtill remaining: Henry II. began, and Edward II. finiſhed it.

The city of St. Aſaph, two hundred and twelve miles from London, is a biſhop's ſee, ſituated in the vale of Clwyd, at the conflux of the Elwy with the Clwyd; but the buildings are not remarkable for beauty, nor the church for elegance. The epiſcopal ſee was founded in the year 560, by Kentigern, biſhop of Glaſgow, in Scotland, who reſigned it to his diſciple Aſaph, from whence its name is derived.

SECT. II.

Of the Characters, Cuſtoms, Manners, Conſtitution, Government, Laws, Religion, &c. of the ENGLISH.

THE inhabitants of South Britain are in general of a good ſize, and well made; they have regular features, fair ſkins, and florid complexions. The women, in particular, are deemed the moſt beautiful in Europe. The faſhionable dreſs of the Engliſh is uſually copied from the French, but the former generally add decency and cleanlineſs to the decorations of the latter. A ſcorbutic humour being common to the country, decayed teeth is on that account a very common perſonal defect.

With reſpect to their manners, the Engliſh people vary in the different claſſes of which they are compoſed, according to the difference of education and intercourſe. Perſons of faſhion, after having ſtudied at the univerſity, commonly travel for improvement. They are magnificent in their dreſs, equipage, dwelling, and manner of living; generally polite, hoſpitable, good-natured, humane, charitable, and forgiving; but not very remarkable for their liberality to the profeſſors of the poliſhed arts, even to thoſe who have exhibited proofs of excellence and ingenuity. Reſpecting the unfavourable part of their character, there is obſerved in them a diſpoſition to gaming, riot, an exceſſive inſolence of pride, and a ſtrong propenſity to contemptuous ridicule, diffuſed through the whole nation, from the higheſt peer to the very dregs of the people. Perhaps this is the peculiar characteriſtic of the Engliſh: for it ſtrikes every foreigner at his firſt arrival in England, and appears remarkably conſpicuous in the writings of the Engliſh authors.

The Engliſh merchants are, beyond all others, eſteemed for their honourable dealings, as well as for their knowledge of trade, and their extenſive commerce. The people in general are maſters of the different profeſſions they exerciſe; their workmanſhip is neatly and elegantly finiſhed, far above any thing of the ſame ſort in other countries; and though they are not the moſt remarkable for their diſcoveries in the arts of handicraftſmen, they never fail to make improvements on the inventions of their neighbours. They have been always equally famed for ingenuity and courage. Their ſoldiers are fearleſs in the day of battle, and have obtained a great number of ſignal victories over the moſt powerful and warlike nations on the continent, and in point of activity, ſkill, and intrepidity, their ſailors are confeſſedly ſuperior to all the mariners upon earth.

We may divide the diverſions and paſtimes of the Engliſh into thoſe of the town and thoſe of the country, and again ſubdivide theſe into ſuch as are peculiar to the higher ranks of life, ſuch as are practiſed by the lower claſs of people, and ſuch as are common to both. The diverſions of the town are operas, ridottos, maſquerades, concerts of muſic, theatrical performances, and card aſſemblies for perſons of faſhion. The paſtimes of the country, peculiar to the ſame degree, are horſe-races, ſtag, fox, and hare-hunting. A ſpirit of gaming prevails with ſuch exceſs at a horſe-race, that one would imagine all the ſpectators were actually poſſeſſed. Hunting is the ſport of country gentlemen; and thoſe whom the world diſtinguiſh by the appellation of fox-hunters, ſeem to be infatuated with the diverſion. The common people delight in cock-fighting, cudgelling, wreſtling, duck-hunting, bowls, ſkittles, or nine-pins, archery, priſon-bars, cricket, ſhuffle-board, quoits, divers games of chance, and ſpectacles of various kinds, ſuch as tumbling, balancing, vaulting, feats of legerdemain, bear and bull-baiting, aſs-races, collections of wild beaſts, muſic, dancing, drolls, puppet-ſhows, ringing bells, &c.

Perſons of faſhion have large and magnificent houſes, many of which are built of ſtone, and well provided with offices. The apartments are ſpacious, adorned with carvings and paintings, and the furniture rich and ſplendid. The middling ſort of people live in brick-houſes, roomy, convenient, well finiſhed, and neatly furniſhed. The habitations of the lower ſort are built of brick, though not ſo large and well finiſhed. Many of the dwellings in the country are covered with thatch, inſtead of tiles.

The Engliſh in general are fond of good cheer; and it is perhaps owing to their living more luxuriouſly than any other people, that diſtempers ariſing from intemperance are riſe in England, eſpecially in the great towns; fevers of all kinds, continual, remitting and intermitting, inflammatory, malignant, and eruptive; pleuriſies, coughs, catarrhs, diarrhœas, dyſenteries, and conſumptions, gout, gravel, dropſy, jaundice, and the lues venerea. But the endemial diſeaſes of this climate are the ſcurvy, hypochondria, madneſs; and hyſterics among the fair ſex.

In England the nobility are numerous and wealthy; and no country can produce ſuch a number of noblemen living in all the pomp of affluence, and all the joys of independence: they are diſtinguiſhed by the different titles of duke, marquis, earl, viſcount, and baron. The ſons of nobility enjoy certain titles by courteſy, according to the rank of their father; but the law ranks them among the commons of England. Thus the eldeſt ſon of a duke is denominated marquis, or earl, and the younger ſons are ſaluted by the appellation of My Lord. The firſt ſon of a marquis or earl is denominated lord of ſome barony belonging to his father, and his brothers are likewiſe addreſſed by the title of Lord John or Lord William, &c. the ſiſters enjoy the honourable title of Lady in the ſame manner. But the younger children of viſcounts and barons are not entitled to this courteſy.

The baronets of England, ſo called as an inferior kind of barons, are the next claſs or order of perſons after the barons. The title of baronet is conferred by patent under the great ſeal, and deſcends to the elder male heir. In ſpeaking and writing, he is diſtinguiſhed, like other knights, by the appellative Sir prefixed to his chriſtian name.

There are three orders of knighthood, excluſive of baronets; namely, Garter, Bath and Thiſtle. The order of the Garter, dedicated to St. George, is one of the moſt antient and honourable orders in the univerſe. The ſeat of the order is in the caſtle of Windſor, conſiſting of the chapter-houſe, the hall, and chapel of St. George. A knight of this order is diſtinguiſhed by a blue garter with a gold buckle, worn on the left leg, and inſcribed "Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe;" ſignifying, "Shame to him who puts a bad conſtruction on this order;" by an embroidered ſilver ſtar on the left breaſt, and the picture of St. George enamelled upon gold, and beſet with diamonds, hanging at the end of a broad blue ribband, that from the left ſhoulder croſſes the body.

Henry IV. inſtituted the order of the Bath, which took its denomination from their bathing on the eve of their admiſſion. The order, which had grown obſolete, was revived by George I. in the year 1725, when eighteen noblemen and as many commoners were inſtalled knights of the Bath with great ceremony at Weſtminſter. Their number is limited to forty-ſix, and they are diſtinguiſhed by a ſtar on the breaſt, and over the left ſhoulder they wear a broad red ribband like a belt.

Peculiar to Scotland is the order of the Thiſtle, conſiſting of the ſovereign and twelve knights, who wear a green ribband over the ſhoulder, and on the breaſt an embroidered ſtar, repreſenting St. Andrew with rays of glory.

The general denomination of eſquires is given to all the gentlemen of South Britain not diſtinguiſhed by nobility or knighthood. The higheſt order of plebeians are freeholders or yeomen; then fellow copyholders, merchants, traders, mechanics, hired ſervants, and day-labourers: but it is to be obſerved, that opulent merchants are to be conſidered as of greater importance than the degree wherein they are placed in the above ſcale, and frequently wed their daughters to nobility by means of large portions.

As ſoon as a woman in England is married, ſhe, with all her moveables, is at the will and diſpoſal of her huſband; nor can ſhe alienate any thing without his conſent: her neceſſary apparel is not her own property; nay, at the death of her huſband, all the perſonal chattels ſhe poſſeſſed at marriage deſcend to his executor or adminiſtrator. She can make no contract without her huſband's conſent, nor reply without him, in matters of law. On the other hand, he muſt pay the debts which ſhe has contracted, and be obliged to make ſatisfaction to the party, ſhould ſhe injure any perſon by her tongue, or treſpaſs.

Fathers have an uncontrouled authority in England reſpecting their property; ſo that they may give away their unentailed eſtates from their own children, or bequeath their fortunes to any one child in preference to all the reſt. A youth of fourteen may chuſe his guardian, and conſent to marriage; at twenty-one he is at age to make any contract, deed, or will, and to ſit in parliament. The eldeſt ſon inherits to the landed entailed eſtate, and the younger children are portioned from the goods and chattels; but in Kent, and ſome other places, the lands are equally divided among all the ſons.

The inhabitants of Wales are in general brave, hardy, and hoſpitable, jealous of affronts, haſty, malicious, conceited, proud,

proud, and litigious. The nobility and gentry ſpeak the Engliſh language, affect the Engliſh faſhions, and endeavour to civilize the lower orders of their countrymen; in particular, they have done their utmoſt to break them of the ſavage and inhuman cuſtom of plundering wrecks, and have, in ſome meaſure, ſucceeded. The Welſh language (a dialect of the Celtic) is chiefly uſed by the common people, though ſome of them ſpeak Engliſh indifferently.

With reſpect to the Engliſh conſtitution, which is a limited monarchy, it may, with all its defects, be conſidered as the beſt that ever was formed in any part of the world, whether we conſider the dignity of the crown, or the happineſs of the community. The legiſlative power is veſted in the king, lords and commons, aſſembled in parliament, and no law can be made without the concurrence of all three. The houſe of lords is compoſed of all the peers of the realm, ſpiritual and temporal: the houſe of commons, including the Scots members, amount to five hundred and fifty-eight. They are choſen every new parliament by the counties and boroughs, and, in their collective body, are ſuppoſed to repreſent the people of England. A new parliament is choſen once in ſeven years, in conſequence of writs iſſued by the crown: the king has likewiſe power to prorogue and diſſolve this aſſembly at his pleaſure, as well as to refuſe aſſent to any bill, without giving any reaſon for the refuſal. At preſent, the Engliſh laws are compounded of the civil law, the common law, or Saxon law, the foreſt law, the ſtatute law, manor law, marſhal law, and franchiſes, or peculiar laws founded upon royal grants and charters, confirmed by acts of the parliament of England.

The king has the appointment of the judges, who are twelve in number, diſpoſed in different courts of judicature, and divided into certain circuits, for the adminiſtration of juſtice through all parts of the realm. The tribunals of the courts of king's bench, common pleas, chancery, exchequer, and the duchy chamber of Lancaſter, are held at Weſtminſter.

In England, the ſeveral puniſhments inflicted on civil criminals are different from thoſe adjudged in other countries. High treaſon, petty treaſon, rape, ſodomy, murder and felony, are capital crimes by the laws of this country. A traitor is firſt hanged up, then cut down, opened and diſembowelled; but noblemen are beheaded. A traitor's conviction is attended with ruin of his family. Coiners, though adjudged guilty of high treaſon, are only drawn on ſledges and hanged. Petit treaſon, comprehending the murder of a maſter or miſtreſs by a ſervant, of a huſband by his wife, of a biſhop by a clergyman, is puniſhed by drawing the criminal to the gallows on a hurdle, and hanging him by the neck till he is dead, but are ſentenced to be drawn and burnt alive.

The titles of the monarch of England are, George III. by the grace of God of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. He ſtyles himſelf king of France, from an ancient claim which his predeceſſors had to that kingdom, of which he poſſeſſes nothing at preſent but three or four inconſiderable iſlands on the coaſt of Normandy. The title of Defender of the Faith was an ancient appellation given to the kings of England; but more particularly confirmed by Leo X. to Henry VIII. in conſequence of a book written by this prince againſt Luther, in defence of the ſeven ſacraments. The title was afterwards continued by act of parliament. The king of England, in point of power, pomp, dignity, and revenue, rivals the greateſt monarchs of Chriſtendom: he is ſupreme head of the church, and chief magiſtrate of the kingdom: he has the ſupreme right of patronage, paramount over all the eccleſiaſtical benefices in England: he is the ſupreme civil judge, and the fountain from which all juſtice is derived.

With reſpect to their arms, the royal atchievement, borne by the preſent royal family, is thus marſhalled quarterly: In the firſt grand quarter Mars, three lions paſſant-guardant in pale; Sol, the imperial enſigns of England: theſe are impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, conſiſting of Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure, flowered and counter-flowered with fleur de lis, Mars. The ſecond quarter contains the arms of France, namely, Jupiter, three fleurs de lis, Sol. The third for Ireland, exhibits Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed, Luna. In the fourth grand quarter is repreſented his preſent majeſty's own coat of arms, being Mars, two lions paſſant-guardant, Sol; for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, giving Sol, ſemée of hearts proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter; having, for antient Saxony, Mars, an horſe current, Luna, grafted in baſe, and in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or, a crown of Charlemagne, the whole ſurrounded with a garter, as ſovereign of that order. Above the helmet, as the emblem of ſovereign juriſdiction, is an imperial crown; the creſt, a lion paſſant-guardant crowned with the like; the ſupporters a lion rampant guardant, Sol, crowned as the former, and an unicorn, Luna, gorged with a crown, and chained. The royal motto is, "Dieu et mon droit," implying, that the king of England holds his crown of God only. As the emblem of the union of England and Scotland, the table of the compartment is adorned with the roſe and thiſtle intermixed.

The heir apparent, or eldeſt ſon of the king of England, is born duke of Cornwall, and afterwards created prince of Wales, with letters patent, by which the ſaid principality and a certain revenue are granted to him. He bears the king's arms, with the addition of a label of three points, charged with nine terteaux; his device being a coronet beautified with three oſtrich feathers, inſcribed "Ich dien," which ſignifies, "I ſerve," in the German language.

A proteſtant epiſcopal church is the eſtabliſhed religion of England; but liberty of conſcience being allowed, a great variety of ſects hath ſprung up ſince the Reformation, the lateſt of which are the methodiſts, who form a very numerous body; moſt of them are alſo members of the church of England, and profeſs to adhere more cloſely than the other members of that church, to the thirty-nine articles, and the greateſt part of them are rigid Calviniſts. All ſects of religion are either connived at or tolerated: and though many authors have exclaimed with great heat againſt the many ſects in England, yet it ſhould be conſidered, that civil and religious liberty are cloſely connected, and that it does not become any church, who makes no pretenſions to infallibility, to erect the ſtandard of perſecution.

The church of England is the moſt mild and moderate conſtitution which hath ever appeared in any part of Chriſtendom.

The archiepiſcopal ſees are thoſe of Canterbury and York, to which all the other dioceſes of England and Wales are ſubject. The archbiſhop of Canterbury, ſtyled the primate of all England, is the firſt peer of the kingdom; he precedes all dukes and great officers of the crown, next the royal family, and performs the ceremony of the coronation. The dioceſes contained in the province of Canterbury are thoſe of London, Winchеſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and in Wales, the biſhoprics of St. David's, Llandaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor. The archbiſhop of York is ſtyled primate of England, and metropolitan; hath place and precedence of all dukes, next to the royal family, and all great officers of ſtate, except to the lord chancellor: he enjoys many prerogatives and privileges within his own province, which comprehends the biſhoprics of Sodor and Man, Durham, Carliſle, and Cheſter.

The Engliſh language is compounded of ſeveral others, but more particularly the Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin; but the former predominates. This, inſtead of rendering it defective, gives it innumerable graces, ſince it has incorporated moſt of the beauties, and rejected the defects, of the languages of which it is compoſed. Hence it is more elegant than the German, more copious than the Spaniſh, more energetic than the French, and more manly than the Italian.

This favoured iſland may be deemed the ſeat of the Muſes. Alfred the Great cultivated literature, at a period when all the reſt of Europe was immerſed in ignorance and barbariſm; ſince his time, a continual ſucceſſion of learned men have been diſtinguiſhed by their maſterly writings, and done credit to the Britiſh name; and at preſent literature in England ſeems to have arrived at its utmoſt zenith. Indeed, we have men of genius and talents, who exceed thoſe of any other nation in almoſt every art, ſcience, manufactory, and profeſſion.

The iſland of Great Britain, being plentifully ſupplied with all the conveniencies of life, could ſubſiſt without ſupplies from any other country whatſoever. But as foreign commerce is advantageous, employs abundance of artiſts, as well as a great number of poor, and is a manifeſt improvement to all manufactories in general; ſo it is the ſureſt and moſt effectual means not only to enrich, but to ſtrengthen the nation, and render it a terror to its enemies. The Engliſh merchants traffic largely with Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Hamburgh, Bremen, both ſides of the Baltic, all the northern parts of Germany, Holland, Flanders, Portugal, Sicily, Italy, the Levant, the coaſt of Africa, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, and (the late unhappy diſputes being now terminated by treaty) to the North American colonies.

The commodities exported from England are comprehended in the different articles of corn, cattle, ſhip proviſion, butter, cheeſe, beef, pork, and biſcuit, iron, lead, tin, copper, manufactured and unmanufactured, leather, copperas, allum, pit coal, ſaffron, hops, flax, hats, ſhoes, herrings, pilchards, cod, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys; alſo the different manufactures of wool, ſuch as broad cloth, bays, kerſies, ruſſies, ſerges, ſays, frizes, ſtuffs, flannels, rugs, caps, and ſtockings. The products of wool are the principal articles of the Engliſh traffic, the exports of them exceeding two millions yearly. The imports from various parts of the globe are immenſe.

Many branches of foreign commerce are monopolized and managed by incorporated or chartered companies, viz. East India company, Levant or Turkey company, Merchant Taylors, Ruſſia company, Royal African company, Hudſon's Bay company, South Sea company, Hamburg company, Greenland company, &c.

The fiſhery is very conſiderable, and if properly cultivated, would equal, if not excel, any other branch of commerce. It conſiſts of pickled herrings, cod, ling, and tuſk from Scotland, and the Scottiſh coaſt: red herrings from Yarmouth, and pilchards from the weſtern coaſt of England; beſides which, a conſiderable number of ſhips are annually employed in the whale fiſhery of Spitzbergen.

In time of peace, the land forces of Great Britain and Ireland do not exceed forty thouſand, viz. twelve thouſand in the latter, and the reſt in Great Britain, and various garriſons beyond the ſeas; but in time of war, during hoſtilities, the number has, according to exigencies, been greatly augmented; the troops in pay being ſometimes very numerous. The navy of Great Britain is more powerful than that of any other country in the univerſe. In the late war, the number of ſeamen amounted to upwards of forty thouſand, but in peaceable times only about ſixteen thouſand are retained by government.

The revenues of England are immenſe, though of ſo complicated a nature as not to be eaſily aſcertained; and the funds are perfectly ſecure, though the national debt is enormous. Accounts are kept in pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings, the former being only a nominal ſum. Beſides farthings, halfpence, ſixpences, ſhillings, half-crowns, crowns, half-guineas, and guineas, which are the common current coins, there are ſome ſilver pieces, ſuch as pennies, two-pennies, three-pennies, and groats, and ſome gold ones, ſuch as two and five guinea pieces. There are two ſorts of weights, ſuch as troy and avoirdupois; all goods, ſubject to waſte, are weighed by the latter, all others by the former. Twelve ounces of the firſt, and ſixteen of the latter, conſtitute a pound. Meaſures of length are the inch, foot, yard, fathom, perch or pole, acre, furlong, and mile. Dry meaſures are chaldron, laſt, quarter, comb, buſhel, peck, gallon, quart, pint. Liquid meaſures are, tun, butt, pipe, hogſhead, barrel, kilderkin, firkin, gallon, quart, pint, half-pint, gill.

SECT. III.

Containing a Deſcription of that Part of GREAT BRITAIN, called SCOTLAND, or NORTH BRITAIN.

THIS part of the iſland of Great Britain is bounded on all ſides by the ocean, except the ſouth, where it is ſeparated from England by the river Tweed; towards the eaſt by the Cheviot hills, and the river Eſk, and Solway Frith towards the weſt. It is generally reckoned three hundred and eighty miles in length from Aldermouth head, near the iſle of Mull, to Buchaneſs, and one hundred and ninety in breadth where broadeſt. The principal part of the country is mountainous and hilly, the air ſharp, but wholſome, and the ſoil in general inferior to that of England. It was formerly divided into an heptarchy, like England, but is now diſtinguiſhed by two diſtricts, viz. Highlands and Lowlands; the people of the former are rude and uncivilized; thoſe of the latter imitate the Engliſh cuſtoms and manners. The whole country is admirably well watered with rivers and lakes. There are a few foreſts of fir; timber in general, however, is very ſcarce. The quarries contain free-ſtone: and, indeed, Scotland in general, in every part of its natural hiſtory, reſembles England, except that moſt of its productions are rather inferior to thoſe of South Britain, from the mere unfavourable ſituation of the country.

The Scots are brave, paſſionate, and vindictive, and the Highlanders in particular are accuſed of inſincerity, cruelty, rapacity, avarice, pride, and naſtineſs. In general the Scots are tinctured with learning, but it is of a ſuperficial nature. They are good ſoldiers, and obſequious ſervants; their cloaths are after the Engliſh faſhion, except that their peaſants wear blue bonnets, and the Highlanders plaids, the only remains of the antient Roman dreſs. They have long viſages, high cheek bones, and ſandy hair. In diet they are abſtemious, and their houſes are badly accommodated. Moſt of the North Britons are uncommonly fond of muſic, and their tunes are extremely ſweet, expreſſive, and affecting; their common inſtrument is the bagpipe. Their religion is Calviniſm or the Preſbyterian, and the kirk of the kingdom is divided into thirteen provincial ſynods, which contain ſixty-eight preſbyteries, and nine hundred and thirty-eight pariſhes. Scotland ſends to the Engliſh parliament ſixteen peers and forty-five commoners.

This northern part of the kingdom is divided into the following counties, viz.

The county of Caithneſs, the moſt northern in Scotland, is very rocky, contains many bays and promontories, abounds in cattle, ſheep, goats, roe-bucks, red deer, and produces copper and iron; but the inhabitants principally live by fiſhing and grazing. It is thirty-five miles long, and twenty broad. The principal place is Weick, though Thurſo, a town on the other ſide of the country, is ſuppoſed to be better inhabited.

The county of Sutherland, ſouth-weſt of Caithneſs, is mountainous and barren, but well ſupplied with fiſh and wild fowl, by reaſon that it is not only watered by ſeveral rivers, but contains above ſixty lakes, including various ſmall iſlands. It is eighty miles long, and forty broad. The principal place is the royal borough of Dornock, which conſiſts of nine pariſhes, contains a cathedral, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The county of Roſs, includes Tayne and Cromartie: it is ſituated to the ſouth-weſt of Sutherland, and has ſnow on its mountains the greateſt part of the year. The vallies, however, are fertile, the air good, and the hills produce foreſts of fir, game, &c. It is eighty miles long, and ſeventy-eight broad. The chief place, Channerie, is but an inconſiderable market-town, though the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The county of Inverneſs, to the ſouth of Roſsſhire, is in general barren, but produces wood, iron, and game. It is ſixty miles long, and fifty-five broad. At the mouth of the Aber, in the centre between the weſt and north highlands, ſtand the towns of Maryborough and Fort William, built to check the depredations of ſome of the clans. Inverneſs, from which the ſhire derives its name, is a royal borough on the river Neiſs, over which there is a bridge of ſeven arches. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, contains thirteen pariſhes, and may be juſtly deemed the key and capital of the iſlands. The inhabitants imagine their town to be a model of neatneſs, and that Engliſh is ſpoken by them in its utmoſt purity, but this is not ſtrictly true.

To the ſouth-eaſt of Roſsſhire, is the county of Nairn, which has a ſalubrious and temperate air, and contains ſome tolerable paſture land: it is twenty miles long, and fourteen broad. The only place of note is Nairn, which though a royal borough, is poor and mean, and the harbour is quite choaked up: it ſtands on the banks of the river Nairn.

The county of Elgin, to the eaſt of Nairn, has a tolerable air, and the low country is fertile: it is twenty-four miles long, and twenty broad. The town of Elgin is a royal borough, ſituated in a verdant plain on the river Loſſie. It contains thirteen pariſh churches, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The county of Argyle, to the ſouth-weſt of Inverneſs, is for the moſt part wild and barren: it is ninety miles long, and ſeventy broad. The town of Argyle is the ſeat of a provincial ſynod, conſiſting of five preſbyteries, and forty-nine pariſhes, and gives the title of duke and earl to the noble family of Campbell, the moſt powerful of all the Scotch nobility. This ſhire is divided into ſeveral diſtricts, viz. Argyle, properly ſo, Cowal, Kintyre, Knapdale, and Lorne.

The county of Perth, is ſituated about the centre of Scotland, and may be deemed one of its moſt fertile provinces; being ſeventy miles long, and ſixty broad; the people are polite and induſtrious, and their habitations neater than in moſt other parts of the kingdom. The ſhire is divided into ſeveral diſtricts, viz. Perth Proper, Scone, Monteith, Braidalbin, Athol, Stratherne, and Gowrie.

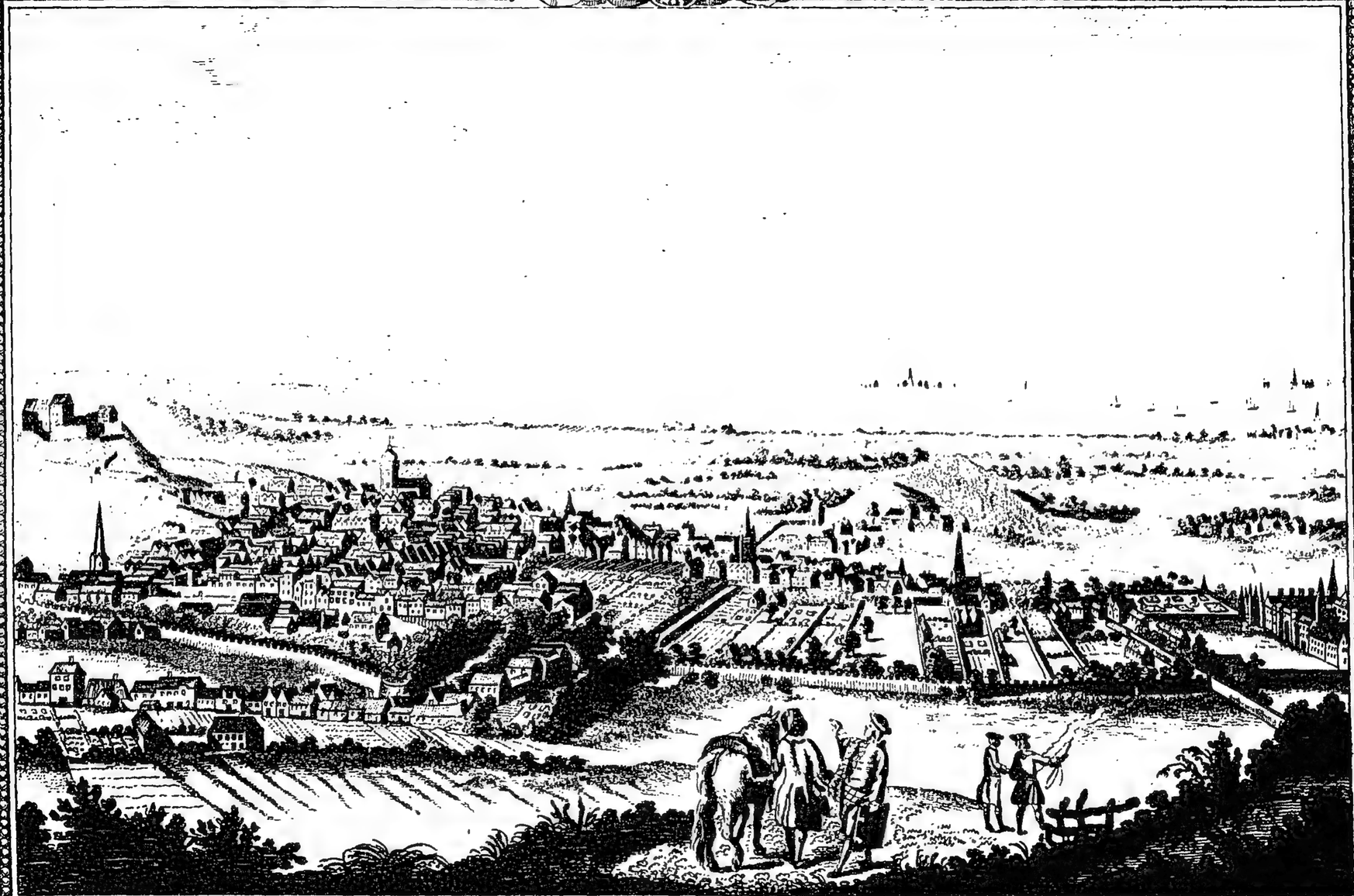
The town of Perth, capital of the province, is an agreeable, populous place, ſituated twenty miles within land, on the ſouth bank of the river Tay. It was otherwiſe called St. Johnſton's, from a church dedicated to St. John, as the patron of the place. It is a royal borough, ſecond in dignity to the metropolis, gave the title of earl to the family of Drummond, which is now forfeited, and is the ſeat of a large preſbytery.

The royal palace of Scone, or Scaan, ſuppoſed to be the centre of the kingdom, ſtands on the north bank of the Tay. Scone gives the title of baron to the viſcount Stormont, a branch of the family of Murray. He is alſo hereditary keeper of this palace, which is large, ſpacious, and magnificent, though built in the antient manner; ſome of the pannels are adorned with paintings, performed above two hundred years ago; and here is a bed of fine needle work, ſewed by the hands of Mary queen of Scots.

The county of Bamff, to the weſt of Aberdeenſhire, is very fertile and pleaſant, inhabited chiefly by lowlanders: is thirty-two miles long, and thirteen broad. The town of Bamff is ſituated on the coaſt of the Murray Frith, is a royal borough, of very little conſideration. It was of old ſecured by a caſtle, which is now in ruins; this is likewiſe the caſe with the abbey of Deer, in the neighbourhood which belonged to the monks of the Ciſtercian order.

The county of Aberdeen, has a wholeſome air, is well watered, finely diverſified with hills and dales, and pretty fertile: is fifty miles long, and thirty-ſix broad. It comprehends the

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A General View of the City & Castle of EDINBURGH, the Capital of Scotland.

diſtricts of Mar, Garioch, Strathbogie, and the greater part of Buchan.

Aberdeen, the capital town, is eighty miles north of Edinburgh. It ſtands upon the river Dee and Don, and is in effect divided into two diſtinct towns. Old Aberdeen, the ſeat of a preſbytery, built at the mouth of the Don, has a church of hewn ſtone, with a lofty ſteeple or turret, ending in an imperial crown, with a round globe of ſtone, and two gilded croſſes. Hard by the church is a library, furniſhed with a valuable collection of books: but old Aberdeen is chiefly remarkable for the college founded by king James IV. conſiſting of a principal, ſub-principal, regents, or profeſſors of divinity, civil law, phyſic, philoſophy, and the languages. The town is ſmall, indifferently built, and inconſiderable, though very antient.

About a mile from hence, at the mouth of the river Dee, is New Aberdeen, the county town, a neat, populous and flouriſhing place, adorned with churches, hoſpitals, a fine wharf, a cuſtom-houſe, and many ſtately edifices built of hewn ſtone. The ſtreets are large and well paved, the private houſes lofty, and well finiſhed, provided with gardens and orchards, which appear intermingled with the buildings, and give it the air of a city, when viewed at a diſtance.

The county of Mearns, or Kincardine, ſituated ſouth of Aberdeen, is in general fertile, twenty-ſeven miles long, and twenty broad; the principal place is Stonehive, the ſeat of the county courts; a ſmall town with a good haven, improved by the late earl Mareſchal, and enjoys a good ſalmon fiſhery. Kincardine, another conſiderable place, ſtands on the river Dee, and gives the title of earl to a branch of the family of Bruce. Fourden, or Mearns, is a ſmall town and the ſeat of a preſbytery. Cowy is an antient borough, greatly decayed, and remarkable for nothing but the ruins of a caſtle, ſaid to have been built by king Malcolm Kenmore.

The county of Forfar, to the ſouth-weſt of Kincardineſhire, produces cattle, game, wood, and minerals. It is twenty-nine miles in length, and ſixteen in breadth.

Forfar, the county town, from which the ſhire takes its name, gave the title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Douglas, which title was extinguiſhed at the death of the laſt earl, a gallant youth, who loſt his life in the battle of Dumblain. The town, though inconſiderable, is a royal borough, and the ſeat of a preſbytery.

Dundee, the moſt flouriſhing town of this county, and antiently called Alutum and Taodunum, was the birth-place of the hiſtorian Hector Boethius. It is ſituated at the foot of a hill, on the north ſide of the Tay, not far from this river's influx into the ocean. Dundee is a royal borough, handſomely built, and inferior to few towns in Scotland for ſtrength, ſituation, and commerce: it is alſo the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The county of Clackmannan, is only eight miles long, and five broad, and contains one place of note, viz. Aloa, in the Frith of Forth, a ſea-port of tolerable trade. It produces good corn and paſtures, and plenty of coals and ſalt.

The county of Fife, a peninſula between the Frith of Forth and the Tay, is tolerably fertile. It is forty-ſeven miles long, and ſeventeen broad. The principal place is Cowpar of Fife, the county town, ſituated on the river Eden; but the moſt celebrated place is the city of St. Andrew's, always famous for its univerſity. St. Andrew's was alſo the principal ſeat of the Culdees, who directed all ſacred inſtitutions from the firſt converſion of the Picts to Chriſtianity.

Seven miles from the coaſt of Fife, almoſt oppoſite to the rock of Baſs, lies the iſland of May, which is about a mile and a half in circumference. It formerly belonged to the priory of Pittenweem, and was dedicated to St. Adrian, ſuppoſed to have been martyred in this place by the Danes.

The county of Stirling, ſituated to the ſouth of Perthſhire, is both fertile and pleaſant; it is twenty miles long, and twelve broad. Stirling, the capital town, derives its name from Ster, a Saxon word, ſignifying hill; and lin water: it was antiently called Binobara, of the ſame ſignification in the Scottiſh language. The town, which is large and populous, ſtands about thirty miles from Edinburgh, on the deſcent of a hill, the top of which is covered with a ſtately old caſtle (of which the earls of Mar were formerly caſtellans) kept in repair and garriſoned by the government. The town is incloſed with a wall, except towards the north, where the part of a fort is ſupplied by the river Forth, over which the inhabitants have built a ſtone bridge, conſiſting of four ſtately arches, with an iron gate in front to ſecure it.

The county of Lenox, (called alſo Dumbartonſhire) which is twenty-four miles long, and twenty broad, is fertile in corn, near the rivers, but the other part is mountainous, which however feeds a great number of ſheep. The lake Lough Lomund is a great curioſity, being ſupplied by ſubterraneous ſprings and rivulets, ſurrounded with huge mountains, extending near twenty-five miles in length, and in ſome places five miles in breadth, incredibly deep in every part, interſperſed with twenty-four verdant iſles, ſome of which are inhabited, and ſtocked with red deer.

The capital town, Dumbarton, is a ſmall inconſiderable royal borough, ſituated near the confluence of the Clyde and Leven; and at preſent remarkable for nothing but its caſtle, which is very large, and formed on a very ſingular conſtruction. It is a ſteep rock, riſing up in two points, and every where inacceſſible except by a narrow paſſage or entry, fortified with a ſtrong wall and rampart. Within this wall is the guard houſe, with lodgings for the officers; and from hence a long flight of ſtone ſteps aſcends to the upper part of the caſtle, where ſeveral batteries mounted with cannon are planted.

The ſhire of Renfrew, eaſt of Dumbartonſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the river Clyde, is tolerably fertile, and hath many opulent inhabitants. It is twenty miles long, and thirteen broad. The principal town is Renfrew, an inconſiderable place, which yields greatly to the village of Paiſley, in point of importance.

The ſhire of Lanerk, ſouth-weſt of that of Edinburgh, is divided into two diſtricts, viz. that of Lanerk, and the barony of Glaſgow. It is forty miles long, and twenty-four broad. The ſoil is diverſified, being in ſome places barren, and in others fertile. The principal place is the large, elegant, and flouriſhing city of Glaſgow, which contains about thirty thouſand inhabitants. It ſtands on the deſcent of an eminence near the Clyde, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge of ſeven arches; the ſtreets are regular and well paved, the houſes lofty and built of ſtone, the churches elegant, and the univerſity a noble and beautiful foundation. The whole place has the appearance of opulence, as the people are induſtrious.

The ſhire of Linlithgow, to the ſouth of Stirlingſhire, is a ſmall county, but very pleaſant, and tolerably fertile. It is fourteen miles long, and thirteen broad. Linlithgow, the chief town, is a neat place, alſo a royal borough, and the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The ſhire of Edinburgh, or Weſt Lothian, ſituated to the ſouth of the Frith of Forth, abounds in minerals, is extremely fertile, well cultivated, and pleaſant. The ſheriffalty of the ſhire is in the gift of the crown, and Edinburgh is a county of itſelf. Its length is twenty-one miles, and breadth ſixteen.

The city of Edinburgh, which is the capital of Scotland, was formerly the royal reſidence. It conſiſts principally of one ſtreet, with lanes running from it, the ground riſing gradually from Holyrood-houſe, to the Cannon-gate head, which is the ſuburb, and from thence to the caſtle, which is the higheſt part of the city. The principal ſtreet, beſides this, is called Cowgate, and is on the ſouth ſide of the other, and from this ſeveral lanes run up the hill towards the univerſity, and Herriot's hoſpital. The city is about a mile in length, but in no part above half a mile in breadth. The houſes are built of ſtone, ſix or ſeven ſtories high; and near the Parliament-cloſe they are fourteen ſtories high. The whole is walled on every ſide except the north, where a lake circumſcribes it. The caſtle is remarkably ſtrong. The council-houſe and ſeſſions-houſe are convenient fabrics for the purpoſes for which they are deſigned. The high church, which was the cathedral, is now divided into four churches; beſides which, there are ſeven other churches, and a chapel in the caſtle. This city is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailiffs, and a common council. The palace called Holyrood-houſe was formerly an abbey, and is a handſome convenient ſtructure.

The town of Leith, ſituated on the Forth, two miles north of Edinburgh, is not only the port, but may with juſtice be termed the warehouſe of Edinburgh. It is a flouriſhing handſome town, interſected by the river Leith; over which there is a ſtone bridge, whereby the two parts are connected.

The county of Haddington, to the north-eaſt of Edinburghſhire, is very fertile and well cultivated. Its length is twenty miles, breadth twelve. The ſhire town, ſituated on the river Tine, over which it has a ſtone bridge with three arches, is large, well built, the ſeat of a preſbytery, and a royal borough.

At the mouth of the Forth ſtands Dunbar, a royal borough, and the ſeat of a preſbytery. It is a neat, ſmall town, carries on a conſiderable trade, has a good market, and a ſecure harbour.

The county or ſhire of Berwick, adjoining to England, and ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Edinburghſhire, is a rough mooriſh country, irregularly diverſified with woods and valies. Its length is twenty-four, breadth ſixteen miles. The town of Berwick being now annexed to England, the principal Scots town of this county is Duns, a large, populous barony in the centre of the ſhire, having a caſtle for its defence, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery.

The ſhire of Aire, to the eaſt of the Firth of Clyde, is a level, pleaſant, and tolerably fertile country. Its breadth ſixty-four, length thirty-ſix miles. Aire, the county-town, is an antient royal borough, commodiouſly ſituated for trade, and

compoſed

compoſed of the old and new town, which a bridge of four arches connects together.

The county of Twedale is ſituated to the ſouth of Edinburghſhire, produces ſome grain, is particularly fertile in paſturage, well watered with rivers, and contains ſeveral lakes. Its length is twenty-five miles, and breadth eighteen. The only town worthy of notice is Peebles, a ſmall pleaſant place on the Tweed, over which it has a ſtone bridge of five arches. This place was formerly remarkable for three churches, three ſteeples, three gates, three bridges, and three ſquares.

The county of Tiviotdale (called alſo Roxburghſhire) lies to the ſouth of Berwickſhire; and, though rather barren, is well inhabited. Its length is thirty, and breadth fifteen miles. Roxburgh, the county town, was formerly a flouriſhing place; but is now greatly reduced, by reaſon that its royalty was removed to Sedburgh, ſituated on the confluence of the Ted and Teſy rivers.

The ſhire of Selkirk, to the weſt of Roxburghſhire, is a hilly country, but yields good paſture, and abounds in cattle. Its length is twenty, breadth twelve miles. The chief town is Selkirk, famous for its manufactures of boots and ſhoes: it is a royal borough on the Eltrick.

The county of Dumfries, to the ſouth-weſt of Selkirkſhire, is in general hilly, but produces cattle in abundance. Its length is fifty, breadth thirty-four miles. Annam, a royal borough and ſea-port was once the chief town, but having gone to decay, Dumfries is at preſent to be conſidered as ſuch.

The town of Dumfries, which may be ſtiled the capital of the ſouth-weſt part of Scotland, is a large, flouriſhing, royal borough, ſituated at the mouth of the Nid, at the diſtance of ſixty-four miles from Edinburgh. The houſes are well built and commodious; the ſtreets are open and ſpacious; the town is adorned with an old caſtle in tolerable repair, four gates, a ſtately church, an exchange for the merchants, a toll-booth, a large market place with a curious croſs, and a noble bridge of free-ſtone over the river, conſiſting of thirteen large arches, with a gate in the middle, as bounding between the ſhire of Dumfries, and the Stewartry of Galloway. Dumfries is the ſeat of a preſbytery and provincial ſynod, carries on a very conſiderable ſhare of trade and commerce, and gives the title of earl to the chief of the family of Crichton.

The ſhire of Wigtown, ſituate to the ſouth of Aireſhire, abounds in cattle, horſes, &c. Its length is twenty-four, breadth twenty-three miles. The capital of the ſhire is Wigtown. It is a royal borough, where the ſheriff holds his court, and the ſeat of a preſbytery, ſituated near the mouth of a river, in the bay of the ſame name, eleven miles in breadth, at the diſtance of eighty-eight miles from Edinburgh. It has the advantage of a tolerable harbour, and is well ſituated for trade; but this being entirely neglected, the town is very poor, and thinly inhabited: however, it beſtows the title of earl upon the chief of the Flemings.

SECT. IV.

A compendious View of the Hiſtory and Antiquities of GREAT BRITAIN.

THE antient inhabitants of this iſland were firſt invaded by Julius Cæſar, and afterwards ſubdued by the Romans. In the reign of Valentinian III. they quitted the iſland, and taking with them all the Roman and Britiſh forces, left the kingdom expoſed to the excurſions of the Picts and Scots. The Britons ſucceſſively elected ſeveral monarchs, who were depoſed almoſt as ſoon as they were advanced to the throne, till they made choice of Vortigern, who finding it difficult to contend with the Picts and Scots, who invaded his dominions, ſolicited ſuccours from abroad; and, accordingly, in 449, a large body of Anglo-Saxons arrived under the conduct of two leaders, Hengiſt and Horſa, who having obtained a victory over the enemy, ſettled here; and other bodies of Saxons coming over, extended their dominions, and at length conquered England, which received its name from the Angles. They erected ſeven monarchies, thoſe of Kent, Suſſex, the Eaſt-Angles, the Weſt-Saxons, the Eaſt-Saxons, Northumberland, and Mercia. Egbert, king of the Weſt-Saxons, at length united all the other kingdoms under him.

In the ninth century the Danes paſſed over to England, and proved ſo troubleſome to the Saxon princes, that they were at length obliged to ſhare the kingdom with them. This diviſion laſted till the year 1041, when the Saxons again recovered the whole country. Upon the death of this prince, he was ſucceeded by Harold; but William duke of Normandy invaded the kingdom, and coming to a battle with Harold, near Haſtings, in Suſſex, defeated his rival, who was ſlain in the engagement, and agreeing to obſerve the Saxon laws was proclaimed king. After his deceaſe, and that of his two ſons, his deſcendants of the female line contended for the throne, which Henry II. ſirnamed Plantagenet, at laſt aſcended in 1154, and tranſmitted to his deſcendants. This prince was by inheritance earl of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; by marriage, duke of Guienne; and by ſucceſs of his arms, lord of Ireland. John, the youngeſt ſon of Henry II. was obliged to grant the Magna Charta. Edward I. ſubdued the principality of Wales, and endeavoured to maintain his ſuperiority in Scotland.

Edward III. the eldeſt ſon of Edward II. ſucceeded to the crown in the life-time of his father; the queen and Mortimer, during his minority, uſurped the adminiſtration, governed in his name, and murdered Edward II. But Edward III. afterwards cauſed Mortimer to be ſeized in the queen's apartments, and to be executed. This prince invaded France, and in 1346 obtained the glorious victory of Creſſy, and about the ſame time David king of the Scots was made priſoner. John the French king and his ſon Philip were taken priſoners at the battle of Poictiers, by Edward the Black Prince. Richard II. the ſon of Edward the Black Prince, and grandſon of Edward III. ſucceeded to the throne. He ſuppreſſed a rebellion raiſed by Wat Tyler: but the parliament, diſguſted at his adminiſtration, raiſed an army againſt him, and made him priſoner. The duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle, claimed the crown of Caſtile in right of his wife, and invaded Spain. His ſon, the duke of Lancaſter, dethroned Richard II. and uſurping the crown was ſtiled Henry IV. and being confirmed in the throne by the parliament, Richard was ſoon after murdered. Henry V. gained ſeveral victories over the French, took many of their towns, and having married Catharine, daughter to Charles VI. king of France, by the convention of Troyes, obtained the reverſion of that crown, but died in the midſt of all his expectations. His infant ſon, Henry VI. who was crowned at Paris, inherited both kingdoms; but under him the Engliſh arms in France met with a ſad reverſe, by his loſing that kingdom.

At this time diſputes aroſe concerning the crown, between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, both which were of the royal blood, and were commonly called, in alluſion to their arms, the White and Red Roſe; and theſe diſputes ſoon broke out into a bloody civil war, which was frequently renewed. Edward IV. the eldeſt ſon of Richard, duke of York, was at length eſtabliſhed on the throne, while Henry VI. was confined in the Tower, and at laſt murdered. Edward V. the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. with his brother Richard, duke of York, were alſo murdered in the Tower, by their uncle Richard, duke of Glouceſter, who aſcended the throne by the name of Richard III. but Henry, earl of Richmond, defeating that unnatural monſter at Boſworth, and that murderer, who was the laſt male of the houſe of York, being killed in the battle, Henry, in 1485, obtained the crown. This was Henry VII. who being of the houſe of Lancaſter, and marrying Elizabeth, of the houſe of York, in him both roſes were united.

Henry VIII. the ſon of Henry VII. was remarkable for his numerous marriages, his manner of living, government, and power. On account of his book on the ſeven ſacraments, which was written againſt Luther, he was dignified by the pope with the title of Defender of the Faith, a title which the kings of England had long before aſſumed, as appears from ſeveral charters granted to the univerſity of Oxford. This king ſoon quarrelled with the pontiff, and under him the happy reformation of religion began in England; and the parliament enacted an oath of ſupremacy, by which all eccleſiaſtics were compelled to acknowledge the king as ſupreme in all cauſes both eccleſiaſtical and civil. Under Edward VI. the Reformation was promoted; but his ſiſter and ſucceſſor Mary again introduced popery, lighted the fire of perſecution, and loſt Calais, the only place in France belonging to the crown of England. Under her ſiſter Elizabeth the Reformation was completed, and very conſiderable improvements made in trade and navigation. She appointed for her ſucceſſor James I. king of Scotland, who endeavoured to unite both kingdoms, under the name of Great Britain. This weak and puſillanimous prince paid little regard to the conſtitution of England. His example was followed by his ſon Charles I. The people roſe in defence of their liberties, and that unhappy prince loſt his head on the block. The Scots proclaimed his ſon Charles II. but were defeated therein by Oliver Cromwell, who governed theſe kingdoms under the title of Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. In his time the Engliſh made themſelves maſters of Jamaica and Dunkirk. His ſon Richard was afterwards choſen protector; but being averſe to the cares of government, he made little or no oppoſition to the return of Charles II. who was reſtored to the throne of his anceſtors. This laſt prince ſold Dunkirk to the French; under his reign a dreadful peſtilence ravaged England, and London was deſtroyed by fire.

James, duke of York, married his eldeſt daughter Mary to William prince of Orange, and Anne his ſecond daughter to prince George of Denmark, and on Charles's deceaſe aſcended the throne; he then openly declared himſelf a papiſt, and ſtrenuouſly endeavoured to bring this kingdom again into ſubjection



NATIVES of the CARIBEE ISLANDS
feasting on Human Flesh.

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ST GEORGE'S CHANNEL
CONNAUGHT
LEINSTER
MUNSTER
ULSTER
DONNEGAL
TYRCONNEL
FERMANAGH
CAVAN
LONGFORD
ANTRIM
DOWN
ARMAGH
TYRONE
LONDONDERRY
GALWAY
MAYO
ROSCOMMON
SLIGO
LEITRIM
WESTMEATH
EASTMEATH
COUNTY KILDARE
KING'S COUNTY
QUEEN'S COUNTY
WICKLOW
WEXFORD
CARLOW
KILKENNY
TIPPERARY
LIMERICK
CLARE
KERRY
CORK
WATERFORD
Dublin Bay
Dungarvon Bay
Youghall Bay
Cork Harbour
Kinsale Harbour
Dingle Bay
Bantry Bay
Kenmare River
Dunmanus Bay
Clonakilty Bay
Baltimore
Crookhaven
Mizen Head
Cape Clear Isle
Fastnet Rock
Valentia
Skellig Rocks
Blasquets
Tarbert
Kilrush
Ballyshannon
Donegal Bay
Killybegs
Sligo Bay
Killala Bay
Broadhaven
Clew Bay
Achill Head
Blacksod Bay
Erris Head
Inishbofin
Slyne Head
Inishturk
Clare Isle
Inishark
Inishboffin
Inishmore
Inishmaan
Inishere
Aran Isles
Galway Bay
Kinvarra Bay
Black Rocks
Loop Head
Cape Lean or Loop Head
Shannon Mouth
Scattery Isle
Kilbaha
Tarbert
Ballybunion
Brandon
Brandon Bay
Tralee Bay
Dingle
Valentia
Skellig Rocks
Bantry
Glengariff
Kenmare
Dursey Isle
Mizen Head
Crookhaven
Baltimore
Cape Clear Isle
Fastnet Rock
Youghall
Cork
Kinsale
Waterford
Dungarvon
Tramore
Wexford
Arklow
Wicklow
Dublin
Howth
Drogheda
Dundalk
Carlingford Bay
Strangford
Belfast
Carrickfergus
Larne
Ballycastle
Rathlin Isle
Malin Bay
Donegal Bay
Lough Swilly
Lough Foyle
Londonderry
Coleraine
Giant's Causeway
Portrush
Port Rush
Fair Head
Red Bay
Ballycastle Bay
Rathlin Island
Isle of Man
Calf of Man
Douglas
Peel
Ramsey
Castletown
Whitehaven
Workington
Maryport
Carlisle
Solway Firth
Dumfries
Stranraer
Portpatrick
Mull of Galloway
Ailsa
Arran
Kintire
Ireland
Orkney
Shetland Isles
Faroe Isles
North Cape
Iceland
Greenland
Newfoundland
Terra Firma
Terra Incognita
Nova Scotia
Canada
Labrador
Hudson's Straits
Davis's Straits
Baffin's Bay
Cape Farewell
Cape Desolation
Cape Walsingham
Cape Chidley
Resolution Isle
Button's Islands
Hudson's Bay
Cape Digges
Cape Wrath
Duncansby Head
Pentland Firth
Stroma
Hoy
Kirkwall
Stromness
Scapa Flow
Lerwick
Fair Isle
Sumburgh Head
Aberdeen
Peterhead
Fraserburgh
Buchan Ness
Montrose
Arbroath
Dundee
Tay Bridge
Tay Mouth
Perth
Stirling
Edinburgh
Leith
Berwick
Holy Island
Farne Islands
Newcastle
Sunderland
Durham
Hartlepool
Whitby
Scarborough
Flamborough Head
Spurn Head
Hull
Humber
Lincoln
Boston
Wash
Yarmouth
Lowestoft
Harwich
Colchester
Ipswich
Orford Ness
Aldborough
Felixstowe
Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Gravelines
Dunkirk
Ostend
Nieuport
Sluys
Flushing
Goree
Helvoetsluys
Rotterdam
Amsterdam
Texel
Vlie
Ameland
Schelling
Terschelling
Heligoland
Cuxhaven
Elbe
Hamburg
Bremen
Weser
Jade
Emden
Ems
Dollart
Groningen
Zuyder Zee
Enkhuysen
Medemblick
Stavoren
Harlingen
Leeuwarden
Dokkum
Delfzyl
Borkum
Norderney
Juist
Baltic Sea
Sweden
Norway
Denmark
Jutland
Skagen
Cattegat
Skaw
Christiansand
Stavanger
Bergen
Lofoden Islands
Hammerfest
Nova Zembla
Russia
Lapland
Finland
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Petersburg
Revel
Riga
Memel
Courland
Prussia
Dantzic
Pomerania
Rugen
Stettin
Oder
Usedom
Wollin
Swinemunde
Rostock
Wismar
Lubeck
Travemunde
Kiel
Holstein
Schleswig
Flensburg
Apenrade
Tonningen
Eyder
Husum
Sylt
Amrum
Fohr
Nordstrand
Pelworm
Hallig
Helgoland
Dogger Bank
Texel
Vlie
Ameland
Schelling
Terschelling
Goree
Helvoetsluys
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Gravelines
Calais
Boulogne
Dover
Deal
Ramsgate
Margate
Sheerness
Chatham
Rochester
Gravesend
Tilbury
London
Greenwich
Deptford
Blackwall
Westminster
Kensington
Chelsea
Hampton Court
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Eton
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Henley
Marlow
Uxbridge
Watford
St Albans
Hertford
Ware
Hoddesdon
Waltham
Epping
Romford
Barking
Woolwich
Erith
Dartford
Maidstone
Tunbridge
Tunbridge Wells
Sevenoaks
Canterbury
Faversham
Whitstable
Herne Bay
Reculver
Isle of Thanet
North Foreland
Isle of Sheppey
Isle of Grain
Isle of Wight
Cowes
Newport
Yarmouth
Freshwater
Needles
St Catherine's Point
Ventnor
Shanklin
Sandown
Bembridge
Ryde
Spithead
Portsmouth
Gosport
Southampton
Southampton Water
Netley
Lymington
Christchurch
Poole
Poole Harbour
Brownsea Island
Swanage
Weymouth
Portland
Portland Bill
Lulworth Cove
Durdle Door
Kimmeridge Bay
Swanage Bay
Studland Bay
Bournemouth
Hurst Castle
Milford
Lymington
Beaulieu
Hythe
Southampton
Romsey
Andover
Basingstoke
Reading
Newbury
Hungerford
Marlborough
Devizes
Salisbury
Wilton
Shaftesbury
Blandford
Dorchester
Sherborne
Yeovil
Crewkerne
Chard
Honiton
Exeter
Topsham
Exmouth
Dawlish
Teignmouth
Newton Abbot
Torbay
Torquay
Paignton
Brixham
Dartmouth
Kingsbridge
Salcombe
Start Point
Plymouth
Devonport
Stonehouse
Saltash
Tamar
Cornwall
Launceston
Bodmin
Wadebridge
Padstow
Camelford
Boscastle
Tintagel
Bude
Hartland Point
Clovelly
Bideford
Barnstaple
Ilfracombe
Lynton
Minehead
Watchet
Bridgwater
Bristol
Bristol Channel
Severn
Severn Bridge
Chepstow
Monmouth
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Reculver
Herne Bay
Whitstable
Faversham
Canterbury
Ashford
Tenterden
Cranbrook
Tunbridge Wells
Sevenoaks
Dartford
Gravesend
Rochester
Chatham
Sheerness
Isle of Sheppey
Isle of Grain
Isle of Thanet

jection to the see of Rome. In the year 1688 was born James the late pretender, whom some affirm to be the lawful son of king James II. by his second spouse, while others deny it. Against this prince the church of England united with the Dissenters, and both applying to his son-in-law, the prince of Orange, invited him to assist in the defence of their liberties: on which he landed in England, and the king fled to France; whence the crown, which he had thus abdicated, was in a national convention offered, with certain restrictions, to the prince of Orange and his consort Mary. This prince, who assumed the title of William III. was succeeded by Anne, king James's youngest daughter, and under her, in 1702, was accomplished the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland, under the general name of Great Britain. On her decease, in 1714, the crown devolved to George Louis, elector of Hanover, and duke of Brunswick Lunenburg. His reign began with a rebellion, which was soon suppressed. That prince was peaceably succeeded by his son George II. in whose reign another rebellion broke out, and was quelled by the bravery of his son William duke of Cumberland. His reign was distinguished by a number of victories, that will do honour to the British annals; and on the twenty-fifth of October, 1760, he was succeeded by his grandson George III. his present majesty, in whose reign an unhappy war broke out between England and America; which terminated in a treaty between all the contending powers, in 1783, by which the Thirteen Colonies became independent of the mother country. For a more ample and copious account of Great Britain, and its dependencies, we beg leave to refer our readers to Barnard's New, Comprehensive, and Complete History of England, in Seventy Numbers in Folio, printed for Alex. Hogg, No. 16, Paternoster Row; adorned with beautiful Cuts.

In describing the antiquities in Great Britain, we shall, in the first place, take notice of the celebrated Druid temple, about six miles from Salisbury, called Stonehenge, which consists of two circles and two ovals respectively concentric: the outer circle being one hundred and eight feet in diameter. The intention of the founders seems to have been this: the whole circumference was to consist of one hundred upright stones, each stone four cubits broad, and each interval two cubits. Of the outer circle, which in its perfection consisted of sixty stones, and thirty imposts, there are seventeen uprights left standing, eleven of which are contiguous to the grand entrance, and have five imposts upon them. The lesser circle, which never had any imposts, is somewhat more than eight feet from the inside of the outward one, and consisted of forty lesser stones, forming, with the outward circle, a kind of circular portico. There are only nineteen of the forty left, but eleven of them are standing in situ, five in one place contiguous, three in another, and two in another. The walk between these two circles, which is three hundred feet in circumference, is equally grand and delightful. The adytum, or cell, into which none but the upper order of Druids entered, is composed of certain compages of stones, or trithithons, consisting of two upright stones, and an impost at top; there are evidently five of these remaining, three of which are entire, nine are ruined in some measure, but the stones remain in situ. The stones that compose it are really stupendous; their height, breadth, and thickness, are enormous; and to see so many of them placed together in a nice and regular figure with exactness: to consider, as it were, not a pillar of one stone, but a whole wall, a side, and end of a temple, of one stone; to view them curiously, creates such an emotion in the mind, as cannot easily be described by words.

At a small distance from this amazing work of antiquity, are a great number of elevations, something resembling the form of a bell, called barrows, or barrow; these are sepulchral tumuli; wherein the antient Britons deposited the ashes of their dead, and raised in memory of soldiers slain in or near the place.

On Marlborough downs there is an erection of huge stones, called Abury, resembling Stonehenge. These stupendous remains are also supposed to be the ruins of an antient Druidish temple; so large, that a whole village is now contained within the circumference of them.

About five miles from Lancaster is a remarkable cave called Dunald Mill-hole. In the middle of a large common, a brook, near as big as the New River, after turning a corn-mill just at the entrance of the cave, runs into its mouth by several beautiful cascades, continuing its course two miles under a large mountain, and at last makes its appearance again near Carnford, a village in the road to Kendal. The entrance of this subterraneous channel has something pleasingly terrible: from the mill at the top you descend about ten yards perpendicular, by means of chinks in the rock and clumps of trees: the passage is then almost parallel to the horizon leading to the right, a little winding, till you have some hundreds of yards thick of rocks and minerals above your head.

Among the Roman antiquities in Great Britain are, several altars, monumental inscriptions, walls, and military ways, the principal of the latter being one that began at Dover, and passed through the whole island to Cardigan in Wales. The chief Roman wall is that called the Wall of Severus, or Pitt's Wall, which runs through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length.

The Anglo-Normanic remains exhibit noble examples of gothic architecture; the Saxon antiquities consist of strong fortresses and ecclesiastical edifices; and the Danish are hardly discernible from them.

IRELAND.

Describing its Natural History, Geographical Survey of the Cities and Towns therein contained; also an Account of the Inhabitants, their Manners, Customs, Religion, Language, Laws, Government, Commerce, &c.

IRELAND is situated between the fifth and tenth degree of west longitude and the fifty-first and fifty-sixth degree north latitude, being bounded on the east by St. George's channel and the Irish sea, which separates it from England and Wales; on the north-east by a channel about fifteen miles broad, which separates it from Scotland; and on all other sides by the ocean. It is about two hundred and seventy-eight miles in length, and one hundred and fifty-five in breadth; its superficial contents are estimated at eleven million sixty-seven thousand seven hundred and twelve Irish, or seventeen million nine hundred and twenty-seven thousand eight hundred and sixty-four English acres: the number of houses were computed, in 1753, to be five hundred and ninety-five thousand four hundred and thirty-nine; there are also two thousand two hundred and ninety-three parishes, two hundred and sixty baronies, and one hundred and eighteen boroughs.

With respect to its natural history, this country differs very little from England. The air is, in general, clear and wholsome, but moist in those parts where there are bogs and fenny grounds; of these, however, few now remain; the greater part having within the present century, been drained, and the ground cultivated. The soil is for the most part very fruitful both in corn and grass, especially the latter; for which reason they breed a prodigious number of sheep and black cattle. The productions of the marshy parts are various. Some are covered with grass, some with reeds and rushes, and others with little shrubs interspersed with water. Some yield abundance of excellent turf; and others, called bed bogs, produce large firs and other trees.

There are in Ireland much the same animals and vegetables as in England; but they have a greater plenty of game, insomuch that hares, pheasants, &c. are sold in the public markets.

This country is well watered with rivers; among which the most remarkable are, the Shannon, Barrow, Neor, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffy, and Boyne. The Shannon is a much larger river than any in England, but not navigable above fifty miles. It runs from north to south upwards of three hundred English miles, and, like the rest, abounds with excellent fish, particularly salmon and pike. Here are likewise a great number of lakes, or loughs, many of which also produce large quantities of fish; and the great lake, called Neagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. But the bays, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render the country the best fitted for foreign commerce beyond any other in Europe.

The principal riches and commodities of Ireland are cattle, hides, tallow, suet, butter, cheese, wood, salt, honey, wax, furs, hemp, and more especially fine linen cloth, which they have brought to great perfection, and their trade in it is vastly increased. They are also by a late act of parliament permitted to send their wool into England. It is said by some, there are mines of iron, silver, and lead: but if there are, they are not worked.

Here are several lofty chains, as well as single mountains, some of which contain in their bowels beds of ruins, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate, and marble. Some of the forests produce excellent timber, particularly oak, which is esteemed as good in every respect as any in England.

Geographers usually divide Ireland into four large provinces; namely, I. Ulster; II. Munster; III. Leinster; IV. Connaught.

The province of Ulster, the most northern of Ireland, is in some parts mountainous, but in general fertile and well watered: the principal rivers are, the Banne, Loughfoyle, Swilly, Newry-water, and Maine. It also abounds with large lakes, and the soil in general is fruitful in corn and grass, and there are

plenty of horſes, ſheep, and beeves. The waters yield abundance of excellent fiſh.

Ulſter contains the following counties; viz. 1. Donegal, which is in moſt parts very fertile, and the air clear and wholſome. The town of Donegal, which gives name to it, is a poor, mean place; and the only thing in the whole county, worthy of notice, is the ſalt-water lake, or rather arm of the ſea, called Lough Swilly, which extends eighteen miles in length, and is about five miles broad at its mouth: one thouſand ſail might ride in it with ſafety. There is no town or trade of any conſequence on its banks, but many villages and gentlemens' ſeats.

2. Londonderry, or Colerain, is alſo a tolerably fertile county, being well watered by the river Bann. It ſends eight members to parliament. *Londonderry*, or *Derry*, the capital and ſee of a biſhop, ſtands at the bottom of Lough-Foyle. It has a very good port, to which ſhips of the greateſt burden have acceſs, and a conſiderable trade. Great quantities of ſalmon, ſalted and barrelled, are exported from hence to foreign parts. This town is well fortified with a ſtrong wall, and along the banks of the river are ſeveral caſtles and a fort.

The town of Colerain is ſituated near the mouth of the river Bann. Here is a very valuable ſalmon-fiſhery, which principally belongs to the city of London. This town is handſome, and ſurrounded with a good wall.

3. Antrim conſiſts chiefly of bogs and marſhes; but the cultivated parts are tolerably fruitful.

The town of Belfaſt is the moſt conſiderable in all this part of Ireland, for extent, wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. A great trade is carried on from hence to Scotland, particularly to Glaſgow. The harbour below the town is commodious, and has a good depth of water.

The town of Carrickfergus is populous, walled, and fortified, has an excellent harbour, and is defended by a caſtle on a high rock. Here the aſſizes and quarter ſeſſions are held both for the county and town.

One of the greateſt natural curioſities to be met with in Europe, is in this county. It is called the Giant's Cauſeway, and is ſituated by the ſea-ſide, about eight miles from Colerain: it is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, which joins to a rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are upwards of thirty-three feet in height. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and, what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting, in the exacteſt manner, the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars generally conſiſt of about forty joints, and are from one to two feet in diameter.

4. The county of Tyrone contains many mountains, which are very barren; but the vallies and low grounds are fruitful both in corn and paſture. Omagh is the principal town in this county: but it does not contain any thing worthy of particular deſcription.

5. The county of Fermanagh is one of the moſt unwholſome in this province, the greateſt part of it being taken up with bogs, and a large lake called Lough-Earne. Inniſkilling, the capital of the county, is ſituated on an iſland, and, being an important paſs, it is well fortified and garriſoned. It is chiefly remarkable for producing a regiment of its name in Ireland, in the war between king William III. and James II.

6. The county of Cavan is very boggy; notwithſtanding which, the air is far from being unhealthy. The town which gives name to it is very ſmall and inſignificant. But Kilmore, ſituated in this county, though a mean place, is a biſhop's ſee, and one of the richeſt in Ireland.

7. The county of Monaghan is very mountainous, woody, and marſhy; and the principal town, which gives name to it, does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

8. The county of Armagh is, in general, very fertile, the ſoil being eſteemed the richeſt in Ireland; only there is a certain hilly and barren track in it called the Fews.

The town of Armagh, which gives name to the county, is the ſee of the primate of all Ireland, and is ſaid to have been founded by St. Patrick in the fifth century. Here was antiently a famous monaſtery, built about the year 610 by St. Columba, or Columbanus.

The town of Charlemont, which received its name from a fort or mount built by Charles Blount, lord Mountjoy, is a ſmall neat place, ſituated on the river Blackwater.

Lugarn, the prettieſt town in the county, is pleaſantly ſituated on a gentle eminence, in a fertile and populous country, about two miles from, and commanding a proſpect of, Lough-Neagh, one of the largeſt lakes in the kingdom. This town hath for many years acquired the name of Little England, from the ſimilarity of its general figure, of the language, manners, and diſpoſitions of the inhabitants, to thoſe of the Engliſh.

9. Down, the laſt county in this province, is very populous, has a good air, and is exceeding fertile.

The capital of this county is Down-Patrick, a biſhop's ſee, erected about the end of the fifth century by St. Patrick. Beſides the cathedral, here are ſeveral handſome brick buildings, as the church, the ſeſſions-houſe, two ſchools, a market-houſe, barracks for a troop of horſe, and two alms-houſes.

The town of Newry ſtands near a river of the ſame name, over which it has two bridges. A garriſon is conſtantly kept in this town, which is a great thoroughfare. Killcaleagh is a ſmall but neat town, and had the honour of giving birth to that celebrated naturaliſt and phyſician Sir Hans Sloane: here is a handſome church, a caſtle and barracks for a troop of dragoons. Bangor contains between two and three hundred houſes, and, like the before-mentioned town, has a conſiderable manufactory for linen yarn. The firſt church of ſtone, in the province of Ulſter, is ſaid to have been erected in this town. Here are ſtill the ruins of a very antient abbey.

The province of Leinſter is in general well cultivated, has a good air and ſoil, and abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, on the weſt by Connaught, from which it is ſeparated by the Shannon, on the north by Ulſter, and on the ſouth by the ocean. The chief rivers are the Barrow, Boyne, Liffy, Neur, Urrin or Slane, and Inny.

The following counties are contained in this province, viz.

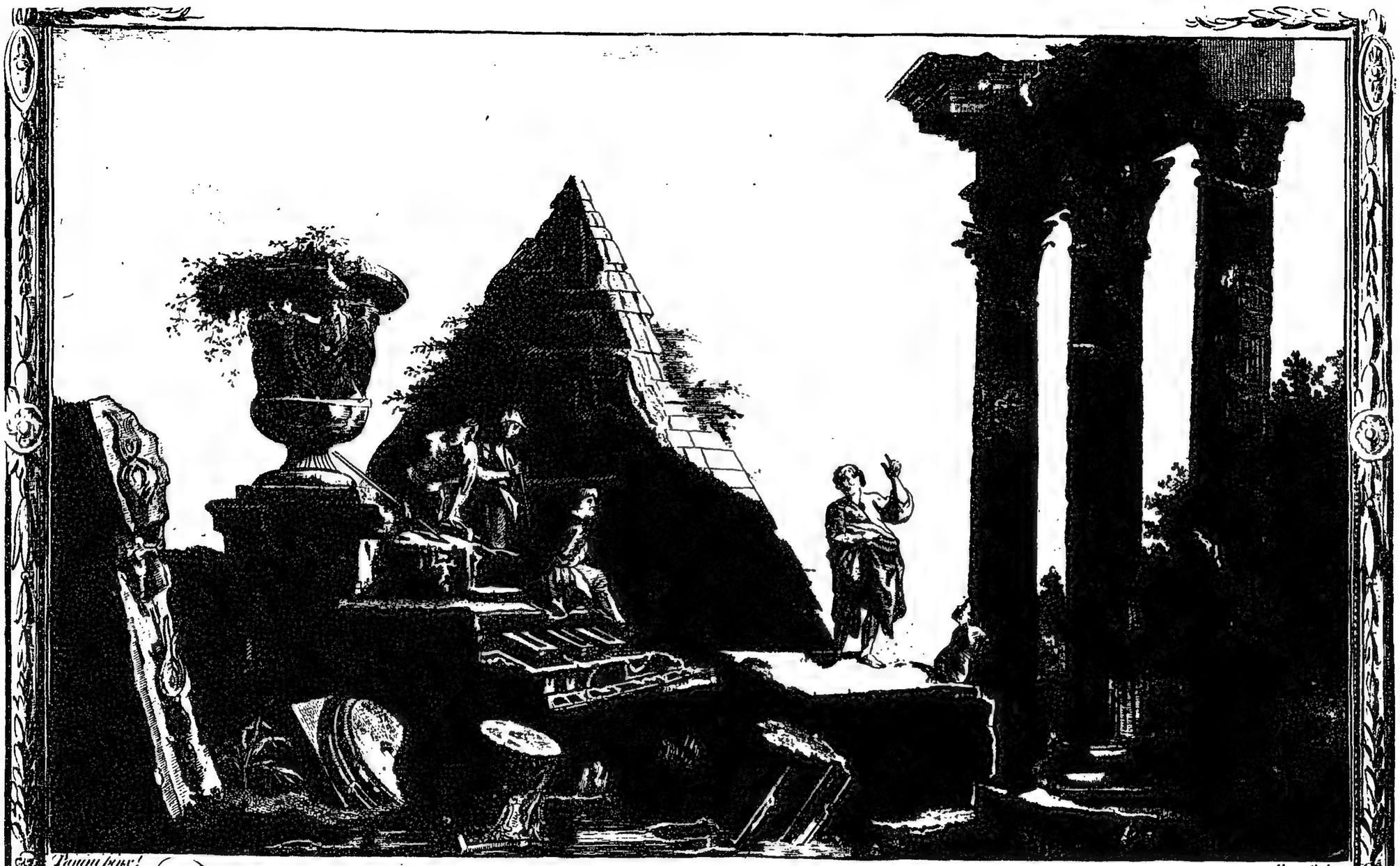
1. The county of Dublin, or Develin, which, except a mountainous tract in the ſouth part of it, is very populous and fertile, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. It far exceeds any other part of the kingdom, not only in populouſneſs, culture, trade, and wealth, but in the politeneſs and ingenuity of its inhabitants. It ſends ten members to parliament.

The principal city Dublin, capital of the whole kingdom, is in magnitude and number of inhabitants the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions. It is built in the form of a ſquare, about two miles and a half long, and nearly as much in breadth, and is ſuppoſed to contain one hundred and forty thouſand inhabitants. It is ſituated about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffy, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city on both ſides, which form ſpacious quays for the convenience of loading and unloading veſſels. The increaſe of Dublin, within thirty years paſt, is incredible; and it is generally ſuppoſed that four thouſand houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne.

Dublin, in appearance, bears a great reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick, the old ſtreets are narrow and mean; but many of the new ſtreets are more elegant and better planned than thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, otherwiſe called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole, of an equal diſtance from the ſides. The river Liffy, though navigable for veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, is but ſmall, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges of ſtone, and three others that have little to recommend them. The caſtle (as it is called, from one once ſituated there, of which at preſent there are very few remains) is the reſidence of the lord lieutenant, but has very little of grandeur in its external appearance, except the large ſquare and court yard which it incloſes. Some of the rooms, however, are large, and very elegantly furniſhed. Near the caſtle is the New Exchange, a magnificent building lately erected.

Trinity college is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte, and extends about three hundred feet. Near it is the parliament houſe, which is a very elegant and ſubſtantial edifice. The portico in particular is perhaps without parallel; the internal parts have alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted has been much admired. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings this age can boaſt of, is the building of a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to ſhelter ſhips in ſtormy weather, and confine the channel of the bay. The fine ſquare, called Stevens Green, is very extenſive, being one mile in circumference.

In 1728 was opened the linen-hall, erected at the public expence for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen



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The Remarkable **RUINS** *of the* **MOREA** *formerly called the* **PELOPONNESUS,**
in Africa, now Turky *in* Europe.

linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry.

On an eminence, near the city, are the barracks, pleaſantly ſituated: they are ſaid to be the largeſt and moſt commodious of any in Europe, and conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily.

The park, called Phœnix Park, which belongs to his majeſty, commands a moſt delightful proſpect, is ſuperior to that of St. James's, being alſo much more extenſive.

This city contains eighteen pariſhes, eight chapels, three churches for French, and one for Dutch proteſtants, ſeven preſbyterian meeting-houſes, one for methodiſts, two for quakers, and ſixteen Roman Catholic chapels: the cathedral church, called St. Patrick's, lies in the ſouth ſuburb, and is very antient and handſome. Here is a ſociety, called the Dublin Society, which, by diſtributing premiums yearly, to a very conſiderable amount, for encouraging and promoting huſbandry, and other uſeful arts and manufactures, hath been of infinite benefit to the kingdom. Dublin, like the city of London, is governed by a lord mayor, &c. Hackney-coaches and chairs are fixed here by rates, as in London, for the different diſtances, or ſet-downs, as they are called.

The two theatres are the principal public amuſements in Dublin, which are generally well filled, and ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London, under the king's patronage.

2. The county of Louth is the ſmalleſt in the whole kingdom, but it has a pleaſant and healthy air, and is very fruitful in corn and paſture. Drogheda, the chief town, is ſituated near the mouth of the Boyne, about twenty miles from Dublin. It is divided into two parts by the ſaid river, which has a plain but convenient bridge over it.

3. The county of Wicklow, which is very mountainous, has a very clear and wholſome air, and the low lands are well cultivated. Between the mountains are ſome of thoſe deep, dark vallies, called glyns, which are very beautiful and picturеſque; together with ſome grand and aſtoniſhing water-falls. The moſt remarkable among the latter is that called the Fall of Ponurſcourt, which, from the peculiarity of its ſituation, its prodigious height, and ſingular beauty, well deſerves the notice of a traveller. The water-falls are at leaſt three hundred feet, of which two hundred are viſible on the plain below it.

The principal town, Wicklow, is remarkable for producing the beſt ale in the kingdom. It has barracks for three companies of foot, and a kind of caſtle and haven at the mouth of the river Leitrim; but moſt of its trade conſiſts in carrying proviſions to Dublin in ſmall veſſels.

4. Wexford county is ſituated on the ſouth of Wicklow. The air is good, but the ſoil various. In ſome places it is coarſe and poor, but in others it produces plenty of corn and paſture. The capital town, Wexford, is both large and antient, being ſituated at the mouth of the Slane. Here is a very antient caſtle, a good harbour for veſſels of conſiderable burden, and barracks for two companies of foot.

5. The county of Longford is pleaſant, and in general tolerably fertile, but ſome parts of it are very boggy. The capital town is Longford, which has barracks for a troop of horſe, and a caſtle.

6. The county of Eaſt Meath is very fertile, abounding in corn, paſture, and herds of cattle. Antiently it had petty kings, by whom it was governed. Trim, the county town, is ſituated on the Boyne; but, except barracks for a troop of horſe, does not contain any thing remarkable.

7. The county of Weſt Meath contains a great many rivers, lakes, and bogs, but it is very fertile where the land is free from theſe. Mullinger, the chief town, is ſmall, but very compact, and contains barracks for a troop of horſe. Athlone is a tolerably good town, ſituated on the Shannon, and has a garriſon and caſtle.

8. King's County is not ſo rich as ſome of the other counties, nor ſo well inhabited: it was formerly full of bogs, but is now well drained and cultivated. Philip's Town, or King's Town, is the capital of the county: here are barracks for a company of foot, but nothing elſe that merits notice.

9. Queen's County, antiently full of bogs and woods, is now tolerably well incloſed, cultivated, and inhabited. Maryborough, or Queen's Town, the capital, received its name from queen Mary, wife of Philip king of Spain: it hath barracks for a company of foot ſoldiers.

10. The county of Kilkenny is one of the beſt and moſt populous in Ireland, abounds in towns and caſtles, and hath plenty of all things. It is divided, as it were, into two parts, by the river Neor, or Nura, which has its ſource from thoſe lofty mountains, called the Slieu-bloom, or Blandine-hills.

The capital town, Kilkenny, took its name from the cell or church of Conic, who was an eminent hermit in this county. It is the ſeat of a biſhop, and is divided into the Engliſh and Iriſh towns. The former is by far the moſt conſiderable, the other being only a kind of ſuburbs. Both together make one of the largeſt, moſt wealthy, populous, and trading towns in the kingdom. It is ſaid of Kilkenny, that its air is without fog; its water without mud, its fire without ſmoke, and its ſtreets paved with marble. The two latter are, indeed, matter of fact; for they have in the neighbourhood a kind of coal that burns from firſt to laſt without ſmoke, and pretty much reſembles the Welch coal. Moſt of the ſtreets are alſo actually paved with a very good ſort of black marble, of which they have large quarries near the town, which takes a fine poliſh, and is beautifully intermixed with white granite. Here are barracks for a troop of horſe, and four companies of foot, and a well endowed free ſchool, called the college.

11. The county of Kildare is ſituated to the ſouth of Eaſt Meath, and is in general very rich and fertile. Kildare, the capital, is the ſee of a biſhop, who has the precedence of all the Iriſh biſhops, except that of Meath. In the neighbourhood is a plain, called the Currough, large enough for ten thouſand men to encamp upon.

12. The county of Carlow is chiefly ſituated between the rivers Barrow and Slane. It enjoys a wholſome air, and produces good corn and graſs. Carlow, the chief town, ſtands on the Barrow, has an antient caſtle, and contains barracks for a troop of horſe.

The province of Munſter was formerly a petty kingdom of itſelf, before the Engliſh invaded and conquered Ireland. The air is temperate and healthful: the ſoil, plains, and vallies, where properly cultivated, are fruitful both in corn and graſs, but the mountains are bleak and barren. Great numbers of cattle are fed here, and it is well ſupplied with fiſh.

The counties contained in this province are as follow, viz.

1. Cork, the largeſt in the kingdom, containing near a million of acres: it contains ſeveral towns and harbours, and though a conſiderable part of it is boggy, mountainous, and barren, yet it is pretty well cultivated and improved.

The city of Cork is, next to the capital, the largeſt and moſt populous in the kingdom. It is encompaſſed not only by walls, but alſo by the channel of the river Lee, over which there are ſeveral bridges. Cork is an epiſcopal ſee, and a city of great trade, ſituated fifteen miles up the river. Though ſmaller veſſels can come up to the quay, yet the larger generally ride at a place called Paſſage. It has the moſt trade of any town in the kingdom, particularly in beef, butter, and tallow, great quantities of which are exported to foreign parts: and many ſhips bound to the Weſt Indies put in here to victual. It has many handſome public ſtructures, particularly a cathedral, cuſtom-houſe, and two gates, one on the north, and the other on the ſouth. Its churches are unexceptionably the neateſt and the moſt elegantly furniſhed of any in the kingdom. The city, together with its liberties, makes a county, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen and ſheriffs.

2. The county of Kerry is in general very mountainous, barren, and dreary, but the ſoil of ſome particular ſpots is fruitful, eſpecially in corn and paſture. Tralee, the county town, is ſituated on a bay of the ſame name, but doth not contain any thing very remarkable.

The lake of Killkarny, ſaid to be the moſt beautiful perhaps in the world, is the greateſt curioſity in this county. It is ſurrounded with one continual range of lofty mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from nearly their top down to the verge of the lake. In the neighbourhood of the lake are the remains of an old abbey, which are well deſerving the notice of a traveller, and alſo a great many ſeats and villas.

3. The county of Limerick contains ſeveral lofty mountains, one of which, called Knockpatrick, affords a very fine proſpect of the adjacent country, the ſea and the Shannon.

The town of Limerick, whence the county takes its name, is the ſee of a biſhop, and a very ſtrong, handſome town. It ſtands upon the Shannon, which is navigable for ſhips of burden almoſt up to the city, though ſituated about ſixty miles from its mouth. Here is a fine cathedral, and barracks for twenty-two companies of foot. The city is divided into two parts, both of which are ſtrongly fortified with walls, caſtles, baſtions, and bulwarks, with draw-bridges upon the river.

4. The county of Tipperary is in general very fertile, but the northern part of it is mountainous, and the air bleak and unwholſome. Clonmell, the capital, is ſituated on the banks of the Suir. The town is walled, neat, and populous; has a ſtrong gaol, and a court-houſe. Here are barracks for two troops of horſe, and a good market.

5. The

5. The county of Waterford is chiefly level, notwithſtanding which a great part of it is barren, and the air unwholſome and thick.

Waterford, the county town, was firſt built by certain pirates of Norway, and has been a biſhop's ſee ever ſince the year 1096. Till eclipſed by Cork, it was accounted the ſecond city in the kingdom for trade, wealth, and populouſneſs, being ſituated on a fine harbour, defended on the eaſt ſide by Duncannon fort. Here is a fine cathedral, but the houſes are in general built of timber, and make but a mean appearance. The haven extends near eight miles almoſt in a ſtraight line, and is but little encumbered with rocks or ſand. There is a citadel on the weſt ſide, and on the eaſt a block-houſe and ſtore-houſe. The city carries on a great trade, particularly with England; and ſhips of burden come up cloſe to its quay. The city and its liberties make a diſtinct county.

The province of Connaught is the moſt mountainous of the four into which Ireland is divided. It is the leaſt cultivated and incloſed, the thinneſt of inhabitants, and thoſe the moſt ignorant and unpoliſhed. Grazing is the chief employment of the peaſants. Immenſe numbers of ſheep and bullocks are bred here, particularly in the counties of Clare and Galway. It alſo abounds in horſes, game, veniſon, honey, and hawks, and is well ſupplied with fiſh, having many convenient bays and creeks on the coaſt, and ſeveral rivers, particularly the Shannon, Moy, Suck, Droſos, and Gyll. In this province are the following counties, viz.

1. The county of Galway, which, next to Cork, is the largeſt in the whole kingdom, and in general has in it plenty of cattle, and is very fertile in corn and paſture.

Galway, the city from which the county is named, ſtands on a noble bay, having many harbours and roads on every ſide. It is a very neat, ſtrong, and flouriſhing city; and is admirably ſituated for a trade not only to France and Spain, but alſo to the Weſt Indies. The buildings, both public and private, are moſtly of ſtone, and handſome. The city is walled, and was once the ſee of a biſhop, but is now within the archbiſhopric of Tuam. It carries on a very conſiderable herring-fiſhery, and is almoſt the only place upon this coaſt that has any foreign trade. The harbour is about two miles from the city, to which the goods are brought in lighters. Here are barracks for two companies of foot.

The town of Tuam was once a famous city, has been the ſee of an archbiſhop ever ſince the beginning of the ſixth century, but is now a conſiderable place.

2. The county of Clare has a good air and ſoil, but contains very few towns; the moſt remarkable is Clare, ſo called from Richard and Thomas de Clare, younger ſons of the earl of Glouceſter, to whom Edward I. gave the county. Barracks for two companies of foot are erected here.

The principal and beſt town in the county is Ennis, ſituated about two miles from Dublin. It ſtands on a lake formed by the Shannon, has a good market, and is a neat place.

The town of Killalo, a biſhop's ſee, with the privilege of a fair and market, ſtands on the Shannon, and was once much more conſiderable than at preſent. The dioceſe is very large, containing one hundred pariſh-churches, beſides chapels. A little to the ſouth of this town is a ridge of rocks, which run quite acroſs the river Shannon, and ſtop up all farther navigation to it.

3. The county of Sligo is very mountainous; and in the plains and valleys the air is unwholſome, owing to their being full of bogs. The ſoil, where it is free from lakes and fens, is tolerably good, and fit either for grazing or tillage. Sligo, the capital, ſtands on a bay, to which it gives name, as well as the county. Though not large, it is pretty populous, and has an old caſtle; but its trade is inconſiderable, notwithſtanding its harbour is ſo deep, that ſhips of two hundred tons burden can come up to the quay.

4. The county of Mayo abounds in lakes, and is incloſed on one ſide by the ſea. The air is moiſt and cold, eſpecially upon the mountains, where the ſoil is alſo poor and coarſe, but there is good paſturage, with herds of cattle and deer, in the other parts.

In this county are ſeveral lakes and rivers abounding with fiſh: that of Lough-Maſk, a lake eleven miles long, and five broad, affords plenty of ſalmon. The Gallo glaſſes, a people deſcended from the Scotch of the weſtern iſles, who uſed to fight in coats of mail with two-edged battle-axes, formerly lived on the banks of this lake.

The town of Mayo, capital of this county, ſtands on the borders of Sligo, at the mouth of the river Moy. It was once a biſhop's ſee; but the biſhopric hath been ſome time annexed to Tuam. Caſtlebar, the only parliamentary borough in the county, ſtands on a little river which falls into Lough-Conn: here are barracks for a troop of horſe.

5. The county of Roſcommon is in general very healthy. The air is clear, and the ſoil yields plenty of graſs, with ſome corn. It is incloſed, on the north, by the Carlow mountains, which are very ſteep and high. Roſcommon, the county town, is a very inconſiderable place. Ballina Sloe, a ſmall town in this county, is remarkable for having the largeſt beaſt or ſtock fair in the king's dominions. It continues each time a week, and is kept twice a year.

6. The county of Leitrim is very mountainous, but noted for grazing vaſt herds of cattle. The town, which gives name to the county, is ſituated near the Shannon. It was formerly a tolerable good town, but is now greatly decayed, and contains nothing remarkable.

The following table will exhibit, at one view, the names of the reſpective counties, their length, breadth, chief towns, and the members they ſend to Parliament.

Provinces	Counties.	Leng.	Bread.	Chief Towns.	Memb. Parl.
Ulſter.	Donegal	64	35	Donegal	12
	Londonderry	36	30	Londonderry	8
	Antrim	46	27	Carrickfergus	10
	Tyrone	60	35	Omagh	10
	Fermanagh	38	24	Inniſkilling	4
	Cavan	47	25	Cavan	6
	Monaghan	32	30	Monaghan	4
	Armagh	32	17	Armagh	6
	Down	44	30	Down-Patrick	14
Leinſter.	Dublin	26	15	Dublin	10
	Louth	25	13	Drogheda	10
	Wicklow	36	28	Wicklow	10
	Wexford	47	27	Wexford	18
	Longford	27	16	Longford	10
	Eaſt Meath	32	25	Trim	14
	Weſt Meath	35	20	Mullinger	10
	King's County	40	20	Philip's Town	6
	Queen's County	35	30	Maryborough	8
	Kilkenny	40	20	Kilkenny	16
	Kildare	37	23	Kildare	10
	Carlow	28	18	Carlow	6
Munſter.	Cork	85	50	Cork	26
	Kerry	60	47	Tralee	8
	Limerick	40	27	Limerick	8
	Tipperary	60	36	Clonmell	8
	Waterford	46	24	Waterford	10
Connaught.	Galway	82	48	Galway	8
	Clare	40	38	Ennis	2
	Sligo	35	33	Sligo	4
	Mayo	58	44	Mayo	2
	Roſcommon	35	28	Roſcommon	8
	Leitrim	44	18	Leitrim	6

With reſpect to the inhabitants of Ireland, they are a medley of the antient (or wild) Iriſh, and of Scotch and Engliſh emigrants. The common people are very ignorant and uncivilized, particularly thoſe who inhabit the province of Connaught. The greateſt part of them are papiſts; and hence they have a ſettled averſion to Engliſhmen, and even to their own countrymen of a different perſuaſion. To this alſo may be attributed thoſe acts of ſavage cruelty ſo frequent in this country, as well as the irregularities attending their public meetings, which generally end in bloodſhed. Many of their ſurnames have an O or Mac prefixed to them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon: formerly the O was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally in a melancholy ſtrain. In the interior parts of the kingdom, ſome of their old cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings. The inferior ſort place the corpſe of a relation or friend on a table before their doors, having a plate on the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, and this cuſtom is practiſed even in the ſkirts of the capital.

They pay little regard to the ſabbath, the principal part of the day being conſigned to amuſements; and in the evening they aſſemble at public-houſes, when they dance to the bagpipe, which generally terminates in riot and debauchery. Their manner of living ſeems to reſemble that of the antient Britons as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe. Their children ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths; and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in that primitive manner. Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food: for how plentifully ſoever

ſoever the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, they ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind.

Perſons of condition in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. They are generally repreſented as being very hoſpitable, but are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip reſpecting this virtue. They are ſo fond of titles, that their peerage has become a burleſque upon nobility, many of that order amongſt them having neither antiquity, merit, nor fortune to recommend them to ſuperior notice; and, beſides other bad conſequences, it is to be feared that theſe coronets muſt be ſupported at the expence of their unhappy tenants, and of manufactures, which conſequently will riſe in proportion as neceſſaries advance in price.

The Iriſh language is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh or Welſh, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch highlanders oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welſh, and Highlanders unintelligible to each other. The native language is only ſpoken by the peaſants and lower ſort of people, who are remarkable for their frequent blunders in ſpeaking it.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Ireland is the ſame as in England. The church is under the government of four archbiſhops, namely, the archbiſhop of Armagh, who has the title of primate of all Ireland; the archbiſhop of Dublin, who is ſtiled primate of Ireland; and thoſe of Caſhel and Tuam. Under theſe four archbiſhops are nineteen biſhops.

Diſſenters of all denominations are tolerated in Ireland, particularly Preſbyterians, Independents, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts. But the far more numerous bodies are the Papiſts, who have their biſhops, and other dignitaries like the eſtabliſhed church; but neither they, nor the inferior clergy of that communion, have any other revenues than the voluntary contributions of the laity. It is ſuppoſed that throughout Ireland there are about eight Papiſts to one Proteſtant; but in the capital the diſproportion is only as four to one.

For the promotion of learning in Ireland, there is one univerſity, and ſeveral free-ſchools erected for the education of youth; and for promoting the principles of real Chriſtianity among the poor popiſh natives of Ireland, and inuring them from infancy to induſtry, and obedience to their ſovereign, is inſtituted the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working ſchools. This inſtitution bids the faireſt for leſſening the number of Papiſts, and conſequently of increaſing induſtrious and loyal ſubjects.

Ireland being ſubordinate to England, the government is much the ſame. The king ſends a viceroy, who is ſtiled lord lieutenant; and who comes as near the grandeur and dignity of a king as any viceroy in Chriſtendom. To aſſiſt him on all occaſions, he has a privy-council, compoſed of the officers of ſtate, and ſuch others as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament is convened, prorogued, and diſſolved, at the pleaſure of the king. During former reigns, the ſame parliament continued till the death of the king; but by a late act, a new one is to be choſen every eight years. The laws made by the parliament here are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when they paſs the Great Seal of England, and are returned, if approved of by his majeſty and council.

The preſent revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed to be ſomething more than half a million ſterling, out of which ſeventy thouſand pounds is granted in penſions. Their lands are not incumbered with heavy taxes, nor are their exports or imports ſubject to high duties; and every article of conſumption is to be procured upon the moſt eaſy terms.

The courts of juſtice, their terms and manner of proceeding, aſſizes, juſtices of the peace, &c. and almoſt all the ſeveral orders and degrees of the people and nobility, are much the ſame here as in England.

The chief articles exported from Ireland conſiſt of linen cloth, yarn, lawn, and cambrics, which are encouraged by the Engliſh government. Wool and bay-yarn are allowed to be exported to England only, but great quantities of both are ſmuggled into other countries. The other exports are, horſes and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, ſome tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox hair, horſe hair, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbet ſkins, otter ſkins, goat ſkins, &c. The principal arricles of their importation are, wine, brandy, tobacco, ſpices, hops, coals, copper, block tin, lead, mercury, grocery, haberdaſhery goods, and Weſt-India commodities.

The Iriſh having no mint, the coins uſed by them are the ſame with thoſe of England, but they differ in their denomination, an Engliſh ſhilling paſſing for thirteen pence, a guinea for one pound two ſhillings and ninepence, and ſo in proportion for the other coin.

The hiſtory of Ireland is involved in fable before the Saxon kings of England began to invade that coaſt; and very few memorable events are recorded for many centuries afterward. About the concluſion of the eighth century the Danes and Normans, or as they were called, the Eaſterlings, made frequent deſcents, and at length began to erect places of defence, in order to preſerve a footing on the iſland. By them Dublin, Waterford, Wexford, Limeric and Cork, were built. Still the internal ſtate of the kingdom can only be obſcurely known. It ſeems, however, that ſeveral petty princes ſhared the country. Henry II. of England began to meditate the conqueſt of Ireland about 1168, to effect which, he inſtigated Strongbow earl of Pembroke, with ſome other lords, to eſpouſe the cauſe of Dermot M'Murrough, king of Leinſter, whoſe oppreſſive tyranny had cauſed him to be driven from his country, and who interceded with Henry, then in France, for his aſſiſtance towards re-eſtabliſhing himſelf in his kingdom. Theſe lords cauſed the Danes to evacuate Ireland, who had eſtabliſhed themſelves on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt, and proceeded to make themſelves formidable to the natives, which excited the jealouſy of king Henry, who was not ſatisfied until the Engliſh lords had ſworn fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigned into his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts which they had ſubdued. In 1172 Henry in perſon paſſed over to Ireland with a formidable power, which ſoon procured him to be acknowledged lord paramount of Ireland. He proceeded to ſettle a civil adminiſtration at Dublin which conformed very nearly to that of England. He likewiſe very liberally rewarded his Engliſh nobility with eſtates in Ireland, and eſtabliſhed a trading colony, from Briſtol, in the city of Dublin. Ever ſince his reign Ireland has continued an appendage to the crown of England, although its loyalty has been more or leſs firm under different princes.

MINOR ISLANDS.

Containing a Geographical Deſcription of thoſe Iſlands belonging to the Kingdom of GREAT BRITAIN; their Situation, Extent, Natural Hiſtory, Inhabitants, &c.

THE iſle of Angleſea, is the moſt weſtern county of North Britain. It is twenty-four miles long, fourteen broad, and ſends one member to parliament. The river Merſi ſeparates it from Carnarvonſhire, and it is ſurrounded by the ſea on every ſide. It abounds in corn, cattle, fowls, fiſh, &c. produces mill-ſtones, grind-ſtones, aſbeſtos or mountain flax, copper ore, ſtony oker, white clay, &c.

This iſland contains, 1. Beaumaris, two hundred and forty-two miles from London; a handſome, well-built town, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, has a good harbour for ſhips, a very handſome church, with ſome fine monuments of the Bulkeley's family, and the knights-templars: it was formerly defended by a ſtrong caſtle built by Edward I. the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen.

The town of Holy-head, twenty-eight miles from Beaumaris, and two hundred and forty-four from London, is the ſtation for the packet-boat to Ireland, being the neareſt land to Dublin. It is the moſt weſtern point of Angleſea, but is a little iſland of itſelf, and has a ſmall village, called in Welſh Caer Gybi, conſiſting of a heap of ſtraggling houſes built on rocks, but ſeveral of them have very comfortable accommodations for paſſengers, both with regard to lodging and diet. The church was formerly collegiate, and founded by one Keeius, a hermit, about the year 650. The walls of the church are the remains of a Britiſh fortification, built by Caſwallon Lawhire, lord of Angleſea, about the year 450.

Wight, though an iſland ſituated near ſix miles from the main land, is nevertheleſs reckoned a part of Hampſhire. It is twenty-two miles long, twelve broad, and is divided into thirty pariſhes. The air is pure and healthful; and the ſoil ſo rich, as to produce corn enough in one year to ſerve it ſeven. A ridge of lofty hills runs through the middle of the iſland, which not only afford plentiful paſture, but a delightful proſpect of the ſea. The vales below conſiſt of meadow and corn fields; nor is the coaſt deſtitute of natural curioſities; here are excellent fiſh of various kinds. The extremities of the coaſt on the ſouth and weſt ſides are very rocky; and weſtward, not far from the ſhore, are thoſe rocks called the Needles, from their ſharpneſs. Farther to the ſouthward are the Shingles: at both which places the iſland is inacceſſible; and it is fortified by art towards the ſouth-eaſt, where it is almoſt level.

The town of Newport, the principal in the iſland, is a very antient borough, and a large populous place, greatly enriched by its plenty and commerce. Cowes river is navigable by barges to Newport quay, which extends itſelf round great part of the town, and renders their ſhipping goods from the ſtore-houſes very commodious; the ſtreets are regular and uniform,

meeting at right angles. The corn, beaſt, and butter markets are kept in diſtinct ſquares, very large and commodious. The buildings are greatly improved, but neither grand nor regular. The church is a large building, with a ſquare tower; and the inhabitants have lately erected an organ, and otherwiſe greatly decorated it: yet this church is but a chapel of eaſe to Cariſbrook, a ſmall village about a mile from Newport, and famous for a caſtle, built about the time of the Norman conqueſt, which was the reſidence of the antient lords of the iſland: king Charles I. was confined here, until removed to Hurſt caſtle. Cowes, a remarkable port and harbour, is at the mouth of Newport river: here is a caſtle built by Henry VIII. and alſo a fine ſaltern. St. Helena lies at the eaſt end of the iſland, twelve miles from Newport. It is only remarkable for its road, which is large enough to contain the whole Britiſh navy.

The town of Peel, ſituated on the weſtern coaſt, is a place of conſiderable trade. Upon a ſmall iſland cloſe to the town is Peel caſtle, one of the ſtrongeſt in the world, and has a garriſon in it. The iſland on which it ſtands is a ſtupendous rock, inacceſſible from all quarters but that of the town, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight, fordable in low tides. Within one of the churches is a chapel appropriated to the uſe of the biſhop; and underneath the chapel is a dungeon or priſon for offenders, one of the moſt dreadful places of confinement imaginable. The magnificence of the caſtle itſelf is ſaid to exceed that of any modern ſtructure in the world; the largeneſs and loftineſs of the rooms, the fine echoes reſounding through them, the many winding galleries; the proſpect of the ſea and ſhips, which, by reaſon of the vaſt height, appearing like buoys floating on the waves, affect the mind of the ſpectator with equal aſtoniſhment and pleaſure.

The Iſle of Man, though held by the Britiſh crown, was, till of late, no part of the kingdom of Great Britain; but was governed by its own laws and cuſtoms under the hereditary dominion of a lord, who formerly had the title of king, and who, though he long ago waved that title, was to the laſt inveſted with regal rights and prerogatives. But in the year 1765, for the further and more effectually preventing the miſchiefs ariſing to the revenue and commerce of Great Britain and Ireland, from the illicit and clandeſtine trade carried on to and from the Iſle of Man, it was thought expedient to veſt in the crown all rights, juriſdictions, and intereſts in and over the ſaid iſland, and all its dependencies holden by the proprietors the duke and dutcheſs of Athol; who then ſurrendered the ſame, excepting only their landed property, and the patronage of the biſhopric of Sodor and Man, the temporalities of the ſame when vacant, and all patronages and eccleſiaſtical benefices. Upon this annexation of the iſland, the ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds was paid as full compenſation to the proprietors, according to their own propoſals to the commiſſioners of the treaſury. The inducement for giving ſo large a ſum was, probably, the clear revenue of the iſle for ten years, from 1754 to 1763, which, having been laid before parliament, appeared, at the medium, to be ſeven thouſand two hundred and ninety-three pounds and ſixpence halfpenny per annum. The contract was accordingly executed by both parties, under the authority of parliament, April 19, 1765.

The Weſtern Iſles, or Hebrides, are ſcattered in the Deucaledonian ſea, to the north-weſt of Scotland, of which kingdom they conſtitute a part. They are ſituated between the fifty-fifth and fifty-ninth degree north latitude, are computed to exceed three hundred in number, and contain about forty-eight thouſand inhabitants. No country abounds more with the neceſſaries of life, and at leſs labour or charge, than the Hebrides. They have fleſh and fiſh in prodigious plenty. Their cattle of all ſorts, as cows, ſheep, hogs, and goats, are exceeding numerous and prolific, ſmall indeed, (as are their horſes) but of a delicious taſte: ſo are their deer, which freely range in herds on their mountains. No place can compare with them for tame and wild fowl, there being of the latter no where in the world a greater diverſity, many ſorts of them extremely beautiful, and rare, or utterly unknown elſewhere. The like may be ſaid of the various amphibious animals. Numberleſs are their fountains and ſprings, rivers, rivulets, and lakes, very wholſome in their waters, and ſuperabounding with fiſh, eſpecially trout and ſalmon; and no ſeas in Europe are better ſtored, not only with herrings, but all other kinds of fiſh, from the ſhrimp to the whale. No harbours or bays are ſuperior to theirs, either for number or conveniency: add to this, their variety of excellent roots and plants, particularly thoſe of marine growth, all of them ſerving for food or phyſic. Their paſtures are ſo kindly, that they might live on milk alone, with that inconceivable quantity of eggs which they yearly gather off the deſart rocks and iſlets. Bread is plentiful enough among them, and the ground is generally allowed to be much richer than on the Scottiſh continent; ſome parts of which are often ſupplied with corn from hence. The inhabitants are of the ſame race with thoſe who live in the Highlands of Scotland, ſpeak the ſame language, wear the ſame dreſs, and obſerve the ſame cuſtoms; with this difference, that they are more ſimple, induſtrious, and ſincere, than their neighbours of the main land. They are in general ſtrong, vigorous, and healthy, their conſtitution being ſteeled by labour, and preſerved by temperance in their diet.

The Highlanders of ſuperior condition live like their neighbours; but the common people are wretchedly lodged in paltry cottages or cabins built of looſe ſtones or mud, and thatched with ſtraw; their partitions are no other than a kind of hurdle, plaſtered with clay; they have neither glaſs in their windows, nor any other chimney than a hole in the middle of the roof, through which the ſmoke finds its way. Theſe people are utter ſtrangers to cleanlineſs; they are extremely ſluttiſh in their houſes, and naſty in their perſons: and this impurity is, in all likelihood, one great cauſe of that inveterate itch which infects the greateſt part of them.

St. Kilda, one of the Hebrides, is only five miles in circumference, and ſituated in fifty-eight degrees of north latitude. The whole iſland is one hard rock, divided into four high mountains, thinly covered with black mould, except on the tops, where the ſoil is three feet deep. The hills are cloathed with ſhort graſs, which yields good paſturage to the horſes, cattle, and ſheep; and their vallies of arable land produce large crops of excellent barley. St. Kilda is one of the ſtrongeſt natural fortreſſes in the known world, being inacceſſible in every place but at that rock, which might be defended againſt any force by looſe ſtones hurled from the impending mountain of Oterveaul. On the weſt ſide of the iſland there is a ſmall bay, in which ſome veſſels take ſhelter when the wind is at ſouth, or blows from the north-eaſt: but the ſea is generally ſo impetuous all round, that it frequently removes fragments of rocks and ſtones of a prodigious weight.

Here are great numbers of ſea fowl, which may be diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral different ſpecies: among which are the guer fowl, and the ſolan gooſe.

The people of this iſland, amounting to about two hundred ſouls, are originally deſcended from the inhabitants of the Haines and the adjacent iſles: like theſe they ſpeak the Erſe language in great purity, and have for ſome time been proteſtants of the church of Scotland, from whence a miniſter is ſent to them. They live together in a ſmall village, ſituated in a bottom among hills, and compoſed of low wretched cottages, the thatch and roof being ſecured by ſtraw ropes, with ſtones hanging at the end of them. The number of ſheep on this and the neighbouring iſlands may amount to two thouſand; and their cows, which are very ſmall, do not exceed one hundred. All the animals on the main land, including dogs, cats, and even wild fowl, are ſpotted.

The arable land of this iſland is divided into ten equal parts, and theſe again are ſubdivided, according to the number of families. They manure the land with a compoſt of turf-aſhes, mixed with ſtraw and urine; and add to this the bones and entrails of the ſea fowl. They plow with a ſmall crooked inſtrument; ſow their barley very thick; and reap an harveſt twenty-fold. The ſea-coaſt furniſhes them with plenty of cod, ling, mackarel, turbot, herring, and all the other ſpecies of fiſh common to the ſea; here are likewiſe otters and ſeals: but their chief dependence for food and gain, is upon the ſea-fowl, which they catch many different ways; but their employment ſubjects them to the moſt imminent dangers; for they are obliged to climb rocks, the very ſight of which fills with horror the mind of a ſtranger.

Lewis, or Long iſland, is ſixty miles to the weſtward of St. Kilda: it extends one hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and from thirteen to fourteen in breadth, conſiſting of a great number of iſles and rocks, and parted by the ſea into two diviſions, called Lewis and Harries; the former of which lies weſtward of the latter.

Harries is an iſland ſeparated by a channel from Lewis: it extends about twenty-four miles in length, and in ſome places about ſix miles in breadth. The air and climate are the ſame with thoſe of Lewis: the face of the ground is rocky and mountainous, covered with graſs and heath: on the weſt ſide, however, the land is more flat and arable, producing naturally abundance of clover and daiſy, which in the ſummer perfume the air with an agreeable fragrance. There are divers freſh water lakes in this iſland, abounding with trout, eels, and ſalmon. The ſoil is in general dry and ſandy; but when manured with ſea-ware, yields very great harveſts of oats, rye, and barley.

The iſle of Sky may be ranked among the largeſt iſlands of the Hebrides: it was ſo called from Skianach, which, in the Erſe dialect, ſignifies winged, becauſe the two promontories of Valerneſs and Trotterneſs, by which it is bounded on the north-weſt and north-eaſt, are ſuppoſed to reſemble wings. The iſland lies between the ſhire of Roſs and the weſtern part

of Lewis, extending forty miles in length from north to ſouth; in ſome places twenty, and in others thirty in breadth, the circumference of the whole amounting to about one hundred. This iſland is alſo compoſed of many different iſlands and rocks; and is divided between proprietors; the ſouthern part belongs to the laird Macleod, ſaid to be lineally deſcended from Leod, ſon to the black prince of Man: the northern diſtrict, or barony of Trotterneſs, is the property of a Macdonald, whoſe anceſtor was Donald, king or lord of the iſles, and chief of the numerous clan of Macdonalds, who are counted the moſt warlike of all the Highlanders. Sky is part of the ſhire of Javerneſs, and formerly belonged to the dioceſe of the iſles: on the ſouth, it is parted from the main land by a channel three leagues in breadth, though at the ferry of Glenelly it is ſo narrow, that a man may be heard calling for the boat, from one ſide to the other. This iſland is well provided with a variety of excellent bays and harbours, and is ſurrounded by inferior iſles, among which are Soa-Brettil, Oronſa, Pabbay, Scalpa, Surah, Gigay, Iſlay and Bute.

But the moſt celebrated of all the weſtern iſlands, is Jona, likewiſe called St. Columb-hill, from St. Columba, who came hither from Ireland, and lies buried here. The iſland ſtretches two miles in length, from ſouth to north, in the neighbourhood of Mull, and is about a mile broad from eaſt to weſt. One end of it is rocky and barren: the other plain, arable, and fruitful.

In the Caledonian ſea lie the Orcades, or Orkney iſles, which are about thirty in number, but not all inhabited, the greateſt part being ſmall holms that produce nothing but paſturage for ſheep and goats. They are ſituated eighteen leagues from Scotland, between the fifty-eighth and ſixtieth degree of latitude, and in longitude from London between one degree thirty minutes and two degrees fifty minutes, and are divided on the ſouth from Caithneſs, the moſt northern point of Scotland, by the Pentland or Pictland Frith, from twelve to ſixteen miles in breadth. The principal of them are known by the denominations of South Ronaldſha, Swinna, Hoy, Burra, Lambholm, Flotta, Faira, Cava, Gramſey, Mainland, Copinſha, Stupenſha, Damſey, Inhallo, Stronſa, Papa-ſtronſa, Sanda, north Ronaldſha, Eda, Rouſa, Wyre, Garſa, Egleſh, north Faira, Weſtra, Papa-Weſtra.

The chief of the Shetland iſlands are, Mainland, Bruſſa, the Skerries, Burray, Whalſey, Vuſt, Yell, Feſſar, &c.

Mainland, extending ſixty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, is indented by a great number of bays, and abounds with moſſes, bogs, and mountains, ſo that it is more adapted for paſturage than corn: nevertheleſs the low grounds near the ſhore produce oats and barley. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland ſtands Lerwick, the principal town, conſiſting of about three hundred families. Towards the weſt is ſituated Scalloway, which, though very ſmall, is the ſeat of judicature; and here likewiſe the preſbytery of Scotland aſſemble. The iſland of Braſſa, ſituated on the eaſtward of Mainland, is about five miles long, and two in breadth; has ſome arable ground, and two churches; but is chiefly remarkable for its ſound, in which the great herring-fiſhery is carried on. The landlords here are conſiderable gainers, by letting out their ground and houſes to the Dutch and Hamburghers. The Skerries, Burray, Whalſey, and Vuſt, are inconſiderable iſlands, the largeſt and laſt not exceeding eight miles in length: but all of them are provided with churches, and in Vuſt there are three good harbours.

Yell is ſixteen miles in length, is indented like the figure of 8, has three churches, and ſeveral chapels, but the country is mooriſh and barren.

Feſſar, or Fetlor, five miles in length, is remarkable only for the ruins of ſome watch-towers which the natives call Picts houſes: they are from twenty to thirty feet high, twelve broad, and tapering to the top. The natural hiſtory of theſe iſlands, with the character, cuſtoms, &c. reſembling thoſe of the Orcades and Hebrides already deſcribed, it is unneceſſary to repeat them here.

The iſlands in the Britiſh channel, ſituated near the French coaſt, are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark.

The iſland of Jerſey, known to the antient Romans, is ſituated eighteen miles weſt of Normandy. The north ſide is inacceſſible by reaſon of lofty cliffs, but the ſouth is almoſt level with the water. The higher midland parts are well planted, particularly with apple-trees, from which great quantities of cyder are made. The vallies are fertile, and well cultivated, and the paſtures feed great quantities of cattle, ſheep, &c. The inhabitants apply themſelves, in time of peace, to the improvement of commerce, and more particularly to the manufacture of ſtockings, ſale of honey, &c. which is here very exquiſite. In war time they have in general a concern in privateering, for which the ſituation is admirable. The French, in the late war, made a deſcent on this iſland, but their army was defeated by the garriſon, and made priſoners of war. Jerſey is about twelve miles in length, hath a healthy air, and contains about twenty thouſand inhabitants. The governor is appointed by the Britiſh crown, but the civil juriſdiction is inveſted in a bailiff and twelve jurats. The capital town, St. Helier, is handſome, and contains about four hundred houſes. The language is French, corrupted by an intermixture of Engliſh.

The iſland of Guernſey, in length thirteen miles and an half, and nearly of the ſame breadth, contains ten pariſhes, which, however, have only eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united; and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages, having one a piece. This iſland, though naturally finer than Jerſey, is neither ſo populous, nor ſo well cultivated. It is, however, a healthful place, and fruitful in corn and paſture, but has only one church. The people in war time, as in Jerſey, are fond of privateering: the only harbour is St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old Caſtle, the other Caſtle Cornet. The inhabitants ſpeak French, it having been a part of Normandy, and is ſtill governed by Norman laws.

The iſland of Alderney is a very healthful place; fruitful in corn and paſture, and remarkable for the fine breed of ſmall cows. It is only ſeparated from the coaſt of Normandy by a narrow ſtreight, called the Race of Alderney: it has only one church. The inhabitants live together in a town of the ſame name, the iſland being but eight miles in circuit.

The little iſle of Sark lies between the iſlands of Guernſey and Jerſey on the coaſt of Normandy in France: it is leſs than the former, has a fine air, and is fertile. The three laſt of theſe iſlands are computed to contain about twenty thouſand people, and all the four are part of the Norman patrimony, being the only remains of that part of France formerly conquered by the Britiſh arms.

ICELAND, MEDITERRANEAN, and ADRIATIC ISLANDS.

Containing a Deſcription of the above Iſlands, their Boundaries, Extent, Situation, Natural Hiſtory, Inhabitants, Laws, Cuſtoms, &c.

ICELAND is about four hundred miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad: it is ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between ſixty-three and ſixty-eight degrees north latitude, and between ten and twenty-ſix degrees weſt longitude. The greater part of the iſland is mountainous, ſtony, and barren, but in ſome places there are excellent paſtures, and the graſs has a fine ſmell. The ice, which gets looſe from the more northern country in May, brings with it a large quantity of wood, and ſeveral animals, ſuch as foxes, wolves, and bears. For two months together the ſun never ſets, and in the winter it never riſes for the ſame ſpace, at leaſt not entirely.

The iſland is well watered with large and ſmall rivers that flow from the mountains, beſides rivulets and large lakes, all of which abound with excellent fiſh. There are no foreſts in any part of the iſland, but this defect is in a great meaſure compenſated by large quantities of fine timber that come floating on ſhore on different parts of the ſea coaſt. The natural productions of Iceland, ſuch as quadrupeds, birds, inſects, and fiſh, reſemble thoſe of Norway, Greenland, &c. already deſcribed.

There are ſome exceeding lofty mountains, which are always covered with ice and ſnow. The inhabitants live in the vallies between them, and in thoſe near the coaſt are plains covered with verdure: but notwithſtanding the intenſe coldneſs of this iſland, earthquakes and volcanos have been more known here than in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country deſolate, particularly in 1734, 1752 and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. The moſt famous of theſe burning mountains is that called Heela, which is ſeated in the ſouthernmoſt part of the iſland, not far from the ſea. It has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions have been very frequent, eſpecially in 1693, when they were moſt dreadful, and occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round this iſland to the diſtance of more than one hundred miles; but ſince that time Heela has been free from eruption. It takes up four hours to aſcend from the foot of this mountain to its ſummit; and on the north-weſt is a large chaſm, reaching from the top almoſt to the bottom.

Eruptions from other mountains have broke out ſince thoſe of Heela have been ſtopped. The huge mountains of Crabla on the 17th of May, 1724, began to eject in a terrible manner ſmoak, fire, cinders and ſtones, which were followed by a fiery ſtream, like melted metal. The lava continued to move ſlowly

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on or about eight or nine miles as far as the lake of Mynat, into which it diſcharged itſelf, but did not ceaſe till the end of September 1729, when the eruptions of the mountains ſubſided. They were, however, ſoon followed by the eruptions of three of the adjacent mountains.

In this county are found ſtones of various colours, but no marble. It likewiſe produces a kind of cryſtal, a large quantity of pumice-ſtone, and, near the volcano, two ſorts of agate. It is alſo certainly rich in minerals, though there are no mines worked in the country. The people find, even above ground, large lumps of ſilver, copper, and iron ore, ſo rich, that they are melted by a common wood fire, and the metal made into various utenſils. Sulphur is the principal metal of this iſland, great quantities of which were formerly exported to Copenhagen and other countries, but that branch of trade has entirely ceaſed for ſome time.

The inhabitants of Iceland are well made, and poſſeſs a conſiderable ſhare of bodily ſtrength, though they ſeldom live to a very old age. In general they are ſober, honeſt, docile, and induſtrious; but, like all others, who dwell in cold countries, they are fond of drinking ſpirituous liquors, though few are ſo circumſtanced as to procure any conſiderable quantity. They are ſubject to various diſorders, particularly the rheumatiſm, fevers, aſthma, and conſumption; but the leproſy, or rather a kind of hereditary ſcurvy, is the prevailing diſeaſe. The dreſs both of the men and women reſembles that worn by the Norwegians. The men in fiſhing wear a garment of ſheep-ſkin over their cloaths, and this they frequently ſoften by rubbing it over with fiſh liver. Their chief employment is fiſhing, to which they bring up their children as ſoon as they have ſtrength to row about.

Their houſes nearly reſemble thoſe in Norway, with this difference, that as they are not ſo well ſupplied with timber, they make more uſe of ſtones, turf, and mud walls. The better ſort poſſeſs tolerable houſes, well furniſhed. The walls are comfortably thick and warm, and the roofs either boarded or thatched.

Theſe people having been originally a colony from Norway, they ſtill ſpeak the old Norwegian dialect, though they have adopted a great number of terms from the Scots, with whom they heretofore maintained a conſiderable traffic. The Lutheran doctrine is the only religion here tolerated. The country is divided into two biſhopricks; namely, the ſee of Skalholt for the ſouth, and that of Hoalum for the north. The revenue of each biſhop amounts to about two thouſand rix dollars; from which, however, he muſt maintain the rector and corrector, the miniſter of the cathedral church, and a certain number of ſcholars. At the time of the Reformation, great part of the church revenues was ſecularized, and now belong to the king of Denmark. The churches are in general low, and but indifferently decorated; nevertheleſs they are clean, decent, and commodious.

The inhabitants of this iſland are ruled by a governor called Staffſamptmand, or rather by his deputy the Amptmand; the former is generally choſen by the king from the Daniſh nobility, and reſides at Copenhagen; but the latter always lives in Iceland, at the king's palace of Reſſeſted, on a ſalary of four hundred rix dollars. His majeſty likewiſe appoints a receiver, who collects all the taxes and revenues, and tranſmits them to the treaſury. Beſides the ſteward, there are Syſſelmen, who farm the king's taxes in certain diſtricts, and act as juſtices of the peace, each within his own province.

The king's revenues ariſe from taxes and dues, an annual ſum paid by the company of merchants, ſecularized abbey lands, and other royal demeſnes farmed out to the natives. Law-ſuits, in ſpiritual matters, or concerning freehold property, are determined by the Norwegian laws; but in every diſpute relative to meum and tuum, the old Iceland laws take place. There are two judges, called langmand, who preſide over the ſouthern and northern diviſions, and ſometimes deputies are allowed. There is no other legal method of puniſhing men with death than beheading or hanging; the women, condemned to die, are ſewed up in a ſack, and drowned. In ſpiritual caſes, the deputy-governor ſits as judge, with the deans and clergy as his aſſeſſors.

The commerce of this iſland, with reſpect to its exports, conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſalted meat, butter, train oil, coarſe woollen cloth, ſtockings, gloves, eider-down feathers, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, and fox-ſkins. The imports are, timber, fiſhing lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a few other neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for perſons of higher rank.

The Danes, by an excluſive charter, monopolize the whole trade of Iceland. This company maintains factories at all the harbours in the iſland, where they exchange the foreign goods for the merchandize of the country; and as the balance is in favour of the Icelanders, they pay the overplus in Daniſh money, which is the only current coin in this iſland. The weights and meaſures nearly reſemble the Daniſh.

In treating of the iſlands in the Mediterranean, we ſhall begin with a deſcription of Ivica and Fermentora, which were called Pithyuſæ by the Greeks, from the vaſt quantities of pines they produced. The former ſeparately was called Ebuſus, and the other Ophiuſa and Collubraria. Fermentora, ſix miles north of Ivica, is ſmall, and at preſent uninhabited. Theſe iſlands lie about thirty-ſix miles weſt of Cape St. Martin on the coaſt of Spain. Ivica is about forty miles long, and twenty-two broad, and very mountainous, but not unfruitful, where it is cultivated. The commodities are ſalt and figs; the principal place is Ivica, a ſmall town, with a fort and harbour, and the reſidence of the governor, who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Majorca.

There is another little iſland, called Cabrera, ſituated ſouth of Majorca. It takes it name from the multitude of goats found upon it: it is a receptacle for baniſhed perſons, and has a ſmall garriſon and caſtle to defend the entrance of the harbour.

The iſland of Majorca is the neareſt to the Spaniſh coaſt of any of theſe iſlands: it is ſixty miles in length, and forty in breadth, abounds in corn, cattle, horſes, wine, oil, honey, ſaffron, deer, rabbets, wild fowl, &c. and is plentifully ſupplied with fiſh. Here are four capes, viz. Pedra eaſt, Groſſer weſt, Salmas ſouth, and Termentor north. It has watch-towers all round it. Towards the north and weſt it is mountainous, but has ſeveral good harbours, with plenty of water. The air is wholſome, but very hot and dry in ſummer. A conſiderable body of horſe and foot is kept here for the defence of the iſland. The language of the better ſort is Spaniſh, but that of the common people is a medley of Spaniſh, Latin, Greek, and Arabic.

The principal town, Majorca, antiently Palma, which ſtands on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, on a bay between the capes, and is a large and well fortified town, the reſidence of the viceroy, the ſeat of the court of inquiſition and other courts, and has a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats per annum. The inhabitants are computed at ten thouſand. Here are a great many churches, a ſtately cathedral, an univerſity, ſeveral hoſpitals, handſome ſtreets and ſquares; of the laſt, there is one called Born, where the bull-fights and other ſhews are exhibited.

The iſland of Minorca lies thirty-three miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Majorca. Its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is thirty-eight miles, and its breadth fifteen. The air is moiſt, but never exceeding cold or hot. Here are lead mines, plenty of fiſh, ſalt, fine marble, rabbets, ſheep, honey, wax, capers, oil, cotton, wine, ſome of which is excellent, fine acorns, opuntia, palm trees, which, however, bear no fruit, myrtles, with a vaſt variety of petrified ſhells, and a great deal of cattle. The water is ſaid to be of an indifferent quality. The inhabitants, like the Spaniards, are too proud and lazy to cultivate the ground in a proper manner, and conſequently have but little corn. They are computed at about twenty thouſand, have natural turns to poetry, love, muſic and dancing, and, like their anceſtors, are expert ſlingers.

The capital, Citadella, lies on the weſt coaſt, where the governor reſides. It is a ſmall place, but well fortified, and chiefly inhabited by the Engliſh. The harbour of Port Mahon is one of the fineſt in Europe (both for its capaciouſneſs and ſecurity from wind and enemies) being four miles long, and above half a mile in breadth. The town is ſmall, but has a briſk trade. Near it is St. Philip's caſtle (which, with the town and harbour, lie at the ſouth-eaſt end of this iſland,) is a ſquare fort, which has always a good garriſon.

In 1756, the French got poſſeſſion of this iſland, the Engliſh garriſon in Fort St. Philip's not having been duly ſupported, reinforced, and ſupplied by Admiral Byng, who was ſent to its relief. The combined forces of France and Spain again took it in 1782, and, by the treaty concluded in 1783, it was ceded to his catholic majeſty.

The iſland of Corſica, between the gulph of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, extends from forty-one to forty-three degrees of north latitude, and from nine to ten degrees of eaſt longitude. Hence its greateſt length from Cape Corſo, which is its utmoſt northern point, to Cape Bonifacio, its utmoſt ſouthern extremity is about one hundred Engliſh miles, and its greateſt breadth about fifty. It is computed to be one hundred miles diſtant from the city of Genoa to the ſouth, and is divided into the country on this ſide and beyond the mountains, which are again ſubdivided into thirty-eight cantons, called pieves by the natives. Being for the moſt part mountainous, woody, dry and ſtony, it has little arable land. Some of the low grounds and vallies, however, yield corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruit trees. Here are ſome ſalt-works, and hot baths on the iſland, with cryſtals, iron and allum: here is alſo a good breed of cattle and horſes, and the woods and foreſts abound with deer and other game, together with honey and wax.

Corſica is but thinly inhabited, but the clergy are very numerous, compared to the reſt of the people, as the Franciſcans, Capuchins and Servetes, have no leſs than ſeventy-five convents. It belonged to the Genoeſe, but the natives, on account of their tyranny, having for many years taken up arms againſt them, that ſtate ſurrendered its right to the French king, under whoſe dominion it now remains. General Paoli, who long commanded them in their ſtruggles for freedom, now reſides in England, and has a penſion from the Britiſh court.

The principal places are, 1. Baſtia, the capital, ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of the iſland, twenty-two miles ſouth of Cape Corſe, and ſeventy-ſix north of Cape Boniſacio. It is the ſee of a biſhop, has a good harbour and caſtle, and is pretty well fortified.

2. The town of San Fiorenzo, ſituated alſo on the northern ſide of the iſland, on a gulf to which it gives name, has a good haven, with ſome fortifications, and is the reſidence of a biſhop; but its inhabitants are few, on account of the unwholeſomeneſs of the air.

3. The town of Boniſacio, which is ſmall, but well peopled, ſtands on the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland. 4. Porto Veccio, a little ſea port town on the eaſtern coaſt.

5. Ajazzo, by ſome eſteemed the capital of the iſland, ſtands on the weſtern coaſt by the river Gravone, and on the ſouth ſide of a gulf, to which it gives name. It is an epiſcopal ſee, a place of good trade, and well peopled. 6. Corto, on the Golo, is alſo an epiſcopal ſee, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle and wall.

The iſland of Sardinia, one hundred and fifty miles weſt of Leghorn, one hundred and ſixty in length, and eighty in breadth, has but an indifferent air, yet the ſoil is fruitful, and abounds in corn, wine, oil, and fruit: here are alſo plenty of cattle, game, buffaloes, bears, and deer, ſome of which have fine ſpotted ſkins; gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, allum, &c. The commodities, excluſive of the productions already mentioned, are coral, linen, ſilk, wool, hides, and cheeſe; and the whole is enjoyed under the title of king, by a prince of the Savoy family. The inhabitants are indolent, and diſſolute in their manners; conſequently the country is not ſo well cultivated as it might be. The religion is Roman Catholic, and the language Spaniſh. The only venomous creature is a kind of ſpider.

The chief town, Cagliari, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and on the declivity of a hill; it is divided into high and low; the former being handſome and well built, but the latter poor and unhealthy. The town contains ſeveral convents: the cathedral is magnificent; the archbiſhop and viceroy reſide here; the port is ſpacious, and defended by a battery and caſtle.

By an oppoſite courſe of the rivers Sacro and Tirſo, this iſland is nearly cut into two equal parts or provinces; the one called Il Capo de Cagliari, and the other Il Capo de Saſſari, or Lugedori. There are a great many ports, gulfs, and bays in it, with ſeveral ſtrong towns, a great number of villages, three archbiſhoprics, and four biſhoprics. The clergy, both ſecular and regular, have great privileges, incomes, and immunities. The only univerſity is that of Cagliari. The revenues of the iſland are ſaid to exceed the charges of its government and ſupport. A great many ſmaller iſlands lie about Sardinia.

The iſland of Capri, or Caprea, is much taken notice of for the noble ruins on it. It is about four miles long, and one broad, and is ſituated at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, about three miles from the continent. This iſle was the reſidence of the emperor Auguſtus for ſome time, and afterwards of Tiberius for many years. The principal ruins and remains of antiquity are at the extremity of the eaſtern promontory. It contains about one thouſand five hundred inhabitants, who are exempt from all taxes, and belongs to the province of Lovoro, in the kingdom of Naples. There are ſeveral ſprings of freſh water in it, and in a delightful valley between the mountains, at the two extremities, ſtands a city of the ſame name with the iſland, which is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue ariſes chiefly from the prodigious flights of quails that come thither at certain ſeaſons, particularly in March.

The iſland of Iſchia is a ſmall but pleaſant place, lying on the Neapolitan coaſt, about two miles from the cape of Meſſina, and twenty-five from Naples. Moſt of it is ſurrounded with high, craggy, and inacceſſible rocks, which ſhelter it from the winds, and defend it from invaders. Some parts of it are rich and delightful, yielding all manner of delicious fruits, and excellent wines, but others are diſmal and barren. It was antiently called Inarime, and was very ſubject to earthquakes. There are a number of pleaſant towns and villages in it, and alſo ſeveral hot baths and mineral waters.

The iſland of Sicily, the moſt conſiderable in the Mediterranean, is divided from Italy by a narrow ſtraight, called the Faro of Meſſina. The tides here flow irregularly and violently. The rock, antiently called Scylla, and now Cape Seiglio, is on the Calabrian ſide, and the whirlpool, formerly called Charybdis, lies not far from Meſſina, and is now denominated Caloſara.

This iſland enjoys a ſalubrious air, and the ſoil is ſo fertile, that it is ſtiled the granary of Italy. It produces abundance of corn, wine, oil, fruits, ſugar, honey, ſaffron, wax, ſilk, &c. ſome gold, ſilver, iron, allum, vitriol, ſaltpetre, and mineral ſalt. The mountains yield emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and a ſtone called catochite, of a greeniſh ſpeckled colour, which grows ſoft by the warmth of one's hand, ſticking to it like glue, and is an excellent antidote againſt the ſting of ſcorpions, and ſome other poiſonous inſects. Here are plenty of excellent fiſh, among which are the peſce ſpada, or ſword-fiſh, and tunnies, and a good deal of coral is found upon the coaſt. Great quantities of raw or manufactured ſilk are exported from Meſſina, where a conſul from almoſt every nation in Europe reſides, to manage and protect the trade of the nation to which he belongs.

In this iſland are ſeveral rivers and good ſprings, but few of the rivers are navigable, having but a ſhort courſe, and deſcending precipitately from the mountains, the moſt noted of which is Mount Ætna, now called Monte Gibello, or Mongibello, a volcano, whoſe eruptions have often proved fatal to the neighbouring country. The eruptions of Mount Ætna are generally preceded by an earthquake, which often does more damage than the eruptions, which will appear from the following authentic account tranſmitted hither from Florence, dated Feb. 25, 1783: "On the 5th of this month there happened a tremendous and dreadful earthquake at Meſſina, which has entirely deſtroyed that beautiful city, together with moſt of its inhabitants, amounting, it is ſaid, to near forty thouſand ſouls. The citadel, the forts that commanded the ſea, the magnificent port, the centre of commerce of Sicily, the ſuperb edifices, the public monuments, are overthrown, and all the grandeur thereof vaniſhed away. The oppoſite coaſt of Calabria has greatly ſuffered, and it is computed that no leſs than one hundred and thirty towns have been deſtroyed. Several perſons of high rank, and a great number of families of diſtinction are totally loſt, and nothing left of a great city but the ruins, watered by the tears of the wretched ſurvivors." Mount Ætna is ſeventy miles in circuit, and ſo high, that it harbours many wild beaſts: at the bottom are corn fields, and plantations of ſugar canes. Among the other mountains, one of the moſt conſiderable is Mount St. Julian, near Palermo, antiently called Eryx, and vulgarly Trepani.

The nobility are ſo numerous in this iſland, that a late writer ſays it is paved with noblemen, there being no leſs than ſixty dukedoms, fifty-ſix marquiſates, and upwards of one hundred earldoms. The people in general, with reſpect to their character, are reckoned a perverſe race, being a mixture of Italians and Spaniards: they ſpeak chiefly Spaniſh, and follow the Spaniſh faſhions, particularly in wearing black. The eſtabliſhed religion of the iſland is the Roman Catholic. The number of churches, convents, and religious foundations is very great, and they are well endowed. There is a ſovereign tribunal, which judges, in all eccleſiaſtical affairs, and admits of no appeal to the pope. The Jews are now allowed to ſettle here, and make open profeſſion of their religion, which was not the caſe while the iſland was immediately ſubject to Spain.

Geographers commonly divide this iſland into three parts or provinces, viz. Val di Domino, Val di Noto, and Val di Mazara. The principal places are as follow:

1. The city of Palermo, capital of Sicily, antiently Panorames, a large, rich, and well built city, ſituated at the very bottom of a gulf, to which it gives name. It is ſaid to have been built by the Phœnicians at their firſt coming into Sicily, and it is now an archiepiſcopal ſee, being one hundred and twenty miles diſtant from Meſſina to the weſt. The viceroy's palace is a magnificent ſtructure, adorned with fine ſculptures, gardens, &c. and ſerves inſtead of a caſtle, ſtanding high, and being flanked with ſome lofty towers, and other works. There are many other fine public edifices, as the cathedral, and the other churches, ſeveral fountains, the city gate, which leads to the ſea ſide, the quay, the mole, forts, convents, town-houſe, lombard houſe, and univerſity. The quay is one of the fineſt walks about the city, being wide and of a great length, and planted with trees. The port is ſafe and commodious every where, except on the ſouth-weſt ſide, which is full of rocks, that appear no higher than the ſurface of the ſea. This city carries on a conſiderable trade, is computed to contain one hundred and twenty thouſand inhabitants, and the two ſtreets, which croſs each other, are very fine.

2. The city of Meſſina, before the late calamity, was pretty large and well built, had a ſpacious harbour near the ſtraight to which it gives name, and not above ſix miles from the coaſt of Calabria. It was one of the greateſt market towns in the Mediterranean,

diterranean, contained many noble edifices, was the ſee of an archbiſhop, and contended with Palermo for being the capital of the iſland. The cathedral was a large ſpacious building, very rich in plate, and finely adorned in the inſide.

3. The city of Syracuſe, greatly celebrated among the antients, and formerly the capital of the iſland, is ſaid to have been built by Archias, a Corinthian, and to have extended upwards of twenty-two miles, or one hundred and eighty ſtadia, in compaſs. It ſtands forty-ſix miles from Catania, ſeventy-five from Meſſina to the ſouth, and thirty-eight north from Cape Paſſaro, the Promontorium Pachynum of the Romans, on that ſpot antiently called Inſula, or the Iſland. This city is a biſhop's ſee, has a fine large harbour ſupplied with plenty of water by the famed fountains of Arethuſa, and is defended by a fortified caſtle. It was almoſt ruined by an earthquake in 1699, yet the number of its inhabitants are now ſaid to be fourteen thouſand.

4. The town of Cartelamara is ſituated on a bay, to the ſouth of Monte Reale: it is a biſhop's ſee, and has a good harbour. Near it ſtood the town antiently called Egeſta, and celebrated for its warm baths. The other towns of this province are too inconſiderable to merit particular deſcription.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens; and, by their connexions with the Greeks eſtabliſhed there a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

Off the north coaſts of Sicily, in the Tuſcan ſea, lie ſeveral ſmall iſlands, called at preſent the Lipari iſlands, from the chief of them, which is ſaid to have its name from Liparus, the founder of its capital.

Lipari, which lies about twenty-ſix miles north from the neareſt coaſt of Sicily, and is about eighteen miles in circumfence, including the windings of the ſhore, enjoys a wholſome air, and rich ſoil, producing corn, wine, and fruit, eſpecially figs and raiſins, in great plenty, together with ſulphur, allum, and bitumen. It hath alſo ſome excellent hot ſprings, and on the coaſts are caught a great variety of fine fiſh, with which it drives a conſiderable commerce. The capital, called alſo Lipari, is ſtrong both by nature and art, well inhabited, and an epiſcopal ſea, under that of Meſſina. The ſmall iſlands of Levanzo, Maritima, and Favagnana, (which with the Lipari iſles are ſubject to the king of the two Sicilies) lie at the weſt end of Sicily.

We ſhall here mention the iſle of Malta, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, is ſituated in fifteen degrees eaſt longitude, and forty-five degrees north latitude, ſixty miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of cotton, indigo, and a variety of fruit, roots, herbs, &c. but corn and ſalt are the principal commodities. It contains about ſixty thouſand inhabitants, who ſpeak Italian in the towns, and a corrupt Arabic in the country.

The knights conſiſt of eight tongues or nations, the chief of which are French, Italians, Spaniards, Engliſh, and Germans. They are ſaid to amount to about three thouſand, have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand maſter, who is elected for life. They ought all to be of antient noble families; but ſometimes nobility is diſpenſed with on account of perſonal merit, and ſuch are called cavalieri di gratia. The grand maſter and knights are equally capable of being advanced to a cardinal's hat. According to the ſtatutes, no natural children, thoſe of great princes excepted, nor perſons under eighteen years of age, can be admitted into the order; but the pope may diſpenſe with theſe qualifications, and the grand maſter has an unlimited privilege to grant this favour to ſix perſons. The knights are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They wear croſſes of a particular form, and are ſtill conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide.

The chief town, Valetta, had its name from the grand maſter Fred. Joh. de Valetta, who built it anno 1566. It is a handſome town, with an excellent harbour, and ſtrongly fortified. Here is an elegant palace for the grand maſter, ſeveral convents, nunneries, and churches, the principal of which is dedicated to St. John; a college of Jeſuits, a large hoſpital, and a building where Turkiſh ſlaves are kept.

The moſt conſiderable of the other towns are, Citta Vittorioſa, or Il Borgo Senglea, Malta called alſo Medini, and Citta Vacchia where the biſhop reſides; Bormola, Forte di S. Thomaſſo, Forte Roſſo, Citta Nuovo, and Cottonera.

There are, beſides Malta, two other ſmall iſlands lying near it, that belong to the order, namely, Gozo, antiently Gaulos; and Comino, antiently Hephæſtia-Gozo, is very fruitful, and has about three thouſand inhabitants, with ſeveral good harbours, and ſtrong forts. Corſino, though very ſmall, is pretty fertile, and has a fort and harbour.

The iſlands in the Adriatic are eight in number, viz. I. Luſiona, or Leſina. II. Corfu, or Corcyra. III. Cephalonia. IV. Zante. V. Leucadia, or St. Maura. VI. Candia, formerly Crete. VII. The Cyclades. VIII. The Sporades.

The firſt of theſe, namely, Luſiona, or Leſina, ſituated ſeventy-five miles north-eaſt of Naples, is about ſeventy miles long, and ſixteen broad. The ſhore is low, has two caſtles, and a Moſaic kind of decayed cauſeway. The reſt is inhabited by huſbandmen, who cultivate the moſt fertile part of the country, which, though mountainous and rocky, produces plenty of corn, wine, olives, ſaffron, honey, and fruits. Theſe live in towns and large villages, ſome of one hundred, ſome of five hundred families: and here is conſiderable gain from good fiſheries. The capital of the ſame name, is well-built, and populous. Here are many fine churches, monaſteries, &c.

The iſland of Corfu, or Corcyra, near the mouth of the Adriatic, is about one hundred and twenty miles in circumference, and a very important place to the Venetians, who have generally about fifteen gallies, and other veſſels. The place is famous for ſalt, wine, olives, lemons, cyder, &c. The principal city, Corfu, has a noble metropolitan church of the Greeks. The town is handſome, and well defended by the caſtle of St. Ange, which is deemed impregnable.

The iſland of Cephalonia is rather larger than Corfu. The capital, of the ſame name, is a biſhop's ſee. Argoliſto, the principal port, and the reſidence of the governor, is a ſtrong fortreſs. It is fertile in oil, excellent Muſcadine wine, and grapes not unlike currants, which are a very profitable commodity. The climate is very hot, and the trees bloſſom throughout the winter. It is ſubject to the Venetians.

The iſland of Zante, ſeventeen miles from Cephalonia, is one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, mountainous, and ſubject to earthquakes. It has, however, plenty of wines, oil, corn, currants, excellent peaches, figs, and cucumbers, &c. but a ſcarcity of wood. The Engliſh and Dutch have factories here. The capital of the ſame name, is tolerably populous. This iſland, which alſo belongs to the Venetians, has no fortifications; but there is a fortreſs upon an eminence planted with cannon. In one part of this iſland is a ſpring, which throws out a deal of bitumen, eſpecially at the time of an earthquake.

Cerigo, formerly Cerhera, is a rocky, barren iſland, ſixty miles in circumference, between Candia and the Mare, and contains a town of the ſame name. South from Zante, on the Morea coaſt, lie two ſmall cluſters of iſlands, the one called Strophades, the other Strivali.

The iſland of Leucadia, or St. Maura, lies in the Ionian ſea, and is divided from the continent by a ſtraight not above fifty paces over, or more than four feet deep. The whole iſland is fruitful, and near forty miles in circumference. The Carthaginians ſettled a colony here, and formed the ſtraight, for Leucadia was formerly a peninſula.

The iſland of Candia (formerly Crete) lies to the ſouth of the Archipelago; is about two hundred miles in length, fifty in breadth, and five hundred in circumference. Candia, antiently the capital, is now in ruins, and the harbour ſo ſpoiled as to admit only boats. The walls of the town, which are ſtill ſtanding, are pretty ſtrong; and it is the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop. Here are ſome Greeks, who bear a very good character, a few Jews, and ſome Armenians, beſides three or four French families, with a vice-conſul. It was taken by the Turks in 1669, after above three years ſiege. It was attempted to be retaken by the Venetians in 1692, but without effect. The product of this iſle is corn, wine, oil, wool, ſilk, and excellent honey. The air is good, as well as the water. It is divided into three parts, the principal of which is Candia, where the beglerbeg reſides; the ſecond is Canea, where there is a baſhaw; and the third is that of Retimo, where there is another baſhaw. Mount Ida, ſo famed in hiſtory, is in the middle of this iſland, and is only a barren, diſagreeable, ſharp-pointed eminence, with not the leaſt ſhadow of a landſcape: no delightful grotto, public ſpring, or purling rivulet, are to be ſeen thereon.

The famed iſlands called the Cyclades lie in the Archipelago, being

SOUTH AMERICA

agreeable to the most approved MAPS and CHARTS, By Mr Kitchen.



NORTH SEA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

SOUTHERN OCEAN

TERRA FIRMA

GUIANA

BRAZIL

PARAGUAY

LA PLATA

CHILI

Cordillera Mountains

Pampas

Surinam ... Dutch
Guyane ... France
Brazil ... Portugal
Terra Firma, Peru ... Spain
Chili, Paraguay ... Spain
Falkland Is. ... England

CAPE VERD Is.

GALLIPAGOS Isles

Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Capricorn

Trepid. Cr.

Ascension I.

Trinidad I.

Tristan de Cunha

Terra Australis

Meridian of London

West Longit. from London

East Longitude

being diſpoſed in the form of a circle, as their name imports. The principal of theſe is Pelicandro, which contains only one village, but from its caſtle may be ſeen all the iſlands of the Archipelago. 2. Naxia, the moſt fertile of theſe iſlands. 3. Milo, ſixty miles in compaſs, and conſiſting chiefly of a ſpongy rock, but well inhabited and cultivated, with an excellent harbour. 4. Sephanto, thirty-ſix miles in compaſs, contains ſeveral villages. 5. Paros, one of the leaſt, but beſt cultivated of the Cyclades, and its marble has for many ages been famous under the name of Parian ſtone. 6. Antiparos, ſixteen miles in circuit, contains only one village. 7. Nio, nine miles ſouth of Naxia, contains Homer's tomb. 8. Armorgo, thirty-ſix miles in compaſs, yields corn, wine, and oil. 9. Delos, only about eight miles in compaſs, in the centre of the Cyclades. 10. Argentiere: its name is taken from the ſilver mines in it: the place is barren, and water ſcarce. 11. Zia is fruitful, and contains ſome antiquities. 12. Thermia is populous, well-cultivated, produces much ſilk, and has in it plenty of partridges. 13. Joara is deſolate. 14. Mycene has a town of the ſame name, and its inhabitants are the beſt ſailors in the Archipelago. This place contains about three thouſand people; but for one man there are four women, who are often ſeen lying among the hogs in the open ſtreets: here are plenty of partridges, quails, woodcocks, turtle doves, rabbets, and wheat-ears; beſides which, it produces excellent grapes, and delicious figs. Almoſt all the inhabitants are Greeks, who have fifty churches in all. 15. Tine, thirty-five miles in circumference, produces abundance of fruit, wine and ſilk. 16. Andros, one hundred and twenty miles in compaſs, is fertile, and well watered.

Thoſe called the Sperades, or ſcattered iſlands, are as follow; viz. 1. Engia, thirty miles in circumference, and is very fruitful. 2. Colouri, antiently Salamis, fifty miles in circumference, contains three villages, one of which is called Colouri. 3. Negropont, antiently Eubœa, is ninety miles long, twenty-five broad, and very fruitful. 4. Scyro, twenty-five miles north-eaſt of Negropont, is ſixty-miles in circumference, and has a town of the ſame name. 5. Serphanto, which abounds in iron and loadſtone; this was the place, whereto the Romans baniſhed their malefactors. 6. Stalimene, or Lemnos, is of a ſquare form, being about twenty-five miles on each ſide. 7. Samondrachi, or Samothrace, near the coaſt of Romania, is twenty-five miles in circuit. 8. Embro, which contains four villages, one bearing the name of the iſland. 9. Theſſus, famous for wine and marble. 10. Macroniſi is barren and uninhabited. 11. Syro has a town of the ſame name, with a good harbour. 12. Sikino, which produces plenty of figs, and the beſt wheat in the Archipelago.

We ſhall conclude our account of the European iſlands with a deſcription of the Azores, or Weſtern iſlands, which have, by different geographers, been variouſly deemed parts of America, Africa, and Europe, as they are almoſt in a central point; but we apprehend they may with more propriety be conſidered as belonging to the latter. They are a group of iſlands, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between twenty-five and thirty-two degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirty-ſeven and forty north latitude, nine hundred miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland. They are nine in number, viz. St. Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Terceira, St. George, Graciоſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo.

Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered by ſome Flemiſh ſhips in 1439, and afterwards by the Portugueſe in 1447, to whom they now belong. The two weſternmoſt were named Flores and Corvo, from the abundance of flowers on the one, and crows on the other. They are all fertile, and ſubject to a governor-general, who reſides at Angra in Terceira, which is alſo the ſeat of the biſhop, whoſe dioceſe extends over all the Azores; and whoſe income, paid in wheat, amounts to about two hundred pounds ſterling a year. On every iſland there is a deputy-governor, who directs the police, militia and revenue; and a juiz, or judge, is at the head of the law departments, from whom lies an appeal to a higher court at Terceira, and from thence to the ſupreme court at Liſbon.

St. Miguel, the largeſt, is one hundred miles in circumference, contains about twenty-nine thouſand inhabitants, and is very fertile in wheat and flax. Its chief town is Panta del Gado. This iſland was twice ravaged by the Engliſh in the time of Queen Elizabeth.

Terceira is reckoned the chief iſland, on account of its having the beſt harbour; and its chief town, named Angra, being the reſidence of the governor-general and the biſhop. The town contains a cathedral, five other churches, eight convents, ſeveral courts of offices, &c. and is defended by two forts.

The iſland of Pico, ſo called from a mountain of vaſt height, produces excellent wine, cedar, and a valuable wood called teixos. On the ſouth of the iſland is the principal harbour called Villa das Lagens.

The inhabitants of Flores having been many years ago infected with the venereal diſeaſe by the crew of a Spaniſh man of war, that was wrecked upon their coaſt, the evil, it is ſaid, ſtill maintains its ground there, none of the inhabitants being free from it, as in Peru, and ſome parts of Siberia.

One tenth of all their productions belong to the king, and the article of tobacco brings in a conſiderable ſum. The wine, called Fayal wine, is chiefly raiſed in the iſland of Pico, which lies oppoſite to Fayal. From eighteen to twenty thouſand pipes of that wine are made there yearly. The other iſlands have nothing that merit particular notice. All of them enjoy a ſalubrious air, but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered.

THE NEW AND UNIVERSAL

SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK IV.

THE NEW AND COMPLETE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

SOUTH AND NORTH AMERICA.

CHAP. I.

OF AMERICA IN GENERAL.

SECT. I.

AMERICUS VESPUCIO, a Florentine by birth, being, in 1497, ſent to improve the diſcoveries made in 1491, by Columbus, gave to this diviſion of the globe the name of America. This vaſt continent (at leaſt what has been hitherto diſcovered) reaches from latitude ſeventy-eight degrees north to latitude fifty-ſix ſouth, that is, one hundred and thirty-four degrees; which taken in a ſtrait line, amount to upwards of eight thouſand and forty miles in length. Its breadth is very irregular, being in ſome places three thouſand ſix hundred and ninety miles, and in others, as at the diſtance of Darien or Panama, not not above ſixty or ſeventy. The boundaries aſcribed to it are the land about the pole on the north; the Atlantic ocean which ſeparates it from Europe and Aſia on the eaſt; another vaſt ocean on the ſouth, and the Pacific ocean uſually called the South Sea, which divides it from Aſia on the weſt. How or when America was firſt peopled, cannot be aſcertained; but if the north of Aſia is joined to America, it is moſt likely to have been from thence, eſpecially as the natives of theſe parts ſtill bear a great reſemblance to one another.

The native Americans, who are diſtinguiſhed into various tribes, are found, as far as we are yet acquainted with them, to bear a wonderful likeneſs, both in their perſons and manners; for they have all coarſe black hair on their heads, but none on any other parts of their bodies, not even on their faces, except thoſe in the country called Labrador, in North America, who have not only thick luſty beards, and hair on other parts of their bodies,

but

but alſo eat raw fleſh, and go cloathed both in ſummer and winter, in all which reſpects they differ from the others, and are therefore ſuppoſed to have a different origin.

The New World may properly be divided into four parts, viz. I. South America. II. American and Weſt India iſlands. III. North America. IV. Countries lately diſcovered by Captain Cook and other navigators; moſt of which latter we have already deſcribed.

I. South America compriſes the following grand diviſions; viz. Terra Firma, belonging to Spain; in length fourteen hundred, breadth ſeven hundred miles, chief city Panama. 2. Peru, belonging to Spain; length eighteen hundred, breadth five hundred miles, chief city Lima. 3. Paragua, belonging to the Spaniards and Jeſuits; length fifteen hundred, breadth one thouſand miles, chief city Buenos Ayres. 4. Chili, belonging to Spain; length twelve hundred, breadth five hundred miles, chief city St. Jago. 5. Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia, belonging to its natives; length ſeven hundred, breadth three hundred miles. 6. Brazil, belonging to Portugal; length two thouſand five hundred, breadth ſeven hundred miles, chief city St. Sebaſtian. 7. Amazonia, belonging to its natives; in length twelve hundred, breadth nine hundred and ſixty miles. 8. Guiana, poſſeſſed by the Dutch and French; length ſeven hundred and eighty, breadth four hundred and eighty miles, chief places, Surinam and Cayenne.

The extent of the vaſt peninſula of South America, is computed to be from the iſthmus of Darian to Cape Horn, in the form of a triangle, goes by the general name of Peruvia, although the countries included within it do not acknowledge the authority of the crown of Spain. Thoſe dominions in South America, which belong to the Spaniards, are under two governors ſtiled viceroys and captains-general, ſubordinate to whom are ſeveral audiences, as thoſe of Panama, Terra Firma, Chuquiſaca, Quito, Lima, Los Charcas, and Chili, conſiſting of a preſident, and a certain number of counſellors, with the inferior officers, appointed by the king.

SECT II.

Of TERRA FIRMA, PERU, PARAGUAY, and CHILI, their Boundaries and Extent, Climate, Rivers, Mountains, Produce, Animals, &c. with the ſeveral Diſtricts, Cities, and Towns therein contained; and alſo a Deſcription of the Inhabitants, their Perſons, Manners, Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Diet, &c.

THE boundaries of Terra Firma, called alſo New or Golden Caſtile, are, the Atlantic ocean on the north; Peru and Amazonia on the ſouth; the Pacific ocean and New Spain on the weſt, and Surinam on the eaſt. It is fourteen hundred miles long, ſeven hundred broad, and had the name of Golden Caſtile, from the great quantity of gold found in it. The climate is neither pleaſant nor healthy; the inhabitants, one part of the year, being almoſt drowned with perpetual floods of rain, and in the other ſcorched by the moſt intenſe heat.

The ſoil, in ſome parts, is a barren land, or drowned mangroveland, that will ſcarcely produce any kind of grain; in others, it yields Indian corn, balms, gums and drugs, almoſt all manner of fruits, as well of Old as of New Spain, ſugar, tobacco, Braſil wood, and ſeveral kinds of dyeing wood; a variety of precious ſtones, particularly emeralds and ſapphires; veniſon and other game. The plantations of cacao, or chocolate nuts, in the diſtrict of Caraccas, are eſteemed the beſt in America. The rivers, ſeas and lakes teem with fiſh, and alſo with alligators; and the bowels of the earth were once furniſhed with the richeſt treaſures, now almoſt exhauſted. The ſame may be ſaid of the pearl fiſheries on the coaſt.

The diſtrict of Terra Firma is very mountainous. According to Dampier, the mountains of Carthagena and St. Martha are the higheſt in the world, being ſeen two hundred miles off at ſea; from theſe run a chain of hills, of almoſt equal height, quite through South America, as far as the ſtraights of Magellan, called the Cordilleras des Andes. The provinces of Venezuella, and the diſtrict of the Caraccas, are likewiſe very mountainous. Some of the mountains in the provinces of Popayan contain volcanos; but towards the ſhore of the Paciſic ocean, the country is low and marſhy. The whole is watered by a great number of rivers, the principal of which is that of Oroonoko.

The provinces are, 1. Terra Firma Proper, which lies in the form of a creſcent about the bay of Panama, being the iſthmus which joins South and North America: it is three hundred miles in length, but in breadth only ſixty, where the iſthmus is narroweſt. This country conſiſts of prodigious high mountains and deep vallies, flooded more than half the year. It abounds in gold and pearls.

The principal places are, 1. Panama, which is ſtrongly fortified and garriſoned, and the walls mounted with large cannon. Here is the reſidence of the governor of the province, and the ſeat of a royal audience, with a convenient harbour, well ſecured againſt ſtorms by a number of ſurrounding iſlands. At the bottom of the ſea are found numbers of pearls, and the oyſters in which they are found are extremely delicious. This kind of fiſhery is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the iſlands in the bay; who generally employ at leaſt a part of their ſlaves in it.

The town of Porto-bello is ſituated cloſe to the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain which ſurrounds the harbour. The governor is always a military officer, ſubordinate to the preſident of Panama. The town is but thinly inhabited, owing to its noxious air, and contains 200 wooden houſes, which moſt of the inhabitants let, when the galleons are here, and make any temporary ſhift for themſelves. In the year 1739 gallant admiral Vernon took this place with only ſix ſhips, demoliſhed the forts, and diſmantled the fortifications.

Carthagena is neither rich, fertile, nor populous: here is no great quantity of corn nor cattle: valuable gums, balms, and drugs, are found here, but no mines of gold or ſilver.

The metropolis, of the ſame name, is a fine, opulent city, and ſtrong fortreſs, ſituated on a ſandy iſland, called a peninſula by moſt writers. The harbour lies between the iſland and the main, and the entrance is at the ſouth-weſt end. The city and ſuburbs are well laid out; the ſtreets ſtraight, broad, uniform, and well-paved. The houſes are built of ſtone or brick, with balconies or lattices of wood.

Carthagena was an independent government till 1739, when the viceroy of New Granada was appointed. It extends 53 leagues from weſt to eaſt, and 85 from ſouth to north, containing ſeveral fruitful vallies, called by the natives Savannahs, in which are many ſettlements of Europeans, Spaniſh Creoles, and Indians. The climate is hot and unhealthy; and, among other diſeaſes, the black vomit and leproſy are fatal to Europeans. The Guiney worm and pigue are very troubleſome inſects. The bay of Carthagena is the firſt place in America at which the galleons touch.

Santa Martha is two hundred miles long, one hundred and forty broad, very mountainous, but produces gold, jewels, marble, ſalt, &c. The capital of the ſame name, on a branch of the Rio Grande, is the reſidence of a governor, and the ſee of a biſhop.

On the north ſea lies Venezuela, which includes the diſtrict of Caraccas. It is a populous and fertile province, but labours under a ſcarcity of water. The capital of the ſame name is the reſidence of a governor, and the ſee of a biſhop: the inland town of Caraccas is large and populous.

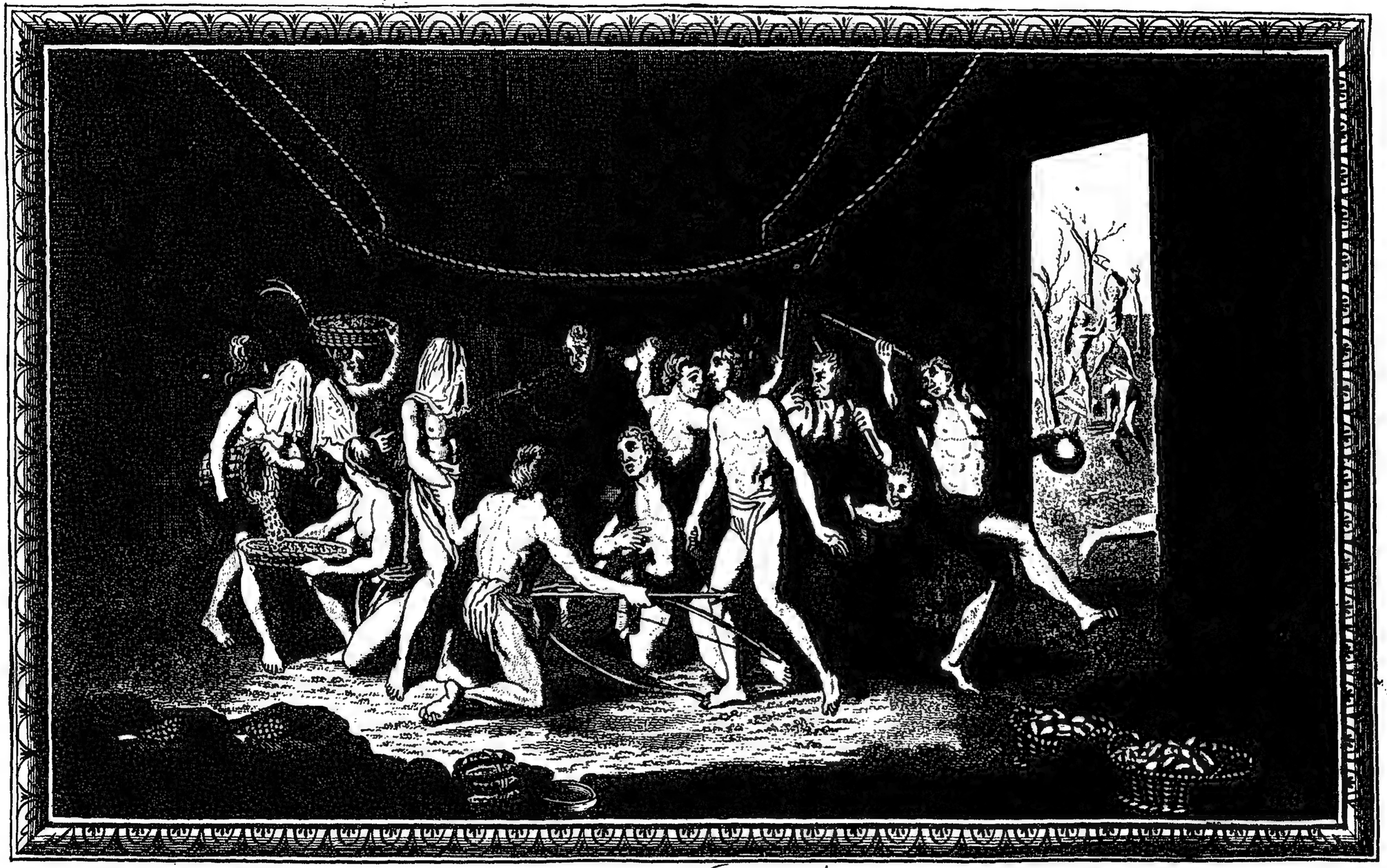
The province of Rio de la Hacha is pleaſant and fertile. The capital, of the ſame name, contains nothing remarkable. Here are mines of jaſper and chalcedony, and a pearl-fiſhery.

The province of New Andaluſia (including the diſtricts of Commona and Parie) is fertile, and rich in gums, drugs, medicinal plants, ſugar, tobacco, and ſeveral ſorts of valuable timber. Comana, or New Cordulia, is the capital, but is not ſo handſome a town as St. Thomas.

The inland province of New Granada, called ſometimes Santa Fé and Caſtelle del Oro, is very extenſive, and beautifully diverſified with mountains and vallies. The mountains contain gold, ſilver, and emeralds; and the vallies produce corn, cattle, roots, fruits, and great quantities of guaiacum, balms, drugs of various kinds, gums, and other rich articles of commerce. Santa Fé de Bagota, the capital of this province, and of all Terra Firma, is a large, populous, opulent, and well-built city, ſituated on a lake, with altars at ſtated diſtances higher than houſes, and richly adorned.

Paita, a ſea-port town, was ſacked by the late lord Anſon, in 1741; and Guiaquil is a conſiderable commercial town, on a river of the ſame name.

The natives of Terra Firma are bold and warlike; and as they have almoſt impregnable and inacceſſible fortreſſes, and bear an inveterate hatred to the Spaniards, they never have, and it is probable never will be ſubdued. The Spaniſh general Pedro Rias and his ſucceſſors, deſtroyed in Terra Firma no leſs than eight hundred thouſand people, and plundered the country of ſeveral millions of gold, to obtain which they exerciſed the moſt ſhocking barbarities on the natives. Theſe people have lank, coarſe, long, black hair. Their natural complexion is a copper colour. The inhabitants are differently dreſſed, according to the Spaniſh faſhion. The men wear a caſſock without folds, deſcending to the knees, a large cape, and ſleeves open at both ſides. It has button-holes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the better ſort are made of embroidered ſtuffs. The handicrafts wear a blue ſtuff of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of



Roberts sculp.

MARRIAGE-CEREMONIES *observed by the* INDIANS *of* PANAMA.

on each ſide, which ſecures them in the manner of railing, and enables them ſafely to paſs the unſteady bridge.

Before a viceroy was appointed at Santa Fé in New Granada, Peru contained the three audiences of Lima, Los Charcos or La Plata, and Quito; but now the two former are only contained in it.

The capital of this audience (called Lima) is ſituated in a fine valley near the ſea, in the latitude of twelve degrees two minutes ſouth. A river of the ſame name waſhes the walls, over which was a handſome ſtone-bridge; but on October 28, 1746, a dreadful ſhock of an earthquake almoſt entirely deſtroyed this city in the ſpace of three minutes, burying in the ruins thoſe inhabitants, who, endeavouring to ſave their moſt precious moveables, had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares, ſo that by this calamity above twelve thouſand people periſhed.

The ſupreme tribunal at Lima, called Audiença, is held in the viceroy's palace, and conſiſts of eight auditors, and a fiſchal, for civil affairs. Here is alſo a chamber of accompts, a board of treaſury, a court for the effects of perſons dying inteſtate and without lawful heirs, a council of commerce, and a tribunal of the inquiſition, many convents, chapels, and hoſpitals, with an univerſity, in which are profeſſors of the ſeveral ſciences, and three ſubordinate colleges.

The inhabitants of Lima, as of all the other cities in Spaniſh America, conſiſt of Spaniards, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, Indians, and Negroes. The Spaniſh families were very numerous; there having been no leſs, at a moderate computation, before the earthquake, than eighteen thouſand whites in this capital, a third or fourth part of whom conſiſted of the chief nobility of Peru.

The harbour of Lima, named Callao, is ſituated ſix miles weſt of the city. It is the beſt port in the ſouth, being ſcreened from the winds by the iſland of St. Lawrence.

The town of Cuſco, capital of the empire of Peru, and the ſeat of the incas, before the arrival of the Spaniards, ſtands above three hundred and twenty-ſix miles from Lima, towards the eaſt. It was then very large, magnificent, and populous. Here ſtood the famous temple of the ſun. The incas reſided in a part of the citadel, the walls of which were incruſted with gold and ſilver; and the whole fortreſs was built of ſtones, ſo long, that ſeveral oxen could hardly draw one of them. The air is very pure and wholeſome, and the neighbouring country very pleaſant and fruitful.

Los Charcos or La Plata audience is bounded, on the north, by that of Lima, being five hundred and ſeventy miles in a ſtrait line, and four hundred wide, where broadeſt. The climate is various, the ſoil in general fertile, and the principal commodities, ſilver, gold, and pimento.

The chief places are the following; La Plata, the capital which had its name from the mines in its neighbourhood, is ſeven hundred and eighty miles from Lima, towards the ſouth-eaſt. The inhabitants, including Indians, exceed fourteen thouſand. Here is a great ſcarcity of water. This is the ſeat of the governor of the province, of the archbiſhop, has an univerſity, and court of inquiſition ſubordinate to that of Lima.

The town of Potoſi, famous on account of the rich ſilver mines in its neighbourhood, ſtands about ſixty miles from La Plata, to the ſouth-eaſt. There are alſo ſome gold mines, and many others of ſilver, in the audience, beſides thoſe near Potoſi.

The extenſive province of Tucuman is entirely under the dominion of the Spaniards, though they poſſeſs only a few cities in it. According to the lateſt geographers, it does not extend beyond the twenty-ſeventh degree of ſouth latitude, lying to the weſtward of Paraguay, and ſouth of the river Plata. The cities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards are, St. Jago del Eſtero, ſo called from a river on which it is ſituated, whoſe inundations greatly contribute to fertilize the adjacent land; St. Miguel del Tucuman, Neuſtra Sennora de Talavera, Cordova de la Nueva, Andaluſia, Rioja, and the large village of San Salvador. The two firſt of theſe are the moſt conſiderable; the two laſt are ſmall, and built without order or ſymmetry.

Quito is reckoned to be about four hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth; and is ſituated between two chains of the high mountain called Cordillera de los Andes. The lands of this province are for the moſt part well cultivated; and there are a great number of towns and villages inhabited by the Spaniards or native Americans. Every village is adorned with a large ſquare, and the church ſtands on one ſide of it. All the roads are laid out in a line, croſſing each other, ſo that the aſpect of the country has the appearance of a large garden. It might be imagined that this country is very hot; but it lies ſo high, and ſo near the mountains covered with ſnow, that the air is very temperate. They might have plenty of wine here, if Lima had not an excluſive privilege of making it themſelves. They have no vicunas or guanacoes here; but they have an animal of the ſame kind, called by the natives lamas, which is like a ſmall camel, and can carry fifty pounds weight. They have all ſorts of materials proper for dying, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits and plants which have been brought from Spain, beſides thoſe that naturally grow here. They have alſo imported beeves and ſheep. A great deal of gold is got in the north parts of this province.

The natives in general are very fond of dreſs; the perſons of diſtinction of both ſexes wear long garments, and a kind of looſe mantle over their ſhoulders. The dreſs of the Spaniards is plainer than that of the Indians, the latter uſually being of flowered cotton; both are fond of wearing ear-rings, and rows of beads round their necks, and the Indians will ſometimes adorn even their ancles with bracelets. An Indian barber has a long looſe garment, and carries his baſon and other utenſils with him. The peaſants are neat, but adorn themſelves with beads or ſhells; and a common Indian only wears a plain looſe garment, which the women ſo contrive as to carry their children on their backs. The dreſs of a mechanic reſembles that of the barber above deſcribed, with this difference, that he walks about with all his tools packed up in a bundle behind him.

The capital city, Quito, is ſeated in a pleaſant valley between two chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth, is a biſhop's ſee, and the reſidence of the treaſurer of the kingdom, as well as of the other officers. It contains about thirty-five thouſand inhabitants, of which one third are originally Spaniards. Here are ſeveral religious communities, and two colleges, which are a ſort of univerſities, under the direction of the Jeſuits and Dominicans.

The third diviſion of South America, which comes under our notice, is Paraguay, bounded on the north by Amazonia, eaſt by Brazil, weſt by Peru and Chili, and on the ſouth by Patagonia. It is one thouſand five hundred miles long, one thouſand broad, and extremely fertile. Independent of horſes, mules, ſheep, goats, hogs, poultry, game, grain, fruits, &c. it produces an admirable drug, called by the name of the country Paraguay: this is an excellent emetic, and of itſelf might form a conſiderable article of commerce. The foreſts abound with wild beaſts, and the rivers and lakes, beſides various kinds of fiſh, with crocodiles, alligators, &c. The mines contain gold, ſilver, copper, iron, amethyſts, &c. To the weſt of the great river Paraguay the country is barren; but to the eaſt, where the Jeſuits have erected temporal and ſpiritual monarchy, it is fertile. The next conſiderable river is that of Plate, or La Plata, which riſes in Peru, and falls into the Atlantic ocean.

The climate of Paraguay differs but little from that of Spain, and the diſtinctions between the ſeaſons are much the ſame. In winter, indeed, violent tempeſts of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with ſuch dreadful claps of thunder, attended with lightning, as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation. In ſummer, the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning.

The cotton tree is a native of this country. The Spaniards ſow and uſe hemp in pretty large quantities; tobacco and ſome ſugar are alſo produced here. Venomous herbs are alſo found in many places; with theſe the Indians poiſon their arrows; but the antidotes are equally common; and, among others, the herb called ſparrows herb, which forms pretty large buſhes, and was diſcovered, and obtained its name in the following manner: Among the different kinds of ſparrows found in theſe provinces, moſt of which are of the ſize of our black birds, there is a very pretty one called macagua. This little creature is very fond of the fleſh of vipers, againſt whom, for this reaſon, he wages a continual war: here are alſo vaſt numbers of all kinds of ſerpents. The rattle-ſnake of Paraguay is a very formidable creature; the effects of its bite are ſudden, and the conſequences dreadful, unleſs antidotes are ſpeedily applied. The chief antidote is a ſtone, to which they have given the name of St. Paul Bezoard, and a poultice of chewed garlick. There are bees of ten different ſpecies in the foreſts of this country.

When the Spaniards and Portugueſe firſt invaded this country, they had but very trifling ſucceſs againſt its inhabitants: but the Jeſuits effected by art what the others had failed in by force. They began by fixing about fifty Indian families into a townſhip, and then by learning their language, conforming to their manners, cultivating their minds, and inculcating ſuch doctrines as were moſt likely to promote their vices, ſoon acquired great authority among them, and made numerous converts, till at laſt, by ſteadily purſuing the ſame artful meaſures, they arrived at that degree of power and influence they now or lately poſſeſſed, as being in a manner the abſolute ſovereigns of a great part of this extenſive country.

For the government of the country, here are parochial and provincial

provincial juriſdictions, but ſubordinate to a ſupreme council of an annual meeting of all the fathers. One of the grand objects of the members of this council was to prevent ſtrangers from being thoroughly acquainted with their ſtrength, riches, and policy: hence the natives were reſtrained from learning the Spaniſh language.

The ſeveral provinces, into which Paraguay is divided, take their names from the rivers that paſs through them. The principal are, Paraguay and La Plata, properly ſo called. The town of Aſſumption is ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Panama and Paraguay, and is a large, well built, and populous city, erected by the Spaniards in 1531, in the midſt of a very rich and fruitful territory, producing all ſorts of corn and fruit. The air is wholſome and temperate, and the trees always green.

La Plata takes its appellation from the river of the ſame name. It is a fine, fertile, plentiful province: proviſions of all kinds abound, the principal wants being thoſe of ſalt and fuel. The great river of Plate, or La Plata, riſes in Peru, and, among other rivers, receives the Paraguay in its courſe. The water is clear, abounds in fiſh, is full of delightful iſlands, and may be navigated for the greateſt part of its courſe. Along its banks are ſeen the moſt beautiful birds of all kinds, but it ſometimes overflows the adjacent country to a great extent, and is infeſted by ſerpents of a prodigious bigneſs. We may form ſome judgment of its largeneſs by the width of its mouth, which is about ſeventy leagues. Before it falls into the Paraguay, it is called Panama. From its junction with the Paraguay to its mouth is above two hundred leagues.

The capital of the province, called Neuſtra Sennora de Buenos Ayres, and which takes its name from the pleaſantneſs of the climate, was founded in 1535, under the direction of Pedro de Mendoza, at that time governor. It ſtands on a point, called Cape Blanco, on the ſouth ſide of the Plata, fronting a ſmall river, in thirty-four degrees thirty-four minutes ſouth latitude, in a fine plain, riſing by a gentle aſcent from the river. The town has ſtraight broad ſtreets, and is of a conſiderable extent, containing no leſs than three thouſand houſes, built moſtly of chalk or brick. Here is a very handſome ſquare, with a magnificent cathedral, and a caſtle, in which the governor holds his court, with a garriſon of three thouſand men. The more civilized part of the natives are of a moderate ſtature, and well made. They have flat round faces, olive complexions, and long black hair. Their garments were formerly the ſkins of beaſts, but now, in moſt things, they conform in dreſs to the Spaniſh faſhion. The wives of the petty princes or lords wear a kind of triple crown made of ſtraw, and their lords hang doe-ſkins over their ſhoulders. The boys and girls go quite naked. They wrap their infants as ſoon as born in a tyger's ſkin, and give them the breaſt for a little while, and then a piece of half raw meat to ſuck. Their beds are the hides of oxen or tygers ſpread on the ground, but the people of rank uſe hammocks of net-work. Previous to their embracing Chriſtianity, they worſhipped the ſun, moon, ſtars, thunder, lightning, groves, rivers, animals, &c.

The bad qualities common to all of them are ferocity, inconſtancy, perfidy, and drunkenneſs. Their favourite liquor is chica. They aſſemble to drink it, and to dance and ſing, and in theſe exerciſes they perſiſt till they are all drunk. They then quarrel, and from words ſoon proceed to blows, ſo that their merry-makings ſeldom terminate without bloodſhed, if not in the death of ſome of the gueſts.

There is, properly ſpeaking, no form of government among them; every town, indeed, has its cacique; but theſe chiefs have no authority, but in proportion to the eſteem they have acquired. Several do nothing but rove from place to place with their furniture, which conſiſts of nothing but a mat, a hammock, and a calabaſh. Thoſe who live neareſt to Tucuman are better cloathed and lodged; but the cabins of ſuch as live in moſt of the towns are no better than wretched hovels made with branches of trees, and covered with ſtraw, or rather graſs.

They are admirable horſemen, and tame and manage the wild horſes with great addreſs, which has made the Spaniards repent ever having ſtocked the country with thoſe uſeful animals. Their arms are bows, arrows, and lances, which they uſe with great dexterity and ſtrength. They faſten a rope to the latter, by which they can, as the end is bearded, draw the wounded perſon to them. Beſides ſawing the necks of their priſoners with the jaw-bone of a fiſh, they ſcalp them, and preſerve their ſcalps, as tokens of victory.

It is cuſtomary with the women of Chaco to prick their faces, breaſts and arms, in order to mark them. They are ſtrong, robuſt, have eaſy labours, and bathe themſelves and children immediately after the delivery. They are very jealous of their huſbands, yet entertain very little affection for their offſpring. They uſually bury their dead on the ſpot where they expire, plant a javelin, and the ſcull of an enemy (if they can get one) over the grave, and then remove to a diſtance from the place of interment.

The kingdom of Chili, comprehended in the viceroyalty of Peru, reaches from the frontiers of Peru to the ſtraights of Magellan. This country was firſt diſcovered by Don Diego de Almagro about the year 1535. Theſe kingdoms are ſeparated by the diſtrict of Atacama, which extends eighty leagues between the province of the ſame name, being the laſt of Peru, and the valley of Copayapu, the firſt in Chili. Eaſtward, ſome parts of this kingdom terminate on the frontiers of Paraguay, properly ſo called, though ſome uninhabited deſerts intervene, and others on the government of Buenos Ayres, or La Plata, properly ſo called, though between theſe are the Pampas, or wide-extended plains. Its weſtern boundary is the ſouth-eaſt, extending nearly from twenty-ſeven degrees, the latitude of Copayapu, to fifty-three degrees thirty minutes ſouth. But that part of this kingdom, which is inhabited by the Spaniards, begins at Copayapu, and terminates at the large iſland of Chiloe, the ſouthern extremity of which is in the twenty-fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and its extent from weſt to eaſt is the diſtance between the coaſt of the South Sea and the Cordilleras, which are here of a ſtupendous height.

As the kingdom of Chili lies ſouth to the equator, the ſeaſons are almoſt oppoſite to thoſe in the northern hemiſphere: but the face of the country, except on the ſea coaſt, is beautiful, and the climate wholſome. On the eaſt, the country is ſcreened by the Andes, while from the weſt the air is cooled by the moſt refreſhing ſea breezes. Along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean they enjoy not only a fine temperate air, but a clear ſerene ſky moſt part of the year. Sometimes, indeed, the winds that blow from the mountains are exceedingly ſharp in winter; but, in general, this is one of the moſt comfortable climates in the world, being a medium between the intenſe heats of the torrid zone and the piercing colds of the frigid.

The Chileſians are of a middle ſtature, ſtrong built, of a tawny complexion, and have long black hair on their heads, but pluck off that on their chins, or other parts of their bodies. They are tall, robuſt, active, and courageous, enduring fatigue, heat, and cold to admiration. Their arms are pikes, bows, arrows, and ſwords, and their diſcipline much more regular than that of the other Indians. Their manners are very ſimple. They have no gold nor ſilver, though theſe metals are ſo common in their country. All their bedding is ſome ſkins laid on the ground, and they eat on the ground, or elſe on a little bench, and wipe their hands on a broom, inſtead of a napkin. Their food conſiſts of maize, fruits, herbs, and what they catch by hunting and fiſhing. Their drink is alſo made of maize toaſted, ſteeped and boiled, or of fruits. Their furniture conſiſts of four or five diſhes, and ſome wooden ſpoons or ſhells, a calabaſh or gourd to drink out of, and a leaf of a tree or maize for a ſalt-ſellar.

The martial genius of the natives continually retarded the progreſs of foreigners, and has always been the cauſe why the Spaniſh ſettlements here are ſo diſproportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The free Indians are much more numerous than the Spaniards, who are computed at no more than twenty thouſand. All the inhabitants of Chili, including Europeans, Meſtizoes, mulattoes and negroes, are reckoned at one hundred and fifty thouſand only. Even the free Indians, it ſeems, now acknowledge the dominion of the king of Spain, and pay tribute to his governor; but the ſubjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, living among them, and ſerving them in the ſame manner as the natives of Peru and Mexico. The greater part of Chili is ſtill poſſeſſed by the free Indians, who are rather allies than ſubjects of Spain, having (as we before hinted) acknowledged the ſupremacy of the king of Spain, but are to be ſubject to their own laws and government; an engagement which it will be hazardous for the Spaniards to break.

Earthquakes have often done a great deal of damage at St. Jago, that of 1647 was ſo violent, that it almoſt overturned the whole town, and left ſuch unwholſome vapours in the air, that all the inhabitants died, except about three or four hundred: and the dreadful ſhock in 1730 laid the city in ruins. In the neighbourhood are the gold mines of Tiltill, and the Lavaderoes, by their concerns in which many of the citizens amaſs vaſt fortunes.

South of St. Jago is the province of Conception: the town of the ſame name is the oldeſt European eſtabliſhment in Chili, and the ſecond city in point of dignity. The harbour is good, the fortifications indifferent, but the garriſon ſtrong. The peaſants in the neighbourhood of Conception have great addreſs in the uſe of the nooſe and lance; with theſe they will combat the fierceſt bull, throwing the nooſe ſo artfully, as to

lay

lay certain hold of ſome part of the body. When a bull is haltered, they draw the knot, at the ſame time giving ſpurs to their horſes, and hamſtringing him with their lances, ſo that the animal is taken and diſabled at the ſame inſtant.

The province of Chiucitos is bounded by La Plata, on the north-eaſt, and Chili on the weſt. The original inhabitants are very voluptuous and warlike. They are alſo very ſuperſtitious, and change their wives as often as they pleaſe. They maintained bloody wars with the Spaniards till 1690, ſince which time ſome of them have become Chriſtians. Its chief riches conſiſt of honey and wax.

SECT. III.

Containing Deſcriptions of TERRA MAGELLANICA, or PATAGONIA, BRAZIL, AMAZONIA, and GUIANA; their firſt Diſcovery, Boundaries and Extent, Soil, Climate, Produce, Inhabitants, Animals, &c.

TERRA Magellanica received its name from Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe officer; who likewiſe gave name to thoſe ſtreights which lead from the ſouth to the north ſea, he being the firſt who ſailed through them. The appellation of Patagonia was derived from a principal tribe of its inhabitants, called Patagons. The whole country, which goes under the name of Patagonia, extends from Chili and Paraguay to the utmoſt extremity of South America; that is, from thirty-five almoſt to fifty-four degrees ſouth latitude, being ſeven hundred miles long, and three hundred broad where wideſt. The northern parts contain an almoſt inexhauſtible ſtock of large timber, but in the ſouthern diſtricts there is ſcarcely a tree to be ſeen fit for any mechanical purpoſe. The lofty mountains, called Andes, traverſe the whole country from north to ſouth.

Here are incredible numbers of wild horned cattle and horſes, which were firſt brought hither by the Spaniards, and have increaſed amazingly; the paſturage alſo is good. Some writers tells us that freſh water is ſcarce; but were that the caſe, we cannot ſee how the preſent inhabitants, and ſuch multitudes of cattle could ſubſiſt. The eaſt coaſt is chiefly low-land, with few, or no good harbours; that called St. Julian is one of the beſt.

The inhabitants of Patagonia conſiſt of ſeveral Indian tribes, as the Patagons, Pampas, Coſſares, &c. They are a ſavage, barbarous people, of a copper colour, like the reſt of the Americans, with coarſe black hair, and no beards. They are mightily addicted to painting themſelves, and make ſtreaks on their faces and bodies. They go almoſt ſtark naked, having only a ſquare garment in the form of a blanket, made of the ſkins of ſeveral animals, and ſewed together, which they ſometimes wrap round them in extreme cold weather; and they have alſo a cap of the ſkins of fowls on their heads. Former voyagers repreſented them as monſtrous giants of eleven feet high, whereas they are no taller than the other Americans. The women, as in other places, are very fond of necklaces and bracelets, which they make of ſea ſhells. The natives chiefly live on fiſh and game, and what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly. This country abounds with an animal called camel-ſheep by ſome authors, but their true name is guanacoes. They partake of the nature of a camel, though they have no bunch on the back, and they were formerly made uſe of to carry burdens. They have alſo a bird called an oſtrich, but not ſo large, and they differ from the African oſtriches in having three toes, whereas thoſe have but two. A great number of iſlands, or cluſter of iſlands, lie on the coaſts of Patagonia.

The iſland of Terra del Fuego, or the Land of Fires, as it was called by the firſt diſcoverers, on account of their having obſerved ſome great fires on it (ſuppoſed to be volcanoes) as they paſſed it in the night, is ſeparated from the continent by the Magellanic ſtreights; has a rough appearance, being very mountainous, but is interſected with deep narrow vallies, and is well watered. The natives in this country are ſhort in their perſons, not exceeding five feet ſix inches at moſt, their heads large, their faces broad, their cheek-bones very prominent, and their noſes very flat. They have little brown eyes, without life; their hair is black and lank, hanging about their heads in diſorder, and beſmeared with train oil. On the chin they have a few ſtraggling ſhort hairs inſtead of a beard, and from their noſe there is a conſtant diſcharge of mucus into their ugly open mouth. The whole aſſemblage of their features forms the moſt loathſome picture of miſery and wretchedneſs to which human nature can poſſibly be reduced. They had no other cloathing than a ſmall piece of ſeal-ſkin, which hung from their ſhoulders to the middle of the back, being faſtened round the neck with a ſtring. The reſt of their body was perfectly naked, not the leaſt regard being paid to decency. Their natural colour ſeems to be an olive-brown, with a kind of gloſs reſembling that of copper; but many of them diſguiſe themſelves with ſtreaks of red paint, and ſometimes, though ſeldom, with white. Their whole character is the ſtrongeſt compound of ſtupidity, indifference, and inactivity. They have no other arms than bows and arrows, and their inſtruments for fiſhing a kind of fiſh-gags. They live chiefly on ſeals fleſh, and like the fat oily part moſt. There is no appearance of any ſubordination among them, and their mode of living approaches nearer to that of brutes, than that of any other nation. The children go naked, and the only weapon of the men is a long ſtick generally hooked, and pointed at the end like a lance. They live in huts made of boughs, and covered with mud, branches, &c. One ſide is open, and the fire place is in the middle; and a whole family herd together in one of theſe miſerable hovels.

The above-mentioned iſlands are all very barren and mountainous; but from what Mr. Forſter ſays, in his voyage to the South ſea, the climate does not appear to be ſo rigorous and tempeſtuous as it is repreſented in Anſon's voyage. Upon the lower grounds and iſlands, that were ſheltered by the high mountains, ſeveral ſorts of trees and plants, and a variety of birds, were found. Among the trees, was Winter's bark-tree, and a ſpecies of arbutus, loaded with red fruit of the ſize of ſmall cherries, which were very well taſted. In ſome places there is alſo plenty of celeri. Among the birds was a ſpecies of duck of the ſize of a gooſe, which ran along the ſea with amazing velocity, beating the water with its wings and feet: it had a grey plumage, with a yellow bill and feet, and a few white quill-feathers: at the Falkland iſlands it is called a loggerhead duck. Among the birds are alſo plenty of geeſe and falcons. The rocks of ſome of the iſlands are covered with large muſſel-ſhells, the fiſh of which is ſaid to be more delicate than oyſters.

Brazil was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpucius. When meaſured along the ſea-coaſt, from the mouth of the river La Plata, in the thirty-fifth degree of ſouth latitude to the river of Amazons, under the equator, it is two thouſand five hundred miles in length, and ſeven hundred in breadth where wideſt. The aſpect of the country, from the ſea, is not inviting, as it appears mountainous and rough; but, when entered, nothing can be more delightful, as the mountains are covered with woods of ever-greens, and the vallies are cloathed with verdure; and, among the inland mountains are various ſprings and lakes, which diſembogue themſelves into the great river Paraguay, and the river of Amazons.

The climate of this vaſt country varies in different parts. In the northern provinces, towards the equator, great rains and variable winds are frequent; and the former ſometimes overflow the country, and occaſion the air to be very unwholſome. But as to the ſouthern provinces, there is no country between the tropics where the air is more ſalubrious, or the heats more tolerable.

The wild beaſts of Brazil are, ant-bears, tygers or madilloes, porcupines, jananveras, a very fierce ravenous animal, ſomewhat like a greyhound, armadilloes, various ſorts of monkies, ſome of which are very large; that called by Europeans the ſloth, or lazy beaſt, and the toperaſſon, a creature between a bull and an aſs, but without horns, and very harmleſs. The fleſh of the toperaſſon is good, and taſtes like beef. They have great plenty of deer, hares, and other game, and a variety of other tame and wild animals.

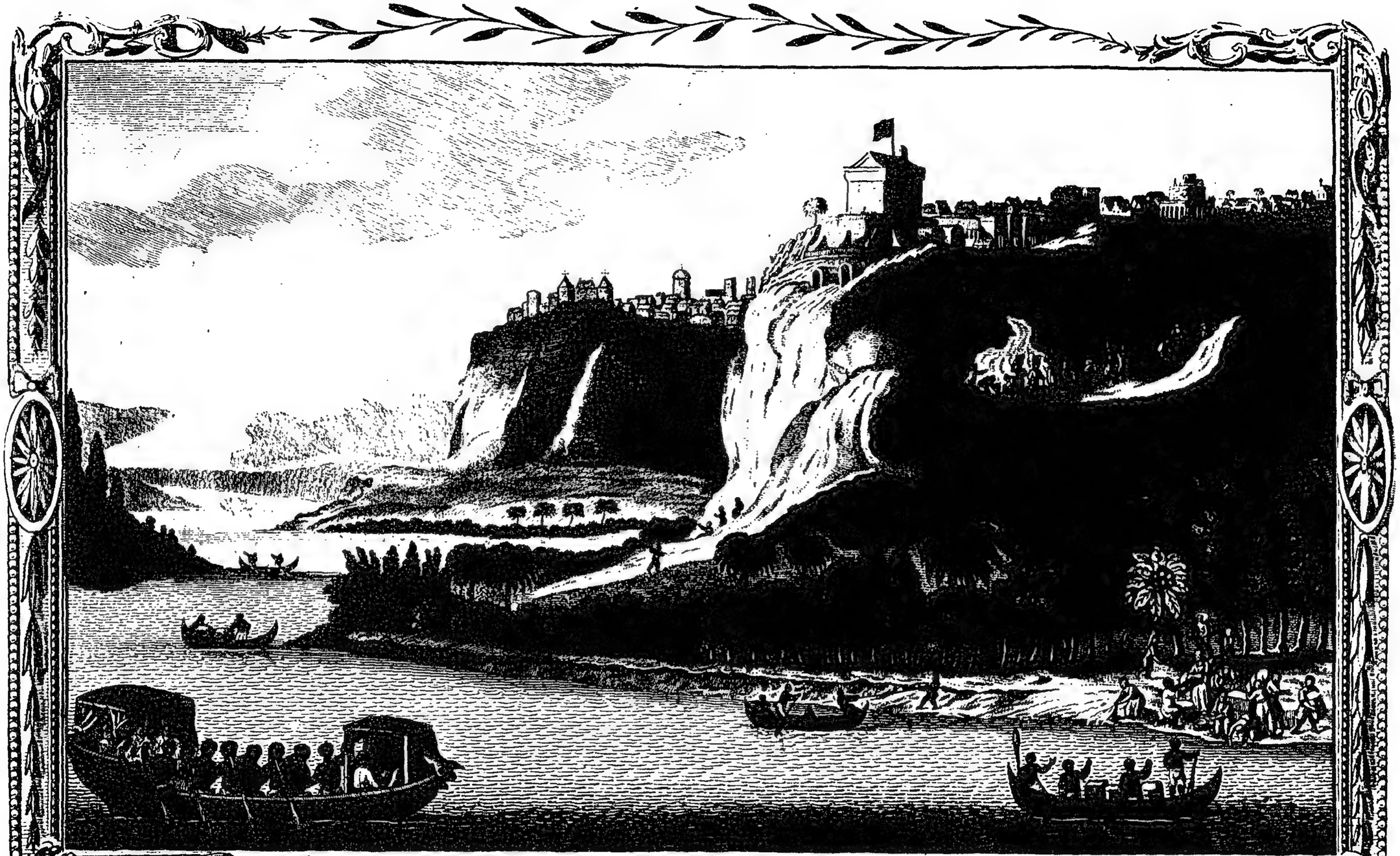
Serpents and venomous creatures are very numerous here: among which are, the Indian ſalamander, a kind of four-legged inſect, whoſe ſting is mortal; the ibibaboka, a kind of ſerpent, about ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whoſe poiſon is inſtantaneouſly fatal to the human kind; the rattle ſnake, which grows here to an enormous ſize; the liboya, or roe-buck ſnake, which is able to ſwallow a roe-buck whole, with its horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two or three yards in circumference; ſcorpions, one ſort of which are between four and five feet long; lizards of three or four feet long; millipedes, both venomous and dangerous, and many others. The piſmires here are very numerous, deſtructive, and large.

There are a prodigious number of birds in this country; ſome of which are remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taſte. Of the firſt ſort is the humming-bird, ſo called from the noiſe he makes with his wings, when he ſucks the juices of flowers. The anhima hath a horn two or three inches long growing out of his forehead, and is therefore called by the Europeans the unicorn bird. The toucan is of the bigneſs of a wood-pigeon, and of a perfect jet-black all over, except under the breaſt and belly, which is of a fine yellow, and a ſmall circle of red about the neck: but what is moſt extraordinary in this bird, is, that its bill is bigger than its body, yellow without and red within, and about a ſpan long. The guira, called by the Europeans the ſea-curlew, and the ſame with the numo-



Mr. Penguilly beheaded by order of Sir Francis Drake, at Port St. Julian on the Coast OF PATAGONIA.

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View of St. SALVADOR, a City of South America.

Sherwin sculp.

nius Indicus and renata conconca of the Latin authors, is remarkable for its often changing its native colour, being at firſt black, then aſh-coloured, next white, afterwards ſcarlet, and laſt of all crimſon, which laſt grows richer and deeper the longer the bird liveth. The cocoi, a very beautiful bird; paraquets, parrots, cockatows, mackaws, and variety of others, are very common here. Their bats are of a prodigious ſize: they will go into houſes in the night, and if they find any perſons aſleep and uncovered, they will faſten on them, and ſuck their blood. Their eatable fowls are turkies, very large and delicious; a ſort of white hens, and other poulty; ducks, and other ſuch water fowl.

Great plenty and variety of fiſh are on the ſea-coaſts, and in the lakes and rivers; among others, is the globe-fiſh, called by the Latins orbis minor, from its orbicular form, which is ſo beſet all round with ſharp pikes, like thoſe of a hedge-hog, that it bids defiance to all fiſhes of prey. But the moſt remarkable of all the living creatures in the ſea is the ſea-bladder, ſo called becauſe it greatly reſembles one, and ſwims on the ſurface of the waves. The inſide is only filled with air, except about a ſpoonful of water that ſerves to poiſe it. The ſkin is thin and tranſparent, and reflects a great number of colours, like a bubble raiſed in the water.

Timber is very plentiful in this country, but that which is termed brazil-wood is the principal ſpecies. The palm-trees of Brazil are of five different kinds; beſides which, here are woods of ebony, maſtic, cotton-trees, citron, &c. and many others, which diffuſe around a moſt delicious fragrancy from the admirable fruits and balſams they produce.

Some of the principal commodities of this country are, ambergris, balſams, ſugar, ſweetmeats, tobacco, roſin, indigo, gold, pebbles, diamonds, jaſper, emeralds, &c. The gold and diamond mines were firſt opened in 1681, and have ever ſince been computed to yield five millions of pounds ſterling, a fifth of which belongs to the king. The diamond mines are farmed at much inferior value to what they really produce. The Brazil ſugar is remarkably fine and white, and the tobacco admirable. Of the laſt article, great exports are made to Africa, where they not only diſpoſe of it to the natives, but even ſupply the veſſels of other nations, who are obliged to purchaſe it for the convenience of carrying on the gold-duſt and ſlave trade with any tolerable advantage. The north and ſouth parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides, of which no leſs than twenty-thouſand are exported to Europe annually.

There has of late years been ſo great an increaſe of the Portugueſe trade hither, that inſtead of twelve ſhips formerly employed in the Brazil commerce, there are never leſs than one hundred ſail of large veſſels going to and returning from thoſe colonies.

With reſpect to the government of Brazil, it is divided into fifteen provinces, called capitaneas or captainries, the whole being a principality, which gives title to the preſumptive heir of the crown of Portugal: of theſe captainries, eight only are annexed to the crown. Some late writers have computed that the royal revenue ariſing from this colony amounts to two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling in gold, beſides the duties and cuſtoms on merchandize imported from thence.

The principal city is St. Salvador, alſo called the city of Bahia, which is in the province of the ſame name, and was thus called from the commodiouſneſs of its harbour. It is ſeated on a hill, and is populous, magnificent, and the moſt gay and opulent city in all Brazil. The trade carried on here is prodigious; the gentry are polite; but the vulgar, who have acquired wealth, are intolerably inſolent and brutal. In this city are no leſs than twelve or fourteen thouſand Portugueſe, with three times that number of negroes. The harbour is capable of receiving ſhips of the greateſt burthen, and its entrance is guarded by a ſtrong fort called St. Anthony's. There are other ſmall forts that command the harbour, one of which is built upon a rock about half a mile from the ſhore.

In this city are about two thouſand houſes, which are handſomely built, moſtly of brick or ſtone. The churches, convents, and hoſpitals, are not only built in the moſt ſumptuous manner, but adorned with every thing rich and coſtly, particularly with fine paintings. The upper town has many ſplendid ſtructures, particularly the cathedral of St. Salvador. The church, which lately belonged to the jeſuits college, is very magnificent, and built of marble brought from Europe; and the college is a fine edifice. The viceroy's palace is a moſt ſumptuous building, as is alſo the palace of the archbiſhop, the courts of judicature, the hoſpitals, &c.

The principal ſtreets are large, and all of them paved: there are alſo ſeveral ſquares, and many gardens, both within the city and its neighbourhood, in which are a great variety of fruit-trees and flowers, ſallading, and plants for the kitchen. Moſt of the ſtreets are, however, ſo ſteep, as to be impaſſable for coaches or chairs; to ſupply which defect, the rich cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammock, called ſerpentines, which are borne on the negroes ſhoulders by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long.

The lower claſs of people here are inſolent, and the ſoldiers given to all manner of vice; and ſome of them are dangerous aſſaſſins. The women are more ſtrictly watched than in Portugal, yet ſometimes find means to elude the vigilance of their keepers. However, the huſbands make no ſcruple to ſtab or poiſon their wives, if they find them falſe. The chief mechanic trades in this city are hatters, ſmiths, ſhoe-makers, ſawyers, carpenters, coopers, taylors, and butchers. All theſe buy negroes, whom they train up to their ſeveral employments.

The town of Fernambuco, capital of the province to which it gives name, is a very conſiderable place. It is alſo called Rerief, or Arrarife, from a neighbouring harbour of that name, which is now the ſtrongeſt in all Brazil, a number of forts being erected all round, and the acceſs naturally ſo intricate and dangerous, by reaſon of the concealed rocks, ſands, and little iſlands about it, that the aſſiſtance of a ſkilful pilot is abſolutely neceſſary in order to avoid them. The name Fernambuco ſuppoſed to be a contraction of Inferno Boco, or the Mouth of Hell, ſeems to have been given it from this circumſtance.

The rich and populous city of Rio de Janeiro, is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, about two leagues from the main ocean. It has a moſt admirable port, well guarded; which is very much reſorted to by the Portugueſe, on account of the gold and diamonds found in the neighbourhood.

The little republic of St. Paul lies about thirty miles north of the province of St. Vincent, which is the moſt ſoutherly of Brazil. This ſtate is ſurrounded by lofty mountains and thick foreſts; it was originally compoſed of outlaws from all the neighbouring colonies, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Creoles, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, who took refuge on this ſpot, and lived at firſt without order, ſociety, faith, honour, or religion; preying upon each other, and ſubſiſting by mutual rapine, and the plunder of their neighbours; but the inconveniencies attending this way of life, and the danger to which it expoſed them, ſoon drove them into confederacies, and theſe, at laſt, produced a regular democracy.

The iſland of St. Catherine's is ſituated in twenty-ſeven degrees thirty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and is one of the moſt delightful ſpots imaginable, being about twenty-ſeven miles long, and ſix broad. The convicts from Brazil are tranſported hither.

The moſt conſiderable tribes of the native Brazilians are the Tapuyers and Topinamboys; of whom the former inhabit the northern, and the other the ſouthern parts. The former are men of good ſtature, of a dark copper colour, their hair black, and hanging over their ſhoulders; but they ſuffer no hair on their bodies or faces, and go almoſt naked. Their ornaments are, glittering ſtones, hung upon their lips or noſtrils, and bracelets of feathers upon their arms: the men have alſo a cap or coronet of feathers. The complexions of the Topinamboys are not ſo dark as that of their northern neighbours, who live nearer the line; and neither the one nor the other, as thoſe of the Africans, who lie under the ſame parallels.

The native Brazilians are partly freemen, and partly ſlaves; but the negro ſlaves are much more valuable, being of a more robuſt conſtitution, and fitter for labour. Some writers have repreſented the Brazilians as a ſavage people, devoid of all principles of religion, cruel in war, and canibals or devourers of human fleſh; but theſe ſtories are generally looked upon as fictions of the Portugueſe, to juſtify their cruel and inhuman treatment of them. They believe in certain inviſible beings, the diſpenſers of good and evil, the rewarders and puniſhers of virtue and vice; and their notion with reſpect to a future ſtate, is, that after death they ſhall viſit their anceſtors, dwelling beyond the Andes; but they have no temples. Their prieſts make them believe, that if they bring them offerings, thoſe inviſible beings, who give them food and all the good things they enjoy, will proſper their affairs; but if they neglect this, ſome terrible misfortune will befal them. Their towns are without walls. Their mode of carrying on war is by ambuſcades; and their weapens are bows, arrows, ſhields, and wooden clubs. They have caciques, who rule them in peace, and lead them in war.

The country of Amazonia was firſt diſcovered by Gonzola Pizarro, brother to the marquis Pizarro, who conquered Peru. It is bounded, on the north, by Terra Firma; on the ſouth, by La Plata; on the eaſt, by Brazil and the Atlantic ocean; and, on the weſt, by Peru. It is one thouſand two hundred miles in length, and nine hundred and ſixty in breadth; but this vaſt extent of country is but little known, except along the banks of the great river Amazons, and towards the Brazilian frontiers. The river of Amazons is the largeſt in the world; ſeveral other rivers, particularly the Negro, Xauxa, and Maranhon, fall into it. It riſes in the Cordilleras, and increaſes

in a moſt amazing manner as it proceeds towards the Atlantic, into which it diſembogues itſelf by eighty-four channels. It winds five thouſand miles, is ſeveral miles broad, and near forty fathoms deep.

None of the Europeans have planted colonies in this country, though they have often viſited it. The air is cooler here than could be well expected near the equator; which proceeds from the heavy rains that occaſion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year; and from the cloudy weather, and ſhortneſs of the days, which never exceed twelve hours. A briſk eaſterly wind alſo cools the air, which blows from the Atlantic ocean quite through the country, ſo ſtrong, that veſſels are thereby enabled to ſail againſt the ſtream, and perform a voyage up the river of Amazons almoſt as ſoon as down it, which requires eight or ten months. During the time of the rains here are terrible ſtorms of thunder and lightning.

The ſoil is fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, ananas or pine-apples, guavas, bananas, and other tropical fruits; cedar, iron-wood, ſo called from the weight and denſity, red wood, oak, ebony, logwood, and many other ſorts of dying woods and drugs; caſſava root, ſarſaparilla, canala or ſpurious cinnamon, tobacco, cotton, ſugar, maiz, yams, and potatoes.

Here are great numbers of tigers, wild boars, buffaloes, &c. and in the woods are wild fowl and veniſon. They have alſo ſtore of excellent honey and balm. The honey is exquiſite, and the balm good againſt all wounds. Parrots are as numerous here as pigeons in England. They have vaſt numbers of fiſh of all ſorts in the rivers and lakes; and, among others, manatees or ſea-crows, that are amphibious, and feed on the banks; and tortoiſes of a large ſize, and delicate taſte; but the fiſhers muſt be upon their guard againſt crocodiles, alligators, and water-ſerpents, which infeſt the coaſts.

With reſpect to the natives, they are, like almoſt all the Americans, of a good ſtature, have handſome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They have a taſte for the imitative arts, eſpecially ſculpture and painting, and are good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, their ſails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoiſe-ſhells, or hard ſtones; their chiſſels, planes, and wimbles, of teeth and horns of wild beaſts, and their canoes are hollowed trees. They ſpin and weave themſelves cotton garments; and their houſes or huts are of wood, thatch, and clay. Their arms in general, are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane and fiſh-ſkins. They are ſuch good archers, that they kill fiſh in the water with their arrows, which they eat without bread or ſalt. Their ſeveral nations are governed by their chiefs or caciques; for it is obſervable, that the monarchical form of government hath prevailed almoſt univerſally, both among the antient and modern barbarians, as requiring a leſs refined policy than the republican ſyſtem. The regalia by which the chiefs are diſtinguiſhed are, a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of lions teeth or claws about their middle, and a wooden ſword in their hand.

All theſe nations allow of polygamy, or a plurality of wives and concubines; and the women here, as in the other American nations, do the moſt laborious work. They worſhip the images of their antient heroes, or ſubordinate deities; but have no temples, or orders of prieſts among them. Both ſexes ſometimes wear mantles of the ſkins of beaſts, or cotton, but generally go naked. In ſome diſtricts the men thruſt pieces of cane through their ears and under lips, and hang glaſs beads at the griſtles of their noſes, which bob to and fro when they ſpeak; but in others, they wear plates of gold at their ears and noſtrils.

Guiana, or Caribeana, which has Amazonia on the ſouth; Terra Firma on the weſt; and the Atlantic ocean on the north and eaſt; its length is ſeven hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth four hundred and eighty. It is uſually divided into two parts, that is, the ſea-coaſts and adjacent diſtricts denominated Caribeana Proper, and the interior country called Guiana Proper.

The Portugueſe, French, and Dutch, have all ſettlements along this coaſt, which is low and marſhy, and ſubject to inundations in the rainy ſeaſons. The principal French ſettlements in Guiana are in the iſle of Cayenne, which lies one hundred miles weſt of Cape Orange, at the mouth of the river of the ſame name. It is ſeventeen leagues in compaſs, well wooded and watered, and excellently cultivated. At the eaſtern part of it is the town and fort of St. Lewis. The town contains upwards of two hundred houſes; the fort has a good garriſon, and near it is a tolerable harbour. The French firſt eſtabliſhed themſelves here in 1635. The place was afterwards alternately poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, then by the French again, to whom ſucceeded the Dutch; but the French finally prevailing, ſtill keep it in their poſſeſſion.

The diſtrict called Dutch Guiana was formerly the property of the Engliſh, who made ſettlements at Surinam, where a kind of corrupt Engliſh is ſtill ſpoken by the negroes. The Dutch took it in the reign of Charles II. and it was ceded to them by treaty in 1674, in exchange for what they had poſſeſſed in the province now called New York, in North America.

There is a perpetual ſpring in this country, which produces large quantities of ſugar canes; alſo the ſimarnba tree, eſteemed a ſpecific in dyſenteries; and the carunce, a poiſonous nut. Here are great numbers of monkies and ſerpents, and a remarkable amphibious creature called the laubba, about the ſize of a ſmall pig. They have alſo a vaſt variety of birds of different plumage. Among their fiſhes, here is the torpedo; and inſects are innumerable.

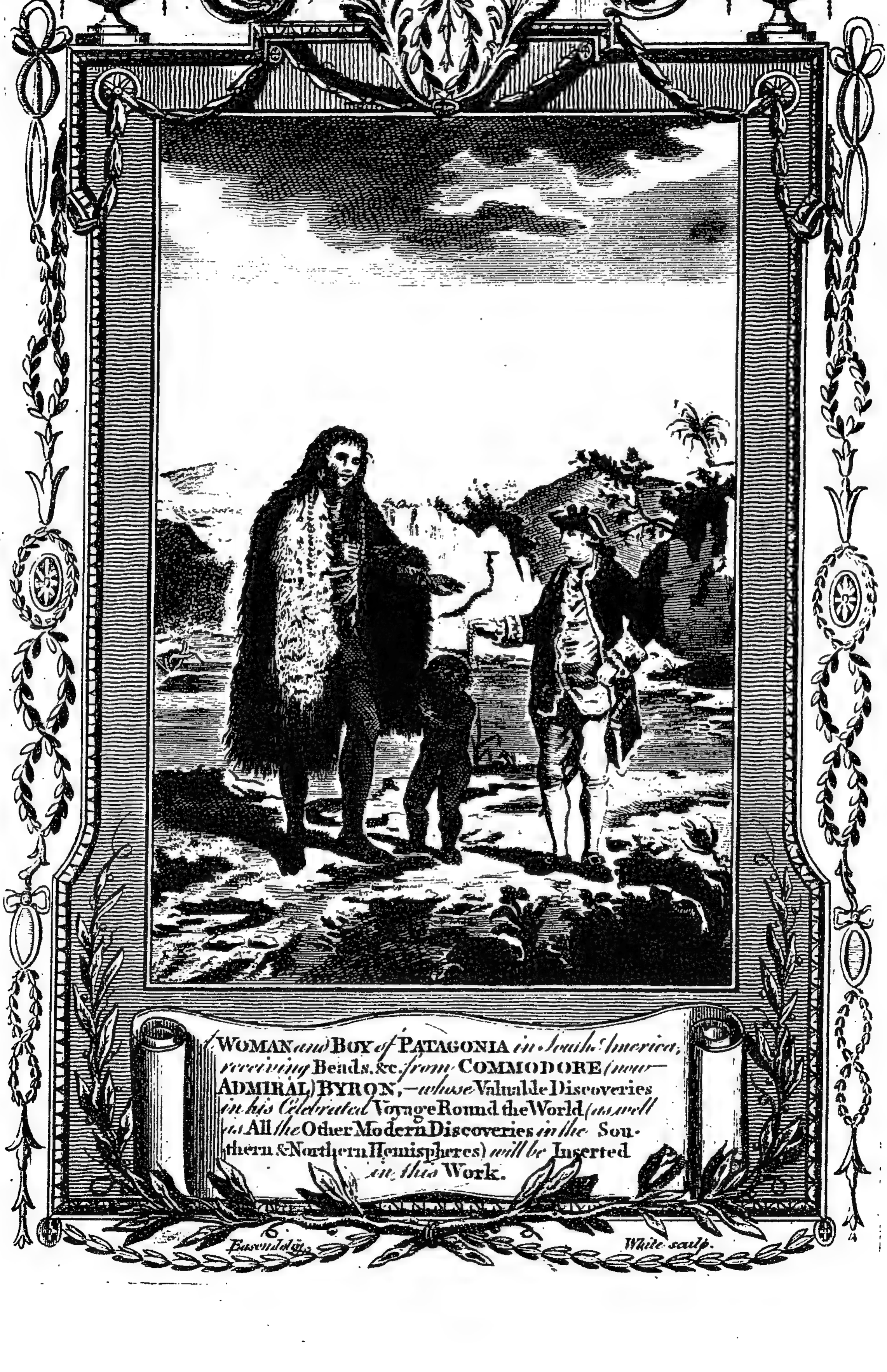
The inhabitants of Guiana are in general either natives, who are of a reddiſh brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of theſe in various combinations. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or leſs enlightened and poliſhed, as they are more or leſs remote from the ſettlements of the Europeans: they have no diviſion of lands. Polygamy is allowed among them. Continence before marriage is not conſidered as a virtue; a man cares not whether the woman he marries is a virgin or not; but no injury is ſo ſurely revenged as the infidelity of a wife. The men go to war, hunt, and fiſh; the women look after domeſtic affairs. The arms are bows, arrows, clubs, and poiſoned darts blown through a reed. They go almoſt naked, excepting upon particular occaſions, when they adorn their heads with feathers. They are chearful, humane, and friendly, but timid, and addicted to drinking. Their houſes are quadrangular, conſiſting of four ſtakes with croſs poles, and are covered with leaves. They ſet them up, pull them down, and carry the whole with them at pleaſure, as their dwellings are light, and their lives ambulatory. Their wants, which are but few, are eaſily ſupplied. They believe in a ſupreme God, a miſchievous ſpirit or devil, and have ſome notions of a future ſtate. They bury their dead naked, and get drunk at the funeral to bury their ſorrows. When the body has been interred a ſufficient time for the fleſh to be rotten, they take up the bones, diſtribute them among the relations and friends of the deceaſed, and again get drunk to teſtify their reſpect to the memory of the defunct. The natives cultivate nothing but plantains, caſſava, and yams, and one month's cultivation is ſufficient for all theſe. The men are all hunters, and they can always find game or fiſh, if they prefer it, without danger or toil. They live together, as a blameleſs and happy people, upon terms of perfect equality, having no diſtinction but of age or perſonal merit; neither have they diviſion of property, each amicably participates the ample bleſſings of a delightful and extenſive country; envy, fraud, and violence are precluded; natural deſires are immediately and innocently indulged, and government rendered wholly unneceſſary. In all their traffic with each other, or with Europeans, they eſtimate every thing by their preſent want of it; they will at one time demand a hatchet for what they will exchange for a fiſh-hook at another.

The colony of Surinam is the joint property of the Weſt India company, the city of Amſterdam, and the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the ſovereignty is inveſted in the ſtates general. Accordingly five directors of this colony are choſen by the city of Amſterdam, four by the Weſt India company, and one by the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the governor muſt be approved by the ſtates general, as well as by the directors. The whole colony is at preſent in a very flouriſhing condition, and carries on a conſiderable trade in ſugar, cotton, gums, tobacco, coffee, flax, ſkins, wood for dying, &c.

The principal town, called alſo Surinam, gives name to the adjacent diſtrict one hundred miles round. It ſtands on a river of the ſame name, which is navigable for near one hundred miles up the country, and commanded by ſeveral forts, particularly Zelandria, about ſix miles from the entrance, near which fortreſs the ſmall town of Paramairambo now ſtands, which contains about four hundred houſes. There are no leſs than ſeven or eight inland towns, all of which are rich, populous, and commercial.

Before we conclude our deſcription of South America, it will be neceſſary to add, that the exiſtence of a ſouthern continent was firmly believed, until the contrary was indiſputably proved in the years 1772, 1773, and 1774, by that moſt conſummate ſeaman Captain James Cook, whoſe extraordinary merits, his country, and the whole world, unite in celebrating. In the Reſolution, a ſhip fitted out for the purpoſe of making diſcoveries, he three times penetrated within the antarctic circle, a region which till then had been impervious to all navigators. He proceeded amidſt floating ice iſlands of vaſt height, many of which were two or three miles in circumference, the ſhip, and all on board perpetually expoſed to deſtruction, whilſt appalling ſcenes of horror and deſolation preſented themſelves to the ſixty-ſeventh degree five minutes ſouth latitude, being then in the thirty-ninth degree thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude from London. The next year, approaching the pole on the weſtward, he reached ſeventy-one degrees ten minutes ſouth latitude,

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A WOMAN and BOY of PATAGONIA in South America, receiving Beads, &c. from COMMODORE (now ADMIRAL) BYRON, — whose Valuable Discoveries in his Celebrated Voyage Round the World (as well as All the Other Modern Discoveries in the Southern & Northern Hemispheres) will be Inserted in this Work.

Fascendolin. White scalp.

latitude, in longitude one hundred and ſix degrees fifty-four minutes weſt from London. A ſolid field of ice, which entirely filled the expanſe to the eaſt, weſt, and ſouth, rendered it impoſſible to make any farther advances. During his ſtay in the Frigid Zone in the months of December and January, no night intervened; ſo that within a few minutes of midnight the light of the ſun was ſufficient to read or write by, and the ſun's ſtay below the horizon was ſo very ſhort, that a very ſtrong twilight continued all the time of his diſappearing.

The reſult of theſe attempts to penetrate towards the ſouth pole is, that either the ice extends quite to the pole, or elſe joins ſome land to which it has been fixed from the very earlieſt times. To determine whether it is land or ice that encircles the pole, is beyond the power of human exertion, and has no tendency to gratify any rational curioſity.

In July 1776, the ſame indefatigable navigator ſet ſail in the Reſolution, accompanied by another ſhip named the Diſcovery, on his third voyage round the world; the principal object of which voyage was to explore the northern parts of the South Sea towards Kamchatka; in which attempt this truly great man loſt his life on a newly diſcovered iſland, called O-why-hee, near Kamchatka, in February, 1779, being ſlain in a ſkirmith with the natives, as the reader will find in the following account.

The diſcoveries made in this voyage are leſs brilliant than thoſe made in the preceding ones. The impoſſibility of communicating with Europe, by proceeding from the South Sea to the northward, which has been pretty generally ſuppoſed, is now proved, ſo as to render all future attempts unneceſſary, and indeed removes every motive for ſuch undertakings. The coaſts of that immenſe country, known by the name of New Holland, which, although an iſland, is equal in extent to Europe, have now been fully traced: on the ſouth-eaſtward of this vaſt, but almoſt uſeleſs diſtrict of the globe, have been found iſlands abounding with ſpices, which might by attention be ſoon rendered equal in value to thoſe which the Dutch poſſeſs in the Moluccas. The ſpirit for diſcovery, which has lately prevailed, particularly in this country, under the auſpices of his preſent majeſty, has brought us acquainted with many large, rich, fertile, and delightful iſlands, ſituated in the South Sea, which the reader will find a copious deſcription of, from p. 201 to 219 of this work, beginning with New Holland above-mentioned.

It may not be improper in this place to ſubjoin, agreeable to our promiſe, a particular account of the events and circumſtances immediately previous to and attending the unfortunate death of that celebrated and able navigator Captain Cook, which happened on the 14th of February, 1779, at the iſland of O-why-hee, when on their return to Europe.

On January 17, 1779, with great difficulty they found and anchored in a convenient harbour at O-why-hee, after beating about the coaſt near two months. The ſhips were immediately viſited by the young prince (ſon to the Orono or great king) who was abſent at a neighbouring iſland. The viſit was returned, and no ſtrangers were ever more hoſpitably received. Land was appropriated to their uſe, the ſick were lodged, trade was carried on, the ſhips repaired, &c. The king, on his arrival, treated Captain Cook with great ſubmiſſion and reſpect, and paid him the ſame honours that are paid to the great E-a-thu-ah-nu-eh, or good ſpirit, cloathing him in the ſame mantle, and aſſigning him a place of worſhip which the ſailors called Cook's altar. A very high mountain of ſnow was ſo rare a ſight between the tropics, that five of the gentlmen, with a guide, ſet out to explore it, but after two days and nights fatigue, they were obliged to return without reaching it. After a heiva, or play, had been performed by moſt of the royal family, and ſome fireworks had been exhibited by the Engliſh, the ſhips ſailed on the 5th of February, ſtored with hogs, fowls, &c. but the Reſolution having unfortunately ſprung her foremaſt, and being very leaky, they were obliged on the 11th to return to their old birth to repair. The king viſited them as before, but the natives aſſembling, gathering ſtones, and rolling them from the hills, in order, as was ſuppoſed, to annoy the ſhips, the captains, on the 13th, ordered the guns to be fired among them, (ſurely with too much precipitancy) by which two of them were killed, and of which the king next day juſtly complained, intimating that they had no hoſtile intentions. From this time they became very unruly and miſchievous, and firing only enraged them. The prince, before very friendly, aſſumed another countenance, and the temper of the Indians was totally changed.

On the 14th the great cutter was miſſing from its moorings, and the boat's painter was found cut two fathoms from the buoy, theſe audacious rogues having contrived to carry it off in the courſe of the night without being perceived. This was a theft which could not be overlooked on any account, as the loſs of ſo capital a boat might prove of great conſequence to them in the remaining part of their voyage. Captain Clerke waited upon Captain Cook and informed him of what had happened. After ſome deliberation, the beſt method that could be thought of (a method which, in other iſlands, had often been tried, and always met with ſucceſs) was to ſecure the king; and the only way to do this was to invite him on board, and then place centinels over him, after which they would make their own terms with him. It was alſo thought adviſeable to ſend boats to different parts of the bay, to prevent any of the natives from making their eſcape in their canoes.

Things being thus far ſettled, the Reſolution's great and ſmall cutter, attended by the Diſcovery's ſmall cutter and jolly boat, all well manned and armed, were diſpatched to the various parts of the bay, with orders to ſtop all canoes that ſhould attempt to make their eſcape, and if they proved refractory to fire at and kill ſome of them, as Captain Cook was determined to let them ſee he was not to be trifled with any longer. In the interim the captain, with the lieutenant of marines, went in his pinnace, attended by the launch (in which were the marines and ſome of the officers, all well armed) to the north-weſt point of the bay, where the king reſided. The natives, ſuſpecting poſſibly that ſome enquiry would be made relative to the boat, had aſſembled there in greater numbers than uſual. The marines upon landing were drawn up in a line upon the beach, with the ſerjeant at their head, and Captain Cook with Mr. Philips proceeded to the king's houſe; but not finding him there, enquired of the natives where he was, who told them, he was at a houſe not far diſtant. They walked on, and found him, and after ſome little time the captain invited him to go on board, which he very readily was going to do, but ſome women, and others of his attendants, who probably were apprehenſive of ſome deſign, earneſtly begged and entreated that he would not. Almoſt at this inſtant three Indians in a canoe arrived from the other ſide of the bay, with an account of one of their principal arees being ſhot by our people. They had been to both ſhips, where they told their ſtory in very lamentable terms; but not meeting with that pity and redreſs which they probably thought they had a right to expect, they proceeded to the ſhore, where their tale was received in a very different manner.

A general murmur of diſcontent was heard to prevail, and many of them began to arm themſelves with ſpears and daggers. This circumſtance was obſerved by Mr Philips, and he communicated his apprehenſions to captain Cook, who was at this time in the midſt of a crowd, and of courſe was not able to watch their motions. The ſerjeant of marines alſo, who was at ſome diſtance, ſaw them arming; and as the tumult rather increaſed, called ſeveral times to the captain to warn him of his danger; but there ſeemed to be a degree of infatuation attending him, which rendered him deaf to every thing. The mob now preſſed upon him, and he was ſeen to puſh them back, exclaiming at the ſame time, "get away---get away." At length one of them behaved very inſolently, and threw ſtones at him: the captain, having his double barreled gun, fired, but miſſed him, and ſhot the next man to him. The marines, hearing the report of the gun, imagined that ſome miſchief had been done, and without orders began to fire alſo: this rendered matters ſtill worſe; and Captain Cook now ſeeing his danger, was making to the boats as faſt as the crowd would permit him, but received a ſtab between his ſhoulders from a chief who was behind him; the man was going to repeat his blow, but was ſhot by the ſerjeant of marines.

The marines had no ſooner fired, than the people in the launch from the ſame reaſon fired likewiſe, and now the uproar became general: the captain did not fall in conſequence of the wound, but ſtill preſſed forwards towards the boats; the Indians, however, ruſhed upon him, and with clubs and ſtones, ſoon put a period to his exiſtence. The commanding officer of the Reſolution (which was at leaſt half a mile nearer the ſpot than the Diſcovery) alarmed at the report of the guns, gave orders for the great guns to be pointed and fired at them, which appeared to create much ſlaughter and confuſion. Mr Philips and his party of marines were obliged to jump into the water: but ſome of them not being able to ſwim, were dragged on ſhore by the natives, who ſoon diſpatched them. The remaining number with difficulty reached the boats: the ſerjeant of marines was wounded in the neck, and received a ſevere blow on the head from a ſtone; one of the private men had the point of a ſpear, which broke off, fixed under his left eye; Mr Philips was wounded in the ſhoulder, and a corporal and three private men were killed. The Indians behaved with great reſolution and intrepidity, and notwithſtanding a ſevere fire was kept up for ſome time afterwards, they maintained their ground, and as ſoon as one fell another ſupplied his place. Finding it impoſſible to recover the captain's body, the boats ceaſed firing, and made the beſt of their way on board; and ſoon after Mr. Williamſon, the third lieutenant of the Reſolution, waited upon Captain Clerke with the above melancholy news.

Thus

Thus ended the life of the greateſt navigator that this or any other country could ever boaſt, after having ſucceſsfully led his crews of Britiſh ſeamen thrice round the world; who had reduced to a certainty the non-exiſtence of a ſouthern continent, about which the learned of all nations were in doubt; had ſettled the boundaries of the earth and ſea, and ſhewn the impracticability of a north-weſt paſſage from the Atlantic to the great ſouthern ocean, for which our ableſt navigators had contended, and in purſuit of which vaſt ſums had been ſpent in vain, and many valuable mariners had miſerably periſhed. The natives certainly had no intention at firſt of deſtroying Capt. Cook or any of his party. The cauſe firſt originated in the death of the arce who was ſhot by our people: it was this circumſtance which alarmed them, and in conſequence of this it was that they armed themſelves. At this period Captain Cook might have returned on board with ſafety: but he was unfortunate in miſſing the man who behaved inſolent to him, and ſhooting another—he was unfortunate in the firing of the marines—and equally ſo in the firing of the people in the launch; all which happened in the ſpace of a minute. In ſhort, the whole ſeems to have been cauſed by a chain of events which could neither be foreſeen or prevented. His death was, however, univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known.

Captain Cook, in his laſt voyage, had explored the coaſt of America, from forty-two degrees twenty-ſeven minutes to ſeventy degrees forty minutes fifty-ſeven ſeconds north. The command, after his death, devolved on Captain Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward on the 22d day of Auguſt, 1779. The two ſhips, namely, the Reſolution and Diſcovery, returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and anchored at the Nore on the 5th of October, 1780.

CHAP. II.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF

NORTH-AMERICA.

SECT. I.

Of NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, VIRGINIA, MARYLAND, PENNSYLVANIA, the JERSEYS, and NEW YORK; their Extent and Situation, principal Towns, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants (both Natives and Coloniſts) their Trade, Manufactures, Manners, Cuſtoms, Dreſs, Religion, &c.

NORTH America, which conſtitutes a grand diviſion of this vaſt continent, is ſeparated from the ſouthern part by the iſthmus of Darien, and extends from that iſthmus to within a few degrees of the north pole; but geographers have not yet been able to aſcertain the limits of this northern extremity.

The ſituation of the countries which compoſe North America, and other particulars relative to each, are exhibited in the following table:

Countries and Col.	Length	breadth	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
N. Carolina, S. Carolina, Georgia	700	380	Wilmington, Charles Town, Savannah	United States.
Virginia	750	240	Williamſb.	Ditto.
Maryland	140	135	Anapolis	Ditto.
Pennſylvania	300	240	Philadelphia	Ditto.
The Jerſeys	160	60	P. Amboy	Ditto.
New York	300	150	New York	Ditto.
New England	550	200	Boſton	Ditto.
Nova Scotia, or New Scotland	350	250	Halifax	Great Britain.
Quebec	800	200	Quebec	Ditto.
Old Mexico, or New Spain	2000	00	Mexico	Spain.
New Mexico and California	2000	1600	St. Fé	Ditto.
Louiſiana			New Orleans	Ditto.
Eaſt and Weſt Florida	500	440	St. Auguſtine, Penſacola	Ditto.

The provinces of North and South Carolina, and Georgia, extend ſeven hundred miles in length, and three hundred and eighty in breadth. The two Carolinas are bounded by Virginia on the north, Georgia on the ſouth, the Apalachian mountains on the weſt, and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt. The face of the country is level, the climate temperate, and the ſoil fertile. It produces moſt kinds of vegetables, but abounds more particularly in honey and rice. Beſides the latter, the Carolinians cultivate ſome tobacco, but their chief trade lies in proviſions, for they ſupply Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward iſlands with beef, pork, grain, peas, butter, ſuet, raw hides, and leather. They likewiſe ſend to the ſame iſlands tar, turpentine, timber, maſts, and furs; but the laſt are of an inferior kind.

Maize, or Indian corn, thrives here exceedingly; but, in ſome other reſpects, the product has not been anſwerable to the expectation from the ſoil and climate. Though many parts of Carolina, eſpecially on the ſea coaſt, abound with vines, yet no progreſs worth mentioning has been made in producing wine. Cochineal is found here; but the inhabitants ſeem to neglect the profits ariſing from that inſect, their attention having for ſome years been chiefly turned towards making indigo. Their manufactures of ſilk, notwithſtanding the great quantities of mulberry-trees they have, are not yet conſiderable, but, from ſome ſamples that have been brought over, it appears equal in quality to any we purchaſe from foreigners. Here are great quantities of cattle, wild and tame, and many fine rivers. The chief capes are, Cape Hatteras, Cape Carteret, and Cape Fear. In South Carolina are the harbours Winyaw, or George Town, and Port Royal.

The inhabitants of Carolina import all kinds of woollen and linen drapery, hard-ware, ſtrong beer, cyder, raiſins, potters earth, tobacco pipes, paper, coverlids, mattraſſes, hats, ſtockings, gloves, tin-ware, powder and ſhot, gun flints, cordage, looking-glaſſes and glaſs-ware, thread, haberdaſhery, and ſmall wares. From Jamaica, Barbadoes and the Leeward iſlands, they have ſugar, rum, molaſſes, cotton, chocolate, negroes, and ſilver. From New England, New York, and Pennſylvania, wheat flour (wheat being very backward in the Carolinas) and hard-wares and wine from Madeira, and the other iſlands in the weſtern ocean.

For ſettling in this pleaſant country, the method has hitherto been to pitch upon a void piece of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of twenty pounds for one thouſand acres, or elſe pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors without purchaſe money; the former method is the moſt common, and the tenure a freehold.

There are in North Carolina the counties of Albemarle, Bath, and part of Clarendon county, but not any town of conſequence. They chuſe to live ſeparately on their plantations and farms, as in Virginia, and, like that colony, chiefly cultivate tobacco; but the ſea coaſt being exceeding ſhallow, and not a good port in it, they are forced to ſend their produce either to Virginia or South Carolina to be ſhipped for Europe.

South Carolina is divided from North Carolina by an imaginary line drawn from Cape Fear, at the mouth of Clarendon river, to the weſtward, as far as the Britiſh plantations extended, in which diviſion is the county of Clarendon in part; Craven county, Berkeley county, and Colleton county; the chief towns being Charles-town and Port Royal, the metropolis of South Carolina. Charles-town is ſituated in ſeventy-nine degrees weſt longitude, and in thirty-two degrees north latitude, on a

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GREENLAND

ISLE OF GOOD FORTUNE

HUDSONS STRAITS

HUDSONS BAY

NEW SOUTH WALES

LABRADOR or NEW BRITAIN ESKIMEAUX

NEW FOUNDLAND

NOVA SCOTIA

CANADA

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

NEW MEXICO

CALIFORNIA

GULF OF MEXICO

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

Arctic Circle

Tropic of Cancer

Assinipoels

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CANADA

GULF OF ST LAURENCE

Assenipoual Lake

Assenipoual Lake

Lake of the Sioux

Christinaux Lake

Albany Riv.

Albany Fort

Henley Fact.

or Kilistinos

Lake of the Woods

Lake Alemipigon

Moose Fort

Bear River

Northern Mountains or Landt

Eastern Sioux

Lake of the Sioux

Sauteurs or Esliaghicks

Outaouans

Messesagues

Outagamis

Malcoutens

Miamis

Pyankashees

Twightwees

Delawares

Low. Shawnees

Wawiachtanees

Missouri

Osages

Mississippi

Ohio R.

Cumberland R.

Wallens

Upper Cherakees

Cherakees or Teliquo

Low Cherakees

CHEROKEES

CHICASAWS

Chicasaw Towns

CREEK INDIANS

CHACTAWS

Chactaw

Lower Creeks

Albama

WEST FLORIDA

EAST FLORIDA

GULF OF MEXICO

Mouths of the Missisipi R.

Ft Mobile

St Augustine

Apalachee

Bay of Apalachee

Arkansas

Kappa

Missouri

Illinois R.

LAKE SUPERIOR

LAKE HURON

LAKE ERIE

LAKE ONTARIO

Lake Nipisirin

Lake Temiskaming

Lake Nipigon

Lake Winipigon

Lake Abbitibi

Lake Mistassim

Lake Nemiskam

Lake Mattagame

Lake Waswanipi

Lake Michipicoten

Lake Huron

Lake Erie

Lake Ontario

Lake Simcoe

Lake Erie

Lake Ontario

Lake Champlain

Lake George

Lake Winnipiseogie

Lake Winnipeg

Lake Winnipegon

Lake Winnipegon R.

Lake Winnipegon Fort

Lake Winnipegon Riv.

Lake Winnipegon Fort

Lake Winnipegon Riv.

Lake Winnipegon Fort

Lake Winnipegon Riv

peninſula formed by Aſhley and Cowper rivers; the former of which is navigable for ſhips twenty miles above the town, and in it is a moſt ſecure and commodious harbour. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. Its harbour is good in every reſpect but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than two hundred tons burthen from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by art and nature. Here are two very handſome churches built with brick, beſides ſeveral other edifices for public worſhip belonging to different ſects of diſſenters. Near the centre of the town is a neat market-houſe, and at a ſmall diſtance is the ſtate-houſe, a handſome and commodious brick building. In the neighbourhood of the town are convenient barracks ſufficient for a thouſand men. Charles-town contains about a thouſand dwelling-houſes, four thouſand male inhabitants, and ſix thouſand negro ſlaves: it is the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Several handſome equipages are kept here; for the planters and merchants are rich and well bred, the people expenſive in their dreſs and way of living, and every thing conſpires to render this one of the livelieſt and politeſt places in North America. However, great part of the town was burnt down on the twenty-firſt of February, 1711, by which much valuable merchandize was entirely deſtroyed. It has alſo frequently ſuffered by inundations and unhealthy ſeaſons.

At the breaking out of the American war in 1776, Charles-town was attacked by a ſquadron of ſhips commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of land forces under general Clinton. The ſhips attacked the fort which commands the entrance of the harbour, but not being at all ſeconded by the army which had been landed, they were obliged to retire with great loſs, after a very obſtinate conteſt.

The town of Beaufort is ſeated on the iſland of Port Royal, on the borders of Georgia, in the thirty-firſt degree forty minutes north latitude, and an hundred miles ſouth of Charles-town, the iſland and continent forming a fine capacious harbour of ſuch depth, that is capable of containing the whole royal navy of England. The iſland on which the town is ſeated conſiſts of near a thouſand acres, and is navigable all round for boats and periaguas, and one half of it for ſhipping, where large veſſels may load and unload from the ſhore. The town, however, is not yet conſiderable, but bids fair in time for becoming the firſt trading town in this part of America.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province of South Carolina amounts to about ſixty thouſand whites, and above double that number of blacks. The roads are as good as in moſt parts of the world, and travelling as pleaſant, they being made broad and convenient for all ſorts of carriages.

The colony of Georgia abounds with all kinds of fleſh, and fowl wild and tame, vegetables, fiſh, &c. In 1742 about five or ſix thouſand Spaniards and Indians from St. Auguſtine invaded this country in about fifty veſſels of all kinds, but were repulſed by general Oglethorpe at the head of the Engliſh forces, and a ſmall body of Indians under Tomo Chichi's ſon. Whatever might be the cauſe, it is certain this infant colony drooped and languiſhed from the year 1742 till Mr. Ellis was appointed governor; but under his adminiſtration it became again of ſuch importance, that his late majeſty George II. upon removing him to another government, rewarded him with a handſome preſent of money for the improvements made during his adminiſtration here.

On the coaſt of Georgia there are ſeveral iſlands, the chief of which are, Amelia, Cumberland and St. Simon's iſland. The firſt, lying ſeven leagues to the north of St. Auguſtine, is about two miles broad, and thirteen long. The ſecond, lying about twenty-one miles ſouth of Frederica, forms the inlet of Amelia Sound, which it commands, by means of a fort called Fort William, and has fine ſprings of water. The third, lying near the weſtern mouth of the Alatamaha, is about three miles in breadth, and forty-five in length. Frederica ſtands in the middle of this iſland.

Savannah town lies ten miles up the river of that name, where it forms a half moon, and where ſhips, that draw ten or twelve feet water, may ride for a mile within ten yards of the bank. Oppoſite to it is an iſland of very rich paſturage. The river is pretty wide, and the water freſh; and from the quay of the town you ſee the whole courſe of it towards the ſea, with the iſland Tybee, which forms the mouth of the river, and the other way you ſee the river for about ſixty miles up into the country.

The town of Wilmington, ſituated on Clarendon river, is the largeſt town in the province, and has much the greateſt trade; Neuborn is ſituated on the Neuſe, and Edenton, on the Albemarle; at which three places the general aſſembly of North Carolina ſit alternately for making laws; but the planters being diſperſed over the country, none of thoſe towns are worth mentioning.

The moſt conſiderable of the Indian natives behind the Carolinas are the Creeks and Cherokees, of whom the men are generally tall, but the women little. They are a generous, good-natured people, and very humane to ſtrangers; patient in want and pain, ſlow to anger, and not eaſily provoked; but when they are thoroughly incenſed, they are implacable; very quick of apprehenſion, and gay of temper; their public conferences ſhew them to be men of genius, and they have a natural eloquence. They anoint their bodies with oil, and expoſe them to the ſun, which occaſions their ſkins to be of a dark brown: the men paint themſelves of various colours, red, blue, yellow, and black: they generally wear a girdle, with a piece of cloth drawn between their legs, and turned over the girdle, both before and behind, which looks ſomething like breeches. The women wear a kind of petticoat to their knees: both men and women, in the winter, wear mantles two yards ſquare, which they wrap round their bodies, as the Romans did their toga, generally keeping their arms bare. They are very healthful, and have hardly any diſeaſes, except thoſe occaſioned by drinking rum, and the ſmall-pox; they who do not drink, are extremely long-lived. Their food, inſtead of bread, is Indian corn, boiled and ſeaſoned, like haſty-pudding; and this is called hommony: they alſo boil veniſon, and make broth of it, and eat all manner of fleſh.

After his late Majeſty had purchaſed the property of Carolina, orders were iſſued for building eleven towns near the Savannah and in Carolina; each of which was to have a diſtrict of twenty thouſand acres of land ſquare, to be divided into ſhares of five acres for each man, woman or child of one family, which was to be augmented, as the planters ſhou'd be in a condition to cultivate a larger quantity: each town was alſo to be formed into a pariſh, the extent whereof was to be about ſix miles round; and, as ſoon as the pariſh contained one hundred maſters of families, it was qualified to ſend two members to the aſſembly of the province, and to enjoy the ſame privilege as the reſt.

The principal manufactures in Carolina are indigo, turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch. The inhabitants of Georgia carry on a conſiderable trade with the Creeks, Chickſaws, and Cherokees, for ſkins; they alſo deal with them for a few furs: the town of Auguſta is commodiouſly ſituated for the Indian trade; it alſo ſtands on a very fertile ſpot, and has ever ſince its firſt eſtabliſhment been in a very flouriſhing condition.

The province of Virginia, which is the antient of the American colonies, was firſt diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, a native of Briſtol; though the firſt attempts to ſettle a colony were not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, made in Virginia, but in that part of North Carolina which immediately borders upon it. When the fruitfulneſs of Virginia was better known, and the dangers incident to an infant ſettlement were over, people in good circumſtances went thither with their families, either to improve their eſtates, or avoid perſecution at home; and particularly at the time of the grand rebellion, when ſeveral families attached to the royal family retired thither, as ſome of thoſe on the other ſide did, upon the reſtoration of Charles II. but moſt of the latter went to New England, Virginia having diſtinguiſhed herſelf by her loyalty, in adhering to the king's party.

This province has the Apalachian mountains, on the weſt; the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; Carolina on the ſouth; and the river Patowmac, north. It is ſeven hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred and forty broad; has a tolerable ſoil, and a ſharp, but wholſome air. The face of the country is generally low and flat towards the ſea coaſt, and for one hundred miles up the country; ſo that there is hardly a hill or ſtone to be ſeen, except here and there ſome rocks of iron ore, and ſome banks of a kind of petrified oyſter-ſhells. The whole country, before it was planted, was one continued foreſt, interſperſed with marſhes, which in the Weſt Indies they call ſwamps.

There are in Virginia thirty-five counties, in which are above fifty pariſhes; but the only places that deſerve the name of towns, and worth mentioning, are Williamſburgh and James Town. The former ſtands in James county, between James and York rivers, and is the ſeat of the government, aſſembly, and chief courts. The latter, namely James Town, ſtands about twenty-ſix miles above the river of that name, on the north ſide, in a peninſula, but is little better than a village.

Here is a college, called William and Mary college, having been founded by king William, who gave two thouſand pounds towards it, and twenty thouſand acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of two thouſand pounds a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix maſters or profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large dona-

donation to the college, for the education of Indian children.

The practice of tranſporting criminals to this province, or to any of the territories belonging to the United States, being now prohibited, the convicts are for the future to be ſent either to Nova Scotia or Canada.

No country produces greater quantities of excellent tobacco than this; and yet the ſoil is generally ſo ſandy and ſhallow, that after they have cleared a freſh piece of ground out of the woods, it will not bear tobacco paſt two or three years, unleſs cow-penned, and well dunged. Virginiaalſo yields rice, hemp, Indian corn, plenty of paſture, with coal, quarries of ſtone, and lead and iron ore. The foreſts yield oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypreſſes, ſweet myrtles, cheſnuts, hickery, live oak, walnut, dog-wood, alder, hazle, chinkapins, locuſt trees, ſaſſafras, elm, aſh, beech, with a great variety of ſweet gums and incenſe, which they diſtil from ſeveral trees; pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, plank-timbers, maſts, and yards.

Their trees are much loftier than ours, and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, and never want a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſummer heats. Silk graſs grows ſpontaneouſly in many places; the fibres of which are as fine as flax, and much ſtronger than hemp. Here is alſo a great variety of ſpontaneous flowers, particularly the fineſt crown imperial in the world, and the cardinal flower, ſo much extolled for its ſcarlet colour; the plains and vallies are adorned almoſt the year round with flowers of one kind or another. In this country is likewiſe found the tulip-bearing laurel tree, which has the pleaſanteſt ſmell in the world, and keeps bloſſoming for the ſpace of ſeveral months.

Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſheep, and hogs, which are now extremely multiplied, thoſe natural to the country are elks; red deer in great plenty, a ſort of panther or tyger; bears, wolves, foxes, beavers, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and, beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. As for reptiles, they have lizards, with ſeveral kinds of ſnakes, particularly the rattle ſnake.

Of birds, they have ſeveral ſorts of eagles, hawks, and owls. The white owl is very beautiful, all the feathers of the back and breaſt being white as ſilver, except a black ſpot immediately below the throat: their turkeys are very large, ſome of them weighing forty pounds: they have alſo abundance of other fowls, geeſe, ducks, &c. Their partridges are ſmaller than ours, but very well taſted. They have likewiſe the Virginia nightingale, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue: the mocking bird, of two ſorts, grey and red, is thought to excel all others in his own note, and imitates that of all others; they have here alſo the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, being all arrayed in ſcarlet, green, and gold.

We learn from the accounts of thoſe who have lived among the Americans of the frontiers of Virginia, that they are of a middling ſtature, ſtraight, and well proportioned, with the fineſt limbs in the world; nor is there a dwarf or miſ-ſhapen perſon among them. Their colour is that of copper rendered darker by greaſing themſelves, and being expoſed to the weather. They have black eyes, and their hair is coal-black, which the men cut into ſeveral ſhapes, and both men and women greaſe it ſo that it ſhines. Their cloaths are a large mantle, careleſsly wrapped round their bodies, and ſometimes girt cloſely with a girdle. The common ſort only paſs a piece of cloth or ſtring round their middles, and put a piece of cloth or ſkin between their thighs, which turns over the ſtring at each end. Their ſhoes, when they wear any, are made of an entire piece of buck-ſkin. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men; only the richer ſort have more beads and bracelets. They commonly go naked as far as the navel downwards, and upwards to the middle of the thigh; their breaſts are round and ſmall, and never hang down, as thoſe of the black women on the coaſt of Guinea. The better ſort wear a kind of coronet four or five inches broad, and open at top, compoſed of a ſort of beads, and ſome a wreath of dyed furs; they have alſo bracelets on their necks and arms; but the common people go bareheaded, only they ſtick large ſhining feathers in their hair.

Their food is Indian corn, ſoaked and boiled in water, beavers, turtle, ſeveral kinds of ſnakes, broth made of deer-humbles, peas, beans, &c. Inſtead of keeping their children warm, they dip them over head and ears in cold water. When the Engliſh firſt came among them, they had no iron tools; their knives were ſharpened reeds or ſhells, and their axes ſharp ſtones. They felled trees by laying fire to their roots; and by fire they alſo hollowed them, and made canoes of them. Their way of producing fire was, by rubbing one ſtick againſt another that was ſofter. They reckon their years by winters; and divide them into five ſeaſons, the budding-time, the earing of the corn, the ſummer, the harveſt, and the winter. The months they count by the moon. They divide the days into three parts; the riſe, power, and lowering of the ſun. They keep their accompts by knots on a ſtring, or notches on a ſtick.

The province of Maryland was diſcovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was firſt planted; and for ſome time was eſteemed a part of Virginia, till king Charles I. in 1632, granted all that part of Virginia which lay north of Patowmac river, to the lord Baltimore, of the kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs. The Baltimore family were deprived of the government of this province during the civil wars in England, but recovered it again at the Reſtoration; and they well deſerved to be ſo, for they eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increaſed and flouriſhed; and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland.

The tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence. At the Revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the intereſt. The government of this country exactly reſembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The cuſtoms too were reſerved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them were independent of the province. So far is Maryland at preſent from being a popiſh government, that the proteſtants, by far more numerous, have excluded them from all offices of truſt and power. They even adopted the penal laws of England againſt them. The church of England was by law eſtabliſhed here: and churches have not only been built, but pariſhes allotted to them with annual ſtipends to the miniſters; every chriſtian male ſixteen years old, and negroes male and female, above that age, paying forty pounds of tobacco, which is levied by the ſheriff, among other public burdens, and yields to each about one hundred pounds ſterling at a medium.

Maryland lies between thirty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes, and forty degrees, north latitude, extends in length one hundred and forty, and in breadth one hundred and thirty-five miles; has the Apalachian mountains to the weſt; Delaware bay to the north; Patowmac river to the ſouth; and the northern ocean to the eaſt.

The parts next the ſea are very low, but the interior diſtricts are hilly. The air is exceſſive hot in the ſummer, and intenſely cold in the winter; but the latter is not of above three months duration. The principal bays are thoſe of Cheſapeak and Delaware, and the moſt noted cape that of Henlopen, at the entrance of Delaware bay. The bay of Cheſapeak divides the province into two parts, of which one lies on the eaſt, and the other on the weſt. It is watered by innumerable ſprings, forming a great many fine rivers, of which the chief are Patowmac, Pocomoke, Patuxhent, Severn, Cheptouk, Saſſafras, and Wicomoca rivers, and that of St. George. Theſe and other rivers, capable of receiving large ſhips, with the numerous bays and creeks that indent the land on every ſide, give the ſeamen an opportunity of bringing their veſſels up to the planters doors.

Tobacco is the chief commodity here, of which the province exported annually, many years ago, upwards of thirty thouſand hogſheads, each hogſhead ſeven hundred pounds weight. This article forms the medium of currency of Maryland, being received in debts and taxes; and the inſpectors notes for tobacco, delivered to him, are transferrable. An induſtrious man can manage ſix thouſand plants of tobacco, and four acres of Indian corn. The tobacco of this province, called Oroonoko, is different from that of Virginia; and, though not much liked in England, yet, in the eaſtern and northern parts of Europe it is preferred before the ſweet ſcented tobacco of James and York rivers in Virginia. Another conſiderable commodity of Maryland is pork, of which large quantities are exported, ſalted and barrelled; the woods containing vaſt droves of wild ſwine, which are generally of ſmall ſize. Great quantities of hemp and flax are raiſed in this province, and the mountains yield abundance of iron ore, which is run into pigs, and refined into iron. Maryland oak is not greatly eſteemed for building large ſhips, but is very proper for ſmall craft and ſtaves. Good land here yields about fifteen buſhels of wheat an acre, or thirty buſhels of Indian corn; but the grain is very ſubject to the weevil.

There are but few towns in the province as yet, the Engliſh living at large in their ſeveral plantations. Indeed each plantation is a little town in itſelf, and can ſubſiſt itſelf with proviſions and neceſſaries, every conſiderable planter's warehouſe being

being like a ſhop, where he ſupplies inferior planters, ſervants, labourers, and has commodities to barter for tobacco, &c. money being as little uſed as wanted here.

The few Indians near Maryland live on the eaſt ſhore, where they have two or three little towns. They are employed in hunting for deer by the Engliſh. The cauſe of their diminiſhing proceeded from their perpetual diſcords and wars amongſt themſelves. It is remarkable, that though they are very timorous and cowardly in fight, yet when taken priſoners and condemned, they die apparently undaunted, ſinging all the time they are on the rack, and braving the moſt inexpreſſible tortures.

Maryland conſiſts of two diviſions; viz. the eaſtern and weſtern. The eaſt diviſion contains ſeven counties and ſix towns; and the weſt diviſion has the ſame number of counties and towns. The principal town is Annapolis, formerly called Severn, but it received its preſent appellation in 1694, when it was made a port town, the reſidence of a collector, and naval officer. The county court was removed thither in 1609, and ever ſince it has been the chief ſeat of juſtice, and is deemed the capital of the province. Baltimore town contains only ſome ſcattered buildings, and is therefore too inconſiderable to merit particular deſcription.

Pennſylvania, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New York by the Engliſh, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica, being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of the grant of this country from that prince. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and, after much court ſolicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the proſecutions to which the quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed; but it was to his own wiſdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing.

This great man eſtabliſhed, in the utmoſt latitude, civil and religious liberty, as the great and only foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony. No laws can be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be enquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes between man and man were not to be liable to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſity extended alſo to the Indian nations; inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of thoſe people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property and eldeſt right, was veſted in them. In ſhort, had William Penn been a native of Greece, he would have had his ſtatue placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus.

Mr. William Penn's laws, founded on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with the quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the late war with the mother country, land rented at twenty ſhillings the acre, and even ſold at twenty years purchaſe ſeveral miles diſtance from that city.

An ingenious author obſerves, that the noble charter of privileges by which Mr. Penn made the inhabitants of this ſettlement as free as any people in the world, has ſince induced vaſt numbers of various perſuaſions and countries to put themſelves under the protection of his laws. He ſtaid in the country two years, till he had ſettled every thing to his own and the people's ſatisfaction; during which he behaved in ſuch a manner to the Indians, that he inſpired them with the moſt extraordinary love and eſteem both for him and his people. Their deſcendants received from them the ſentiments of this benevolent man, and ſtill ſpeak of him with the greateſt gratitude and affection; and whenever they would expreſs an extraordinary regard for any Engliſhman, they ſay, "We eſteem and love you as if you were that good man William Penn himſelf."

This province is three hundred miles long, and two hundred and forty broad; being bounded, on the eaſt, by the Delaware river, and the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth and weſt, by Maryland; and, on the north, by the country of the Iroquois or Five Nations: the whole territory towards the coaſt is flat, but riſes gradually to the Apalachian mountains. It enjoys a clear air, and is very cold during winter. The river Delaware is often frozen over. The heats would be intolerable in autumn, if they were not mitigated by frequent ſea-breezes.

The ſeveral rivers, with the numerous creeks and harbours in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, are extremely favourable to the trade of this province. The principal rivers are, Delaware, Suſquehannah, and Scoolkil. The Delaware, riſing in the country of the Iroquois, takes its courſe ſouthward, and, after dividing this province from that of New Jerſey, falls into the Atlantic ocean between the promontories or capes May and Henlopen, forming, at its mouth, a large bay, called, from the river, Delaware bay. This river is navigable above two hundred miles. The Suſquehannah riſes alſo in the country of the Iroquois, and, running ſouth through the middle of the province, falls into the bay of Cheſapeak, being navigable a great way for large ſhips. The Sculkil has its ſource in the ſame country as the other two, and alſo runs ſouth almoſt parallel to them; till at length, turning to the eaſtward, it falls into the Delaware at the city of Philadelphia: it is navigable for boats above one hundred miles.

The ſoil, produce, and traffic of Pennſylvania, are much the ſame as thoſe of the Jerſeys and New York, of which we ſhall preſently treat. They have ſome rice here, but no great quantities; and ſome tobacco, but it is not equal to that of Virginia. From the premiums offered by the Society of Arts, &c. in London, it appears, that the ſoil and climate of this province are looked upon as proper for the cultivation of ſome ſpecies of vines. The trade carried on from hence, and the other colonies, to the French and Dutch iſlands and Surinam, was never at all to the advantage of Great Britain, and very hurtful to the ſugar-colonies; for they take molaſſes, rum, and other ſpirits, with a great many European goods, from theſe foreigners; carrying them horſes, proviſions, and lumber in return, without which the French could not carry on their ſugar manufacture with equal advantage.

Pennſylvania, before the late diſputes, was one of the moſt flouriſhing colonies in North America. The people ſeldom had any quarrels with the Indian natives; the latter, however, roſe in their demands for land in proportion as European ſettlers ſeemed eager to purchaſe. We find that upwards of twenty years ago the proprietaries, who alone can purchaſe lands here from the natives, had bought ſeven hundred thouſand acres for no more than ſeven hundred and fifty pounds ſterling, which the proprietaries afterwards ſold at the rate of fifteen pounds for every hundred acres. The Indian council at Onandago, however, diſapproved of their deputies parting with ſo much land: and in the year 1755, obliged the proprietaries to reconvey to the Indians great part of the ſame.

There happened, about the year 1704, ſome alterations in the conſtitution of the province, by inveſting a governor, council, and aſſembly, each with the ſame power and privileges as in the neighbouring colony of New York; the lieutenant-governor and council being, with his Majeſty's approbation, appointed by the proprietors, the Penns.

This province is divided into ſeven counties, four of which are called the upper, and three the lower. The upper are Buckingham, Philadelphia, Cheſter, and Lancaſter; the lower, Suſſex, Kent, and Newcaſtle.

Philadelphia, the capital of this province, is ſeated in the county of the ſame name. It is built upon one of the fineſt plans that ever was formed, laid out by Mr. Penn himſelf, and far excels any other city in North America. It is ſeated between two navigable rivers, the Delaware on the north, and the Schoolkil on the ſouth, which join each other a few miles below, and is near a hundred miles above the bay, into which the river diſcharges itſelf. It is an oblong of near two miles in length, extending nearly to each of thoſe rivers, where the front facing each is a mile in length. The ſtreets are wide and ſpacious, with a dry defended walk on each ſide, and are exactly ſtrait and parallel to each other: the houſes are, in general, well-built, and make a handſome appearance, eſpecially ſeveral of the public buildings, which are not exceeded by any in the country. The High ſtreet, which runs the whole length of the city, is a hundred feet wide, parallel to which run eight ſtreets, that are croſſed by twenty more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide. Every owner of a thouſand acres has his houſe in one of the two fronts facing the river, or in the High-ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. In the centre of the city is a ſquare of ten acres, encompaſſed by the town-houſe and other public buildings, and in each quarter of the city is a ſquare of eight acres. Several canals are let into the town from each river, which add to the beauty and convenience of the place. It has noble barracks for the reception of the king's troops, and the fineſt market of any on the continent, it being of a prodigious extent, well built, and as well regulated and ſupplied. Its quay is two hundred feet ſquare, to which ſhips of four or five hundred tons may come up, and

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lay their broad ſides cloſe to it; with wet and dry docks for building and repairing of ſhips, beſides magazines, warehouſes, and all other conveniencies for exporting and importing of merchandize. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, exceeds any private building in America, both in its magnificence and the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation. In ſhort, ſcarce any thing can appear more beautiful than the city and the adjacent country, which for ſome miles may be compared to a fine and flouriſhing garden. The city contains about four thouſand houſes, and about twenty thouſand inhabitants. The academy of literature, eſtabliſhed in this city, is the nobleſt inſtitution in the province of Pennſylvania.

The moſt conſiderable of the other towns in this province are, Briſtol, Falls Town, and Pennſbury, in the county of Buckingham; Cheſter town, Chicheſter, and Marcus Hook, in the county of Cheſter; Newcaſtle town, Haverford-weſt, Merioneth, and St. George, in the county of Newcaſtle; Dover, Cranbrook, Marden, Maſpelliven plantations, in the county of Kent; Lewes, in the county of Suſſex; Lancaſter, in the county to which it gives name; and Ephrata, fourteen miles from Lancaſter, on the frontier part of the county, and in a moſt delightful ſituation.

The unbounded latitude given to liberty of conſcience in this country, has occaſioned its being inhabited by people of almoſt every religious ſentiment, each of whom is allowed its diſtinct place of worſhip. Here are Quakers, church of England people, Lutherans, catholics, preſbyterians, independents, baptiſts; and the dumplers, or drunkards, a ſort of German ſect, who live in common in a ſmall town called Ephrata, forming a kind of religious ſociety, wearing long beards, and a habit reſembling that of friars; but marry, and live in a peaceable manner by cultivating the earth. In ſhort, the diverſity of the people, religions, nations, and languages, is here prodigious, and the harmony in which they live together is no leſs amiable than edifying.

The Jerſeys and New York being contiguous to each other, and intimately connected by a variety of other circumſtances, we ſhall therefore blend their deſcriptions together.

The boundaries and extent of theſe countries are as follow; the Jerſeys have New York on the North; the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; Delaware river on the ſouth and eaſt; and the bay on the ſouth-eaſt: it is one hundred and ſixty miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth. New York is divided from the eaſt and weſt Jerſeys, and Pennſylvania, by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers; on the eaſt and north, it joins New England; and on the north-weſt, Canada. Its extent is three hundred miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth. The chief rivers, beſides thoſe of Hudſon and Delaware, are thoſe of Onandago, Mohawk, Raritan, and Maurice. The extenſive lakes of Champlain, Ontario, and Erie, lie on the frontiers of the province of New York to the north-weſt. The capes are thoſe of cape Mary, on the eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy Point, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Mountang Point, at the eaſt end of Long iſland. That iſland, and another called Staten iſland, belong to the province of New York. The firſt, which the Dutch call Naſſau, is about one hundred and twenty miles long, from eaſt to weſt; but no more than ten, at a medium, in breadth. The eaſtern part of it was ſettled from New England: but two-thirds of it is a barren, ſandy ſoil. Staten iſland is about twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth, and is inhabited by Dutch and French, as well as Engliſh. Nantucket, or Tantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth iſlands, formerly belonged to New York, but were annexed, by charter granted at the revolution, to the colony of Maſſachuſet's bay.

The commodities and produce of New York and the Jerſeys conſiſt of horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh, ſalted and barrelled up; oil of whales and ſea-calves, ſkins and furs, iron and copper; all ſorts of grain, as wheat, rye, peas, beans, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian-corn, Indian peas, and beans; tobacco, pot-aſhes, and wax, which they export to the Weſt India iſlands, not excepting the French and Dutch, and to England, Old Spain, Africa, and Portugal; importing, in return, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, negroes, ſalt, and wine; and from Great Britain, in particular, houſhold goods, cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, and toys. They traffic alſo with the logwood cutters in the bay of Honduras; and with the Spaniſh ſettlements, exchanging the manufactures of Europe for Spaniſh gold and dollars.

The governments of New York and Jerſey, before the late unhappy conteſt, were veſted in the crown. That of New York was adminiſtered by a governor, with commiſſion under the broad ſeal of England; the legiſlative power and authority being lodged in the governor and council, who were twelve in number, appointed by the king, but filled up by the governor, and twenty-ſeven repreſentatives elected by the people. In other reſpects, the government was perfectly conformable to the laws of England. The adminiſtration of it was in the governor and council, of whom five were a quorum; and upon the death or abſence of the governor, the firſt in nomination of the council preſided. The people choſe their repreſentatives, the numbers of whom were fixed by the crown; and theſe repreſentatives had much the ſame privileges as the members of the Britiſh parliament were inveſted with.

There were three negatives in the civil government of New York. Firſt, that of the governor, who is likewiſe vice-admiral and chancellor of the province. Second, that of the council, which, with the governor, forms a court of error and chancery. Third, of the houſe of repreſentatives, twenty of whom ſerve for counties, and the remaining four for the two towns of Perth-Amboy and Burlington. This houſe, though not a court of judicature, had the privilege of inquiring into the mal-adminiſtration of the courts of juſtice, and rectifying abuſes.

The province of New Jerſey is divided into Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey. Eaſt Jerſey is again divided into four counties, viz. thoſe of Monmouth, Middleſex, Eſſex, and Bergen. The principal towns in which are, Perth-Amboy, the capital of the county of Middleſex, and of all Eaſt Jerſey, pleaſantly ſituated at the mouth of Raritan river; and, had it been built according to the intended model, would have been one of the fineſt towns in North America; but planters have not reſorted to it as was expected, notwithſtanding it is ſo commodiouſly ſituated for trade, that ſhips of three hundred tons may come up in one tide, and lie before the merchants doors; but the town of Elizabeth, ſituated to the northward of it, flouriſhes much more, and might be deemed the moſt conſiderable town in this part of the country.

Newark ſtands in Eſſex county, and has about fifty thouſand acres annexed to it, and Middleton is twenty-ſix miles ſouth of Piſcataqua. Shrewſbury is a conſiderable town, and the moſt ſouthern in this province. On the twenty-ſecond of October, 1746, a college was eſtabliſhed at Brunſwic; and between Middleton and Shrewſbury there is an iron work.

The diviſion of Weſt Jerſey conſiſts of ſeveral counties. It has an eaſy communication with New York by the river Æſopus; and with Maryland, by another ſtream which falls into Cheſapeak bay.

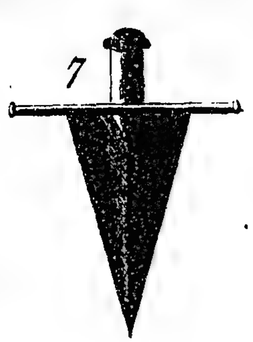
The principal place is Burlington, ſituate in forty degrees forty minutes north latitude, on an iſland in the middle of the river Delaware, to the north of Philadelphia in Pennſylvania, and on the oppoſite ſide of the river. The houſes are handſomely built of brick, and laid out into ſpacious ſtreets, with commodious quays and wharfs, to which ſhips of two or three hundred tons may come up: it has alſo a handſome market-place, a guildhall or town-houſe, two good bridges over the river, the one called London-bridge, and the other York-bridge: by the river Delaware, it has an eaſy communication with Philadelphia and the ocean.

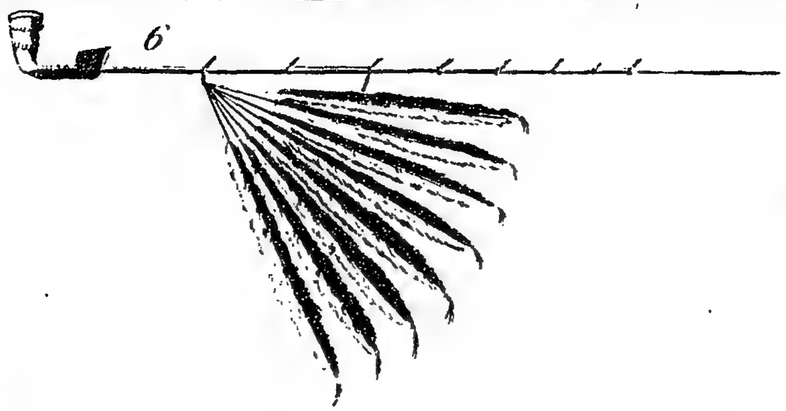
The city of New York was formerly called Amſterdam. It is ſituated in Mahamattan iſland, which is twelve miles long, and between two and three broad, lying at the mouth of Hudſon's or the Iroquois river. It is not very large, but few cities in Europe can vie with it in regularity and neatneſs. The trade of the inhabitants is carried on by water-carriage, and ſhips of five hundred tons may come up to the wharfs of the city, and be almoſt afloat. Hudſon's river, where it runs by New York, is above three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance for the goods of the counties of Albany, Ulſter, Dutcheſs, Orange, and Kings, to that city. This place is governed by a mayor and aldermen, and ſuch other officers as our corporations. It contains ſix markets, ſaid to be better ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions than any in Europe. The town and harbour are defended by forts and batteries. Twelve years ago the horſes kept here were computed at five thouſand. The principal edifices are the town-houſe, the council-houſe, where they hold their general aſſemblies and courts of juſtice, the Engliſh church, the meeting-houſes, of all ſorts, the free-ſchool, and the public library. Here is alſo a printing-office.

The town of Albany is one hundred and forty-three miles up the river, and but five below the place where it is parted into two branches. It conſiſts of between three and four hundred families, who are moſtly of Dutch extraction, and has a ſtrong fort and garriſon for its defence, as being ſituated on the frontier of the province. It is not, however, the moſt diſtant ſettlement, for there is a place called Schenectady, ſixteen miles above, on a river that runs into Hudſon's. Kingſton is a pretty populous, well-built town, ninety miles up the river, where the Æſopus falls into it from New Jerſey.

The Iroquois, or Five Indian nations, inhabit the north-weſt part of the province of New York. One of theſe nations, or tribes, are called Mohawks, from inhabiting the country about the great Mohawk river. Theſe Indians of the Five Nations are deemed the braveſt and moſt formidable people of North America,

Various PLANS and DRAUGHTS of CITIES, TOWNS, HARBOURS &c. drawn from the lateſt Authorities.









Various Dresses of the INDIANS *of* NORTH AMERICA, *with their* WEAPONS *of* WAR, &c.

1..2. A Man & Woman of the Chipeways, easterly of the Missisippi..... 3....4.. 4. Man & Woman of the Naudowessies, west of the Missisippi.
5 A War Club called the Casse Tete, or antient Tomahawk used by these Indians.... 6 The Pipe of Peace..... 7. A Naudowessie Dagger.

Harris sculp.

America, and at the ſame time as polite and judicious, as can well be conceived; which appears not only from the management of their affairs with the French and Engliſh, but with almoſt all the Indian nations of this vaſt continent. An Engliſh hiſtorian obſerves, that notwithſtanding the Iroquois live under the darkeſt ignorance, yet a bright and noble genius ſhines through thoſe black clouds. The moſt celebrated Roman heroes have not diſcovered a greater love for their country, or a greater contempt of death in the cauſe of liberty. "I think, ſays he, they have outdone the Romans, eſpecially thoſe who murdered themſelves to avoid ſhame or torment; for our Indians have not only refuſed to die unmanly by their own hands, when they thought their country's honour at ſtake; but have given up their bodies willingly to the moſt cruel torments their enemies could inflict; to ſhew that the Five Nations conſiſted of men whoſe courage and reſolution could not be ſhaken. They fully, however, theſe noble virtues by that cruel paſſion of revenge, which they think not only lawful, but honourable, to exert without mercy on their country's enemies; and in this only they deſerve the name of Barbarians." Another gentleman, of Engliſh extraction, but a native of this country, and reſident a conſiderable time among the Iroquois at Albany, ſays, "they are an exceeding hoſpitable, good-natured people, given to revenge only when they are drunk; and the inſtances that have been given of it are no evidence of a vindictive temper; for the cruelties they inflicted on ſome French priſoners, and their Indian allies, were by way of retaliation of the like cruelties firſt exerciſed by the French on their people." It is obſerved, that the French, in the firſt wars which they had with the Iroquois, when they imagined that people were not able to reſiſt the force of their arms, uſed them in a barbarous manner, which gave the Iroquois ſuch an abhorrence of that nation, as was afterwards very ſerviceable to the intereſt of the Engliſh in this country.

Theſe Five nations form as many diſtinct republics, governed by their ſachems, or civil magiſtrates, in time of peace; and by their warriors, or captains, in their wars; but their chiefs never reſolve on nor execute any thing of importance, without firſt conſulting the heads of their tribes. They acknowledge a ſupreme Being, whom they ſtile the Preſerver of the Univerſe; and they believe a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments; but have very obſcure, indiſtinct notions of it, and ſeem to think the rewards of the good will conſiſt in the enjoyment of thoſe pleaſures they were moſt fond of in this life. They imagine dreaming to be nothing but a ſally of the ſoul out of the body, and taking a trip into that happy land; and if the dream be unpleaſant, they attribute it to ſome obſtruction, enemy, or accident, it hath met with in the way. They are very ſtrict in obſerving the oaths they take to each other, eſpecially thoſe which their warriors make of ſtanding by one another to the laſt; and which they keep ſo ſtrictly, as to hazard their lives to reſcue the bare carcaſe of their fallen brethren.

The buſineſs of the men is hunting, going to war, building their huts, felling of timber, tilling the ground, and the like. They commonly ſow a field with beans one year, and the next with Indian wheat. The women are commonly ſo prolific, that it is a wonder to ſee one from ſixteen to fifty, who is not either pregnant or ſuckling; yet they do moſt of the drudgery, as grinding the wheat, fetching of wood, water, and the like. The children are often ſo ſtubborn, that if they are found fault with, the boys will diſpatch themſelves with a gun, and the girls with ſome poiſonous weed. They commonly make a feaſt over the grave of a dead perſon, and put into it wheat, tobacco, and every thing they think the deceaſed may want in the other world.

In this country is that great water-fall, or cotoos, called the Fall of Niagara. This ſurprizing cataract, ſaid to be the greateſt in the world, is a quarter of a mile broad, and ſeventy feet deep. The water, precipitating itſelf from ſeveral rocks, which project from the reſt, falls down on every ſide in torrents, and being broken near the bottom by many ſeparate crags, riſes in a white froth. From the whole ariſes a miſty cloud, that deſcends like ſmall rain, and exhibits, when the ſun ſhines, a beautiful rainbow, that moves as the ſpectator moves, according to the angle of viſion. As the waters fall from rocks one hundred and forty feet high, a noiſe is produced like thunder heard at a great diſtance.

SECT. II.

Of NEW ENGLAND, NOVA SCOTIA, and CANADA, their Situation, Boundaries and Extent; principal Towns, Climate, Soil, Productions, Trade, Manufactures, Government, Laws, &c. together with an Account of the Riſe and Progreſs of the War between Great Britain and the Colonies, which terminated in the Independency of the American States.

THE extenſive and powerful country we are now about to deſcribe, namely, New England, comprehends Maſſachuſet's bay, Connecticut, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantation. It is ſituated between ſixty-ſeven and ſeventy-three degrees of weſt longitude, and between forty-one and forty-five degrees of north latitude; is five hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad, and has the province of New York on the weſt; Nova Scotia or Arcadia, on the north-eaſt; Canada, on the north-weſt; and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth.

The ſummer-ſeaſon here is warmer than ours, but of ſhort duration. For the ſpace of two months the ſky is perfectly clear, which renders the country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winters here are long and ſevere, the wind often boiſterous, and the air extremely ſharp, but not intolerable. Naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, length, and ſeverity of the winters, to the large freſh-water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being conſtantly frozen over from the beginning of November to June or July, occaſion thoſe piercing winds which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The land towards the ſea is, for the moſt part, low, and frequently marſhy; but in the country it riſes into hills, and on the north-eaſt becomes altogether rocky and mountainous. The ſoil about Maſſachuſet's bay is black, and the graſs rank; but the uplands are fruitful. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here; and the country in general produces corn, pulſe, eſculent plants, Indian corn, and all kinds of timber. The oaks here are inferior to thoſe of Old England; but the firs are of a prodigious bulk; and they draw from theſe, and other trees, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; the ſoil alſo producing hemp and flax, a ſhip may be built and rigged out with the produce thereof; and in this country ſhipbuilding is a conſiderable employment.

In New England there is a great abundance and variety of fowl; as geeſe, ducks, turkies, hens, partridges, wigeons, ſwans, herons, heathcocks, pigeons, &c. Quadrupeds are alſo very numerous here, and European cattle thrive and multiply exceedingly. The horſes of the province are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmall. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, racoons, ſables, bears, wolves, foxes, together with a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds; but the moſt extraordinary of their animals is the mooſe or mouſe deer; the black ſpecies of which is about twelve feet high, with four horns, and broad palms, ſome diſtant near twelve feet from the top of one horn to the other. His body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's; his tail is ſomewhat longer; and his fleſh extremely grateful. The light-coloured mooſe, called wampoon by the Indians, is of a ſmaller ſtature, and much more common than the black. The rattle-ſnake is another natural curioſity of New England, though not peculiar to it. The ſurrounding ſeas, and interſecting rivers, afford abundance of fiſh; conſequently there are many fiſheries, particularly for cod and mackarel. The ſalt-works are improveable, and the iron-mines conſiderable.

They export from hence biſcuit, meal, ſalt proviſions, ſometimes cattle and horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, butter, cheeſe, grain, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, tobacco, apples, cyder, and onions; they bring in return ſugar, cotton, ginger, and various other commodities. From Europe they import wine, ſilks, woollen cloth, toys, hardware, linen, ribbands, ſtuffs, laces, paper, houſhold furniture, huſbandry tools of all kinds, cordage, hats, ſtockings, ſhoes, and India goods. In ſhort, there is no Britiſh manufacture, that ſerves the purpoſe of luxury or ornament, which the people of New England do not import. They alſo ſend ſhips to the bay of Honduras for log-wood, which they tranſport to Europe; as they do ſugar from the Weſt Indies, and fiſh from Newfoundland. Their inland trade, beſides maſts, yards, and proviſions of all kinds, conſiſts chiefly of furs, and the ſkins of beavers and martins. The furs and ſkins are brought in by the Indians, eſpecially thoſe on the rivers Penobſcot and St. John. Their money is for the moſt part paper-currency, which has been attended with many inconveniencies in the circulation of it.

The eſtabliſhed religion in New England is that of the Independents. The church government admits of ſynods, but the ſynods have no power to enforce their own acts. The miniſters of Boſton depend entirely on the generoſity of their hearers for ſupport; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine ſervice is celebrated. Tho' the puritans of various ſects, who firſt tranſported themſelves hither, rather than conform to the church of England, complained of their not being allowed toleration, yet they were ſo far from granting it to thoſe who differed from them, that they put to death ſeveral quakers, and would not permit people of any other ſect or denomination of Chriſtians but themſelves to have any ſhare in the governments they erected here.

Great care is taken of the education of children. Every town of fifteen families is obliged to maintain a ſchool for reading and writing; and, of one hundred families, a grammar-ſchool, for the inſtruction of youth; beſides which, there are four colleges. They have no holidays, but that of the annual election of the magiſtrates of Boſton, and the commencement at Cambridge.

A late writer obſerves, with reſpect to the government of New England, that by the new charter granted to the Maſſachuſets by king William III. the appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; that the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; that all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law is intruſted, are nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; and that the governor has a peremptory and unlimited negative on the choice of counſellors; ſo that he is not obliged to give a reaſon for what he does in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; that authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, ought to be tranſmitted to the court of England for the royal approbation: but if the laws of this colony are not repealed within three years after they are preſented, they are not repealable by the crown after that time; and that no laws, ordnances, elections of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, are valid, without the governor's conſent in writing. Notwithſtanding this, previous to the late unhappy diſturbance, the people had ſtill the greateſt ſhare of the power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly choſe the council (equivalent to our houſe of lords) with the governor's concurrence.

Three ſorts of government were originally eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments. A royal government is properly ſo called, becauſe the colony is immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remains ſovereign of the colony. A charter government is ſo called, becauſe a company, incorporated by the king's charter, is in a manner veſted with ſovereign authority. A proprietary government is ſo denominated, becauſe the proprietor has a kind of regal authority, either by purchaſe or gift.

Every town in New England, if it contains thirty-two burgeſſes, can ſend two repreſentatives to parliament; if twenty, one; but Boſton nominates four. The general aſſembly, in concurrence, impoſed taxes, made grants, enacted laws, and redreſſed public grievances of every kind. It conſiſted of the magiſtrates, and a certain number of repreſentatives; who formed two chambers, ſo nearly reſembling our lords and commons, that the concurrence of the majority of both was neceſſary, before any bill could be preſented to the governor for his aſſent.

No perſon can be arreſted here, if there are any means of ſatisfaction pitched upon; nor impriſoned, unleſs there be a concealment of effects. Adultery is puniſhed with death to both parties. The laws were always very ſevere againſt Quakers. To bring one in, is a forfeiture of one hundred pounds; to conceal one, forty ſhillings an hour; to go to a quaker's meeting, ten ſhillings; to preach there, five ſhillings. If a quaker be not an inhabitant, he is ſubject to baniſhment; and if he returns, death. Vagrant quakers to be whipped, branded with the letter R on the left ſhoulder, and baniſhed; if they return, death. How far theſe rigorous laws are conſiſtent with the peaceable and paſſive ſpirit of Chriſtianity and its Divine Author, we leave the reader to judge.

The name of the Maſſachuſet's colony was given to it by the Indians who inhabited theſe parts when the Engliſh firſt came hither. It is ſubdivided into the provinces of Plymouth, Maſſachuſet Proper, and Maine; and is bounded by the colonies of Connecticut and New York, on the weſt; Merrimack river, on the north; and the ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth.

The moſt ſoutherly of theſe provinces, namely, Plymouth, runs along the coaſt one hundred miles, from cape Cod to cape Mancheſter, and is near fifty broad, from Monument bay to Sectuati. It is divided into the counties of Briſtol, Plymouth, and Barnſtable, taking their names from the chief towns of each; of which Briſtol is large and populous, having a commodious harbour, and the beſt trade in New England next to Boſton. Several iſlands lie on the coaſt of this province, particularly Rhode iſland, Elizabeth's iſland, Martha's or Martin's vineyard, in which are ſeveral towns or villages of Indians who have embraced Chriſtianity.

The province of Maſſachuſet Proper is bounded by New York, on the weſt; Maſſachuſet's bay, on the eaſt; New Hampſhire, on the north; and by Plymouth and Connecticut, on the ſouth: it contains the counties of Suffolk, Middleſex, and Eſſex, all of them ſituate on Maſſachuſet's bay. Boſton, Salem, and Cambridge, are the three capital towns of theſe counties.

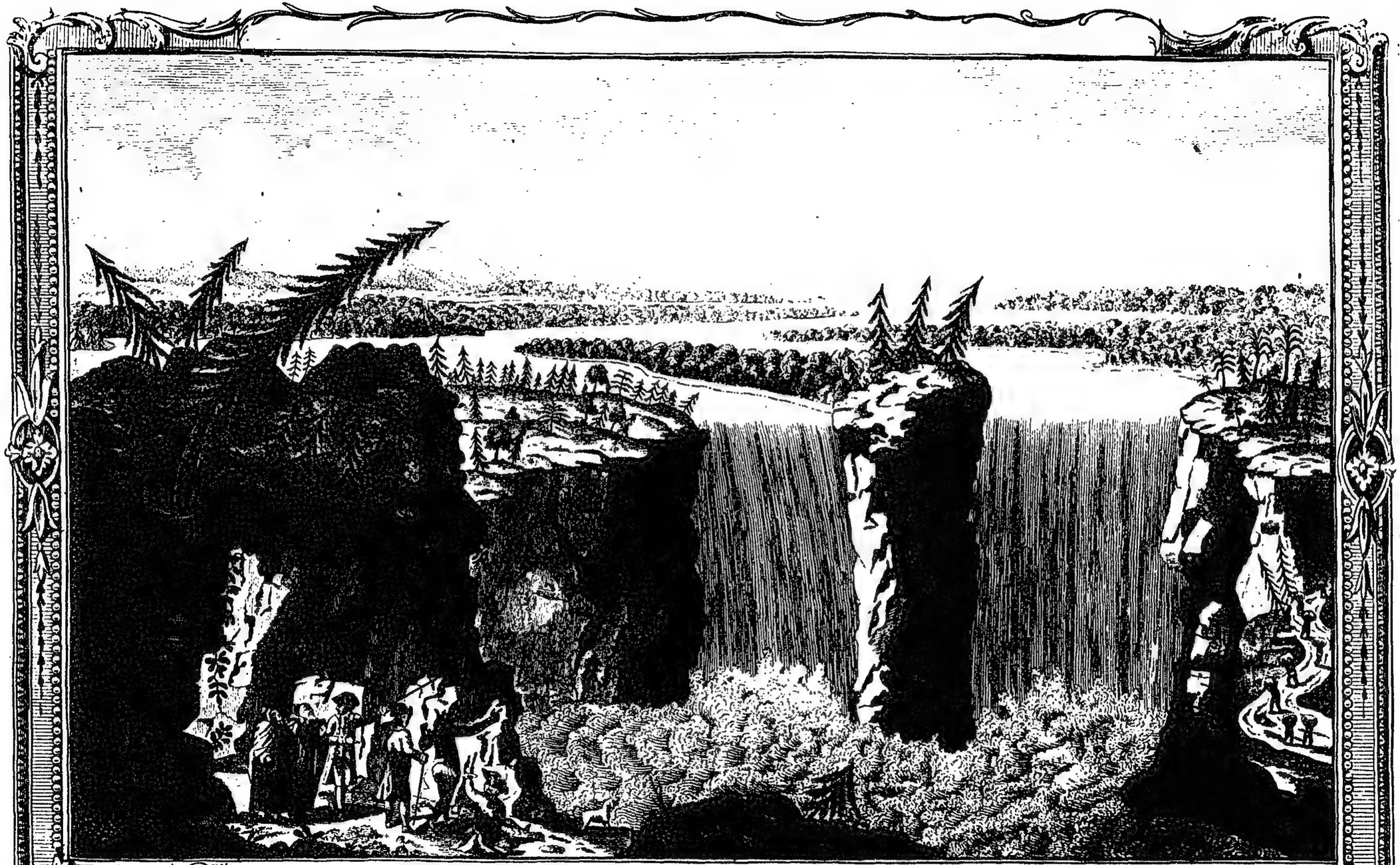
The capital town of Boſton, is ſeated in the county of Suffolk, in the province of Maſſachuſet Proper, in the forty-ſecond degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventy-firſt degree weſt longitude, at the bottom of a fine bay, in a peninſula about four miles in circumference. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail through abreaſt; but within the harbour there is room for five hundred ſail to lie at anchor. The entrance is defended by the caſtle of Fort William, one of the fineſt pieces of military architecture in Britiſh America, it being ſurrounded by a covert-way, and joined by two lines of communication from a main guard to a redoubt. The caſtle is defended by an hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarce poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks at about two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of great guns at each end of the town, to the fire of which an enemy would be expoſed, if he ſhould be ſo fortunate as to paſs the caſtle. At the bottom of a bay is a pier near two thouſand feet in length, with warehouſes for the merchants on the north-ſide; and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burden may come and unload without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour in the form of a creſcent; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The town has ſeveral ſtreets little inferior to the beſt in London; the principal ſtreet runs from the pier up to the townhouſe, a handſome building, with walks for the merchants, as in the Royal Exchange in London; this edifice contains not only the courts of juſtice, but the council-chamber and the houſe of repreſentatives. The town conſiſts of between four and five thouſand houſes, which are in general well-built, and ſeveral of the public ſtructures are very ſpacious and elegant. It has ſeventeen churches, or places appropriated to divine worſhip. The epiſcopal church is handſomely built and adorned, and the congregation is ſaid to amount to about a thouſand. The church-furniture, and ſome pieces of plate, were given by king William and queen Mary; it has an organ, and there is a magnificent ſeat for the governor, when he happens to be of the church of England. The governor has alſo a very fine houſe. Among the other buildings are Fenneuil-hall, thus named from Mr. Fenneuil, who was its founder. The ſhipping of this port in the year 1760, was computed at between ſix and ſeven hundred; the inhabitants of the town then amounted to about twenty-five thouſand, and there was ſaid to be two hundred thouſand in the province; according to the computation of Dr. Franklin, the inhabitants of the northern colonies of America double their numbers in the revolution of ſixteen years. Such a rapid increaſe of population was never equalled in any part of the world.

Cambridge, the principal town in the county of Middleſex, is ſeated on the north branch of Charles river, ſix miles to the north-weſt of Boſton, and has ſeveral fine houſes and good ſtreets. It was originally called New Town, but on founding the univerſity changed its name to Cambridge, and contains two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Haverford-college and Stoughton-hall, with a public library, ſaid to be the beſt furniſhed with books of any in that part of the world. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, and a treaſurer. The governor of the povinces, deputy-governor, and all the magiſtrates of the Maſſachuſet's colony, with the miniſters of ſix neighbouring towns for the time being, are viſitors. This univerſity never conferred any degree above that of maſter of arts, till it obtained a new charter from king William and queen Mary, by which it had the power of creating doctors of divinity.

The town of Salem is ſituated on a plain between two rivers, on each of which it has a harbour eighteen miles north of Boſton. Ship-building, particularly the conſtruction of fiſhing-ſmacks, has always been the principal buſineſs carried on here.

The province of Maine is the third grand diviſion of the Maſſachuſets government. Its boundaries are, the bay of Maſſachuſet, on the ſouth-eaſt; Nova Scotia, on the north-eaſt; and the province of New Hampſhire on the ſouth-weſt and north-weſt, in which are the two counties of York and Cornwall. Several fortifications were erected on the north-eaſt part of this province in a former war, to defend the country againſt the French and Indians of Nova Scotia, particularly at Saco, Kennebeck, Saghadock, and Pemaquid. The principal towns here are, Falmouth, Saco or Scarborough, Wells, Hedeck or Newcaſtle, Edger Town, York, Ketteren, Berwick, and Biddeford.

New Hampſhire, or Piſcataqua government, is bounded by Canada on the north-weſt; Maſſachuſet colony, on the ſouth-weſt; the province of Maine on the ſouth-eaſt; and by Nova Scotia, on the north-eaſt. There are not many towns in the inland country: it ſtill remains a great foreſt, covered with excellent



The most surprising CATARACT *of* NIAGARA *in Canada.*

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cellent timber; but the ſoil does not ſeem proper either for corn or graſs. The chief towns in the province are Dover, Portſmouth, Exeter, and Hampton; all which lie near the mouth of the river Piſcataqua.

Connecticut is bounded by the Maſſachuſet's colony on the north; by Rhode Iſland, on the eaſt; by New York, on the weſt; and Long Iſland, ſeparated by an arm of the ſea, on the ſouth. It is about one hundred miles in length, and ſeventy in breadth; and abounds in metals and naval ſtores, eſpecially timber, and has many good ports. This colony is divided into four counties, and its chief towns are Newhaven, Hertford, and New London. Connecticut river, which is one of the largeſt in New England, runs through the heart of the province, and is navigable above forty miles for large veſſels, and much farther for ſmall ones.

The town of Newhaven ſtands upon the coaſt, and has a college for academical learning, called Yale-hall, pretty well endowed, and furniſhed with a good library. New London is a town of good trade, ſituated on the weſt-ſide, and near the mouth of the river called Thames. Hertford, ſituated on the banks of Connecticut river, is a handſome populous town.

Rhode iſland comprehends, beſides the iſland, a diſtrict on the continent, called Providence Plantation, which lies oppoſite to Rhode iſland, and is about twenty miles ſquare, has two large thriving towns, near the mouth of the river Patuxel, one of which is called Providence, and the other Warwick. It is inhabited chiefly by quakers, with ſome few of the church of England; and, though ſmall, is in a flouriſhing condition.

The iſland, which is about fifteen or ſixteen miles long, and about four or five broad, is called the Paradiſe of New England, from the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, and the temperateneſs of the climate. The chief town is Newport, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt part of it, and having a good harbour, defended by a regular fort. A great trade is carried on from hence to ſugar-colonies with butter, cheeſe, horſes, ſheep, beef, pork, tallow, &c.

We are now come to the moſt eaſtern part of the continent of America, namely, Nova Scotia, New Scotland, or Acadia. It is bounded by the bay of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; the ſame ocean and New England, on the ſouth; the river St. Lawrence, north; and Canada, on the weſt; being three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred and fifty broad. It had its name of Nova Scotia from Sir William Alexander, a Scotſman, and ſecretary to king James I. who had the firſt grant of lands in it. By the treaty of Utrecht, it was ceded to Great Britain, and a regiment was ſent over to take poſſeſſion of Annapolis, the capital; but no proviſion was made to plant the reſt of Nova Scotia, till the year 1749, when about three thouſand Engliſh families, under the command of governor Cornwallis, were ſent thither, and erected the town of Halifax, in Chebucto bay, and ſeveral other embarkations have been made ſince that time.

This is in general a fine country, the climate being tolerably temperate, though pretty ſevere in winter, when the cold is ſharp and the ſnow lies deep on the ground; but the air is there generally clear, with a bright ſunſhine and azure ſky: the ſummer is, however, hotter than in England.

The ſoil is various, in ſome places barren, and in others exceedingly pleaſant and fertile; particularly round the Bay of Fundy, and on the rivers which fall into it; there are large tracts of ground on both ſides of theſe rivers, for fifty or ſixty miles into the country, and ſeveral miles from the bay, which were once marſhy, but, by being dyked, are improved to great advantage. The eminences in this province are alſo very pleaſant and fruitful, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, peas, beans, hemp, flax, and ſome kinds of fruit in great perfection, as gooſeberries, raſberries, and ſtrawberries, which grow in the woods. Several parts yield fine timber, and particularly excellent oak fit for building of ſhips, with fir, ſpruce, birch, &c. It abounds with all the neceſſaries of life, particularly a great number of deer and other game, with plenty of wild fowl, as teals, herons, woodcocks, pigeons, buſtards, partridges, wild-ducks, and a great number of beavers and otters. The rivers abound with ſalmon and other kinds of river-fiſh. There are alſo ſeveral fiſheries erected in the different harbours, and carried on with great ſucceſs.

On the coaſt are many commodious bays, harbours, and creeks; and the land is enriched by many rivers, ſome of which are navigated for a long courſe by the native Indians. The harbour of Chebucto, upon which is ſeated Halifax the metropolis, may be juſtly eſteemed one of the fineſt in the world, both for ſafety and convenience, it having good anchoring-ground, and water ſufficient for the largeſt men of war. This is therefore made the place of rendezvous for the royal navy in America, it having a royal dock, and conveniences for the largeſt ſhips to heave down and careen. The entrance into it is from the ſouth, with a large iſland of an irregular form, lying on the north-eaſt ſide, named Cornwallis iſland, from the firſt governor of Halifax. This iſland, as well as a ſmaller one that lies higher up the harbour, named George iſland, is very commodiouſly ſituated for a fiſhery, and has conveniencies of all ſorts proper for drying and curing the fiſh.

The town of Halifax is ſeated on the weſt ſide of this harbour. Though founded ſo lately as the year 1749, it is now a conſiderable place, conſiſting of above one thouſand houſes, laid out in handſome ſtraight ſtreets, and is the capital of the whole province.

Annapolis is ſituated on a fine bay, a little ſouth of Fundy bay, in ſixty-four degrees odd minutes weſt longitude, and forty-five degrees of north latitude. It is well fortified, but requires a ſtronger garriſon to defend it than it has been furniſhed with of late years.

There are alſo ſeveral other towns laid out round the bay, and partly inhabited; but the moſt conſiderable ſettlements are upon the Bay of Fundy, and the rivers that fall into it.

About two miles up the harbour of Chebucto is a river on the ſouth-weſt ſide, with a ſmall harbour at its entrance. This river, which was called by the firſt ſettlers of Halifax, Sandwich-river, is at the mouth about as wide and deep as the Thames at London-bridge, and is ſalt water for about four or five miles up, when it terminates, where a ſmall freſh water rivulet falls into it from the north. From the mouth of Sandwich-river to the oppoſite ſide of the harbour, is about two miles, with good anchoring-ground for the largeſt ſhips in any part of it, and a fine watering-place on the north-eaſt ſide: the land on both ſides is exceeding high, but covered with wood. Four or five miles to the north of the above river, is a narrow entrance of half a mile, into Bedford-bay, which is about twelve miles in circumference, and has ſeveral creeks at the bottom of it, abounding with the fineſt ſalmon in the greateſt plenty: there are alſo ſeveral iſlands in it, and on the weſtern ſide of it grow a great number of pines fit for maſts. This bay, with the harbour, and Sandwich-river, divide the peninſula from the mainland.

There are ſeveral large rivers on the oppoſite ſhore, among which that of St. John is the moſt conſiderable. It is ten leagues diſtant from the Gut of Annapolis, and has a very long courſe; but has two prodigious cataracts near its mouth, one of them no leſs than thirty fathoms deep, which is ſuppoſed to be chiefly occaſioned by the great head of water above, and the channel being pent up between two ſteep mountains.

The inhabitants may be computed at about twenty thouſand, who export to other parts lumber, as planks, ſtaves, hoops, and joiſts, together with fiſh. The latter is, indeed, the ſtaple commodity, and employs a conſiderable number of hands.

The king of Great Britain, who is ſovereign of the ſoil, appoints the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and council, who form the upper-houſe; and the lower-houſe is formed of the repreſentatives of the people, who are choſen by the freeholders.

The province of Canada, which is the largeſt upon the continent, is bounded, on the north-eaſt, by the gulf of St. Lawrence and St. John's river; on the ſouth-weſt, by lands inhabited by the Indians; on the ſouthward, by the province of New York, New England, and Nova Scotia; and, on the weſtward, by lands claimed by the Indians. It is deemed five hundred miles in length, and two hundred in breadth.

The climate and ſoil vary; the parts beſt known, which lie towards the great river St. Lawrence, are cold to an exceſs in winter, though rather warm in ſummer. The reſt of the country, as far as it is known, is full of large woods, marſhes, lakes, mountains, and rivers, which render it ſtill colder. The lands, however, eſpecially in the interior parts, and about the lakes and rivers, are generally fertile, and capable of producing wheat, barley, rye, with many ſorts of grain, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives exceedingly, and is much cultivated.

Here are plenty of ſtags, elks, bears, foxes, martins, ferrets, weazles, ſquirrels, hares, rabbits, and other animals. The wild-cats are great enemies to the elk; and, notwithſtanding their being much inferior in ſize, often make a prey of him: for he has no other way to diſengage himſelf from them, but by plunging into the water. The ſkunk, which has been improperly called the pole-cat, but which it no ways reſembles, is called by the Indians the ſtinking beaſt, on account of its emitting a diſagreeable ſmell to a conſiderable diſtance, when purſued or diſturbed. It is about the ſize of a ſmall cat. The fur of this animal, with that of the ermin, otter, and martin, make up what is called the ſmall peltry. The ermin is about the ſize of the ſquirrel; its fur is extremely white, its tail long, and the tip of it as black as jet. The martin, or ſable, lives principally among the mountains, is as long as a common cat, but very ſlender; its fur is very fine and valuable. The muſk rat reſembles the beaver in every part, except its tail, which is round like that of a rat. One of theſe animals weighs about

five

five or six pounds. During the ſummer ſeaſon the male and female keep together, but ſeparate at the approach of winter, and each ſeeks a ſhelter in ſome hollow tree, without laying up any proviſions. The foxes here are of various colours, as black, grey, red, and white, who, by their craft and cunning, make great havock among the water-fowl in the lakes and rivers. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying ſquirrel will leap upwards of forty feet from one tree to another. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. The mountains abound with mines of coal and ſome metals.

The lakes are large and numerous: the chief are, Lake Superior, which is one hundred leagues in length, ſeventy broad, and contains ſeveral iſlands; the lakes Michiganor Illinois, Hurons, Ontario, Frontenac, Champlain, &c. Of the rivers, which are very numerous, the three principal are, the great river St. Lawrence, St. John's, Trois Rivieres. The bay of St. Lawrence is entered between Cape Retz, in Newfoundland, and Cape Breton, and after doubling Cape Roſe, you ſteer into the river of the ſame name. Towards the ſouth lie the bay and Point of Gaſpey; below this bay is a Steep, called the Pierced Iſland, from an aperture in its middle, through which a ſloop may paſs with her ſails up.

At a league diſtance from the Broad iſland lies the iſland Bonaventure, and at a league diſtance from that the iſland Miſcon, which has an excellent harbour, and is eight leagues in circumference. A ſpring of freſh water ſpouts up to a conſiderable height in the offing, not far from this iſland.

The next object that preſents itſelf in the river St. Lawernce is the iſland Anticoſti, and the current ſetting ſtrongly in upon it, renders the navigation here extremely dangerous, in caſe of a calm, eſpecially as the iſland is lined with breakers. This iſland is narrow, but lies in the middle of the river, and extends about forty leagues from north-eaſt to ſouth weſt. After paſſing this iſland, the navigation becomes more tolerable, but ſtill great precaution muſt be uſed. The mounts Notre Dame and Louis lie on the larboard ſide; near the latter are ſome plantations. The next point is Trinity Point, which muſt be avoided with great care. A little higher are the Paps of Montani, ſo called from the appearance of the mountain, ſituated about two leagues from the ſhore. The land in the neighbourhood is not only unprofitable, but frightful, being covered with rocks, ſands, and impenetrable thickets: it contains however plenty of game.

On the other ſide the river, and advancing two leagues into its bed, lies the ſhoal of Manicoagu, which is the moſt dangerous in the river: it is named from a river that falls from the mountains of Labrador, and otherwiſe called the river of St. Barnabas, and the Black River. From this to Green Iſland the navigation is ſlow and uncertain, and the ſhores uncomfortable and uninhabited.

Somewhat higher lies the river Saguenay, which carries ſhips twenty-five leagues above its mouth, where is an excellent harbour, called Tadouſſac; in ſailing from which, great care muſt be taken to avoid the Red Iſland, or Cape Rouge, which is a dangerous rock of that color, whoſe ſurface is equal to the water, and often proves fatal to ſhipping.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the lakes and rivers, particularly that of St. Lawrence, are ſea wolves, ſea cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea plaice, ſalmon trout, turtles, lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon, the achigau, and gilt head. The ſea wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature. His head reſembles that of a dog: he has four very ſhort legs, the fore ones of which have nails, but the hind ones terminate in fins. The largeſt weigh two thouſand pounds, and are of different colours. Their fleſh is good eating, but the profit of it lies in its oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather. Their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to crack. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea cow is larger than the ſea wolf, but reſembles it in figure. It has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the rivers breed crocodiles, which differ but little from thoſe of the Nile in Egypt.

There are not ſo many or ſuch varieties of birds in the foreſt of Canada, as there are fiſhes in the rivers and lakes. They contain, however, a great number of trees of different kinds whoſe appearance is both beautiful and awful.

When the French had poſſeſſion of Canada Proper, it was inhabited by one hundred and eighty thouſand people of that nation, who lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber for fuel or building, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. Their greateſt hardſhip was the cold, which is there ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow commonly lies two or three feet deep on the ground in the winter ſeaſon.

Montreal and Trois Rivieres are the principal places in this province. The former ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and almoſt four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. The French improved it ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. When the town was reduced by general Amherſt, it was of an oblong form, well peopled, and ſurrounded by a wall, with eleven redoubts, which ſerved inſtead of baſtions. The ſtreets are regular, the houſes good, the ditch eight feet deep, and the batteries of the fort command the ſtreets of the town.

The inland trade is with the Indian natives; and there is a ſpecies of traders, called Coureurs des bois, who carry on trade with nations unknown to all the world beſides. A fair is held in June at Montreal, to which Indians reſort from the diſtance of one hundred miles with peltry, and the other Indian commodities. This fair ſometimes laſts for three months. The reſort of ſavage nations to it is incredible; and great diſorders and tumults often happen, the Indians being ſo fond of brandy, that they ſometimes for a dram give the Coureurs des bois all they have in the world.

In the neighbourhood of this iſland, on which the town ſtands, is a great number of others, particularly that called the Iſle of Jeſus, which is about eight leagues in length and two in breadth: there are alſo ſeveral lakes; among others that of St. Louis, and that formed by the opening of the river Des Outaonais, or the Great River, into the river St. Lawrence. On the banks of the laſt of theſe rivers likewiſe, not far from Montreal, are two villages of Iroquois Chriſtians; one called La Montagne, and the other Sault St. Louis.

Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, has its name from three rivers, which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one St. Lawrence. This town gives name to a diſtrict, and ſtands about thirty leagues up the river St. Lawrence from Quebec. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations that come down thoſe rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furs, and the country about it is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. A great number of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers.

There are ſeveral other places of note in this province, the chief of which are, Gaſpé, Jean Iſle, Miſcon Iſle, Richelieu Iſles, Iſle Conti, St. François, Notre Dame des Anges, St. Alexis, St. Michael, St. Joſeph, Forts Frontenac, Detroit, Michilacinimenac and Niagara, near which is the famous cataract above deſcribed.

Saguenay province takes its name from a river ſo called, and contains Quebec, the capital of Canada, ſeated about three hundred miles north of Boſton in New England. This is a handſome and large city, ſtrongly fortified. The harbour is flanked with two baſtions, which at high tides are almoſt level with the water. A little above one of them is a demi-baſtion, which is partly taken out of the rock; and above it, on the ſide of the gallery of the fort, is a battery of twenty-five pieces of cannon; above this a ſquare fort called the citadel, and the ways from one fortification to another are difficult to paſs. To the left of the harbour, on the ſide of the road, are large batteries of cannon, and ſome mortars. It is encompaſſed with walls, and has a caſtle on the brow of a hill, about forty fathoms above the town; but it is irregularly built, and fortified with only two baſtions, and no ditch towards the town. It has alſo another fort at Cape Diamond of ſolid rock, four hundred fathoms high, and therefore owes its greateſt ſtrength to nature.

The firſt place taken notice of upon landing here is a ſquare of an irregular figure, with well built houſes on one ſide; on the back of which is a rock; on the left it is bounded by a ſmall church, and on the right has two rows of houſes parallel to each other: there is another betweeen the church and the harbour; as alſo another long row on the ſide of the bay. This is called the Lower Town, and is moſtly inhabited by merchants, but it is too much crouded. Between this and the Upper Town is a very ſteep aſcent, in which are ſteps for the foot paſſengers to go up. This has noble edifices, and between two large ſquares is a fort in which the governor reſides. Oppoſite the fort the Recollects have handſome houſes, and on the right is the cathedral, which is built in a mean ſtile, but has a large, high, and well built tower, that may be ſeen at a great diſtance. Over-againſt this is the Jeſuits college, which is a fine building, and between the cathedral and the college are well built houſes. The houſe of the knights hoſpitallers is a ſtately ſtructure, with two fine pavilions. In the ſecond ſquare are two deſcents to the river of St. Charles; an hoſpital called Hotel-Dieu is in the mid-way, and from thence are ſmaller houſes, which reach to that



A View of QUEBEC the Capital of Canada, in North America.

Roberts sculp.

that of the intendant. On the other ſide of the jeſuits college is a pretty long ſtreet, in which is a nunnery. Almoſt all the houſes are built of ſtone, and there are above ſeven thouſand inhabitants. Beſides the Lower and Higher towns, there is another beyond the latter, on the banks of the river St. Charles, along which are ſeveral noble country ſeats In 1711 the Engliſh fitted out a fleet with a deſign to reduce Quebec; but the expedition failed from the raſhneſs of the admiral, who, contrary to the advice of his pilot, ſailed too near the Seven Iſles, and thus loſt his largeſt ſhips, with three thouſand of his beſt ſailors. But it was attacked with much better ſucceſs in 1759, when the brave general Wolfe, who commanded the Britiſh forces, and M. de Montcalm, the French general, were both ſlain. After the battle, in which the French loſt near two thouſand men, killed and taken priſoners, the place ſurrendered to the Engliſh, and has been ever ſince that time in their poſſeſſion.

Between Quebec and Montreal, in ſailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees, and in others crowded with villages, of which there are alſo many on the iſlands, wherewith the channel of the river is interſperſed. After paſſing the Richlieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported into a different climate.

The moſt conſiderable of the Canadian tribes of Indians at preſent are, the Iroquois, the Hurons, Miamis, Nokes, Outamanis, Outagamis, Sakis, Illinois, Oubaches, Otters or Loutres, Savannois, Sionx, Aſſiniboils, and Chriſtinaux. The ſeven laſt live towards the north weſt, about the rivers Miſſouri and Oubache, and about Lake Superior and Aſſiniboil. To the north of the iſland of Montreal the country is thinly peopled; but a few villages belonging to the inhabitants are to be met with, among which are thoſe belonging to the Nepiſſings, ſo called from a lake of that name; theſe are the true deſcendants of the Algonquins, and ſtill preſerve the purity of that language. The French eſtabliſhed ſome ports on the banks of Lake Superior, where they traded with the Chriſtinaux and Aſſiniboils. In ſhort, a traveller can know very little more of this country than a man may learn by an inſpection of the map. He may wander one thouſand miles on the banks of the fineſt lakes and rivers in the world, without meeting with a human creature, and thoſe he does meet with are generally ſo ſtupid, cruel, barbarous, or ſhy, that they ſcarcely deſerve that denomination. Moſt of them ſubſiſt by fiſhing and hunting, and appear to be void of all notions of agriculture.

In this northern corner of America are ſome almoſt unknown diſtricts, which go under the name of New Britain, or the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, &c. It is bounded on the ſouth by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the weſt by unknown lands, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and Baffin's bay, and on the north by unknown lands towards the north pole.

In this country the mountains are very high towards the north, which being perpetually covered with ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, are the chief occaſion of that exceſſive cold which is found on this continent under the ſame parallels of latitude. The winter generally commences in September, and continues till June; during moſt of that time the ſnow lies very deep upon the ground, and the rivers are frozen eight or nine feet thick. The country about fort Nelſon is a low marſhy ſoil, producing juniper, birch, poplar, a ſmall wood of the ſpruce, &c. The lands near the ſouth end of the bay produce large timber, and plenty of herbage, and no doubt would produce corn, if cultivated.

Terra de Labrador is ſituated on the ſouthern coaſt of Hudſon's ſtraights: the ſoil here is much of the ſame nature as that on the weſtern ſide of the bay. This country is of a triangular form, extends from the fiftieth to the ſixty-third degree of north latitude, and from the fifty-firſt to the ſeventy-ninth degree of weſt longitude, and is inhabited by ſome tribes of Eſquimaux Indians, who have neither towns, villages, or ſettled habitations, but are numerous, miſchievous, treacherous, and cowardly. They exchange furs for kettles, pots, knives, and other kinds of hard-ware. They ſubſiſt chiefly by hunting and fiſhing, as their country abounds in great variety of wild and tame quadrupeds, fowls, &c. and the ſeas and rivers afford plenty of fiſh. The Indians of all ſorts, inhabiting the country about Hudſon's bay, lead a wandering life, ſeldom remaining more than a week or two in a place.

The Engliſh Hudſon's bay company have ſeveral forts and ſettlements on this coaſt, the principal of which at preſent are, Forts Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn and Albany, on the weſt ſide of the bay: and they had formerly Forts Charles and Rupert at the bottom of the bay. The Engliſh, in theſe factories, kill beef, pork, mutton, and veniſon at the beginning of the winter, and theſe are preſerved by the froſt ſix or ſeven months free from putrefaction; geeſe alſo, partridges, and other fowls killed at the ſame time, are hung up with their feathers and entrails, yet hold good all the winter. In lakes and ſtanding waters, which are not ten feet deep, the water is frozen to the bottom, and the fiſh killed; but in waters of greater depth, and in rivers near the ſea, the fiſh are caught all the winter by cutting holes in the ice, to which they come for air. As ſoon as they are taken out of the water, they are immediately frozen and ſtiff, but may be thawed again by being immerſed in cold water; and thus the ſalt proviſions are thawed and freſhened here: the meat is let down through a hole in the ice into the water, and in a little time it becomes ſoft and pliable, as if it never had been frozen, and eats very well; whereas roaſted or boiled, while frozen, it will be ſpoiled, and eat as if it was rotten.

There is no want of food about Hudſon's bay at any time of the year. In April come the geeſe, buſtards, and ducks, of which they kill as many as they pleaſe. About the ſame time they take great numbers of rein deer, and theſe do not return to the north till July or Auguſt. In ſummer they alſo take pike, trout, carp, and other fiſh; and all manner of wild fowl return again in the beginning of winter.

There have been ſometimes a thouſand Indian men, and ſome women, who have come down to Port Nelſon in ſix hundred canoes to trade with the Engliſh: many of them come from far diſtant countries. Theſe Indians are of a tawny complexion, and not ſo fair as thoſe in Labrador, nor of ſuch large robuſt bodies, but much more gentle and tractable.

In ſummer they wear ſcarcely any cloaths, but anoint themſelves with bears greaſe, or the oil of ſeals, which, it is ſaid, prevents their being ſtung by muſquetoes, or bit by bugs or other inſects; but thoſe in Labrador go always cloathed. In winter the ſouthern Eſquimaux Indians cloath themſelves with beaver ſkins, which they oil and greaſe in the ſame manner as they do their own ſkins in ſummer, which prevents the cold penetrating them, and have a kind of buſkins on their legs, and ſhoes of deer ſkins: they uſe alſo beaver ſkins and furs for their beds and coverings in the night.

We ſhall now give ſome account of the riſe and progreſs of the diſſentions which unhappily ſubſiſted between England and America. Theſe originated in New England, on the Britiſh parliament impoſing ſtamp duties on all papers and parchments made uſe of in law proceedings, and in money tranſactions between man and man in the year 1765. This act being repealed the following year, cauſed the general ferment to ſubſide; but in the year 1769 it revived with accumulated force, on freſh internal taxes being laid, particularly a duty of three-pence per pound on all teas.

The provincial aſſembly had for ſome years been on ill terms with Mr. Barnard, the governor of the province, and he being now recalled, was ſucceeded by general Gage; and a body of forces, amounting to about two thouſand men, which ſailed from Ireland and Halifax, arrived ſoon after. But neither the new governor, who was known and reſpected in the province, was capable of allaying the ferment, nor the appearance of the troops could overawe that ſpirit of oppoſition which was gone forth. A general confederacy of all the old colonies, from New England to South Carolina, took place, and aſſociations were every where entered into, for the purpoſe of breaking off all commercial intercourſe with the mother country.

A general congreſs, compoſed of deputies from each independent county, met at Philadelphia, which the authority of the governors of the reſpective colonies was not able to controul. The right of Great Britain to levy internal taxes on that continent was denied, and the ſecurity of every man's property was conſidered as loſt by the Britiſh parliament claiming ſuch a power. Petitions, remonſtrances, and addreſſes were tranſmitted to England, couched in the moſt reſpectful terms of allegiance, expreſſive of their earneſt wiſhes to be allowed to levy money for the uſes of government by their reſpective provincial aſſemblies, and not by taxes levied in an aſſembly to which they ſent no repreſentatives, and in which they had no weight of intereſt.

About the middle of December, 1773, ſome ſhips laden with tea being at Boſton (as a duty was to be paid) the people would not ſuffer it to be landed. The ſhips being refuſed a clearance by the governor, unleſs the cargoes were landed, and properly diſpoſed of, a mob, dreſſed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ſhips which contained the tea, and emptied their cargoes, conſiſting of three hundred and forty-two cheſts of tea, into the water. This and other outrages occaſioned the Boſton port bill, paſſed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boſton was proſcribed and blocked up.

Much time was afterwards ſpent in fruitleſs negotiation; but in 1775 open hoſtilities commenced: the American congreſs declared the Britiſh ſettlements independent ſtates, and the province of Georgia, acceding to the alliance, they aſſumed the title of the Thirteen United Colonies of America. They for

ſome time made head againſt a powerful army ſent out from Great Britain, which was ſtrengthened by a large body of Heſſians, the whole under the command of general Howe, whilſt between eighty and ninety frigates of different ſizes were ſtationed along the coaſt, and ſome ſhips of the line rendezvouſed at New York.

The firſt blood that was drawn in this unhappy quarrel was in a ſkirmiſh at Lexington, about three miles from the town of Cambridge, in the year 1775, when the king's troops were driven back to Boſton with conſiderable loſs. The next action was that of Bunker's Hill, in the ſame year, when the Britiſh troops had upwards of one thouſand men killed and wounded; among the former was more than a proportionable number of officers.

In 1776, Sir William Howe made a deſcent on Long Iſland, which he ſubdued, and which the king's troops retained poſſeſſion of till the concluſion of the war.

In October, 1777, a combined army of Britiſh and Heſſians, amounting to three thouſand five hundred men, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the Americans under general Gates at Saratoga, a ſmall fort ſituated about fifty miles north of Albany, on the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's river.

Early in 1778, theſe newly erected ſtates entered into a treaty of commerce, and another of defenſive alliance with the French king, who thereby acknowledged their claim of independence.

The war was proſecuted with various ſucceſs till October, 1781, when the Britiſh army, under lord Cornwallis, being in want of neceſſaries, much harraſſed by fatigue, weakened even by victories, and reduced to the ſmall number of three thouſand five hundred effective men that were fit for duty, were obliged to ſurrender on the 30th of the ſame month to the arms of France and America. This proved a fatal ſtroke to the Britiſh arms and intereſt in America, and caſt ſuch a gloom over the ſtate of affairs in that quarter of the world, as to occaſion an addreſs, petition and remonſtrance from the city of London, requeſting his majeſty "to relinquiſh entirely, and for ever, the plan of reducing their American brethren by force." This was ſucceeded by a vote of the houſe of commons on February 27, 1782, for an addreſs to his majeſty to the ſame effect; the prayer of which was complied with, and his majeſty was empowered by parliament to conclude a peace with the revolted colonies.

Accordingly, at the enſuing ſeſſions, on the 5th of December in the ſame year, his majeſty, in a ſpeech delivered from the throne, announced the offer he had made, to declare America independent, and that proviſional articles were agreed upon; which being ſigned on the part of France, were followed by the preliminaries of a peace between Great Britain, France and Spain, dated January 20, 1783, and on the 14th of February next enſuing, a ceſſation of hoſtilities was declared between all the belligerent powers. By the treaty of peace propoſed to be concluded between the crown of Great Britain and America, "his Britannic majeſty acknowledges the United States, viz. New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's Bay, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates; treats with them as ſuch; and for himſelf, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhes all claim to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. The United States are alſo by the ſaid treaty allowed to take fiſh on the Banks of Newfoundland, the gulf of St. Lawrence, &c. as heretofore. Though America rejected the idea of a ſeparate peace, ſhe acceded to the terms which admitted her independency, whereby the antient and valuable colonies were diſſevered from Britain for ever. Such was the ever-to-be-regretted concluſion of this unfortunate conteſt, that coſt ſo much blood and treaſure to theſe kingdoms. A judicious writer obſerves, that the American debt makes forty millions of dollars, at four ſhillings and ſixpence each, being nine millions four hundred and fifty thouſand pounds; the annual intereſt of which, at ſix per cent. is five hundred and forty-three thouſand ſix hundred pounds; ſo that the Americans have obtained their purpoſe of independence, and gone through the whole ſeven years war for about one half the ſum of money that one year of the ſame war coſt England.

SECT. III.

Containing Deſcriptions of OLD and NEW-MEXICO, CALIFORNIA, LOUISIANA, and EAST and WEST FLORIDA; their Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THE rich and extenſive country of Old Mexico, or New Spain, was once a mighty empire, ruled by its own monarchs, till the Spaniards, by whom it was firſt diſcovered in 1598, afterwards conquered it under the command of Fernando Cortez. It lies between ſeven degrees thirty minutes, and thirty degrees forty minutes north latitude, is two thouſand miles long, ſix hundred broad where wideſt, has the iſthmus of Darien on the ſouth, New Mexico on the north, the gulf of Mexico on the eaſt, and the ocean on the weſt. It is divided into the audiences of Guadalajara, Mexico and Guatimala, and is governed by a viceroy.

Mexico, conſidering its ſituation in the torrid zone, enjoys a temperate air. The rainy ſeaſon begins at the latter end of April, and continues till September, being preceded by terrible ſtorms, which are ſo variegated, that the wind blows from almoſt every point of the heavens, increaſing daily in fury till the month of June, at which time the rain falls as if a ſecond deluge were to enſue.

No country under heaven abounds more with grain, delicious fruits, roots, and vegetables; many of which are peculiar to it, or at leaſt to America. Of theſe the moſt remarkable are, bamboos, mangroves, and logwood, which grow on the coaſts; red and white cotton trees, cedars, blood wood, and maho, of which the natives make ropes and cables; light wood, of which they make floats, being as light as cork; whitewood, the cabbage tree, the calabaſh, cacao, and venella, which the Spaniards call beſuco or bainilla; plantains, bananas, pine-apples, ſapadillo, avogato pear, mammee, mammee-ſapota, grape, prickle, babby, and other curious fruit trees; beſides which the Spaniards have introduced moſt of the European fruits. This country alſo produces the poiſonous manchineel apple, gourds of a prodigious ſize, melons, ſilk graſs, tamarinds, and locuſt trees, the little black, white, and borachio ſapotoe trees, the laſt of which takes its name from the inebriating quality of the fruit. Here are alſo the grenadillo de chine, creeping plant, and the may-hey, which furniſhes the natives with thread for linen and cordage; and alſo a balſam and liquor, which, when fermented, is as pleaſant and ſtrong as wine; a ſtrong liquor, not unlike brandy, is alſo diſtilled from this.

There is alſo found in Mexico balſam of Peru, guaiacum, china root, ſarſaparilla, and the root mechoacan, which are well known to druggiſts and apothecaries, and of excellent uſe in a variety of diſtempers. Other valuable productions of New Spain are, copal, aninie, tacamahaca, caranica, liquid amber, and oil of amber. Beſides the maiz or native grain of Mexico, the Spaniards have introduced the uſe of barley, wheat, peas, beans, and other grain.

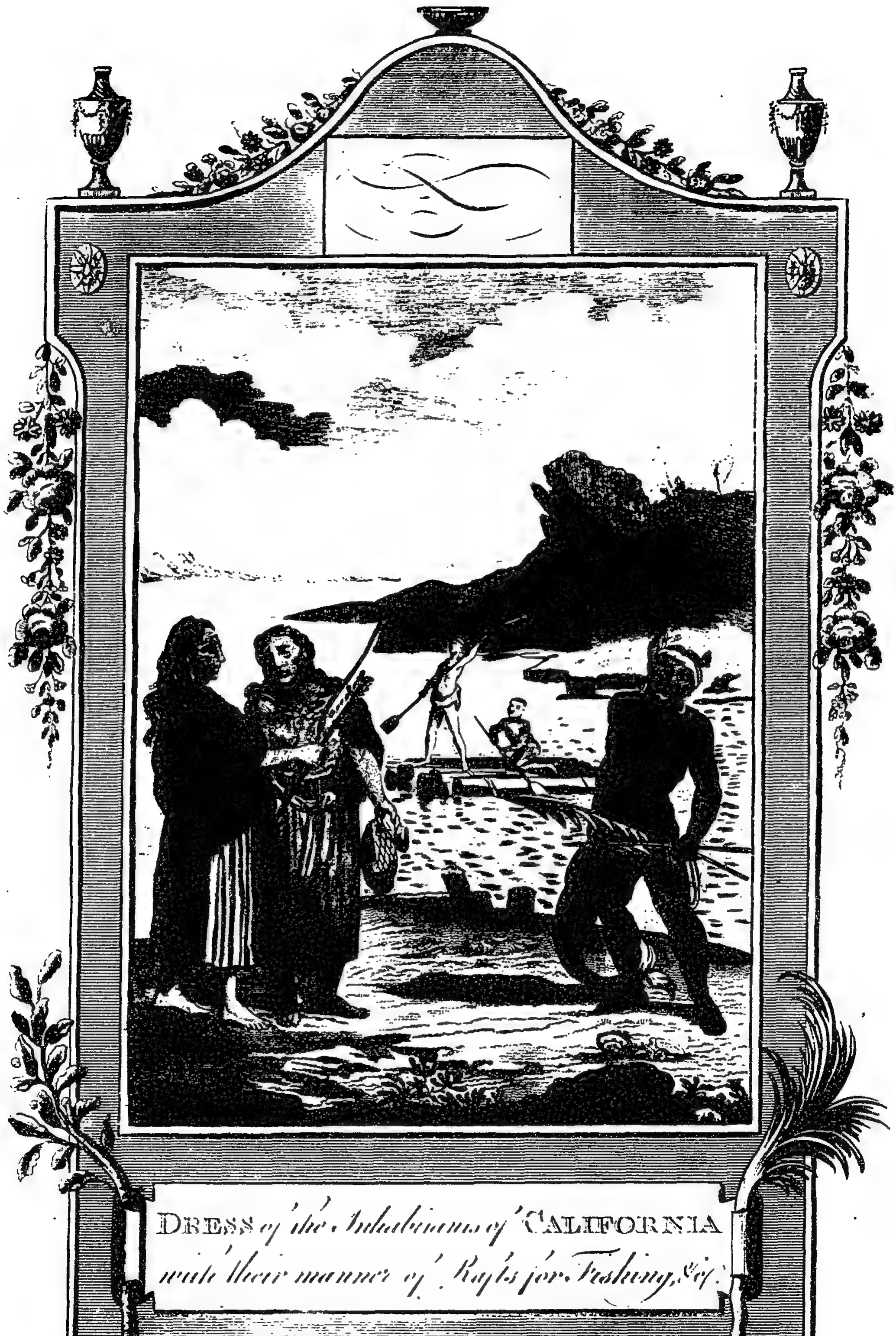
The beaſts, birds, inſects, reptiles, &c. are much the ſame as in Peru.

On the weſtern coaſt of New Spain, near the Pacific Ocean, are ſome high mountains, moſt of which are ſaid to be volcanoes. Several rivers riſe in theſe mountains, and fall, ſome into the gulf of Mexico, and ſome into the South Sea, on both of which there are ſeveral capes and bays. The bays of Campeachy and Honduras are among thoſe on the gulph.

In the rocky, barren parts of the country are the gold and ſilver mines. There are, it is ſaid, ſeveral of the former, and no fewer than one thouſand of the latter. Gold is alſo found in grains or duſt in the ſands of rivers and torrents. Whoever diſcovers a mine of gold or ſilver, is at liberty to work it, paying the king a tenth of the product, and limiting himſelf within fifty yards round the place upon which he has fixed. All the ſilver and gold dug, or found in grains, is entered in the royal exchequer; and it is reported, that notwithſtanding great quantities are run and concealed, no leſs than two millions of ſilver marks, weighing eight ounces each, are entered yearly, out of which they coin ſeven hundred thouſand marks into pieces of eight, quarter pieces, ryals, and half pieces, the latter being about three-pence ſterling value.

Their chief commodities are gold and ſilver, exquiſite marble, porphyry, jaſper, precious ſtones, pearls, amber, ginger, tobacco, hides, tallow, ſalt, dying woods, drugs, balſams, honey, feathers, chocolate, cochineal, ſilk, ſugar, cotton, wool. The whole of the trade between Old Spain and the Spaniſh American dominions, is by means of a fleet, called the Flota, which is fitted out at Cadiz, and deſtined to La Vera Cruz. The ſhips are not permitted to break bulk on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. There is another fleet, which carries on all the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello, in the ſame manner as the Flota ſerves for New Spain. When the flota arrives at the Havannah, and joins the galleons and regiſter ſhips, which aſſemble at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing veſſels are diſpatched to Old Spain with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety, and what indulto or duty is proper to be laid on them.

The merchants at Cadiz and Seville ſend out regiſter ſhips, when



DRESS of the Inhabitants of CALIFORNIA with their manner of Rafts for Fishing, &c.

Thornton sculp.

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when they judge that goods muſt be wanted at any particular ports in the Weſt-Indies. Their way is, to petition the council of the Indies for a licence to ſend a ſhip of three hundred tons burden or under, to that port: they pay for this licence forty or fifty dollars, beſides preſents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance neceſſary for the deſign; for though the licence runs only to three hundred tons at moſt, the veſſel fitted out is ſeldom leſs than ſix hundred. This ſhip and cargo are regiſtered at the pretended burden: it is required too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at the port to which ſhe is bound, that ſhe does not exceed the ſize at which ſhe is regiſtered. The trade of Spaniſh America has been carried on for ſome years paſt by theſe veſſels, called regiſter ſhips.

The inhabitants of this country are at preſent a mixed people, conſiſting of Indians, Spaniards, and other Europeans; and the Creoles, Meſtichoes, or iſſue of the Spaniards by Americans; the Meſtiches, or the iſſue of ſuch iſſue; the Terceroons dez Indies, or the children of the laſt, married to Spaniards; and the Quarteroons dez Indies, whoſe deſcendants are allowed the ſame privileges as true Spaniards. The negroes are likewiſe pretty numerous, being imported from the coaſt of Africa for various purpoſes, and many of them admitted to their freedom. The iſſue of an European and a negro conſtitutes another diſtinction, called Mulatto; beſides which, there is a mixed breed of negroes and Indians, which is generally deemed the loweſt rank.

Some tribes of Indians, both in the open country and the mountains, ſtill preſerve their freedom; but moſt of them are ſubject to the Spaniards, and have embraced the popiſh religion. Among the free Indians are thoſe on the Muſquito ſhore, where the Engliſh have ſome ſettlements, and a governor; theſe Indians being implacable enemies to the Spaniards, but firm friends and allies to the Engliſh.

The native Indians are in general tall, clean, well proportioned, and handſome: their complexion is a deep olive, and both ſexes have long, black, lank, coarſe hair on their heads; but they ſuffer none on the other parts of their bodies: ſome tribes eſteem flat noſes as a great beauty. Almoſt all the Mexicans paint their bodies with the figures of various birds and beaſts, and anoint them with oil or fat. Some tribes are cloathed; but the men of others go almoſt naked. The Mexicans, in general, have their noſes, lips, ears, necks, and arms, adorned with pearls, and other jewels or trinkets, made of gold, ſilver, or ſome other metal. The free Indians are ſaid to be a brave, generous, humane people, except in the article of humane ſacrifices; but the others are become cruel, treacherous, cowardly, mean, thieviſh, and altogether vicious. Beſides all the domeſtic offices, the women ſpin, weave, and dreſs cotton and linen cloths, for their own and their huſbands apparel. Though the free Indians diſcover a great veneration for the ſun and moon, they have no image of them, but a great many of human form. They cultivate but little ſoil, and live chiefly by hunting and fiſhing.

With reſpect to the Spaniards of Mexico, we are told, that the clergy, both ſecular and regular, rival the quality in their dreſs and luxurious way of living: they drink, game, ſwear, wench, and make a jeſt of their vows of poverty, many of them getting money enough to return to Old Spain, and purchaſe biſhoprics. A prieſt, who has but an ordinary cure in Mexico, frequently lays up ten or twelve thouſand crowns in ten years; is able to live plentifully all the time, while he is highly reverenced by the common people. The laity are repreſented to be an extremely bigotted and lewd people; a preſent to the church wipes off the odium of the greateſt crimes; and the people are inſtructed in their religion here by plays and theatrical entertainments in the churches, as in old Spain.

The principal places are, 1. Mexico, which ſtands in the middle of a great lake of its own name, in latitude nineteen degrees forty minutes; about one hundred and ſeventy miles weſt of the gulf of Mexico. This city, in point of regularity, exceeds all others in the univerſe; the ſtreets being ſo ſtrait, and exactly diſpoſed, that from any part, the whole is viſible. The want of gates, walls, and artillery, together with the five great cauſe-ways leading to the city, renders Mexico extremely remarkable. All the buildings are convenient; but the public edifices, eſpecially the churches and convents, are magnificent. The income of the grand cathedral amounts to near eighty thouſand pounds ſterling per annum, out of which the archbiſhop has fifteen thouſand pounds, beſides vaſt ſums ariſing from perquiſites. The number of the inhabitants is computed at three hundred thouſand, who are ſaid to draw annually from the mines above ten millions of money, without reckoning the vaſt ſums ſecreted, in order to defraud the king of his rights; yet, with theſe almoſt incredible treaſures, the people may be reckoned poor, as moſt of them live beyond their fortunes, and terminate a life of profuſion in the moſt wretched indigence. A prodigious quantity of jewels, gold and ſilver plate, and toys, together with the moſt valuable commodities of Europe and Aſia, are expoſed to ſale in the ſtreets.

2. The town of Acapulco is ſituated about two hundred and ten miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico, in ſeventeen degrees north latitude on a bay of the South Sea. The haven is large and commodious, and the entrance ſecured by a flat iſland running acroſs, at each end of which is a deep channel, ſufficiently broad for the greateſt veſſels. The only inconvenience is, that ſhips muſt enter by the ſea-wind, and go out by the land-breeze, which ſeldom fail to ſucceed each other alternately, ſo that they are frequently blown off to ſea, after repeated attempts to make the harbour. The town is large, but ill built; a part of it conſiſts of warehouſes. During the fair, after the arrival of the Lima and Manilla ſhips, the town is ſo exceſſively crowded, that great numbers are obliged to pitch tents in the neighbourhood for their accommodation. It is ſuppoſed that the Manilla galleon carries off from Acapulco at leaſt ten millions of dollars, in return for the goods ſhe brings thither, and for the payment of the Spaniſh garriſons in the Philippine iſles. The climate here is unhealthy, and the earthquakes very common.

The town of Vera Cruz, or Ulva, ſtands near the gulf of Mexico, about ſeventy leagues from the capital. It is very ſtrong, both by nature and art, being the great mart of all the Spaniſh trade in the north ſea, and has a ſafe commodious harbour. Few Spaniards of diſtinction reſide here, on account of the inſalubrity of the air.

The province of New Mexico, including California, is two thouſand miles long, and one thouſand ſix hundred broad; it is bounded on the eaſt by Louiſiana, on the ſouth by New Spain, on the weſt by the gulf of California, and on the north by high mountains. This country, though pleaſant and healthy, is but little cultivated, and thinly inhabited. It has ſeveral rivers, many ports and creeks; and the Indian tribes, who inhabit it, live diſtinct from each other. Many of the natives are Chriſtians.

The town of Santa Fé ſtands near the ſource of Rio del Norte, in thirty-ſix degrees north latitude, and about one hundred and thirty leagues from the gulf: it is a well built, handſome, rich town, and the ſeat of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as of the governor of the province, who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Mexico.

The peninſula of California, the moſt northern of all the Spaniſh dominions on the continent of America, extends from the north coaſts of America into the Pacific ocean eight hundred miles from cape Sebaſtian, in forty-three degrees thirty minutes north latitude, towards the ſouth-eaſt as far as cape St. Lucar, in twenty-two degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude. The eaſtern coaſt lies nearly parallel with that of Mexico, oppoſite to it; and the ſea between is called the lake or gulf of California. Its breadth is very unequal; towards the north it is near two hundred miles, but at the ſouth extremity it tapers away, and is ſcarcely fifty miles over. The more ſouthern part was known to the Spaniards ſoon after the diſcovery of Mexico; for Cortez diſcovered it in 1535; but they did not till lately penetrate far into it, contenting themſelves with the pearl fiſhery there.

Several kinds of fruit are produced here; there are two ſpecies of deer peculiar to this country; alſo a particular breed of ſheep, buffaloes, beavers, or animals much reſembling them; a peculiar ſpecies of wild dogs, lions, wild cats, and many other wild beaſts. The horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, ſheep, hogs, goats, and other quadrupeds that have been imported hither from Spain and Mexico, multiply exceedingly. Of the two ſpecies of deer peculiar to California, that called taye by the natives is greatly eſteemed, and its fleſh as well taſted as veniſon. The coaſt is plentifully ſtocked with peacocks, buſtards, geeſe, cranes, vultures, gulls, cormorants, mews, quails, linnets, larks, nightingales, and many other ſpecies of birds. There is alſo a great multitude and variety of fiſh in the gulf of California, the Pacific ocean, and the rivers. Though inſects ſwarm here, as in moſt hot countries, yet on account of the dryneſs of the ſoil and climate, they are neither noxious nor troubleſome. There is one of the richeſt pearl fiſheries in the world on the coaſt of California, and there are ſuppoſed to be mines in the country.

In California are two conſiderable rivers, namely, Rio Collorado, and Rio du Carmel, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams, and fine ports, bays, creeks, and roads, both on the eaſt and weſt ſide, which is the reaſon of its having been ſo much frequented by the Engliſh privateers. There are, in the heart of the country, plains of ſalt quite firm, and clear as cryſtal.

A great variety of ſavage tribes inhabit California. Thoſe that live on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula are great enemies to the Spaniards; but, in the other parts, they ſeem to be very hoſpitable to all ſtrangers. The inland country, eſpecially towards the north, is populous. The Indians reſemble thoſe deſcribed in other parts of America. Their boats are only rafts, &c. Their arms are, bows, arrows, and jagged clubs. They have a great many abſurd, ridiculous cuſtoms, opinions, and ſuperſtitions. They go almoſt naked, and pay great defe-

rence

rence to their prieſts, who pretend to be magicians and phyſicians. All their houſhold furniture and property conſiſts of the implements uſed in fiſhing, hunting, or war, in which moſt of their time is ſpent.

The province of Louiſiana is bounded by the Miſſiſſippi on the weſt, and by Eaſt Florida, Georgia and Carolina on the eaſt, and extends from the lake of the Illinois, or rather from the ſource of the Miſſiſſippi on the north, to the gulph of Mexico on the ſouth.

This is a very pleaſant fruitful country, being watered by a number of rivers, the frequent overflowings of which contribute not a little to its fertility. Nothing is more delightful than the meadows, which are fit for ſeed of all kinds. In ſome parts the ſoil yields three or four crops in the year; for the winter conſiſts only in heavy rains, without any nipping froſts. Almoſt all ſorts of the trees of Europe are to be found here, beſides a variety of others unknown to us, and ſome of them of great value, as lofty cedars, that diſtil a gum, which is ſaid to excel all the nobleſt European perfumes; and cotton trees, which are of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with a great variety of game, fowl, cattle, and other uſeful creatures and productions.

The town of New Orleans is ſituated between the eaſtern ſhore of the Miſſiſſippi and the Fiſh river, near the lakes Pontchaſtrain and Maurepas, and about eighteen leagues from the ſea. It is a pretty large handſome town, but ſubject to moſt ruinous inundations; beſides, the navigation between it and the ſea is ſo very difficult, that none but ſmall veſſels and flat-bottomed boats can get up to it, there being a ſhelf that lies between the mouth of the river, where there is not above ten feet water. It is ſaid that the channel of it is twice as large as that of the Seine, keeping the ſame breadth all along, and that the ſtream is rapid.

Louiſiana was ceded to the Engliſh in 1763, but as it conſtitutes the greateſt part of the government of Weſt Florida, which, by the treaty of 1783, the Spaniards are to retain; this country is conſequently now ſubject to the crown of Spain.

The laſt countries we are to deſcribe on this continent are Eaſt and Weſt Florida, which are five hundred miles in length, four hundred and forty in breadth; having the gulf of Mexico to the ſouth, the Apalachian mountains and great lakes to the north, Georgia to the eaſt, and the Atlantic ocean to the weſt. Florida was firſt diſcovered by Cabot, a Venetian mariner in the ſervice of England. It had its name from its verdure, being certainly a very fine country.

The air is wholeſome, as evidently appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridan Indians, in all which reſpects they far exceed the Mexicans. The ſoil, except on the ſea coaſt, is rich and fertile, producing frequently two or three crops of Indian corn in the year; and might, with proper cultivation, be brought to bear every ſort of grain. Here are all kinds of timber and fruit trees, eſpecially pines, laurels, palms, cedar, cypreſs, and cheſnut trees, which grow to an extraordinary length and ſize, and, with the oaks, afford nouriſhment to ſwine; but the wood moſt prized, and in greateſt plenty, is the ſaſſafras, of which conſiderable quantities are exported. Excellent limes and prunes alſo grow here in great abundance, with vines of various ſorts, and cotton trees, hemp, flax, pulſe, roots, and herbs; game, fowl, and fiſh, are alſo very plentiful. The root mendihoca, of which the caſſava flour and bread are made, is very common; and there is a kind of grain, like our oats, that ſhoots up ſpontaneouſly in marſhy places, and by the ſides of rivers. Here is a fruit called tuna, ſo exquiſite and wholſome when ripe, that among the Europeans it goes by the name of the ardial julep. Excellent beef, veal, and mutton, are the produce of the country, together with horſes fit for draught and carriage, ſo cheap, that they may be purchaſed for the value of a crown in European commodities. The other products of Florida are ambergris, cochineal, indigo, ſilk graſs, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, iron ore, and a kind of ſtone pitch called copea, which the Spaniards uſed as tar for their ſhipping: on the coaſt pearls are alſo found.

The moſt conſiderable mountains are the Apalachian, which divide Carolina and the other American plantations from Florida. A vaſt number of noble rivers interſect this country, moſt of which riſe in the mountains above-mentioned, and fall into the gulf of Mexico, or the Atlantic ocean: the chief are the Miſſiſſippi, Ohio, Coza, or Couſſa, and the river St. John. The Miſſiſſippi, which the French call St. Louis, is in many reſpects the fineſt river in the world. It runs a very long courſe, is navigable within ſixty leagues of its ſource, and free from ſhoals and cataracts.

The principal European ſettlement in Eaſt Florida is St. Auguſtine, ſtanding on the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula, about ſeventy leagues from the gulf of Florida and channel of Bahama, thirty ſouth of the river Alatamaha, or Alatamacha, and forty-ſeven from the town and river of Savannah. It is ſituated in latitude thirty north, and lies along the ſhore at the bottom of a hill, in the form of a parallelogram, the ſtreets cutting each other at right angles. The port is formed by an iſland and a long point of land, almoſt divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the ſea two miles ſouth of the town. The entrance into the port lies between the iſland and the point of land, and is about one mile and a quarter over, but very ſhallow, as is indeed moſt part of the coaſt of Florida. About a mile to the northward of the town ſtands the caſtle, defended by four baſtions, and is pretty ſtrong.

St. Matthio is the next place to St. Auguſtine, being ſituated fifteen leagues to the north of it towards Georgia. Mr. Rolles, a member of the Britiſh parliament, had a ſettlement on the river St. John; and at Moſquito harbour, not far from the channel of Bahama, another ſettlement was formerly eſtabliſhed here by one Dr. Trummel.

Mobille and Penſacola were the chief places belonging to the Engliſh in Eaſt Florida and Penſacola. The firſt is but a ſmall place, lying on the river of that name, about one hundred miles from its mouth, and ſeventy from the Miſſiſſippi. Penſacola, ſtands on the weſt ſide of the bay to which it gives name, about ten leagues from Dauphin iſle, at the mouth of the river Mobille. The harbour is the beſt upon all this coaſt of the gulf, being large, ſafe from all winds, with four fathom water at the entrance, and ſeven or eight farther in. A fine river enters the bay on the eaſt ſide of the harbour, which comes about one hundred miles out of the country, after being formed by the junction of two other rivers. The town is not conſiderable at preſent; but it is probable, that from the commodiouſneſs of its ſituation and harbour, it will ſoon make a better figure, if the Spaniards, to whom both the Floridas were given up by the peace of 1783, are not too indolent to improve them.

CHAP. III.

THE NEW HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLANDS IN THE WEST INDIES AND AMERICA.

SECT. I.

General Deſcription of the WEST INDIAN ISLANDS, with an Account of their Situation, Climate, Produce, and Commodities, Plantations, Negroes, Trade, &c.

THESE iſlands, which are ſituated between the two continents of America, now belong to Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. They lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oroonoko, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees from the firſt inhabitants, though this term is generally confined to the Leeward Iſlands. The geographical maps and tables diſtinguiſh them by the names of Great and Little Antilles; and ſailors by thoſe of the Windward and Leeward, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena or New Spain, and Porto Bello.

The Weſt India iſlands in general have nearly the ſame climate, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the Tropics, and that the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning further from any of them than about thirty degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them

WEST INDIES,

agreeable to the most approved MAPS and CHARTS,

M.r Kitchen.

British Statute Miles.

British & French Marine Leagues.

Cays in English Cayos in Spanish, or Cayes in French, are small rocky Islands with ouzey Shores, where Boats, or Little Sloops, if run aground are easily got off.

Explanation.
E. English .....
F. French .....
S. Spanish .....
S.F. Spanish & French
D. Danish .....
Du. Dutch .....

Longitude West from London

Tropic of Cancer

Longitude West from Ferro

GULF OF MEXICO

EAST FLORIDA

GULF or STRAITS OF BAHAMA

LUCAYOS OR BAHAMA ISLES

ATLANTIC OCEAN

CARIBBEAN OR NORTH SEA

GREAT ANTILLES

LITTLE ANTILLES

SPANISH MAIN

TERRA FIRMA

SOUTH AMERICA

HISPANIOLA or St. DOMINGO

The Eastern part belongs to the Spaniards, the Western to the French

JAMAICA E.

VIRGIN ISLES

PORTO RICO S.

Cape Florida

Cat I. first Land disc.d by Columbus 1492

Cape Blanco

Cape de la Vela

Margarita S.

Tobago E.

Trinidad S.

Orinoco Mouths

them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to follow their neceſſary occupations even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from its centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable providence in the diſpoſal of things it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds as ſhield them from his direct beams; and, diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which generally continues from the beginning of January till near the month of June. But though theſe rains conduce to moderate the exceſſive heat, yet they produce great inconveniences, owing to the amazing violence with which they fall. They are rather floods of water poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity: the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water. Hence the rivers, which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon.

When ſtorms of that kind happen, they are very violent, and the hail-ſtones are exceedingly large and heavy. The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt-Indies: the trees are continually green; they have no cold, froſt, or ſnow, and ſeldom any hail. But in the rainy ſeaſon they are expoſed to hurricanes, the moſt terrible calamity by which the inhabitants of theſe iſlands are aſſaulted. One of theſe deſtroys at a ſtroke the labours of many years, and extinguiſhes the moſt exalted hopes of the planter. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance which the elements can aſſemble that is terrible and deſtructive. A hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon.

Sugar is the grand ſtaple commodity here; this uſeful article was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it: but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought hither by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but be that as it may, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt, ſugar which comes to market in this part of the world.

The juice within the ſugar cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt-cloying ſweet in nature: and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholſome. Rum is diſtilled from the molaſſes; and a meaner ſpirit is procured from the ſcummings of the ſugar. Rum finds its market in North America (where it is conſumed by the Engliſh inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery in Newfoundland, and the African commerce); beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England, to be diſtilled there. No part of this excellent plant is without its uſe, for the tops of the cane, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire.

The expences of a plantation in the Weſt Indies are very great; and the profits, at the firſt view, precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling-houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt five thouſand pounds. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury: he muſt at all times keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and himſelf muſt even overſee occaſionally. But, at the boiling-ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health, from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate and ſo many fierce furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider, when the ſugars are in the caſks, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, as in the Weſt-Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons generally provides againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world. It has been computed, that, under good management, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain.

Planters ſupport their negroes at a very eaſy rate. They generally allow to each family of them a ſmall portion of land; and permit them, two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it. Some are ſubſiſted in this manner; but others provide their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, ſtockings, and ſhoes, the whole not exceeding forty ſhillings a year, and the profit of their labor yields ten or twelve pounds. The price of men negroes, upon their firſt arrival, is from thirty-three to thirty-ſix pounds; women and grown boys about fifty ſhillings leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands, generally bring about forty pounds upon an average one with another; and there have been inſtances of a ſingle negro-man, expert in buſineſs, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas; and the number of ſlaves a planter poſſeſſes, generally aſcertains his wealth.

Though the traders in general make a very large profit upon all they ſell, yet from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; ſo that goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under: but they who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. Phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, alſo meet with great encouragement.

SECT. II.

Giving a particular Deſcription of the Iſlands of JAMAICA and BARBADOES, their Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

PREVIOUS to an account at large of the Weſt Indian and American Iſlands, we ſhall preſent our readers with the following table, exhibiting, at one view, the chief of them, with their names, length, breadth, principal towns, and the nations to whom they reſpectively appertain.

WEST INDIAN ISLANDS.				
Iſlands.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
Jamaica	140	60	Kingſton	Great Britain
Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto
St. Chriſtopher's	20	7	Baſſeterre	Ditto
Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
Nevis and	Each of theſe is 18 miles in circumf.		Charles town,	Ditto
Montſerrat			Plymouth	Ditto
Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
Anguilla	30	1		Ditto
Dominica	28	13		Ditto
St. Vincent	24	18	Kingſton	Ditto
Granada	30	15	St. George's	Ditto
Tobago	32	9		France
Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
Hiſpaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Do. & France
Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain
Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
Margarita	40	24		Ditto
Martinico	60	30	St. Pierre	France
Guadalupe	45	38	Baſſeterre	Ditto
St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto
St. Bartholomew	All of them inconſiderable.			Ditto
Deſcada				Ditto
Marigalante				Ditto
St. Euſtatia	29 circumf.		The Bay	Dutch
Curaſſao	30	10		
St. Thomas	15 circumf.			Denmark
St. Croix	30	10	Baſſe End	Ditto

AMERICAN ISLANDS.				
Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
Cape Breton	100	80	Louiſbourg	Ditto
St. John's	60	30	Charlottetown	Ditto
The Bermudas	20,000 acres		St. George	Ditto
The Bahamas	Very numerous.		Naſſau	Ditto
Falklands				
Juan Fernandes	14	6	Uninhabited.	
Fuera			Ditto	
Chiloe	12	17	Caſtro	

The iſland of Jamaica was diſcovered by Columbus, anno 1494, in his ſecond voyage to the Weſt Indies: he changed the name Jamaica to St. Jago. The Spaniards poſſeſſed it till the time of Oliver Cromwell, who, being ſenſible of the advantages that nation obtained by their poſſeſſions in America, ſent a conſiderable ſquadron of men of war, commanded by the generals Penn and Venables, in 1654, to take the fine iſland of Hiſpaniola. But being repulſed in that attempt, they bent their forces againſt Jamaica, which they made themſelves maſters of with little loſs. Since this time it has been in the hands of the Engliſh, and recovered its old appellation.

This is the largeſt of all the Britiſh iſland colonies, and even of any of the reſt, except Cuba and Hiſpaniola. It extends from ſeventy-five degrees fifty-ſeven minutes, to ſeventy-eight degrees thirty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, and from ſeventeen degrees forty-eight minutes to eighteen degrees fifty minutes north latitude. It is about one hundred and forty miles in length, and ſixty in breadth, where broadeſt; but being of an oval form, it grows narrower at each end. It is ſituated about thirty-ſix leagues to the ſouth of Cuba, and thirty-nine leagues to the weſt of St. Domingo: theſe two large iſlands defend it from the winds which deſolate the Atlantic, whilſt the number and diſpoſition of its harbours put it into a condition to carry on a great trade with either theſe and the other iſlands of the Weſt Indian ſea, or with the continent. Though this ſituation may expoſe it to the inſults of its two powerful neighbours, it at the ſame time facilitates the entrance of the ſuccours frequently afforded it from the mother-country. There are about ſixteen principal harbours, beſides thirty bays, roads, or good anchoring-places.

Jamaica enjoys a pretty favourable climate, ſince there is no country between the tropics where the heat is more moderate, being conſtantly cooled with refreſhing breezes, frequent rains, and nightly dews: it is, however, particularly unwholſome on the ſea-coaſt, and exceſſively hot in the mornings all the year round, till about eight o'clock, when the ſea-breeze begins, increaſing gradually till about twelve, when it is commonly ſtrongeſt, and laſts till two or three, when it begins to die away till about five o'clock, at which time it is quite ſpent, and returns no more till the next morning. About eight in the evening begins a land-breeze, which blows four leagues into the ſea, and continues increaſing till twelve at night, after which it decreaſes till four in the morning, when it ceaſes, and returns again at night. The ſea-breeze is ſtronger at ſome times than at others, and more ſo near the coaſt than within land; whereas it is juſt the reverſe with the land-breeze. Sometimes the ſea-breeze blows day and night for a week or two. In December, January, and February, the north wind blows furiouſly, checking the growth of the canes, and all other vegetables, on the north ſide of the iſland; but the mountains cover the ſouth ſide from them. Though it often rains at other times, yet the months of May and October bring the heavieſt and moſt laſting rains; and the eaſt and weſt parts of the iſland, containing large tracts of incloſed ground, are more ſubject to ſtorms of wind and rain, and more unwholeſome, than the ſouth and north. The ſouth wind brings the moſt rain; no rains are laſting on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, that come from the land. Froſt and ſnow are never ſeen here; but ſometimes large hail, eſpecially on the mountains, where the air is always cooler than in the low lands. The land-wind blowing in the night, and the ſea-breeze in the day-time, no ſhip can come into port but in the day-time, nor go out but ſoon after day-break. The dews here are ſo great within land, that the water drops from the leaves of the trees in the morning as if it rained; but in the plain or ſandy places near the ſea, there are ſeldom any fogs.

There is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that run through it from eaſt to weſt; the tops of which are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, lignum vitæ, and mahogany, which render them equally pleaſant and profitable to the inhabitants. Several fine rivers, well ſtored with fiſh, and navigable by canoes, take their riſe from theſe mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater; and the vallies, or ſavannahs, are exceedingly level, without ſtones, fit for paſture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide of the iſland. After the rains, or ſeaſons as they are called, the ſavannahs are very pleaſant, and produce ſuch quantities of graſs, that the inhabitants are ſometimes forced to burn it; but they are quite parched and burnt up, after long droughts.

Water is very ſcarce in ſome parts of this iſland, notwithſtanding the many rivers and lakes with which it abounds; and in others, it is ſo mixed with ſand and ſediment, as not to be fit for uſe, till purified for ſome days in earthen jars; and much cattle, in ſome years, periſh for want of water. Near the ſea, as at Port Royal, the well water is brackiſh and unwholſome. There are ſeveral ſalt ſprings in the iſland, which from a ſalt river, and ſeveral lakes. Though the ſoil is in general exceedingly fertile, yet it is thought not one fourth of the ſugar-ground is cultivated; even the grounds lying near the rivers and the ſea being for the moſt part over-run with woods.

Sugar takes the precedence of the various productions in this iſland. The cane from whence it is extracted is a kind of reed, which riſes commonly about eight or nine feet, including the leaves growing out of the top; the moſt common thickneſs is from two to four inches. It requires a light, porous, and deep ſoil, and is uſually cut at the end of eighteen months. Within twenty-four hours after the canes are cut down, they break them between two rollers of iron and copper, which are put in motion by a horizontal wheel turned by oxen or horſes. The juice with which the inner part of the canes are filled, is received into a reſervoir, from whence it is ſucceſſively carried to ſeveral boilers, to reduce it into cryſtals. As ſoon as it is cold, they pour it into earthen veſſels made in the ſhape of a cone: the baſe of the cone is open, its apex is pierced with a hole, through which they let the liquor run, which will not afford any cryſtals; this liquor is called treacle or molaſſes. After the draining, they have muſcovado, or rough ſugar, which is greaſy, brown, and ſoft. This ſugar does not become white, ſhining, and hard, till it is refined, which is generally done in Europe, though there are two refining houſes at Kingſton. The molaſſes are uſually the twelfth part of the value of the ſugar; a great deal of this article is conſumed in the north of Europe and of America, where they ſupply the place of butter and ſugar to the common people: the Americans uſe them to produce a fermentation, and they give an agreeable taſte to a drink called pruſs, which is nothing more than the infuſion of the bark of a tree. A ſecret has likewiſe been diſcovered, to convert theſe molaſſes, by diſtillation, into a ſpirituous liquor called rum. The operation is performed by mixing one third of ſyrup with two thirds of water: when theſe two ſubſtances have ſufficiently fermented, at the end of twelve or fifteen days they are put into a ſtill, where the diſtillation is carried on with great facility. About one hundred thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, thirty thouſand puncheons of rum, and three hundred thouſand gallons of molaſſes, are the annual exports of Jamaica, from the produce of the ſugar-canes.

Pimento is the next moſt conſiderable production of Jamaica, ſince above three millions of pounds weight of it are exported every year. There are ſeveral kinds more or leſs ſtrong, and more or leſs acrid. The tree which produces the kind of pimento known by the name of Jamaica pepper was not cultivated in regular plantations till 1663. It commonly grows on the mountains, and riſes above thirty feet high; it is very ſtraight, and covered with a grey cloſe ſhining bark; the leaves are in all reſpects like the laurel, and at the end of the branches grow the flowers, to which ſucceed berries a little larger than juniper: they are gathered green, and laid to dry in the ſun, when they grow brown, and get that ſpicy ſmell which has given to pimento the name of all-ſpice. It is of excellent uſe for removing crudities, and ſtrengthening the ſtomach.

Ginger is alſo one of the productions of this iſland. This is the root of a ſmall plant about eighteen or twenty inches high. It was greatly in vogue about the middle of the laſt century; but now it is only a ſecondary article of trade, eſpecially ſince the conſumption of it in Germany and Ruſſia has of late years greatly diminiſhed. But this circumſtance, however prejudicial, is not ſo ſeverely felt as the almoſt total annihilation of two branches of culture of the firſt kind, namely, indigo and cacao. In 1672 Jamaica had ſixty indigo plantations, which produced yearly fifty thouſand pounds worth of indigo: they are now reduced to eight, and an injudicious parliamentary duty has nearly ruined this branch, which the French have almoſt entirely wreſted from us. At the time above-mentioned, there were in this iſland ſixty cacao walks in produce, and many new ones under cultivation; but having been ſome years afterwards all deſtroyed by a blaſt, they have never been ſince renewed, and there is hardly one left, though chocolate is in general uſe here.

The productions which promiſe to increaſe are cotton and coffee. The French, however, have maintained their ſuperiority in the manner of ſhipping coffee for Europe, ſo as to preſerve all its qualities and virtues. Jamaica exports annually eight hundred caſks of coffee of three hundred pounds each; and one thouſand bags of cotton, each weighing one hundred and eighty pounds.

Jamaica produces, beſides the articles already ſpecified, a number of trees, ſhrubs, and uſeful plants, ſome of them natives of its ſoil, others brought from the other iſlands or the continent: among theſe we may diſtinguiſh the following 1. The mahogany, which is of great uſe in Europe; there was formerly a prodigious abundance on the ſhores, but now they muſt



Robinson pinx.t

Page sculp.

A beautiful VIEW *of the remarkable* CASCADE *on the* WHITE RIVER, *in* JAMAICA.

muſt go ten or twelve miles within land, and get nearer to the mountains, to find any; this diſtance rendering it more inconvenient and expenſive to tranſport, the Jamaicans get a great deal from the coaſts of Spaniſh America, not quite ſo good, but much cheaper than their own, which they ſend to Great Britain; in the year 1770 they exported to the value of fifty thouſand pounds ſterling. 2. The ſilk cotton-tree, whoſe trunk is often eighty feet high to its branches, and twelve or fourteen feet in circumference; they make of it canoes or periagas of twenty-five tons burden. 3. The dogwood, which does not yield to the Engliſh oak for hardneſs. 4. The bitterwood, much uſed by carpenters. 5. The baſtard mammea, or wood of St. Mary, whoſe height and quality make it fit for building ſhips and houſes, as well as the cedar, odoriferous and incorruptible: this beſides, ſerves to cover and wainſcot houſes, to make pencils, &c. and is much uſed by cabinet makers. 6. The lignum-vitæ, excellent for joiners and turners: its gum, called guaiacum, is of excellent ſervice in medicine.

They have alſo ſeveral trees that are uſeful in domeſtic œconomy; among which are, 1. The oil-tree, or Palma Chriſti, fifteen or ſixteen feet high, and laden with nuts affording plenty of an oil which is of great uſe, as well as that of the palm-tree; this laſt is much eſteemed by the negroes. 2. The cacao-tree and date-tree produce fruits both cooling and nutritive. 3. The cabbage-tree, a beautiful tree whoſe ſtem grows to a prodigious height, ſome having been ſeen one hundred feet high; and produces at the top a ſubſtance which has the appearance and taſte of a cabbage. 4. The tamarind-tree, whoſe fruit is well known; they procure a valuable varniſh by inciſion from the tree; and might extract an uſeful oil from the nuts. 5. The alve or ſoap tree, which afford an excellent ſoap. 6. The red mangrove, and the black olive-tree, uſed in tanning of hides, and their bark is infinitely preferable to that of the oak for this purpoſe. 7. The machioreal; a remarkable tree: all the parts of it, leaves, juice and fruit, (the latter of which much reſembles a crab-tree) are more or leſs poiſonous. Here are likewiſe various ſorts of dying woods, gums, and medicinal drugs; among the latter are guaiacum, china-root, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, venellas, aloes, and the wild cinnamon-tree, which is eſteemed of ſovereign uſe for promoting digeſtion, and diſpelling wind.

Tobacco is alſo produced here; but, being of a coarſe kind, is cultivated only for the ſake of the negroes, who are fond of it: they have alſo Indian and Guiney corn, with peas of various kinds, but none reſembling thoſe of Great Britain, except ſuch as are reared with care and tenderneſs in gardens; likewiſe yams and potatoes, together with cabbages and a variety of roots, particularly caſſava, of which they make bread.

There are various kinds of berries in the woods; but apples, and thoſe fruits that are more peculiar to cold countries, thrive but badly here. Their principal fruits are oranges, lemons, citrons, palms, pomegranates, ſhaddocks, momres, ſour-ſops, papao, melons, plantain, tamarinds, guavas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, and alicado pears.

There are but few cattle in this iſland, being chiefly ſupplied with beef from the Britiſh colonies on the continent; what they have are very ſmall, and the fleſh tough and lean. Their ſheep, however, are large and fat, and their fleſh very good; but the wool, which is long and full of hairs, is of little uſe. They have great plenty of hogs, and their fleſh is exceeding ſweet and delicious. Horſes, aſſes, and mules, are very numerous: the former are ſmall, mettleſome, and hardy; and generally ſell for thirty or forty pounds ſterling, when well made.

Fowls, both wild and tame, are found here in great variety, and particularly more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guiney hens, geeſe, ducks and turkies; the humming-bird, &c.

There is abundance of excellent fiſh in the bays and rivers; but the tortoiſe is by much the moſt valuable, both for its ſhell and fiſh, the latter being accounted the moſt delicious, and, at the ſame time, the moſt wholeſome in all the Indies. The manatu, or ſea-cow, which is often taken in calm bays, is reckoned extraordinary good eating by the Indians. The mountains breed numberleſs adders and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp; but the latter are not poiſonous.

In this iſland are many noxious inſects, ſuch as the cirer, or chegue, which eats into the nervous, and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes; and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag: they ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the bones. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not, perhaps, till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a pen-knife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind.

The ſeveral ſorts of inhabitants in Jamaica conſiſt of Engliſh, or thoſe of Engliſh extraction; Indians, negroes, mulattoes, or meſtices, or the deſcendants of them. The better ſort of the Engliſh wear wigs on Sundays, or particular days, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes (except thoſe that attend gentlemen, who dreſs them in their own livery) have once a year oſnaburghs and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchiefs for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown careleſsly wrapped about them; and appear in a rich and becoming dreſs in the above town, when they put off their diſhabille.

Perſons in affluent circumſtances commonly drink Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for one ſhilling per bottle; but the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call kill-devil, becauſe, being frequently drunk to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a ſhort time ſend them to their graves, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland.

Snakes and ſerpents, and coffi, a ſort of worms, are eaten by the Indians and negroes. Beſides the ordinary proviſions, rats are ſold here by the dozen, and, when they have bred among the ſugar-canes, are thought, by ſome people, very delicious food.

The current coin here is entirely Spaniſh, Engliſh money being ſeldom ſeen. There is hardly any place where ſilver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. The common rate of boarding is three pounds per week, notwithſtanding proviſions in general are tolerably reaſonable; and a perſon cannot dine decently for leſs than a piece of eight.

Little regard is paid to learning here; and though ſome gentlemen, who are verſed in literature, ſend their children to Great Britain, to acquire a polite and liberal education, yet the bulk of the people, being engaged in trade, or immerſed in riotous diſſipation, take little care to improve their minds.

In Jamaica, and in all the Britiſh iſlands, the eſtabliſhed religion is that of the church of England; but there are yet no biſhops: the principal eccleſiaſtic in theſe iſlands is the biſhop of London's commiſſary.

The negroes in general are ſubject to great miſery and hardſhips; and though the utmoſt care is taken to make them propagate, the ill-treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. Many of them are indeed ſtubborn and untractable, and muſt be kept under ſtrict diſcipline; but they ought not to be cruſhed with the iron rod of tyranny, or be thought a ſort of beaſts without ſouls, as many of their overſeers think them at preſent; though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of England, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in general theſe wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, who live longer, and increaſe by propagation.

On the firſt arrival of the ſlaves from the coaſt of Guiney, they are expoſed to ſale; are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures; but they ſoon become roguiſh; and when they come to be puniſhed for their faults, excuſe themſelves by the examples of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers their ſpirits, and renders the burden of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe to many be quite intolerable. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-ſlaves kiſs him, wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guiney. They make no lamentations; but, believing he is gone home and happy, inter his body with a great deal of joy.

The iſland of Jamaica is divided into three counties; viz. Surry, Middleſex, and Cornwall. Theſe contain nineteen pariſhes, over each of which preſides a magiſtrate called a cuſtos. The greater part of the inhabitants are diſperſed on their plantations, which form ſo many villages or hamlets, ſo that there are but few towns in the iſland.

The capital of this iſland is St. Jago de la Vega, commonly called Spaniſh Town, in Middleſex. It is ſmall, but pleaſantly ſituated, and contains about four thouſand inhabitants; is the reſidence of the governor, of the courts of juſtice, and the place where the aſſembly is held. The principal building is the governor's

vernor's houſe, one of the handſomeſt in America: here are alſo a handſome church, a chapel, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue. The greater part of the inhabitants are perſons of faſhion and rank, which gives it an air of ſplendor and magnificence. Between this town and that of Kingſton, in Fort Paſſage, a little village of fifteen houſes, ſo called, becauſe perſons land or embark here, who go from one town to the other land.

Kingſton, in the county of Surry, is the moſt conſiderable town in the whole iſland, being the reſidence of the merchants, and the chief place for trade. It is a mile and a half long, and half a mile broad; all the ſtreets, which are broad and regular, croſs each other at right angles; they contain near one thouſand ſeven hundred houſes, excluſive of the habitations of the negroes, and the ſtorehouſes. Its inhabitants are eſtimated at eleven thouſand, among whom are about five thouſand whites, and one thouſand two hundred free negroes or mulattoes; the reſt conſiſt of ſlaves. The Jews, who are very numerous here, have a fine ſynagogue. The houſes are much more elegant than thoſe of St. Jago de la Vega, but the air is not ſo healthy. The harbour of Kingſton, ſeated at the bottom of a deep bay on the ſouthern coaſt, will admit one thouſand ſhips at a time, and thoſe of two hundred tons come quite up to the quay.

The ſmall town of Port Royal is ſituated upon the dry and ſandy neck of land about three leagues long, that ſeparates the harbour of Kingſton from the ſea: this was the richeſt and moſt conſiderable place in the iſland at the time of the Buccaneers, whoſe diſorders it cheriſhed. Port Royal contained then two thouſand houſes, of which one thouſand ſix hundred were overturned or ſwallowed up by a remarkable earthquake that happened in 1692; they had rebuilt a great part of them, which were conſumed by a fire in 1703. The excellence of the ſituation, engaged the people to rebuild them a ſecond time, when a hurricane, in 1722, made them a heap of ruins; theſe were again raiſed, but afterwards deſtroyed, in 1744, by another hurricane; and on the third of October, 1780, another dreadful hurricane almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea-port town of Savannah-la-Mar in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of lives were loſt: much damage was alſo done, and many people deſtroyed, in other parts of the iſland.

The harbour joining to the bay of Kingſton is very large and deep. On the extremity of the neck of land is Fort Charles, mounted with one hundred and twenty-ſix pieces of cannon, which, with the croſſed fire of ſeveral other batteries, defend the entrance of the harbour.

Public affairs in Jamaica are adminiſtered by a governor, who repreſents the king, a council of twelve, which form the upper houſe, and the forty-three repreſentatives of the people who compoſe the lower houſe, and are choſen by the pariſhes. The whole income of the governor, in time of peace, amounts to five thouſand pounds a year; the annual ſupply required from the colony may be about thirty thouſand pounds, beſides eight thouſand pounds the amount of its revenue; and the total of all the taxes, both public and parochial, is never above ſixty thouſand pounds per annum.

The number of plantations and inhabitants of Jamaica is at preſent eſtimated as follows, viz. ſix hundred and eighty plantations of ſugar, one hundred and ten cotton-works, one hundred pimento walks, thirty plantations of ginger, fifty breeding penns, ſix hundred polink and proviſion places, one hundred and fifty plantations of coffee, and eight indigo works; all which take up and employ ſix hundred thouſand acres, eighteen thouſand whites, one hundred and ſeventy thouſand blacks, and one hundred and thirty-ſix thouſand horſes, mules, or horned cattle. The above number of negroes requires a recruit of ſix thouſand every year.

Among the whites, who are all enrolled, and form a national committee, are reckoned eight or nine hundred Jews: theſe people may be ſaid to have a country here, this being the only one where they have a right to bear arms in its defence; and they juſtified the confidence of the legiſlature in an invaſion made by the French, when they behaved with a great deal of courage. They alſo poſſeſs ſeveral eſtates, and carry on an extenſive trade, eſpecially with the Spaniards. Their ſobriety and manner of living make them live to a greater age in Jamaica than the other whites.

It is computed that here are three thouſand ſix hundred free mullattoes and negroes, who are incorporated in the national militia. Among the blacks are likewiſe included about nine hundred Maron negroes: theſe form a ſavage republic divided into ſix villages in the mountains: they are the deſcendants of runaway ſlaves, who have forced the government to acknowledge their independence. Their chiefs, diſtinguiſhed by a medal hung to a ſilver chain, are under the inſpection of a white, called the ſuperintendant, without whoſe permiſſion not one of the Marons can go out of his diſtrict. By the treaty concluded with them in 1739, they poſſeſs ſome lands, with their products; and they are obliged to march for a fixed ſalary, in caſe of an invaſion, and alſo to reſtore fugitive ſlaves for a premium.

The whole of the annual exports from Jamaica is reckoned, by a mean proportion, at one million three hundred and ten thouſand pounds, while the total of the imports amount to one million and fifty four thouſand pounds. It carries on a conſiderable commerce, not only with Great Britain and Ireland, but likewiſe with Africa, North and South America, the Weſt India iſlands, and the Spaniſh main.

There are three ſmall iſlands, dependent on this, called the Caymans, which lay to the north-weſt of Jamaica. The moſt ſoutherly is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Great Cayman; the other two, which are diſtant from it about twenty leagues, are called Little Cayman, and Cayman Brack. Great Cayman, the only one that is conſtantly inhabited, is very low, and covered with high trees. It has not any harbour for ſhips of burden; only a tolerable anchoring-place on the ſouth-weſt. The inhabitants, who amount to about one hundred and ſixty, are deſcended from the old Buccaneers: they have given themſelves a ſet of laws, and chuſe a chief to ſee them executed, in conjunction with the juſtices of the peace appointed by commiſſion from the governor of Jamaica. As they have no clergyman among them, they go to Jamaica to be married.

This little colony is, undoubtedly, the happieſt in the Weſt Indies; the climate and the kind of food, which are extremely ſalubrious, render the people healthy and vigorous, and cauſe them to live to a very advanced age. Their little iſland produces plenty of corn and vegetables, hogs and poultry, much beyond what they conſume: they have, beſides, ſugar canes, and ſome ſprings of pretty good water. Being quite inured to the ſea, they are excellent pilots for the neighbouring coaſts; and their iſland, as well as their activity and humanity, have been many times a relief to ſhips which were diſtreſſed in this part of the ſea: their principal employment is fiſhing for turtle, which come to theſe iſlands, to depoſit their eggs in the ſands: a female lays about nine hundred. The inhabitants of Great Cayman carry on a great traffic with Port Royal in this article of wholeſome and delicious food.

II. Barbadoes, the eaſternmoſt of the Windward iſlands, is ſituated in fifty-nine degrees weſt longitude, and thirteen degrees north latitude. It is twenty-five miles from north to ſouth, and fifteen from eaſt to weſt. Its ſuperficial content is about one hundred and ſeventy thouſand acres. This iſland was firſt reſorted to by the Engliſh in the reign of James I. but the earl of Carliſle obtained the firſt grant of it in 1625, when he parcelled it out to ſeveral adventurers that tranſported themſelves hither. They found no inhabitants, but a good breed of hogs, ſuppoſed to have been left here by the Spaniards and Portugueſe, in their voyages to the continent of America. The adventurers applied themſelves at firſt to the planting of tobacco, which not thriving as expected, they planted cotton and indigo, which yielded a conſiderable profit; but they made little ſugar till 1647, when the colonels Modiford, Drax, and Walrond, with other cavaliers, living uneaſy under the uſurpation, converted their eſtates into money, and tranſported themſelves to Barbadoes, where they erected ſugar-works, and acquired very great poſſeſſions. In the year 1650 the white inhabitants of the iſland were increaſed to upwards of thirty thouſand, with twice that number of negroes, who conſtantly perplexed their maſters with conſpiracies, in hopes of recovering their liberty; but not ſucceeding, they were ſeverely puniſhed. King Charles II. purchaſed the property of the iſland in 1661, ever ſince which time it has been a royal government; and for the purpoſe of maintaining the forces and fortifications of the iſland, the colony granted a duty of four one-half per cent on their ſugars.

During eight months in the year, the climate is hot, but not unwholeſome; for though there are no land-breezes, others ariſe from the ſea, which increaſe as the ſun advances to, and abate as he declines from, the meridian. A temperate regimen renders it as ſafe to live in as any climate in Europe ſouth of Britain; and, according to the opinion of many, as Britain itſelf. The days are nearly equal, the ſun riſing and ſetting about ſix all the year round. The rains fall here as in other parts of the torrid zone, chiefly when the ſun is vertical. The damps or dews are ſo great in the night, that every bit of iron will ſoon be eaten up with ruſt, if it be not in conſtant uſe. The twilights are very ſhort, it being dark three quarters of an hour after ſun-ſet. They have ſometimes violent hurricanes in autumn. On the tenth of October, 1780, a dreadful one occaſioned vaſt devaſtation here, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one in the iſland being wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the houſes and buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

This is, for the moſt part, a plain level country, with ſome ſmall hills; and the woods have been all cut down to make room

room for the plantations of ſugar canes, which now take up the greateſt part of this valuable iſland. The ſoil varies, being in ſome places ſandy and light, in others rich, and in others ſpongy. The moſt valuable productions are, ſugar, rum, molaſſes, ginger, indigo and cotton. The principal fruits are, pine-apples, guavas, plantains, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, tamarinds, mangroves, prickled apples, figs, cacao and cocoa nuts, bullies, cuſtard apples, papays, pomegranates, &c. Here are few orchards or gardens; and they can procure Indian corn from North America cheaper than it could be ſold for if of their own growth.

Here are abundance of hogs, which are much finer eating than thoſe of England; oxen, cows, horſes, apes, goats, monkies and racoons, with a few ſheep and rabbets; but the mutton is of an indifferent quality.

Tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, bred in Barbadoes, have a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than thoſe of Europe. Here are alſo teals, curlews, plovers, ſnipes, wild pigeons, wild ducks, and a kind of bird called a man of war. Their ſnakes and ſcorpions never ſting, and their inſects, though numerous, have no poiſon.

Among other fiſh common here, they have the parrot fiſh, ſnappers, grey cavelloes, tarbums, coney-fiſh, and a green turtle, which is a great delicacy.

In the center of this iſland there is ſaid to be a bituminous ſpring, which emits a liquor like tar, and ſerves for the ſame uſes as pitch or lamp oil. There are alſo two ſtreams, or rivers, on each ſide of it, wells of good water all over it, beſides large reſervoirs for rain water.

Here are three claſſes of inhabitants, viz. the maſters, the white ſervants, and negroes. The white ſervants lead more eaſy lives here than the day labourers in England; but the planter is generally more careful of his black ſervants than of the white, as the former, if not made free, are, with all their poſterity, his perpetual property. Moſt of the negroes are employed in the field, but ſome of them work in the ſugar mills and ſtore-houſes, while thoſe of both ſexes, who are moſt likely and hardy, are employed as menial ſervants and houſemaids.

The negroes ſubſiſt chiefly on plantains; but they have every week, at ſtated times, an allowance of Indian corn, bread, ſalt fiſh, or ſalt pork. Every negro family has a cabbin, and adjoining to it a ſmall piece of ground for a garden: the more induſtrious plant potatoes, yams, and other roots; they alſo rear live ſtock, which they are at liberty to eat, or convert into money. They are fond of rum and tobacco, and generally lay out their earnings and ſavings in fine cloaths and ornaments. The whites are computed at twenty thouſand, but the negroes, mulattoes, and meſtices ſlaves, at one hundred thouſand.

A ſalary of two thouſand pounds ſterling is allowed to the governor, payable out of the four and half per cent. beſides a third of all ſeizures. The council conſiſts of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-two, choſen yearly out of the ſeveral pariſhes, viz. two for each, by a majority of votes. Moſt of the civil officers are appointed by the governor, who alſo collates rectors to the parithes of the iſlands. The perquiſites of them are very conſiderable, and their ſtated ſalary about one hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds a year; but the rectory of St. Michael's in Bridge-town is ſuppoſed to be worth about eight hundred pounds a year. Here are ſome Jews and quakers, but very few other diſſenters. A ſurrogate of the biſhop's appointment governs the church affairs.

The military eſtabliſhment of Barbadoes is very reſpectable, conſiſting of ſix regiments of foot, two of horſe, and a troop called the troop of horſe guards: they have alſo a good train of artillery, and ſeveral forts. The whole iſland is divided into five diſtricts, and theſe again into eleven pariſhes. In each of the diſtricts is a judge and five aſſiſtants, who hold a court of common pleas every month, from January to September, and the governor is arbitrator in caſes of difficulty.

Bridge-town, the capital of the iſland, and the only place of note in it, is ſituated in Carliſle bay, in the ſouth-weſt part, and has the beſt or rather the only harbour in it. This is reckoned the fineſt and largeſt town in all the Caribbee iſlands, if not in all the Engliſh Weſt India colonies, taking its name from a bridge in the eaſt part of it, erected over the waters that come from the neighbouring marſhes after rains: it is the ſeat of the governor, council and aſſembly, and alſo of the court of chancery. The governor's houſe is about a mile out of the town, which is not reckoned very healthy on account of the neighbouring marſhes. There are ſeveral forts and batterries about the town and bay, the latter of which is large enough to contain five hundred ſail, and has twenty fathom anchorage in very clear water, but it is extremely rocky. Here is a college, founded and liberally endowed by colonel Codrington for profeſſors in the ſeveral ſciences. It is the only inſtitution of the

kind in the Weſt Indies, but it does not appear to be in a very flouriſhing ſtate.

A conſiderable trade is carried on from hence with Great Britain, North America and Africa, which is ſuppoſed to employ four hundred veſſels of all burdens. The principal articles of exportation are, aloes, cotton, ginger, ſugar, rum and molaſſes: it amounted, in 1770, to three hundred and eleven thouſand pounds to Great Britain, one hundred and twenty thouſand pounds to North America, and eleven thouſand pounds to the other iſlands, the whole being upwards of four hundred and thirty thouſand pounds ſterling.

They import timber of various kinds, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, ſome ſalt beef and pork, fiſh, pulſe, and other proviſions from the northern colonies, ſlaves from the coaſt of Africa, wine from Madeira, Tercera and Fyal, as alſo ſome brandy, beef and pork from Ireland, ſalt from Curaſſao, oſnaburghs, linen of all ſorts, broad cloth and kerſeys, ſilks and ſtuffs, red caps, ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts, gloves and hats, millinery ware and perukes, laces, peas, beans and oats, ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter and cheeſe, iron ware for their ſugar-works, leaden, braſs and copper wares, powder and ſhot, and other articles.

SECT. III.

Containing a Survey of the Iſlands of St. CHRISTOPHER, ANTIGUA, NEVIS, MONTSERRAT, BARBUDA, ANGUILLA, DOMINICA, St. VINCENT, and GRANADA and the GRENADINES, with an Account of their Situation and Extent, Climate, Soil, Productions, Inhabitants, Commodities, Trade, &c.

THE iſland of St. Chriſtopher, called alſo St. Kitt's, is ſituated about fifteen leagues to the weſt of Antigua, and is about twenty miles in length, ſeven in breadth, and forty in compaſs. It was diſcovered by Columbus in his firſt voyage to America, and has given birth to all the Engliſh and French colonies in the Weſt Indies. The two nations arrived there on the ſame day (in 1625) when they divided the iſland between them, agreeing, however, that hunting, fiſhing, as well as the mines and foreſts, ſhould be in common. Three years after their ſettling, the Spaniards drove them away, but they ſoon returned, and continued to live in good underſtanding till 1666, when war being declared between England and France, St. Chriſtopher's became at different intervals the theatre of bloodſhed for half a century. The conteſt was, however, at length cloſed by the repulſion of the French in 1702, and the country being yielded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, all the French territory was ſold for the public emolument.

The centre of this iſland is occupied by a great number of high and barren mountains, interſected by rocky precipices almoſt impaſſable, from many of which iſſue hot ſprings. Mount Miſery, which ſeems to be a decayed volcano, whoſe head is hid in the clouds, is the higheſt of all theſe mountains, its perpendicular height being three thouſand eleven hundred feet: at a certain diſtance it bears ſome reſemblance to a man who carries another upon his back. The aſſemblage of theſe two mountains makes St. Kitt's appear to thoſe who approach by ſea like an huge mountain covered with wood, but as they come nearer, the coaſt and aſcent grow eaſier, and they are cultivated as high as the declivity will permit.

Conſidering the height of the country, the climate is not ſo hot as might be expected: the air is pure and healthy, but the iſland is ſubject to frequent ſtorms, hurricanes and earthquakes. The ſoil is in general light and ſandy, but very fruitful, and well watered by ſeveral rivulets, which run down both ſides of the mountains. It produces plenty of manioc root, vegetables, fruits, timber, &c. The whole iſland is covered with plantations, whoſe owners (noted for the ſoftneſs of their manners) live in agreeable, clean, and convenient habitations, adorned with fountains and groves. Moſt of their houſes are built of cedar, and the lands hedged with orange and lemon trees. The cultivation of ſugar takes up only twenty-four thouſand acres, but the whole of their plantations amount to forty-four thouſand.

The moſt conſiderable town is Baſſeterre, formerly the capital of the French part, the other is called Sandy point, and always belonged to the Engliſh. There is no harbour, nor even the appearance of one; on the contrary, the ſurf is continually beating on the ſandy ſhore at the few places fit to land, which not only prevents the building any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or ſhipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often dangerous: they have been therefore obliged to adopt a particular method to ſhip the heavy goods, ſuch as hogſheads of ſugar or rum. For this purpoſe they uſe a ſmall boat of a peculiar con-

ſtruction, called a Moſes; this boat ſets off from the ſhip with ſome very active and expert rowers: when they ſee what they call a hull, that is, an abatement in the violence of the ſurge, they puth to land, and lay the ſides of the moſes on the ſtrand, the hogſhead is rolled into it, and the ſame precautions are uſed to carry it to the ſhip. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to and from the ſhip.

This iſland is divided into nine pariſhes, each of which has a handſome church. Public affairs are adminiſtered by a governor, a council, and an aſſembly choſen from the pariſhes. In 1770 the exportations of this iſland amounted to above four hundred and nineteen thouſand pounds ſterling for ſugar, molaſſes and rum, and near eight thouſand pounds for cotton. The inhabitants amount to about eight thouſand whites, and twenty thouſand blacks.

The iſland of Antigua, the moſt conſiderable of the Leeward Caribbees, is of a circular form, about twenty miles each way, and near ſixty in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the Engliſh iſlands in theſe ſeas, yet ſo encompaſſed with rocks, that it is of dangerous acceſs in many parts. The climate is hotter than Barbadoes, and very ſubject to hurricanes. The ſoil is ſandy, and much of it overgrown with wood. Here are but few ſprings, and not ſo much as a brook in the whole iſland, ſo that the inhabitants depend on the caſual rains for moſt of the water they are ſupplied with.

St. John is the capital of Antigua: it is a regular well built town on the weſt ſhore, with a good harbour of the ſame name, whoſe entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the reſidence of the governor general of the Caribbee Leeward Iſlands, the place where the aſſembly for this iſland is held, and the port where the greateſt trade is carried on. The beſt port in the iſland is Engliſh harbour on the ſouth ſide: it has, with much trouble and expence, been made fit to receive the greateſt ſhips of war, who find there a dock-yard with ſtores, and all the materials and conveniences neceſſary to repair and careen. Engliſh Harbour is at a ſmall diſtance from the town and harbour of Falmouth: there are beſides, Willoughby Bay to the windward of Engliſh Harbour, Nonſuch Harbour on the eaſt point, and the town and harbour of Parham on the north ſide, and a great number of creeks and ſmaller bays; but the ſhore being in general rocky, wherever the landing would be practicable it is defended by forts and batteries; and for the defence of the iſland there is generally one regiment of regular troops quartered there.

Antigua has a governor general, a lieutenant governor, a council, and its own aſſembly of twenty-four members; beſides which, the governor general can, when he thinks proper, call a general aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the other iſlands. It is divided into ſix pariſhes and eleven diſtricts, of which ten ſend each two repreſentatives, and that of St. John four. In 1770 their exports amounted to four hundred and forty-ſix thouſand pounds ſterling to Great Britain, Ireland and America, of which ſum five hundred pounds is only for cotton, all the reſt is the produce of ſugar, molaſſes and rum. The number of veſſels that enter yearly into the harbour is reckoned at three hundred, but that of the inhabitants of the iſland is not certainly known.

The ſmall iſland of Nevis conſiſts of one vaſt mountain riſing to a very conſiderable height in the middle: it is ſituated about four miles to the eaſt of St. Chriſtopher's. The ſoil is fruitful, and the ſtaple commodity ſugar, which ſerves all the purpoſes of money. Here are ſometimes violent rains and tornadoes, as in the other iſlands, and the air is even hotter than that of Barbadoes. Here are many remarkable inſects and reptiles, particularly the flying tyger, the horn fly, and a kind of ſnail, called the ſoldier. The ſea abounds with a variety of excellent fiſh, as groupers, rock fiſh, old wives, cavallies, welſhmen, mud-fiſh, wilks, cockles, lobſters, &c. land crabs are very common here; they are ſmaller than ſea crabs, and make little burrows, like rabbets, in the woods, towards the tops of the mountains. The only venomous creatures are ſcorpions and centipedes. Here are ſprings of freſh water and a hot bath, much of the ſame nature as thoſe of Bath in England.

Their ſheep have no horns nor wool, but are cloathed with ſmooth hair, and generally full of ſmall red or black ſpots reſembling thoſe of a fine ſpaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and generally bring two, three, or four lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary, ſuckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour, with a thick row of long ſtrait red hair hanging down from the lower jaw to their breaſt as far as the fore-legs. The hogs, being fed with Indian corn, Spaniſh potatoes, and ſugar cane juice, are exceeding ſweet food, white and fat, and ſo are the turkies, which are fed with the ſame diet. The ground doves here are about the ſize of a lark, of a chocolate colour, ſpotted with dark blue, their heads like that of a robin-red-breaſt, and their eyes and legs of a moſt pure red. Here are excellent game-cocks and fine bull-dogs, which retain their ſpirit, beſides large cur-dogs, but no ſpaniels or hounds.

Here are great quantities of aſparagus: likewiſe a tree called diddle-doo, which bears a lovely bloſſom of the fineſt yellow and ſcarlet colours, and is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy againſt the green ſickneſs. The liquorice runs wild along the ſtone walls of common fields, like the vine; but here is no lignum vitæ or iron wood. The butter of this iſland is not good, and new cheeſe far worſe.

Charles-town, the capital, has a fort, called Great Fort, that defends the anchoring place, where the governor, council and aſſembly meet; the laſt is compoſed of five members for each of the three pariſhes into which the iſland is divided. Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcaſtle, Littleborough on Moreton bay, and Charles-town above-mentioned.

The king gives twenty pounds out of the exchequer to the clergy, who are ſent hither by the biſhop of London to vacant pariſhes to defray the charges of their voyage. The fees for every chriſtening, marriage, and burial, are one ſhilling and ſixpence, and for a funeral ſermon three pounds, or five hundred pounds weight of ſugar.

They have three public annual faſts to implore the divine protection againſt hurricanes; and if none happen in July, Auguſt or September, they have in October a public thankſgiving.

If a negro in this iſland ſtrikes a white man, he is puniſhed with the loſs of his hand; and if he ſhould draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence againſt a white man: but if a white man kill a negro, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; all that he ſuffers is, a fine of thirty pounds currency to the maſter for the loſs of his ſlave.

Before the revolution Nevis contained thirty thouſand inhabitants; but the invaſion of the French about that time, and ſome epidemical diſorders have greatly diminiſhed the number, ſince they only reckon at preſent two or three thouſand whites, and ſix or ſeven thouſand negroes. In 1770 their exportations to Great Britain, in cotton and ſugar, amounted to near forty-four thouſand pounds; thoſe to North America, where they ſend a great deal of molaſſes, rum, and a prodigious number of lemons, exceeded fourteen thouſand pounds. About twenty veſſels are employed annually in trade to and from this iſland.

The iſland of Montſerrat is ſituated twenty-five miles almoſt ſouth-eaſt from Nevis, twenty weſt-ſouth-weſt from Antigua, forty north-weſt from Guadaloupe, and two hundred and forty from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure, about three leagues in length, the ſame in breadth, and eighteen in circumference. Columbus firſt diſcovered this iſland in 1493. It was ſettled in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who reſtored it to the Engliſh at the peace of Breda. The firſt ſettlers were Iriſhmen, and the preſent inhabitants are principally compoſed either of their deſcendants or of natives of Ireland; ſo that the uſe of the Iriſh language is preſerved in this iſland, even among the negroes. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montſerrat from a fancied reſemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in Old Spain, where is a famous chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary.

This iſland is well watered, and fruitful: its ſoil, climate, and produce reſemble thoſe of the other Engliſh Caribbees. The mountains yield cedars, the cypreſs tree, the iron tree, with other woods, and ſome odoriferous ſhrubs: the planters formerly raiſed a great deal of indigo. The camanture, by ſome called the ſea cow, is found near this iſland, and generally at the entrance of freſh water rivers. It is ſaid to be an amphibious animal, and to live moſtly on herbage. Its fleſh is reckoned very wholſome food when ſalted, and they are ſo large, that two or three of them load a canoe. The ſurrounding ſeas produce ſeveral hideous monſters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable uglineſs, as well as the poiſonous quality of their fleſh, are called ſea devils.

There is no harbour in this iſland, only three roads, namely, Plymouth (which is the chief town in the iſland) Old Harbour, and Ker's Bay, where the ſhipping and landing of goods is attended with the before-mentioned inconveniences.

The government of Montſerrat is compoſed of a lieutenant-governor, a council, and an aſſembly of eight repreſentatives, two for each of the four diſtricts which divide the iſland. The annual exports from hence to Great Britain and Ireland are eſtimated at ninety thouſand pounds, and to North America twelve thouſand. The number of inhabitants here is about fourteen thouſand, among whom are about one thouſand five hundred whites.

The iſland of Barbuda is only about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth, and is ſituated fifteen miles north-eaſt of Montſerrat. It is the property of the Codrington family, who appoint the governor. Part of the eſtate ariſing from it

(amounting,

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The Dress, Weapons, manner of living of the TAPOYERS *inhabitants of*
BRASIL *in* SOUTH-AMERICA.



Pollard sculp.

View of the Harbour of St. VINCENT, *subject to the* PORTUGUESE.

(amounting, as is ſaid, to two thouſand pounds a year, with two plantations in Barbadoes) was bequeathed, in 1710, by Chriſtopher Codrington, Eſq; governor of Barbadoes, to the ſociety for propagating the goſpel, towards the inſtruction of the negroes in the Caribbee iſlands in the Chriſtian religion, and the erection of a college at Barbadoes for teaching the liberal arts.

This is a fertile iſland, though the land lies low: on the weſt ſide of it is a good well ſheltered road, clear from rocks and ſands. The inhabitants apply themſelves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and raiſing proviſions, with which they ſupply the neighbouring iſlands. Many of the commodities produced in the other Weſt India iſlands may alſo be raiſed here. There are ſome large ſerpents on the iſland, but they are neither poiſonous nor noxious, and will deſtroy rats, toads and frogs, though the ſting or bite of others is mortal, unleſs an antidote is quickly applied.

Anguilla lies about ſeventy-five miles north-weſt of Barbuda, and about forty to the north of St. Chriſtopher's. It is very long and narrow, which induced the Spaniards to give it the name of Anguilla, or Eel. It is ſo low and flat, that the French, who firſt ſettled there, did not think it worth cultivating, or even keeping; the Engliſh adopted the ſame opinion when they took poſſeſſion of it, and the iſland was a long time in their hands before they perceived the contrary. Within a few years induſtry and the indefatigable labours of the planters of Anguilla have convinced them, that their iſland produces not only all the neceſſaries of life, but, beſides, many proviſions which they ſell to their neighbours, as well as ſugar and cotton. Before the late war, their exportations, which promiſe an increaſe, amounted, in ſugar, rum and cotton, to near ſix thouſand pounds, three thouſand eight hundred of which were for Great Britain, the reſt for North America. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants ſtrong and vigorous.

There are ſeveral ſmall uninhabited iſlands to the north of Barbuda, and dependant on it: the moſt remarkable of them (called Sombrero by the Spaniards from its reſemblance to a hat) lies at ſix leagues diſtance, and is about a league long.

The Archipelago of the Virgin Iſlands lie to the weſt of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having croſſed a channel of eight leagues: theſe were ſo denominated in memory of the eleven thouſand virgins of the legend. They take up a ſpace from eaſt to weſt of about twenty-four leagues long, quite to the eaſtern coaſt of Porto Rico, with a breadth of about ſixteen leagues. They are compoſed of a great number of iſles, whoſe coaſts, rent throughout, and ſprinkled with rocks, every where dangerous to navigators, are famous for ſhip-wrecks, and particularly of ſeveral galleons. Happily for the trade and navigation of theſe iſlands, nature has placed in the middle of them a large baſon of three or four leagues broad, and ſix or ſeven long, the fineſt that can be imagined, and in which ſhips may anchor land-locked, and ſheltered from all winds. Sir Francis Drake firſt entered it in 1580 in his expedition againſt St. Domingo: hence it is called the Bay of Sir Francis Drake.

Theſe iſlands are all of them exceedingly ſmall, and the greateſt part uninhabited. One of them is called the Tropic Keys, from the prodigious quantity of Tropic birds which breed there, and are about the ſize of a pigeon, but round and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat: their plumage is quite white, except two or three feathers in each wing of a clear grey; their beaks are ſhort, thick, and of a pale yellow; they have a feather, or quill, about ſeven inches long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the tail they have. Theſe birds have never been ſeen but between the Tropics, from which circumſtance they derive their name.

Dominica is ſituated about half way between Martinico and Guadaloupe, in ſixteen degrees north latitude, and ſixty-two weſt longitude. It is about twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth, and received its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the whole iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. At the north weſt end there is a ſpacious ſandy bay, called St. Rupert's, which is well ſecured from the winds by mountains on all ſides. Here, as in ſome other of the Carribbees, is a ſulphur mountain, and hot ſpring, equal in ſalubrity to thoſe of Bath in England; and the fine fruits, particularly the pine apples, are ſuperior to any that grow on the French iſlands.

The town of Roſeau, which is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, is the moſt diſtinguiſhed place in this iſland. The houſes are low, and irregularly placed, and the town is ſheltered by the circumjacent mountains, ſome of which riſe to a conſiderable height. Ships of a conſiderable ſize ride at anchor with the greateſt ſafety in the bay or harbour, from whence there is a moſt advantageous view of the town.

St. Vincent is ſituated about fifty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. It is generally allowed to be one of the beſt of all the Antilles. Out of the ridge of mountains, which croſſes it from ſouth to north, riſe a great number of rivers well ſtored with fiſh. Theſe mountains are in general of an eaſy aſcent, ſome of the vallies and plains are of a large extent, exceedingly fertile, and produce moſt of the neceſſaries of life, particularly ſugar, coffee, cacao, and anatta. When this iſland was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Verſailles in 1763 there was a great number of a mixed breed of the antient Caribs, and of ſhip-wrecked or run-away negroes, but none of theſe now remain.

Kingſtown is the moſt remarkable place here: it is ſituated on a bay of the ſame name at the ſouth-weſt end of the iſland. It is the reſidence of the governor, and the place where the aſſembly meet. The town of Calliagua, whoſe harbour is the moſt conſiderable in the whole iſland, ſtands about three miles from Kingſtown towards the ſouth-eaſt.

The iſland of Granada is ſituated in twelve degrees north latitude, and ſixty-two degrees weſt longitude, about thirty leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh main. The iſland is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. The ſoil is very rich and fertile, and particularly adapted for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of an iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland; ſome of theſe may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping, and it has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open: an hundred veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety in its harbour, or careening place.

The Grenadines are a ſmall cluſter of iſlands near Granada: they produce very fine timber, ſugar, indigo, tobacco, peas and millet; but the cocoa tree does not thrive ſo well in them as in the others.

The iſland of Granada was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which the Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the war of 1756, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the Grenadines, was confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763, and by the late one in 1783.

SECT. IV.

Containing a Deſcription of the SPANISH WEST INDIA ISLANDS, with an Account of their Extent, Situation, Climate, Produce, Principal Towns, Inhabitants, Trade, Commodities, &c.

CUBA is about ſeven hundred miles in length from eaſt to weſt, but very narrow in proportion, not being above ſeventy in breadth: it lies ſixty miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, twenty-five leagues to the north of Jamaica, one hundred miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and extends in latitude from twenty degrees twenty minutes to the Tropic of Cancer, and from ſeventy-four degrees to eighty-five degrees fifteen minutes weſt longitude. It commands the entrance of both the gulfs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Paſſage.

In the months of July and Auguſt, when the ſun is vertical, the rains and ſtorms are great, otherwiſe the climate would be intolerably hot. The faireſt ſeaſon is, when the ſun is fartheſt off, and then it is hotteſt in the morning; for towards noon a ſea breeze ſprings up, which blows pretty briſk till the evening. The trade winds in theſe ſeas blow from the north-eaſt. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, there are briſk winds at north and north-weſt, which in December and January often turn to ſtorms, though this is called the fair ſeaſon. The whole iſland is well watered, and agreeably diverſified with woods, lawns and vallies.

The ſoil is capable of producing, in the greateſt plenty, every thing that grows in the other American iſlands; but the Cuba (commonly called the Havannah) tobacco is thought to excel that of all the world, and their ſugar would equal their tobacco in goodneſs, had they hands to cultivate the canes. They have two ſorts of fruit, called camilor and guanavana, the firſt like a china orange, and the other ſhaped like a hart, with a juice between ſweet and acid. The other products are plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, cocoas, ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm trees, plenty of large vines and fine cotton trees.

Gold

Gold duſt is found in the ſands of the rivers; but it is uncertain whether there are any gold or ſilver mines, the hopes of which occaſioned the butchery of all the antient inhabitants, who were either unable or unwilling to diſcover them: if there are any, they are not worked. The copper mines here furniſh the Spaniſh plantations with a ſufficiency of that metal for all their braſs guns. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland; but the land near the coaſt is generally a level, champaign country. The interior parts lie quite uncultivated and uninhabited. Here are many good harbours; but there are ſcarce any navigable rivers. Both the coaſts and rivers abound with fiſh, and alſo with alligators. There are great conveniences for making ſalt; but the inhabitants avail themſelves very little of them.

The cattle brought hither by the Spaniards have multiplied exceedingly, vaſt numbers now running wild in the woods, of which many are killed, chiefly for their hides and tallow, that are ſent to Spain. Their fleſh alſo, being cut in pieces, and dried in the ſun, ſerves to victual ſhips. Theſe cattle are often ſo fat, that they die through the burden of their greaſe. Here are likewiſe abundance of mules, horſes, ſheep, wild boars, and hogs, together with wild and tame fowl, parrots, partridges, blue heads, large tortoiſes: ſeveral fountains of bitumen, which is uſed inſtead of pitch, as well as for medicinal purpoſes; here are alſo quarries of flint.

Cuba is pleaſant, and in its preſent ſtate flouriſhing, as the Spaniards are now continually improving it. Formerly its exportations never equalled thoſe of the ſmall Britiſh iſland of Antigua. The reaſon of this, next to the indolence of the Spaniards, was the great facility with which the inhabitants got their money by means of the galleons and flota, and the very great contraband trade carried on here in defiance of their laws, and by connivance of the government.

This iſland is divided into ſeven provinces, the civil government of which is dependant on that of St. Domingo, or Hiſpaniola: its biſhop, whoſe ſee is at St. Jago, though he commonly reſides at the Havannah, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Domingo. The eaſt part of the iſland is under the governor of St. Jago, and the weſt of the governor of the Havannah. There are ſeveral large towns in the iſland; but the two abovementioned are the moſt conſiderable.

On the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland ſtands the Havannah, the capital, in twenty-three degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and in the eighty ſecond degree thirteen minutes weſt longitude. The town itſelf, diſtinct from the fortifications, is about two miles in circuit, and contains about twenty-ſix thouſand ſouls. Its port is ſaid to be the moſt frequented, as well as the beſt in all the iſlands, and one of the fineſt in the world; it being ſo large, that a thouſand ſail of ſhips may commodiouſly ride in it with the utmoſt ſafety, without either anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them; and is ſo deep, that the largeſt veſſels anchor at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. The entrance, which has no bar to obſtruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but ſo narrow, that only one ſhip can go in at a time. The harbour into which it leads at the north-weſt corner, is a long ſquare lying north and ſouth; the other three corners forming three creeks or bays.

This city ſtands in the moſt fertile part of the iſland, on the weſt ſide of the harbour, in a delightful plain that extends along the ſhore, and backwards it is waſhed by two branches of the river Lagida. The city is of an oval form, and begins about a quarter of a mile from the mouth of the harbour. The buildings, which are of ſtone, are very handſome, but not lofty, and the ſtreets are narrow, but clean. Here are eleven churches and monaſteries, two handſome hoſpitals, and a fine ſquare in the middle of the town, encompaſſed with uniform buildings.

The city on the land ſide is encompaſſed with a wall defended by baſtions, and a caſtle on the ſide towards the harbour; at the harbour's mouth are alſo two other ſtrong caſtles to defend its entrance: the ſtrongeſt of theſe has lines, which extend to the caſtle firſt mentioned, and is called the Moro fort: it is built on a rock at the foot of two hills, in which is cut a deep ditch, filled with ſea water. The ſecond caſtle is called the Puntal, and is fortified with four baſtions well planted with cannon. The third is called El Fuerto, or the Fort, and has ſixty large heavy braſs cannon belonging to it; there are alſo two other ſmall forts, called Coxemar and Bariavans. Theſe forts, all together, have one hundred and twenty guns.

This city is of more importance to the Spaniards than any other in America, it being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain; and from its lying at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, through which they are obliged all to paſs, it has been called by the Spaniards, the key of the Weſt-Indies. Here rides the navy of the king of Spain; and here meet in September the merchants ſhips from ſeveral Spaniſh ports, both of the continent and iſlands, to the number of fifty or ſixty ſail, to take in proviſions and water, in order to return to Spain in a body. Within the city is a continual fair till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month, when proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to ſtay in the town on pain of death, and upon firing a warning gun, they all go on board.

St. Jago is ſeated in the twentieth degree two minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventy-fifth degree forty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, at the bottom of a ſpacious bay, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, about ſix miles from the ſea. The entrance to the bay is narrow, and within it are ſmall iſlands, which ſhelter it from ſtorms, and form a commodious harbour. It is a biſhop's ſee, and has a cathedral; it had once alſo a good trade, which is now removed to the Havannah, and though the city has juriſdictions over half the iſland, it has dwindled almoſt to nothing.

The other principal towns in the iſland are Santa Cruz, which is ſeated ſixty-three miles to the eaſt of the Havannah, on the ſame coaſt, and has a very good harbour. Porto del Principe, on the ſame coaſt, ſtands about three hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of the Havannah; it was formerly a rich town, and was taken by the Buccaneers, after a ſtout reſiſtance: near it are ſome ſprings of bitumen. Baracoa is ſituated on the north-eaſt part of the iſland.

The iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, is ſituated about thirteen leagues to the eaſtward of Cuba, and was called Aitti by the antient inhabitants. It is about four hundred miles in length, one hundred and fifty in breadth; and the coaſt, including the circumference of all the bays and creeks, near five hundred leagues.

The climate, though hot, is not reckoned unwholſome, being refreſhed by breezes and rains. This iſland is agreeably diverſified with hills and vallies, woods and rivers, producing ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots, fairer and better taſted than thoſe of the other iſlands, together with whole foreſts of cabbage-trees, elms, oaks, pines, acajou, and other trees, large and lofty. The other commodities are ſugar, hides, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, ſalt, wax, honey, ambergris, and various kinds of drugs and dyeing woods. There are plenty of tortoiſes on its coaſts and in the rivers, which are alſo infeſted with crocodiles and alligators.

The Spaniards and French poſſeſs this iſland in common, though the latter formerly occupied the whole. Columbus diſcovered it in 1492, and called it the Spaniſh Iſland; a denomination it has preſerved under the name of Hiſpaniola, along with that of St. Domingo. They found here ſome exceeding rich gold mines. The greater part of the male Indians periſhed in theſe mines; and almoſt all the females, by the exceſſive labour of cultivating the fields of maiz for the uſe of the conquerors; the others were maſſacred either in cold blood, or in ranged battles, for ſo they called thoſe kinds of ſavage chaces which the Spaniards, covered with iron, and followed by bull-dogs, made to a multitude of theſe unhappy wretches, quite naked, and flying with all their might: we are told, that no leſs than three millions of men, women, and children, were murdered in cold blood by theſe inhuman butchers. The quick extermination of the natives, and conſequently the difficulty of working the mines; the bloody quarrels of the conquerors among one another; the diſcovery of Mexico, ſoon after that of St. Domingo, drawing thither all the invaders; laſtly, the pillaging of the capital by Drake, in 1586; all theſe things made the new colony fall to decay a few years after its eſtabliſhment. The Spaniards, ſcattered about this large iſland, having become unable to hinder the Buccaneers from ſeizing the weſtern parts, and ſettling themſelves there, retired on the eaſtern ſide, which they have occupied ever ſince. Their part both for culture and commerce, is much the beſt; it has large fruitful plains; and the ſituation of its coaſt is much more favourable to navigation than that of the French.

The ſoil is but little cultivated by the Spaniards, who are no leſs indolent here than at Cuba: their chief employ is, to breed cattle, or to hunt thoſe which have multiplied in the woods. They get from their neighbours ſtockings, hats, linen, guns, iron ware, and ſome cloaths; and give them horſes, horned cattle, hogs, hides, and ſmoaked beef, in return.

The moſt conſiderable town belonging to the Spaniards is San Domingo, the capital; this is a large and well-built city, ſituated on a ſpacious harbour on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, containing about thirty thouſand inhabitants, and defended by a caſtle and other works. Here is an univerſity and a college, with a revenue of four thouſand ducats, a Latin ſchool, ſeveral convents, a magnificent cathedral, an hoſpital, having a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats, and a fine market-place in the centre of the city; which is alſo the reſidence of the governor-general of the Spaniſh Indies, and of an archbiſhop, and court of royal audience. The archbiſhop's ſuffragans are the biſhops of

of Conception in this iſland, St. John's in Porto Rico, St. Jago in Cuba, Venzuela in New Caſtile, and of the city of Honduras. The juriſdiction of the court of royal audience extends to all the Spaniſh Weſt-Indian iſlands. A fine navigable river falls into the ſea a little to the weſt of the city which owes its preſent ſupport to the lawyers and eccleſiaſticks, whoſe profeſſions oblige them to reſide on it.

The town of Conception ſtands twenty leagues north of San Domingo. It is a large place, and the ſee of a biſhop. Porto la Plata, or the Haven of Silver, ſtands on an arm of the ſea, thirty-five leagues north of St. Domingo. Monte Chriſto is at the mouth of the river Yaguey, ten miles weſt of Porto de la Plata, and forty north-weſt from St. Domingo. St. Jago de los Cavalieros lies ten leagues north-weſt of Conception, and enjoys a fine air.

The chief towns belonging to the French are, 1. Cape St. François, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland: it is in a flouriſhing condition, having a fine harbour, a briſk trade, and about eight thouſand inhabitants. 2. St. Louis, or Port Louis, which ſtands on a ſmall iſland on the ſouth-weſt coaſt, and has a good harbour with a fort, but labours under a ſcarcity of freſh water. 3. Port Paix, a place of conſiderable ſtrength, lying oppoſite the iſland of Tortuga, on the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland. 4. Port Guaves and Leogane, on Donna Maria Bay near Cape St. Nicolas, at the weſt end of the iſland. Leogane is the reſidence of the French governor-general, and of the royal judicature, with that of the ſupreme council, whoſe juriſdiction extends from Cape Mougon to the river Artibonite: the other is the oldeſt French ſettlement in the iſland, and a place of conſiderable trade.

Two other ſmall places, viz. La Petite Riviere, and L'Eſterre, the latter of which ſtands a little within land, alſo belong to the French.

Tortuga, the iſland above-mentioned, had its name from the turtles with which it formerly abounded. It is about ſix leagues long from eaſt to weſt, and three where broadeſt. The French have a populous flouriſhing ſettlement, called Cavona, with a harbour, in the ſouth part of this iſland: it yields all the commodities found in the other Weſt Indian iſlands, together with wild boars; but has little or no freſh water. Savona and Mena are the other moſt conſiderable iſlands on this coaſt: theſe belong to the Spaniards.

The iſland of Porto Rico, is ſituated between ſixty-four and ſixty-ſeven degrees weſt longitude, and in eighteen degrees north latitude, lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's. It is about one hundred miles in length, and forty in breadth. Moſt of the country is diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains, is extremely fertile, and produces the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the air is exceſſive hot, and very unwholeſome during the rainy ſeaſons. In the north part of the iſland, which is the moſt barren, there were formerly ſeveral rich gold and ſilver mines; but there is not any conſiderable quantity found in it at preſent.

A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt and tear in pieces the defenceleſs natives, are ſaid to run wild in the woods near the ſea-ſhore, and ſubliſt upon land crabs that burrow in the ground. The woods are ſtored with parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coaſt abounds with fiſh. Their pork is excellent, as is likewiſe the fleſh of their kids; but their mutton is very indifferent. They have good ſhip timber and fruit trees, with rice and Indian corn. The principal commodities here are, ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton, thread, caſſia, maſtic, &c.

Great pains have been taken by the Spaniſh government, to prevent an illicit trade being carried on at this place; but all the ſeveral edicts iſſued againſt it have been ineffectual; owing to the convenience of its ſituation for that traffic.

The capital town, Porto Rico, is ſituated on a ſmall iſland on the north coaſt. This iſland forms a capacious harbour, and is joined to the chief iſland by a cauſeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almoſt inacceſſible. This town is well built and populous; is a biſhop's ſee, and the reſidence of a governor.

Beſides the capital, here is a place called Boraba d'Infernes, remarkable for having an excellent turtle fiſhery; and Port del Agnada, where the flota provide themſelves with water, and other neceſſaries, in their voyage to Spain.

There is a ſmall place on the coaſt of Porto Rico, called Crabs Iſland, from the great number of crabs found there.

Sir Francis Drake took Porto Rico from the Spaniards. It was afterwards conquered by the earl of Cumberland, in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but he was obliged to abandon it, having loſt moſt of his men by ſickneſs in the latter-end of the ſummer, which is a very unhealthy ſeaſon in all places in theſe latitudes.

The iſland of Trinidad lies between Tobago and the Spaniſh main, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraights of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and ſixty broad; and is an unhealthy, but fruitful country. Its principal productions are, ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, ſome Indian corn, and cotton-trees.

This iſland was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1505; and by the French in 1676, who plundered it, and laid the inhabitants under contribution.

Margarieta, two hundred miles weſt of Trinidad, is about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. The continual verdure renders it very pleaſant; but it has not been conſiderable ſince the Spaniards retired from thence to Terra Firma. The inhabitants now are Mulattoes, and the original natives. It was taken by the Dutch in 1626, who pillaged and demoliſhed it.

SECT. V.

Treating of the French and Daniſh WEST-INDIA ISLANDS, their Situation and Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, Commodities, Trade, &c.

MARTINICO is the moſt conſiderable Weſt-India iſland belonging to the French, being about ſixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth. It is ſituated about one hundred and twenty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, between the fourteenth and fifteenth degree of north latitude. A ridge of mountains runs through its whole length; they are paſſable in ſeveral places, though their centre is only a heap of craggy rocks. This ridge is ſuch, that it makes the iſland appear to the navigators like three diſtinct mountains; from hence run above forty rivers, and a great many leſſer ſtreams, which create a humidity very noxious to the conſtitution. The coaſts abound with turtles, but the French are not ſo expert as the Engliſh in fiſhing for them.

The ſoil is very unequal; ſome grounds alternately ſuffer by dryneſs and rain; there are ſome marſhy, and almoſt entirely drowned by the ſea; others are ſtony, as to baffle all attempts of the planters, but the greateſt quantity of land between the ſhore and the mountains is capable of being ſucceſsfully cultivated, and rendered as fruitful as poſſible, if proper meaſures were uſed by the inhabitants. The chief productions are ſugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, indigo, cacao, aloes, pimento, cocoas, plantains, and other tropical fruits.

Before this iſland was ſubdued by the Engliſh in the war of 1756, it could raiſe ten thouſand white inhabitants fit to carry arms, and above forty thouſand negroes or ſlaves; beſides which ſome companies of regulars were always quartered in the iſland.

The governor-general and intendant, as likewiſe a ſovereign council, which ſuperintends all their other iſlands, and even their ſettlements of St. Domingo and Tortuga, reſide in Martinico. The governor-general and intendant, and lieutenant-governor, are paid out of the finances of Old France. The governor of Martinico, as well as Guadalupe, is paid in ſugar, as indeed are all the other officers of the iſland, except ſome inconſiderable ſums that iſſue from the treaſury of Old France. The governors are allowed ſixty thouſand pounds weight of ſugar, with a penſion of one thouſand crowns paid in Old France. The lieutenant-governors have twenty thouſand pounds weight, and five thouſand livres ſalary. The king's judges, attornies, and other officers, have each an allowance of ſix thouſand weight; but the counſellors of the ſovereign's council have no more than twelve thouſand weight, or twelve of their negroes exempted from the capitation tax; which tax is paid by the white men and free negroes who are hired ſervants, and conſiſts of one hundred weight of coarſe ſugar a year, for each domeſtic or negro who is employed in manufacturing it: and of ſix livres for every other. The hundred weight of ſugar is rated at four livres ten ſols.

The iſland owes its flouriſhing ſtate to the French government having tranſported thither, by way of puniſhment, great numbers of its proteſtant ſubjects, ſome of whom voluntarily ſettled there. All proviſions imported into it are ſubject to a duty of one per cent in ſpecie; and the third of all forfeitures and fines goes to the crown.

There are in Martinico twenty-eight pariſhes or diſtricts, which contain about the ſame number of towns or villages, and two principal towns, For Royal and St. Pierre or St. Peter's. The firſt is the ſeat of government: its ſtreets are regular, the houſes agreeable, and the inhabitants very much given to all kinds of luxury; they are the Pariſians of the Weſt-Indies. To the eaſt of the town, on a neck of land, is an irregular fort, badly built, and worſe deſigned, which gives name to the town it poorly defends. The French have ſince built a citadel upon Monte Garnicei, an eminence higher than the moſt elevated points of Monte Patate, Tartanſon, and Cartſuche,

which all command Fort Royal: this citadel has coſt upwards of three hundred and twenty-five thouſand pounds ſterling.

Fort Royal, as well as the reſt of the iſland, fell under the power of the Engliſh in the war of 1756; but they reſtored it at the peace. The harbour of Fort Royal, where the men of war anchor in winter, is one of the beſt of the Windward iſles, and its ſecurity againſt the hurricanes generally acknowledged: it is ſuppoſed that the inner part has been ſpoiled by ſinking the hulks of ſeveral ſhips as a fence againſt the Engliſh.

St. Pierre, or St. Peter's, is five leagues to the leeward of Fort Royal, in a round bay of the weſtern coaſt. This town, the firſt built in the iſland, is the place of communication between the colony and mother country; it is the reſidence of merchants, and the centre of buſineſs. Notwithſtanding the fires which have reduced it four times to aſhes, it ſtill contains upwards of one thouſand ſeven hundred houſes: a part, ſituated along the ſea-ſide on the ſtrand itſelf, is called Le Monillage (the anchoring-place) a very unhealthy place of abode; the other part, ſeparated from this by a river, is built upon a low hill; they call it the Fort, from a ſmall fortreſs which defends the road. This road is very convenient for the loading and unloading the ſhips, and the facility of coming in or going out; but they are obliged to take ſhelter at Fort Royal in the winter ſeaſon.

At preſent, the productions of this iſland amount to twenty-eight million weight of ſugar, three million weight of coffee, ſix hundred thouſand pounds of cotton, and forty thouſand pounds of cacao. Foreigners carry off privately about a twelfth part of the goods of the iſland; the reſt goes to the mother country. In 1766, the merchants of France fitted out for this exportation, one hundred and forty-three veſſels, of which one hundred and one landed at the town of St. Pierre, thirty-five at Fort Royal, five at La Trinita, and two at Cul de Saes, or the gulf of the iſland.

The iſland of Guadalupe is ſituated about thirty leagues north-weſt of Martinico, in ſixteen degrees north latitude. It is about forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth; and is cut in two by a channel called the Salt River; alſo by a deep gulf, or bay on each ſide. The air of Guadalupe is more ſalubrious and leſs ſultry than that of Martinico.

The products of this iſland are ſugar, coffee, cotton, baſtard cinnamon, indigo, ginger, and many other vegetables, particularly the capau-tree, from which is extracted a moſt excellent balſam; the milk ſhrub, ſo called from its yielding a ſubſtance like milk when preſſed, which falls little ſhort of the capau balſam: the moubane-tree, which bears a yellow plum, with which the natives fatten their hogs; and the corbary-tree, the gum of which, when hardened in the ſun, becomes ſo tranſparent, that it is formed into beads and bracelets by the Caribs.

Guadalupe abounds with mountains, many of which are covered with wood: and nothing can be more verdant, or more beautifully variegated, than the large fruitful plains which lie beneath them. One of the mountains is ſaid to emit a continual ſmoke, and to communicate a ſulphureous taſte to the neighbouring ſtreams. However, ſuch is the fertility of Guadalupe, that it hath been aſſerted, that if it was as well peopled and cultivated as Barbadoes, it would yield ſugar enough for all Europe. Before the war of 1756, when it was reduced by the Engliſh, we are told that one hundred thouſand hogſheads were exported yearly from it.

On this iſland is a very remarkable bird called the devil, which is found only here and at Dominica: it is a bird of paſſage, of the ſize of a pullet, and all its plumage coal black: it lives on fiſh, which it catches in the ſea at night, being unable to bear the light in the day-time, when flying; ſo that they often run againſt interpoſing objects, and fall down After their fiſh-hunting in the night, they repair to a mountain, called the Devil's mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes, like rabbets. Their fleſh, though of a fiſhy taſte, is good nouriſhing food.

They have a troubleſome inſect here called a ravet, ſhaped like a cock chafer, of a ſtinking ſmell, and preying upon books and furniture, and whatever they do not gnaw, is diſcoloured by their ordure, but great numbers of them are deſtroyed by a kind of ſpiders, ſome of which are as big as a man's fiſt. The bees of Guadalupe are very different from thoſe of Europe, being black, ſmaller, and without ſtings. Inſtead of making combs, they lay their honey in bladders of wax, about the form and ſize of a pigeon's egg. The honey is of a thicker conſiſtence than olive oil; and the only uſe made of their wax, which is of a dark purple colour, is to ſecure the corks of bottles.

About the iſland are ſeveral gulfs, called by the French Culs de Sacs, which abound with various kinds of fiſh, and alſo with turtle, ſharks, and land crabs.

Grand-terre is one of the two diviſions of this iſland; the other conſiſts of Capes-terre or Cabes-terre, and Baſſe-terre, which laſt is alſo the name of the capital, a large, well fortified town, ſituated on both ſides of Bailiff river.

The iſland of Tobago lies forty leagues ſouth by weſt from Barbadoes, about thirty-five ſouth-eaſt from St. Vincent, forty eaſt from Granada, and between thirty and forty from the Spaniſh main. It is thirty-two miles in length, about nine in breadth, and ſeventy in circumference; ſo that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or indeed any of our Leeward iſlands; a ſmall iſland, two miles in length and one in breadth, lies near the north-eaſt extremity.

With reſpect to the climate, Tobago is far more temperate than could be expected in an iſland that is but eleven degrees ten minutes north from the Equator, for the force of the ſun is diminiſhed by the ſea breezes. The ſpice and gum trees, with which it abounds, contribute to its ſalubrity. This iſland has another favourable circumſtance to recommend it; namely, its lying out of the track of the hurricanes. The north-weſt extremity is mountainous, but the reſt of the iſland agreeably diverſified with riſings and fallings. Here are many ſprings, together with commodious bays and creeks.

The ſoil, in general, is a rich black mould proper for producing, in the greateſt plenty, whatever is raiſed in other parts of the Weſt Indies. But the valuable trees which grow here are, perhaps, its greateſt riches; for, beſides the different kinds of wood that are found in the other Weſt India iſlands, it is ſaid that the true nutmeg and cinnamon trees, with that which produces the real gum-copal, are found on this iſland. The fig trees of Tobago are reckoned equal to thoſe in Spain and Portugal. India and Guiney corn, French beans, various kinds of peas, the cuſtom apple, that is both meat and drink, and yields an excellent lamp oil; the prickle apple, the banana, pomegranate, pine apple, ſweet and bitter orange, lemons, ſugar, tobacco, indigo, ginger, ſarſaparilla, ſempervivum, citrons, vanelloes, limes, guavas, plantains, tamarinds, grapes, cuſtard apple, the ſour apple, the papau apple, mammie apple, the yellow plumb, cherries, the cocoa tree that yields both meat, drink, and cloathing; muſk, cucumbers, water melons, pomkins, gourds, potatoes, yams, carrots, turneps, parſneps, onions, caſſada root, natural balſam, ſilk graſs, five different ſorts of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and the Jamaica. It is ſaid teas may be raiſed here by cultivation, though ſome conſider them as the ſpontaneous production of the iſland.

In different parts of this iſland are found green tar, ſoap-earth, with many curious ſhells, ſtones, marcaſites, and minerals. As for animals, here are wild hogs, pickerees, which reſemble a hog, armadilloes, guanoes, which are of the alligator kind, Indian conies and badgers, horſes, cows, aſſes, ſheep, deer, goats, and rabbets. No iſland in the world, we are told, can boaſt ſuch a variety of fiſhes, both ſhell and others, particularly mullets and turtle, of a moſt delicious taſte. Here is alſo a great variety of the feather'd ſpecies.

The expenſive and formidable armaments which have been ſent to this iſland by European powers, in ſupport of their different claims, denote the value and importance of it. It was heretofore chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by that in 1763 it was yielded up to Great Britain, who formed this iſland, St. Vincent, and Granada, into one government. Tobago was ceded by Great Britain to France by the late treaty of 1783.

The Daniſh Weſt Indian iſlands conſiſt of St. Thomas and St. Croix, or Santa Cruz.

The iſland of St. Thomas is ſituated to the eaſt of Porto Rico, and is the chief of thoſe called the Virgin Iſlands. It is about fifteen miles in circumference, and has a ſafe, ſtrong and commodious harbour, which, by being open to traders of all nations, enriches the inhabitants.

The ſoil is in general very ſandy, notwithſtanding which it produces moſt of the Weſt Indian commodities, but it is greatly infeſted with muſquetoes. The principal advantage of this iſland conſiſts in a very good harbour on the ſouth ſide, where fifty ſhips may lie in ſafety. It is defended by a fort, whoſe batteries at the ſame time protect the ſmall town built round the ſhore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant ſhips: when they are chaced in time of war, they find here a ſafe protection, and in time of peace a vent for their goods, by the clandeſtine trade which is continually carried on with the Spaniſh coaſts by the boats of St. Thomas.

The iſland of St. John is ſituated two leagues to the ſouth of St. Thomas, and is about the ſame ſize. This is the beſt watered among the Virgins, and its harbour has not only the reputation of being better than that of St. Thomas, but paſſes alſo for the beſt to the leeward of Antigua: the Engliſh give it the name of Crawl Bay. But notwithſtanding theſe advantages, there is ſo little good land in the iſland, that its planting and exportations are very inconſiderable.

The

The iſland of St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, is the moſt conſiderable Weſt India iſland belonging to Denmark. It is ſituated out of the groupe of the Virgins, five leagues to the ſouth of St. John's, being about thirty miles in length, and ten in breadth. It is tolerably fertile, producing moſt of the neceſſaries of life, together with oranges, citrons, granates, lemons, the manioc root, and the papau tree, the fruit of which makes a moſt excellent ſweet-meat. Here are alſo a variety of dyeing woods, and thoſe uſed for building houſes and ſhips.

Moſt of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz conſiſt of Engliſh, from the iſland of Nevis and Antigua, of Iriſh papiſts, a ſmall number of Danes, and German Moravians.

SECT. VI.

Containing a Deſcription of the AMERICAN ISLANDS, viz. Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John, the Bermudas, the Bahamas, Falkland Iſles, Juan Fernandez, Fuera or Maſa Fuero, and Chiloe; their Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Animals, Inhabitants, Commodities, Trade, &c.

NEWFOUNDLAND is of a triangular form, about three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad, is ſituated between forty-ſix degrees forty minutes, and forty-two degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and between forty-one degrees fifty-two minutes, and fifty-ſeven degrees forty minutes weſt longitude, and has many excellent harbours and bays all round the coaſt, being bounded to the eaſtward and ſouthward by the Atlantic ocean, on the north by the ſtraights of Belleiſle, which divide it from New Britain, and on the weſt by the gulf of St. Lawrence. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, occaſioned by the vapours exhaled from the lakes and ſwamps with which the iſland abounds, yet the air is ſalubrious, and agreeable to moſt conſtitutions. The winters are ſevere, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt.

The ſoil is generally ſuppoſed to be barren, except only the banks of the rivers, which are tolerably fertile. There are however woods of different kinds throughout almoſt all the country for ſeveral miles from the coaſt, which contain abundance of timber fit for ſhip and boat building, as well as for erecting ſtages for curing and drying fiſh; and beyond theſe woods, where the lands are cleared, are in many places good paſturage. The inland parts of the country riſe into high hills, and ſink into bogs and ſwamps; where ſuch parts as are not covered with water, afford only ſhrubs, ſpruce, and white moſs. This iſland however contains many fine rivers, lakes and rivulets, which abound with beavers, otters, and the like, and afford great plenty of ſalmon, and other fiſh. The foreſts are ſtored with deer, mooſe, bears, wolves, and foxes in great plenty; but here are few cattle, ſheep, or horſes; inſtead of the latter, the inhabitants make uſe of dogs for drawing of wood and other neceſſaries. Theſe they manage with great dexterity, fixing them in leather collars, and yoking together what number they pleaſe. Here are great plenty of wild fowl, but the ſtaple commodity of the iſland is cod fiſh, which are larger and in greater abundance than in any other part of the world yet diſcovered; and a conſiderable part of Europe is chiefly ſupplied with this article. From hence upwards of three thouſand ſail are annually employed by Great-Britain and America in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore, to cure and pack the fiſh, are not leſs than ten thouſand hands; ſo that it is at the ſame time not only a very profitable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy, which is hence ſupplied with a great number of able ſeamen: it might ſtill be much enlarged; for notwithſtanding the great trade carried on by the Engliſh here, the French are ſaid to have a conſiderable ſhare.

There are alſo taken on theſe coaſts a great number of whales, ſeals, porpoiſes, &c. whence above five thouſand barrels of oil, beſides a great quantity of whale-bone, ſeal-ſkins, &c. are annually exported from hence to different parts of the world; all which ſufficiently ſhew the importance of the iſland, notwithſtanding the roughneſs and barrenneſs of the ſoil, and ſeverity of the climate.

The number of Engliſh inhabitants on the iſland is uncertain and fluctuating. They are indeed very inconſiderable, if compared with its extent; but there are not half the number in winter that there are in ſummer. Placentia, the capital of the iſland, which is ſeated on the ſouthern point, contains no more than between three and fourſcore houſes.

The veſſels employed in the fiſhery are ſmall ſhallops, which come to ſhore every day, where the fiſhermen throw the cod they have taken upon a ſtage prepared for that purpoſe. One of them, who is called the cut-throat, opens the fiſh with a two-edged knife, and cuts off his head; a ſecond hands the fiſh to the carver, who ſtands oppoſite to him at a table erected upon the ſtage, who with a ſingle-edged knife, ſix or eight inches long, and very thick on the back, to increaſe its weight, ſplits the fiſh open, when it is conveyed to the ſalter, who places it with the ſkin undermoſt in a barrel, and then very ſlightly covers it with ſalt, laying the fiſh regularly one upon another. After leaving the cod in ſalt three or four days, and ſometimes twice as long, according to the ſeaſon, they put it into a tub, waſh it well, make it up in piles, and, in fair weather, ſpread it out with the ſkin undermoſt on a kind of ſtage raiſed with wattles about two feet from the ground; before night they turn the ſkin uppermoſt, which they alſo do whenever it rains.

When the fiſh becomes a little dry, it is raiſed into larger piles, where it reſts a day or two; after which it is again expoſed to the air, and turned according as there is occaſion, before they again raiſe it into larger piles, where, after this is done, it ſometimes remains fifteen days without being moved; after which it is once more expoſed to the air, and, when almoſt dry, gathered together again in order to ſweat, which takes up twenty-four hours or more, according to the ſeaſon: it is then opened and expoſed to the air for the laſt time, and, when thoroughly dried, houſed. Fiſh cured in this manner are not only more fair to the eye, but more grateful to the taſte, than thoſe which are perfectly prepared for the ſea; and thoſe fiſh are generally the beſt which are cured in the ſpring before the great heats.

The principal towns are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John. The Indians of this iſland are ſaid to be a gentle, mild, tractable people, eaſily gained by civility and good uſage. They paint their bodies, and are clad in ſkins and furs in winter.

The iſland of Cape Breton is ſituated between forty-five and fifty-ſeven degrees north latitude, and between ſixty-one and ſixty-two degrees weſt longitude, being one hundred miles long, and eighty broad. It is ſituated about twenty leagues ſouth-weſt from Newfoundland, and is ſeparated by the ſtraight of Canſo from Nova Scotia. The north coaſt is high, and almoſt inacceſſible; but the ſouth coaſt contains ſeveral excellent harbours, particularly that of Louiſbourg, which is very ſpacious and commodious.

In this iſland, the climate is much the ſame with that of Quebec, only more ſubject to fogs; the air, however, ſeems to be pretty wholeſome. Here are many lakes and rivers, and great quantities of coal and lime-ſtone; and though there are many barren ſpots in it, apples, pulſe, wheat and other corn, flax and hemp, are or may be raiſed in it. The moſt common of the timber-trees are oaks of a prodigious bigneſs, pine fit for maſts, aſh, maple, plane, and aſpin trees. The coal is procured here, without digging deep, or draining the waters.

Here are great numbers of horſes, oxen, hogs, ſheep, goats, and poultry, but game is ſcarce. The partridges are almoſt as big as pheaſants, and not unlike them in the colour of their feathers. On the coaſt are many whales, ſea-wolves, porpoiſes, and ſeals, beſides great quantities of cod and other fiſh.

The Engliſh took this iſland from the French, in 1745; but reſtored it by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. They again took it in the beginning of the war of 1756; Louiſbourg, its fortreſs, with the iſland of St. John, and its other appurtenances, having been ſurrendered by capitulation on July 26, 1758. All the fortification of the town have been ſince demoliſhed, in order to avoid expence, and prevent the French from again ſettling there.

The iſland of St. John lies very near to Cape Breton: it is ſixty miles long, thirty broad, and the produce is nearly the ſame as that of Cape Breton, but the ſoil is much better. The laſt is now a ſeparate government, in which Charlotte town hath been lately built.

The cluſter of iſlands called the Bermudas are about four hundred in number, but moſt of them are ſmall, barren, and uninhabited. They are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in thirty-two degrees twenty minutes north latitude. They obtained their name, Bermuda, from John Bermudez, a Spaniard, who firſt diſcovered them; but they took that of Summer iſlands from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked here in 1709. They have a pretty clear and temperate air, with plenty of fleſh, fiſh, poultry, fruits, herbs, roots, &c.

Theſe iſlands belong to England, and have a governor. Cedars grow here; ambergris is found on the ſhores; and whales and turtles are caught on the coaſt. Here is a breed of black hogs which are much valued; white chalk-ſtones and tobacco are exported; oranges, and palmettoes abound, and here is plenty of many other things; but the inhabitants have no water but what drops from the clouds.

The chief iſland is that of St. George; which name it takes from George town; and is a pleaſant place ſixteen miles long, and three broad. Sir Edmund Waller, beſides his fine of ten thouſand pounds, being baniſhed, choſe his retreat hither, where he continued till Oliver Cromwell prevailed over the long parliament.

The

The Bahamas are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, to the north of the iſland of Cuba, and not far from the coaſt of Florida, ſtretching from the north-weſt to the ſouth-weſt, between twenty-one and twenty-ſeven degrees of ſouth latitude. They are very numerous, and twelve of them pretty large; and belong to Great Britain.

The largeſt, called Bahama, is about fifty miles in length, though very narrow, and gives name to the reſt; it lies twenty-five leagues from the continent of Florida, is every where well watered with ſprings and rivulets, and enjoys a ſerene temperate air, with a fruitful ſoil.

Theſe iſlands were the firſt places diſcovered by Columbus in America, yet the Spaniards never thought of ſettling in them. The Engliſh knew nothing of them till 1667, when captain William Sayle, being bound to Carolina, was forced among them by a ſtorm, which gave him an opportunity of examining them careſully, particularly that which is at preſent known by the name of Providence. At his return, he repreſented the benefit they might be of to the ſtate; whereupon grants of them we made out to proprietors; but the government was reſerved in the hands of the crown. None of them, however, are yet ſettled, except Providence, Lucays, and Harbour iſland; which ſeems ſurpriſing, as ſome of them would certainly prove of the greateſt advantage to Great Britain, if properly cultivated. They are ſuppoſed to amount, altogether, to about five hundred. The ſtraights of Bahama, which the Britiſh fleets ſo happily cleared in their laſt ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Havannah, are, by reaſon of the dangers and difficulties that attend the paſſing of them, well known to navigators.

The Bahama iſlands lie near to Hiſpaniola, and to the noted part of the Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, where the Spaniſh galleons and flota always rendezvous before they return to Europe, having the gulf of Florida to the weſt, and the windward paſſage to the eaſt of them. In time of peace, they are capable of great improvement with reſpect to trade; and have always been a good retreat for diſabled ſhips, blown from different parts of the continent of America. In times of war, the Britiſh cruiſers and privateers, ſtationed at theſe iſlands, are more able to obſtruct and annoy the Spaniſh trade homeward-bound, than any that are ſtationed at the reſt of the Britiſh colonies in America. Accordingly, New Providence, which is a very thriving colony, was of great benefit to the Britiſh trade in the late war. Naſſau is the chief town of the iſland.

Falkland's iſlands were firſt diſcovered in 1594, by Sir Richard Hawkins, who named the principal of them Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent name Falkland was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and afterwards adopted by Halley.

The late lord Egmont, firſt lord of the Admiralty in 1764, then revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South ſeas; and commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland's Iſlands, in the name of his Britannic Majeſty; and in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by captain M'Bride, who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman, as the outcaſts of nature: "We found (ſays he) a map of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without any communication with it." The herbs and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people; and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered. In the ſummer-months, wild celery and ſorrel are the natural luxuries of theſe iſlands. Goats, ſheep, and hogs that were carried hither, were found to increaſe and thrive as in other places. Geeſe of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, penguins, foxes, and ſea lions, are alſo found here, and plenty of good water.

Though the ſoil be barren, and the ſea tempeſtuous, an Engliſh ſettlement was made here, of which we were diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards in 1770. That violence was, however, diſavowed by the Spaniſh ambaſſador, and ſome conceſſions were made to the court of Great Britain; but in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain, the ſettlement was afterwards abandoned.

The iſlands of Juan Fernandez and Fuera or Maſa Fuero are diſtant from each other about thirty-one leagues: they were firſt diſcovered in 1575 by Juan Fernandez a Spaniard, from whom they take their name. The Spaniards diſtinguiſh them by the greater and leſs Juan Fernandez, but the ſmaller iſland is more generally known by the name of Maſa-Fuero.

The greater Juan Fernandez lies to the eaſtward, in latitude thirty-three degrees forty minutes ſouth, and ſeventy-eight degrees thirty minutes weſt longitude from London. It is uninhabited, but has good harbours, and was formerly a place of great reſort for the buccaneers who annoyed the weſtern coaſt of the Spaniſh continent. It is alſo found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruizers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brazil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. The ingenious author, Daniel Defoe, derived many hints for writing his hiſtory from the papers of one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, till he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed five hundred goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught thirty years after, by lord Anſon's people. But the Spaniards, in order to deprive the Engliſh of the nouriſhment they formerly procured from the multitude of goats here, have tranſported thither a conſiderable number of dogs, which have almoſt exterminated the ſpecies.

This iſland is not quite fifteen miles long, and about ſix broad; its only ſafe harbour is on the north ſide. It is ſaid to have plenty of excellent water, and to abound with a great variety of eſculent vegetables highly antiſcorbutic; beſides which, commodore Anſon ſowed a variety of garden ſeeds, and planted the ſtones of plums, apricots, and peaches, which he was many years afterwards informed had thriven greatly, and now doubtleſs furniſh a very valuable addition to the natural productions of this ſpot. There are but few birds here, and thoſe few are of a ſpecies well known and common; but vaſt ſhoals of fiſh of various kinds frequent the coaſt, particularly cod of a prodigious ſize, and it is ſaid in not leſs abundance than on the banks of Newfoundland.

The iſland of Fuera, or Maſa Fuero, lies in thirty-three degrees forty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and eighty degrees forty-ſix minutes weſt longitude from Greenwich. It is of a triangular form, and ſeven or eight leagues in circumference; is very high and mountainous, and at a diſtance appears as one hill or rock.

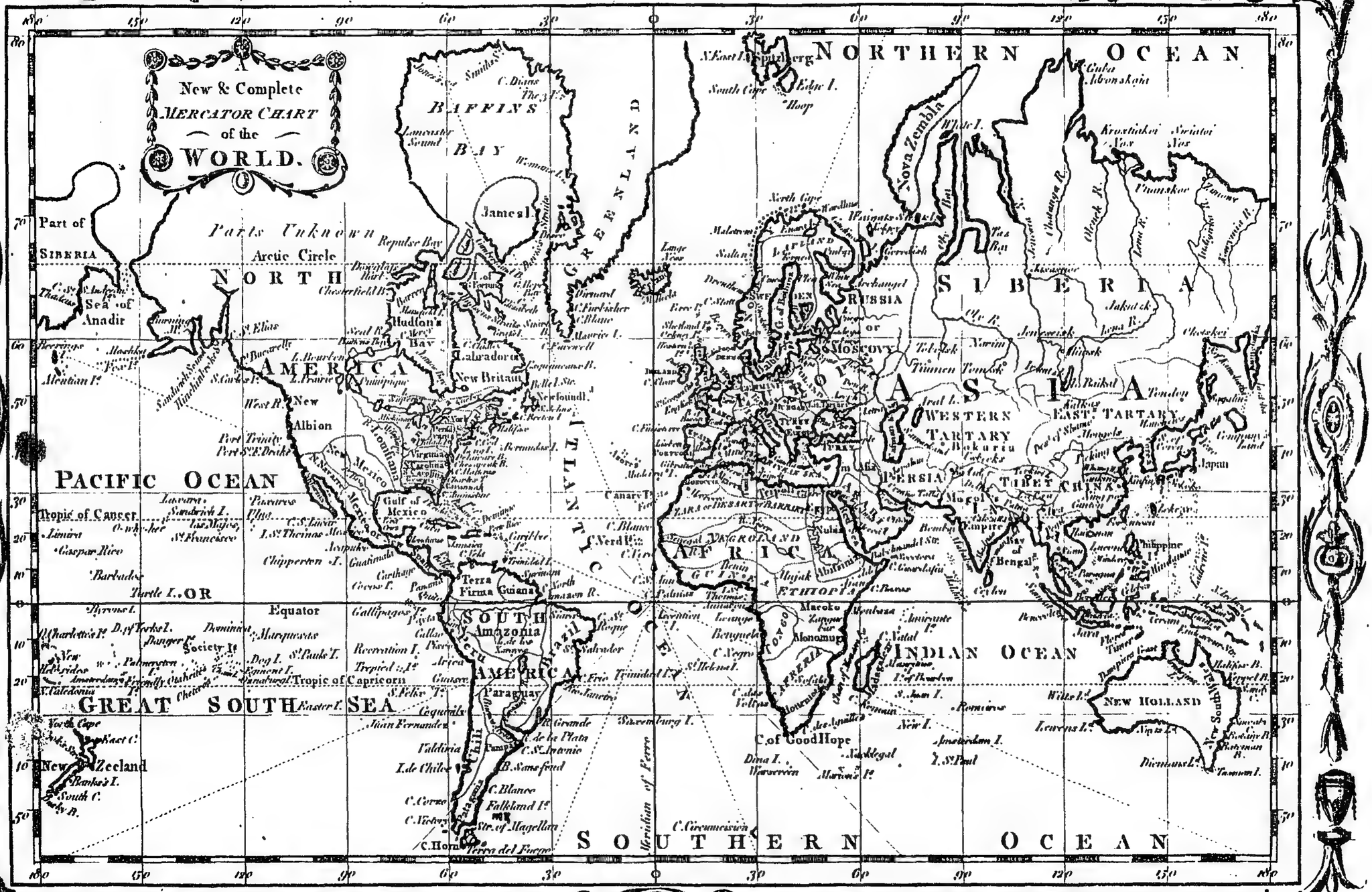
In this iſland there are ſuch plenty of fiſh, that a boat, with a few hooks and lines, may catch as much as will ſerve one hundred people. Here are coal-fiſh, cavilliers, cod, hallibut, and cray-fiſh. Captain Carteret's crew caught a king's fiſher that weighed eighty-ſeven pounds, and was five feet and a half long. The ſharks here were ſo ravenous, that in taking ſoundings one of them ſwallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water, but he regained his liberty by diſcharging his prey. Seals are ſo numerous here, that if many thouſands of them were killed in a night, they would not be miſſed the next morning. Theſe animals yield excellent train oil; and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taſte ſomewhat like thoſe of a hog: their ſkins are covered with very fine fur. Here are many birds, and ſome very large hawks. The crew of the Swallow caught in one night ſeven hundred of the pintado bird.

The iſland of Chilo, on the coaſt of Chili, in the diſtrict of Imperial, lies in ſouth latitude forty-four, or from forty-two to forty-four, being about one hundred and fifty miles long, and twenty-one broad. The ſouth part of it is divided from the continent by a narrow ſea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coaſt is ſubject to tempeſtuous weather, eſpecially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this iſland, called Chacao, always ill provided with warlike trees. Excepting wine, this iſland produces all neceſſary refreſhments and proviſions; and much ambergris is found here. Caſtro is the principal town. About this iſland are forty more, all taking name from it. Ovalle tells us theſe iſlands are reputed barren; but their ſoil is not really ſo, only the exceſſive rains choak the ſeed, and prevent the growth of corn; ſo that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much ſun. The nature of the climate of this cluſter of iſlands is ſuch, that it rains almoſt all the year; ſo that only maiz, or other ſuch grains, can ripen, that want not ſo much ſun. The diet of the natives is moſtly of a root called papahs, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are cloathing for the Indians, who have a kind of veſt which they call macun, without ſleeves; over which they wear a garment called choni, that ſerves for a cloak, and is like that which painters give to the apoſtles in their pictures. They raiſe another manufacture from their woods, particularly planks of cedar, of which they have vaſt woods of prodigious large trees, ſo as hardly to be incompaſſed by a rope of ſix yards long.

FINIS.

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A New & Complete MERCATOR CHART of the WORLD.



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